Distilled Semantics for Comprehensive Scene Understanding from Videos – Supplementary material

 Fabio Tosi*
 Filippo Aleotti*
 Pierluigi Zama Ramirez*

 Matteo Poggi
 Samuele Salti
 Luigi Di Stefano
 Stefano Mattoccia

 Department of Computer Science and Engineering (DISI)
 University of Bologna, Italy

*{fabio.tosi5, filippo.aleotti2, pierluigi.zama}@unibo.it

Supplementary material

This document provides additional material concerning CVPR 2020 paper, "Distilled Semantics for Comprehensive Scene Understanding from Videos". In particular, we report here a more detailed description of our Ω Net architecture and the losses used to train it, alongside with more insights related to performance in the addressed tasks (depth, pose, optical flow, semantic and motion segmentation) and runtime. Moreover, we include additional qualitative results on KITTI (K) and CityScapes (CS), as well as on an arbitrary YouTube video for which the camera parameters are not known in advance, thus showing how Ω Net can provide comprehensive scene understanding in the wild.

1. Network Architecture

In this section, we provide a more detailed description of our Ω Net architecture.

Table 1 reports a detailed specification of the layers building up the DSNet and CamNet modules. For each layer, we report kernel size (K), stride (S) and number of input/output channels. As for OFNet and the proxy semantic network, a thorough description can be found in [17] and [6] respectively.

2. Losses

To train the DSNet module, we rely on a multi-task loss function based mainly on two terms. In particular, a depth term is in charge of minimize the discrepancy between the target image I_t and an image I_s , warped as \tilde{I}_t^s , from a monocular sequence while a semantic term is used to learn semantic labels from proxy label distilled by a pre-trained network.

Depth term. According to the self-supervised training paradigm proposed in [13], we adopt a photometric loss function consisting in a weighted combination between the Structural Dissimilarity Measure (DSSIM) and the standard \mathcal{L}_1 loss. In addition, a per-pixel minimum strategy [14] is used to solve occlusion/disocclusion by simply picking the minimum error between each pair I_t and I_s instead of averaging them. Thus, the photometric loss function is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{ap}^{D} = \sum_{p} \min_{s} (\alpha \mathcal{L}_{DSSIM}(p) + (1 - \alpha) || I_t(p) - \widetilde{I}_t^s(p) ||_1)$$
(1)

where p denotes pixel coordinates, \tilde{I}_t^s a source image I_s warped according to estimated depth and pose and the DSSIM loss function is computed as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{DSSIM}(p) = \frac{1 - SSIM(I_t(p), I_t^s(p))}{2}$$
(2)

In our experiments, we set $\alpha = 0.85$.

^{*}Joint first authorship.

Layer	K	S	In/Out	Input					
			Deep feature extra	ctor (DSE)					
conv1a	3	2	3/16	input					
conv1b	3	1	16/16	conv1a					
conv2a	3	2	16/32	conv1b					
conv2b	3	1	32/32	conv2a					
conv3a	3	2	32/64	conv2b					
conv3b	3	1	64/64	conv3a					
conv4a	3	2	64/128	conv3b					
conv4b	3	1	128/128	conv4a					
conv5a	3	2	128/256	conv4b					
conv5b	3	1	256/256	conv5a					
			Estimator	(E)					
conv1	3	1	i_channels/64	input					
conv2	3	1	64/48	conv1					
conv3	3	1	48/32	conv2					
conv4	3	1	32/16	conv3					
			Context (C)					
disp1	3	1	i_channels/64	input					
disp2	3	1	64/32	disp1					
disp3	3	1	32/16	disp2					
disp	3	1	16/1	disp2					
			Disparity and Sema	antic Tower					
conv5	3	1	i_channels/16	E(conv5b)					
disp5	3	1	i_channels//1	C(conv5)					
conv4	3	1	i_channels/16	E(conv4b, disp5 ↑)					
disp4	3	1	i_channels//1	$C(conv4, conv5 \uparrow) + disp5 \uparrow$					
conv3	3	1	i_channels/16	E (conv3b, disp4 \uparrow)					
disp3	3	1	i_channels//1	$C(\text{conv3}, \text{conv4}\uparrow) + \text{disp4}\uparrow$					
conv2	3	1	i_channels/16	E (conv2b, disp3 \uparrow)					
disp2	3	1	i_channels//1	$C(conv2, conv3\uparrow) + disp3\uparrow$					
conv1	3	1	i_channels/16	E (conv1b, disp2 \uparrow)					
disp1	3	1	i_channels//1	$C(conv1, conv2\uparrow) + disp2\uparrow$					
sem	3	1	i_channels//1	$C(conv1, conv2\uparrow) + disp2\uparrow$					

Layer	K	S	In/Out	Input					
	Dee	ep fe	ature extractor (DFE)					
conv1a	3	2	3/16	input					
conv1b	3	1	16/16	conv1a					
conv2a	3	2	16/32	conv1b					
conv2b	3	1	32/32	conv2a					
conv3a	3	2	32/64	conv2b					
conv3b	3	1	64/64	conv3a					
conv4a	3	2	64/128	conv3b					
conv4b	3	1	128/128	conv4a					
]	Pose Estimator						
conv1a	3	1	i_channels/128	DFE_t, DFE_s					
conv1b	3	2	128/128	conv1a					
conv2a	3	1	128/256	conv1b					
conv2b	3	2	256/256	conv2a					
pose	1	1	256/6*N	conv2b					
Intrinsic Estimator									
focals	1	1	i_channels/2	conv2b					
offsets	1	1	i_channels/2	conv2b					

Table 1. Detailed structure of the DSNet (left) and CamNet (right) modules in Ω Net. The symbol "," means concatenation, while \uparrow indicates upsampling.

A smoothness term is also used to penalize large disparity differences between adjacent pixels when the former do not co-occur with strong RGB gradients:

$$\mathcal{L}_{smooth} = \sum_{p} |\nabla D_t(p)| \cdot \left(e^{-|\nabla I_t(p)|}\right)^T \tag{3}$$

Finally, we mask-out pixels whose appearance do not change between consecutive frames, which includes scenes with no relative motion. This has the effect of letting the network ignore pixels which move at the same velocity as the camera, and even to ignore whole frames when the camera stop moving. According to [14], this is accomplished by removing those pixels which have an unwarped photometric loss smaller than the corresponding warped photometric loss, *i.e.*

$$\mu = \min \mathcal{L}_{ap}^{D}(I_t, I_s) > \mathcal{L}_{ap}^{D}(I_t, I_t^s)$$
(4)

Semantic term. The standard cross-entropy loss between the predicted and proxy pixel-wise semantic labels is used as semantic term:

$$\mathcal{L}_{sem} = -(S_t \log(S_P) + (1 - S_t) \log(1 - S_P))$$
(5)

where S_t is the semantics predicted by DSNet and S_P the ground-truth proxy label. Moreover, as proposed in [24] we employ a cross-task loss to tighten the link between the learning tasks dealing with depth and semantics:

$$\mathcal{L}_{cdd} = \sum_{p} sgn(|\nabla S_t(p)|) \cdot \left(e^{-|\nabla D_t(p)|}\right)^T \tag{6}$$

Hence, the total loss used to train DSNet is a weighted combination of the above losses:

$$\mathcal{L} = \lambda_1 \mathcal{L}_{ap}^D + \lambda_2 \mathcal{L}_{smooth} + \lambda_3 \mathcal{L}_{sem} + \lambda_4 \mathcal{L}_{cdd}$$
(7)

where $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ and λ_4 are hyper-parameters. In our experiments, we set $\lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 0.1, \lambda_3 = 1$ and $\lambda_4 = 0.1$.

As described in the paper, for the Optical Flow we rely on a peculiar training schedule based on two components in Ω Net, which are referred as OFNet and SD-OFNet.

Optical Flow term. We train a the first instance of the optical flow network (OFNet) using the same photometric loss as for DSNet:

$$\mathcal{L}_{ap}^{OF} = \sum_{p} \alpha \mathcal{L}_{DSSIM} + (1 - \alpha) ||I_t - \widetilde{I}_t^{\tilde{s}}||_1 \tag{8}$$

In this case, however, \tilde{I}_t^s is warped according to estimated flow. Akin to DSNet, we set $\alpha = 0.85$.

Self-Distilled Optical Flow term. The self-distilled optical flow network (SD-OFNet), instead, is trained in a quite different manner. In fact, given the optical flow $F_{t\to s}$ predicted by OFNet, the rigid flow $F_{t\to s}^{rigid}$ and the mask M, we leverage on the optical flow in the regions where $F_{t\to s}$ and $F_{t\to s}^{rigid}$ are similar as well as on moving objects, while we rely on the rigid flow for the remaining areas (*e.g.*, occlusions due to camera motion). We can distinguish the former regions from the latter ones looking at M. Moreover, we also apply a photometric term ϕ on the predicted optical flow $SF_{t\to s}$. The final loss \mathcal{L} to train SD-OFNet is given by:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum \alpha_r \phi(SF_{t \to s}, F_{t \to s}^{rigid}) \cdot (1 - M) + \alpha_d \phi(SF_{t \to s}, F_{t \to s}) \cdot M + \psi(I_t, \widetilde{I}_t^{SF}) \cdot M$$
(9)

During training, $F_{t\to s}$, $F_{t\to s}^{rigid}$, M and the input images of SD-OFNet are randomly cropped to 416×128 before computing \mathcal{L} : in doing so, the errors at occluded areas in $F_{t\to s}$ due to camera motions, clearly visible in Figure 5, are less to appear and impact the training process. Finally, to ameliorate the photometric loss term, the image \tilde{I}^{SF} is obtained by padding the $SF_{t\to s}$ at first, which is predicted at 416×128 , to original resolution (e.g., 640×192), then using this flow to warp the full resolution I_s at I_t coordinates and finally extracting from this image the same crop as used before. This simple strategy allows to leverage on a complete image, since otherwise the cropped image would suffer from motion occlusions near boundaries. Moreover, we highlight that SD-OFNet is initialized to the OFNet weights, *i.e.* those found during the above described OFNet training based on the standard photometric loss, and then, when training SD-OFNet, only its weights are updated, *i.e.* OFNet is kept frozen.

3. Monocular Depth Estimation

In this section, we provide more insights on Ω Net performance concerning depth estimation, in particular by reporting comparison with state-of-the-art methods trained with *stronger* supervision, a more detailed analysis about the errors computed at different depth ranges and a reproducibility study about DSNet.

3.1. Comparison with more methods on the KITTI Eigen split

In this section, we report additional comparisons on the Eigen's KITTI test split [11]. In particular, we compare Ω Net to state-of-the-art frameworks trained with stronger forms of supervision, *i.e.* stereo pairs, stereo videos or proxy labels. Differently from these approaches, we do not apply any post-processing step to further improve predictions. As highlighted in Table 3, we can notice how our method is comparable and, in most cases performs better, wrt other self-supervised depth-from-mono architectures trained on stereo pairs/stereo videos. Moreover, we point out that we outperform frameworks running online adaptation on the testing set [3, 7] on most metrics. Only semi-supervised methods at the bottom of the table [32, 27, 30] are in general more effective, because of the much stronger supervision from traditional stereo algorithms deployed during training.

3.2. Error at different depth ranges

In Table 3, we report more data supporting the claim that DSNet produces more accurate depth estimates at long distances with respect to other strategies such as [14] or even replacing our architecture with a much more complex one [34] based on a ResNet-50 backbone. We deeply looked into this and ascribe this finding to more complex models producing *oversmoothed* depth maps. In particular, in our experiments, we noticed that our shallow network tends to produce much sharper estimates compared to models having many more parameters. *Over-smoothing* produces better qualitative predictions and higher accuracy at short ranges, but it degrades depth accuracy at long distances, as we can observe in the table.

									Lower is better				Higher is better		
Method	M	S	V	Р	А	Ι	CS	Abs Rel	Sq Rel	RMSE	RMSE log	$\delta < 1.25$	$\delta < 1.25^2$	$\delta < 1.25^3$	
Zhou <i>et al.</i> [37]			\checkmark				\checkmark	0.198	1.836	6.565	0.275	0.718	0.901	0.960	
Godard et al. [14]			\checkmark			\checkmark		0.115	0.903	4.863	0.193	0.877	0.959	0.981	
Godard et al. [14]			\checkmark					0.132	1.044	5.142	0.210	0.845	0.948	0.977	
Godard <i>et al.</i> [14] (1024×320)			\checkmark			\checkmark		0.115	0.882	4.701	0.190	0.879	0.961	0.982	
Zhou <i>et al</i> . [36]			\checkmark			\checkmark		0.121	0.837	4.945	0.197	0.853	0.955	0.982	
Mahjourian et al. [19]			\checkmark				\checkmark	0.159	1.231	5.912	0.243	0.784	0.923	0.970	
Yang <i>et al.</i> [33]			\checkmark				\checkmark	0.159	1.345	6.254	0.247	-	-	-	
Wang <i>et al.</i> [28]			\checkmark				\checkmark	0.151	1.257	5.583	0.228	0.810	0.936	0.974	
Bian <i>et al.</i> [2]			\checkmark					0.128	1.047	5.234	0.208	0.846	0.947	0.970	
Yin <i>et al.</i> [34]	\checkmark		\checkmark				\checkmark	0.153	1.328	5.737	0.232	0.802	0.934	0.972	
Zou <i>et al.</i> [38]	\checkmark		\checkmark				\checkmark	0.146	1.182	5.215	0.213	0.818	0.943	0.978	
Chen et al. [7]	\checkmark		\checkmark					0.135	1.070	5.230	0.210	0.841	0.948	0.980	
Luo <i>et al</i> . [18]	\checkmark		\checkmark					0.141	1.029	5.350	0.216	0.816	0.941	0.976	
Ranjan <i>et al.</i> [1]	\checkmark		\checkmark				\checkmark	0.139	1.032	5.199	0.213	0.827	0.943	0.977	
Xu et al. [31]			\checkmark		\checkmark			0.138	1.016	5.352	0.217	0.823	0.943	0.976	
Casser et al. [3]			\checkmark		\checkmark			0.141	1.026	5.290	0.215	0.816	0.945	0.979	
Gordon <i>et al</i> . [15]	\checkmark		\checkmark		\checkmark			0.128	0.959	5.230	-	-	-	-	
Ω Net(416 × 128)			\checkmark		\checkmark			0.134	0.893	5.137	0.208	0.829	0.946	0.979	
Ω Net(640 × 192)			\checkmark		\checkmark			0.126	0.835	4.937	0.199	0.844	0.953	0.982	
Ω Net(1024 × 320)			\checkmark		\checkmark			0.125	0.805	4.795	0.195	0.849	0.955	0.983	
Ω Net(416 × 128)			\checkmark		\checkmark		\checkmark	0.126	0.862	4.963	0.199	0.846	0.952	0.981	
Ω Net(640 × 192)			\checkmark		\checkmark		\checkmark	0.120	0.792	4.750	0.191	0.856	0.958	0.984	
Ω Net(1024 × 320)			\checkmark		\checkmark		\checkmark	0.118	0.748	4.608	0.186	0.865	0.961	0.985	
Ω Net(768 × 384) †			\checkmark		\checkmark		\checkmark	0.184	1.565	6.456	0.243	0.742	0.920	0.974	
Casser et al. [3] (+ Online Ref.)			\checkmark		\checkmark			0.109	0.825	4.750	0.187	0.874	0.958	0.983	
Chen et al. [7] (+ Online Ref.)			\checkmark					0.099	0.796	4.743	0.186	0.884	0.955	0.979	
Poggi et al. [22]		\checkmark					\checkmark	0.146	1.291	5.907	0.245	0.801	0.926	0.967	
Poggi <i>et al.</i> [23]		\checkmark					\checkmark	0.111	0.849	4.822	0.202	0.865	0.952	0.978	
Pillai et al. [21]		\checkmark						0.112	0.875	4.958	0.207	0.852	0.947	0.977	
Godard et al. [14]		\checkmark	\checkmark			\checkmark		0.106	0.806	4.630	0.193	0.876	0.958	0.980	
Godard et al. [13]		\checkmark					\checkmark	0.114	0.898	4.935	0.206	0.861	0.949	0.976	
Zhang <i>et al</i> . [35]		\checkmark	\checkmark					0.135	1.132	5.585	0.229	0.820	0.933	0.971	
Luo <i>et al.</i> [18]	\checkmark	\checkmark						0.127	0.936	5.008	0.209	0.841	0.946	0.979	
Yang <i>et al.</i> [32]		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark				0.097	0.734	4.442	0.187	0.888	0.958	0.980	
Watson et al. [30]		\checkmark		\checkmark		\checkmark		0.096	0.710	4.393	0.185	0.890	0.962	0.981	
Tosi <i>et al.</i> [27]		\checkmark		\checkmark			\checkmark	0.096	0.673	4.351	0.184	0.890	0.961	0.981	

Table 2. Quantitative evaluation on the Eigen test set of the KITTI dataset [12] for self-supervised monocular depth estimation methodologies. S: stereo pairs, V: video sequence, P: depth proxy labels, A: additional information, I: feature extractors pre-trained on ImageNet [9] or CS: Cityscapes [8]. †Trained on CS and tested on KITTI without any fine-tuning.

Method	Cap (m)	Abs Rel	Sq Rel	RMSE	RMSE log
Godard et al. [14]	0-8	0.059	0.062	0.503	0.082
Ours†	0-8	0.060	0.063	0.502	0.082
Ours	0-8	0.062	0.065	0.517	0.085
Godard et al. [14]	0-15	0.083	0.173	1.178	0.125
Ours †	0-15	0.083	0.168	1.148	0.122
Ours	0-15	0.084	0.169	1.156	0.124
Godard et al. [14]	0-30	0.111	0.470	2.561	0.172
Ours†	0-30	0.111	0.442	2.513	0.169
Ours	0-30	0.111	0.425	2.463	0.169
Godard et al. [14]	0-50	0.125	0.788	3.946	0.198
Ours†	0-50	0.127	0.762	4.020	0.199
Ours	0-50	0.124	0.702	3.836	0.195
Godard et al. [14]	0-80	0.132	1.044	5.142	0.210
Ours†	0-80	0.134	1.074	5.451	0.213
Ours	0-80	0.126	0.835	4.937	0.199

Table 3. Depth errors at different depth ranges. †indicates that our depth network has been replaced with the heavy-weight [34] backbone based on the ResNet50 architecture.

3.3. Reproducibility

We perform three independent training of our architecture to assess upon its reproducibility. Table 4 shows how our architecture produces the same results with negligible variance due to the randomness factors in training, *i.e.* initialization, data shuffle and augmentation.

			Lowe	er is better	Highe	r is better	
Resolution	Abs Rel	Sq Rel	RMSE	RMSE log	$\delta < 1.25$	$\delta < 1.25^2$	$\delta < 1.25^3$
640×192	0.120	0.792	4.750	0.191	0.856	0.958	0.984
640×192	0.122	0.799	4.749	0.191	0.856	0.958	0.984
640×192	0.121	0.795	4.755	0.192	0.855	0.957	0.983

Table 4. Three independent runs of our Ω Net(DSNet) result in slightly different models on the KITTI Eigen split.

4. Semantic Segmentation

In this section we report more detailed semantic segmentation results. Purposely, we use the following metrics:

- 1. IoU: Intersection over Union for pixel-wise segmentation calculated for each class or category, as defined in [8].
- 2. **mIoU**_{class}: mean IoU for the the 19 training classes used in CityScapes [8]: road, sidewalk, building, wall, fence, pole, traffic light, traffic sign, vegetation, terrain, sky, person, rider, car, truck, bus, train, motorcycle and bicycle.
- 3. **mIoU**_{category}, mean IoU considering the 7 macro-classes defined in CityScapes [8]: flat, construction, object, nature, sky, human, vehicles.
- 4. **Pixel Accuracy** (Acc.): ratio between the correct and the total pixel predictions without considering any specific class or category.

4.1. Generalization across Datasets

In Tables 5 and 6 we validate with thorough experiments the motivation behind our better generalization across datasets compared to other state-of-the-art methods for real-time semantic segmentation. In this study we train on CityScapes and test on KITTI, reporting in Table 5 the IoU for the 19 classes, the mIoU_{class} and the pixel Acc. In Table 6 we report the IoU for the 7 categories and the mIoU_{category}. We refer with CS(S) methods trained on 2975 CityScapes images and with CS(P) methods trained on 22,973 proxy labels produced by [6]. To evaluate the performance of [16, 4] we used the official code and pre-trained weights available online. Our DSNet differs from other methods by three factors: 1) the architecture, 2) the training protocol exploiting proxy labels instead of ground truths and 3) the joint reasoning about geometry and semantics.

Regarding the tests on KITTI, our architecture trained only for semantic segmentation, namely Semantic Network or SNet, achieves good performance in Acc. but turns out worse than [4] for other metrics. On the other hand, it is worth to notice that training SNet with CS(P) allows our method to achieve a great performance boost in all metrics with respect to CS(P) (rows 8 vs 9). Finally, we can notice how DSNet achieves results comparable to SNet. This confirms the findings in [24], that joint reasoning about depth and semantics is more beneficial to the former task.

Method	Train	Test	road	sidewalk	building	wall	fence	pole	traffic light	traffic sign	vegetation	terrain	sky	person	rider	car	truck	bus	train	motorcycle	bicycle	mIoU _{class}	Acc.
DABNet [16]	CS(S)	CS	97.05	82.86	91.01	48.20	55.56	59.30	63.12	72.76	91.58	61.24	93.50	77.96	54.70	93.28	53.06	71.01	27.77	56.00	72.91	69.62	94.62
FCHardNet [4]	CS(S)	CS	97.39	84.40	92.31	53.83	62.90	64.28	68.21	78.06	91.85	59.82	94.91	80.81	60.55	94.85	72.70	82.15	76.45	59.97	75.49	76.37	95.35
$\Omega Net(SNet)$	CS(S)	CS	93.69	65.66	83.46	23.57	20.57	40.11	35.32	47.77	86.62	44.22	89.94	56.00	23.00	84.98	17.22	1.22	0.00	17.11	52.82	46.49	89.56
$\Omega Net(SNet)$	CS(P)	CS	95.97	77.23	87.96	38.37	42.62	47.82	48.15	60.44	89.73	54.97	92.62	65.87	36.96	90.57	25.19	0.06	0.00	25.53	61.06	54.80	92.45
$\Omega Net(DSNet)$	CS(P)	CS	96.00	77.46	88.30	41.84	41.68	48.74	47.80	59.24	89.61	53.89	92.57	66.29	38.61	90.61	27.39	0.37	0.00	18.01	62.78	54.80	92.50
DABNet [16]	CS(S)	Κ	79.02	19.07	58.38	18.04	30.73	40.61	44.24	41.67	80.87	48.76	76.61	13.39	0.17	63.30	21.32	8.21	19.81	1.29	7.04	35.40	80.50
FCHardNet [4]	CS(S)	Κ	75.66	32.65	78.51	13.16	28.46	51.33	57.16	55.58	81.06	45.59	91.43	23.84	12.19	58.86	24.91	34.89	68.71	4.66	11.38	44.74	72.07
Ω Net(SNet)	CS(S)	Κ	83.31	33.39	66.57	12.15	20.18	44.20	37.76	32.35	84.46	58.79	88.70	24.66	13.55	76.09	12.62	2.09	0.10	1.15	12.64	37.09	84.94
Ω Net(SNet)	CS(P)	Κ	88.73	47.85	77.01	19.72	30.65	47.34	53.63	43.16	86.65	67.97	94.49	24.81	29.39	80.68	14.88	0.53	0.00	3.05	12.30	43.31	88.76
Ω Net(DSNet)	CS(P)	Κ	87.89	46.64	77.48	18.55	29.65	48.73	51.12	40.52	86.66	63.54	95.06	29.79	34.74	82.03	12.77	0.63	0.00	7.60	18.82	43.80	88.31

Table 5. IoU on 19 training classes, mIoU_{class} and pixel accuracy (Acc.) results of Ω Net against state of the art method training on CS and tested on CS or K. Better generalization from CS to K thanks to our proxy labels training protocol.

Method	Train	Test	flat	construction	object	nature	sky	human	vehicle	mIoUcategory
DABNet [16]	CS(S)	CS	97.93	91.69	65.90	92.03	93.50	79.59	92.25	87.56
FCHardNet [4]	CS(S)	CS	98.19	92.55	70.77	92.27	94.91	82.31	93.54	89.22
$\Omega Net(SNet)$	CS(S)	CS	96.34	84.29	44.37	86.85	89.94	60.13	83.77	77.96
$\Omega Net(SNet)$	CS(P)	CS	97.40	88.80	53.61	90.19	92.62	69.08	88.47	82.88
$\Omega Net(DSNet)$	CS(P)	CS	97.38	88.76	53.91	89.93	92.57	69.27	88.61	82.92
DABNet [16]	CS(S)	Κ	83.41	59.07	46.41	84.30	76.61	17.05	63.61	61.49
FCHardNet [4]	CS(S)	Κ	80.89	75.35	58.68	88.11	91.43	24.62	58.33	68.20
Ω Net(SNet)	CS(S)	Κ	87.93	63.92	45.79	85.47	88.70	31.02	69.95	67.54
Ω Net(SNet)	CS(P)	Κ	91.97	74.95	52.29	89.80	94.49	29.28	81.83	73.52
Ω Net(DSNet)	CS(P)	Κ	91.42	74.84	53.35	89.36	95.06	35.45	80.69	74.31

Table 6. IoU on 7 training categories and, mIoU_{category} results of Ω Net against state of the art method training on CS and tested on CS or K. Better generalization from CS to K thanks to our proxy labels training protocol.

4.2. Proxy Semantic Network

We evaluate the performance of the proxy semantic network. We employ DPC [6], pre-trained on CityScapes with the 2975 training ground truths. We report in Table 7 the testing results on the 500 and 200 images belonging to CityScapes validation set and the KITTI training datasets, respectively. Even though DPC [6] achieves impressive performance both on CityScapes as well as in generalizing to KITTI, it is a huge network unable to run in real-time (*i.e.*, it approximately delivers 3.5 fps on 768×384 images).

Method	Train	Test	mIoU _{class}	mIoUcategory	Acc.
DPC[5] - Proxy	CS(S)	CS	80.22	90.73	95.99
DPC[5] - Proxy	CS(S)	Κ	58.75	81.30	90.21

Table 7. Semantic segmentation performances of the proxy semantic network [6] on CS and K datasets.

4.3. Priors Evaluation on KITTI

When we produce the priors used during training and, at prediction time, to create the M_t^{mot} , we split the 19 classes in static and potentially dynamic ones according to the following scheme:

- 1. Static: road, sidewalk, building, wall, fence, pole, traffic light, traffic sign, vegetation, terrain, sky
- 2. Potentially dynamic: person, rider, car, truck, bus, train

As among our objectives is to obtain a good motion segmentation mask, we are interested in evaluating the quality of our semantic segmentation predictions in terms of how they are amenable to producing good estimated priors according to the mapping defined above. We evaluate our DSNet trained on CityScapes+KITTI in the 200 KITTI images which provides semantic labels. We obtain a pixel accuracy of 98.50% while a 98.40% IoU for the static classes and a 80.99% for the potentially dynamic classes for a global 89.64% mIoU. It is worth noticing that, even though our segmentation is not able to perform a precise class segmentation, it yields excellent binary priors that turns out key to performance for motion segmentation.

5. Optical Flow Estimation

5.1. Comparison with more methods on the KITTI 2015 split

In Table 8 we include additional results from our main competitors to allow for a more comprehensive analysis. In particular, we report additional experiments from [1], in which the authors exploit a different combination of depth and optical flow networks, and from [29], that demonstrate how using stereo pairs at training time allows to obtain much better results on rigid regions. Nonetheless, it can be noticed that our network still outperforms existing monocular multi-task strategies by a large margin.

			train		test
Method	Dataset	Noc	All	F1	F1
Meisteret al. [20] - C	SYN + K	-	8.80	28.94%	29.46%
Meister et al. [20] - CSS	SYN + K	-	8.10	23.27%	23.30%
Zou <i>et al.</i> [38]	SYN + K	-	8.98	26.0%	25.70%
Ranjan et al. [1] - DispResNet + PWC	SYN + K	-	5.66	20.93%	25.27%
Wang et al. [29] (Ego-motion) **	K	-	10.69	-	32.34%
Wang et al. [29] (Full) **	K	-	5.58	-	18.00%
Ren <i>et al.</i> [25]	K	-	16.79	36.00%	39.00%
Yin <i>et al.</i> [34]	K	8.05	10.81	-	-
Chen <i>et al</i> . [7] †	K	5.40	8.95	-	-
Chen et al. [7] (online) †	K	4.86	8.35	-	-
Ranjan et al. [1] - DispNet + FlowNetC	K	-	7.76	-	-
Ranjan et al. [1] - DispResNet + PWC	K	-	6.21	26.41%	-
Luo <i>et al.</i> [18]	K	5.84	-	21.56%	
Luo <i>et al.</i> [18] *	K	5.43	-	20.61%	
Ω Net (Ego-motion)	K	11.72	13.50	51.22%	-
Ω Net(OFNet)	K	3.48	11.61	25.78%	-
Ω Net(SD-OFNet)	K	3.29	5.39	20.00%	19.47%

Table 8. We report percentage of erroneous pixels (F1 score) and average end-point error over all pixels (All) and non-occluded pixels (Noc) on the KITTI 2015 flow dataset. We indicate with †feature extractors pre-trained on ImageNet, SYN as the SYNTHIA [26] dataset, CS for the Cityscapes dataset, multi-task methods *trained on stereo pair and ** using stereo at testing time.

6. Pose Estimation

We validate the performance of our framework on pose estimation on the KITTI odometry split, which provides groundtruth camera poses obtained with IMU/GPS readings for 11 driving sequences, indexed from 00 to 08 for training and 09-10 for testing purposes. As in [14], we have not changed our architecture for this specific task but simply trained it from scratch on new training sequences without known intrinsic parameters. We compare our model with learned camera intrinsic parameters with several monocular self-supervised methods on the two sequences of KITTI odometry test split. All of the results, summarized in 9, are evaluated by optimizing the scaling factor to align with the ground-truth to address the inherent scale ambiguity.

Method	Frames	Sequence 09	Sequence 10
Zhou et al. [37]	5	0.021 ± 0.017	0.020 ± 0.015
Ranjan et al. [1]	5	0.012 ± 0.007	0.012 ± 0.008
Yin et al. [34]	5	0.012 ± 0.007	0.012 ± 0.009
ORB-Slam	3	0.014 ± 0.008	0.012 ± 0.011
Casser et al. [3]	3	0.011 ± 0.006	0.011 ± 0.010
Zou <i>et al</i> . [3]	3	0.017 ± 0.007	0.015 ± 0.009
Luo <i>et al</i> . [18]	3	0.013 ± 0.007	0.012 ± 0.008
Godard et al. [14]	2	0.017 ± 0.008	0.015 ± 0.010
Ours †	2	0.020 ± 0.013	0.017 ± 0.011

Table 9. Absolute Trajectory Error (ATE) of pose estimation evaluated on the KITTI odometry split sequences 09-10. †indicates strategies trained with unkwnown camera intrinsics.

7. Motion Segmentation

7.1. Threshold analysis

In Figure 1, we present an ablation study dealing with the motion segmentation task. In the main paper, to be consistent with other methodologies, we set the threshold τ used for the evaluation to 0.5. However, we point out that a careful tuning of such threshold can improve the overall motion segmentation accuracy. In particular, we can notice how the best configuration for our predictions is obtained using a larger threshold. Indeed, we found out that the best trade-off between the mean accuracy and the mean IoU is achieved by setting the threshold value to 0.7 (in this case the Mean Acc is 0.91 while Mean IoU is 0.77).



Figure 1. Mean Acc. and mIoU varying the threshold used to compute the motion segmentation M_t^{mot} .

7.2. Evaluation for KITTI only on Cars

We conduct an additional study to evaluate our motion segmentation masks only on pixels belonging to Cars, as proposed in [1]. In Table 10 we evaluate the IoU for static and dynamic cars yielded by Ω Net and [1] on the 200 KITTI images endowed with ground truth for the motion segmentation task. We notice that our M_t^{mot} outperforms [1] in all metrics (rows 1 vs 2 and 3) for all thresholds. Moreover, we point out that in this test configuration the contribution given to the motion segmentation by our estimated semantics is almost negligible as car regions are already extracted by using KITTI ground truths. Therefore, we test also our motion probability P_t alone, showing that it is superior to [1] even without the help provided by the estimated semantics.

Method	Threshold	Overall	Static Cars	Moving Cars
Ranjan [1]	-	56.94	55.77	58.11
Ω Net M_t^{mot}	0.5	63.98	64.16	63.79
Ω Net M_t^{mot}	0.7	63.97	64.15	63.79
Ω Net P_t	0.5	63.67	62.58	64.77
Ω Net P_t	0.7	62.66	58.42	66.89

Table 10. Motion Segmentation Results. IoU scores on KITTI 2015 training dataset images computed only over car pixels.

8. Runtime

In this section we report additional runtime results on the three different devices used in the main paper, that is: an NVIDIA Titan Xp GPU, an Intel i7-7700K CPU and an NVIDIA Jetson TX2 GPU. In Table 11, we show further timings by varying the input image resolution of our architecture. It can be noticed how Ω Net achieves real-time results (*i.e.* 27.9) on the Titan Xp GPU even with the largest image size 1024×320 , reaching about 2 FPS on the Jetson Tx2 embedded device with the same input configuration.

	416×128						640×192					1024×320				
	W	D	DS	OF	Cam	0	D	DS	OF	Cam	0	D	DS	OF	Cam	0
Jetson TX2	15	20.2	17.9	8.9	54.1	7.1	12.5	10.3	6.5	49.2	4.5	6.4	5.3	3.2	26.31	2.0
i7-7700K	91	10.9	9.1	11.0	60.1	5.5	5.0	4.2	4.9	31.4	2.4	1.9	1.6	1.8	13.2	0.9
Titan XP	250	250.7	212.4	152.6	550.7	90.5	170.2	134.1	94.1	446.7	57.4	86.0	64.5	44.5	251.0	27.9

Table 11. Runtime analysis on different harware devices. For each device we report the power consumption in Watt and the FPS by varying input resolution. D: Depth, S: Semantic, OF: Optical Flow, Cam: camera pose, O: Overall architecture.

9. Qualitative results

In Figures 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, we provide qualitative results of our architecture on the standard datasets used in the main paper, such as KITTI and CityScapes. We refer the reader to the captions for description and comments related to each example.

9.1. Results on a YouTube Video

Furthermore, to prove that our network can be trained on unconstrained monocular sequences with unknown camera parameters and without semantic ground-truth labels, we downloaded from YouTube an online video captured by a moving camera consisting of 130K images depicting an urban scenario. Then, we generated proxy semantic labels using [6] and trained Ω Net(DSNet) to learn depth, pose, semantics and camera intrinsics. Figure 9, show qualitative results yielded by Ω Net on this unconstrained monocular video.

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Figure 2. Qualitative results of our Ω Net(DSNet) on the KITTI Eigen split. From left to right we show image, the predicted single-image depth map and the predicted semantic segmentation of the scene.

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Figure 3. Qualitative results of our network Ω Net(DSNet) on the Cityscapes dataset. From left to right, the input image, single-view depth and the semantic prediction of our model.

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Figure 4. Qualitative results on optical flow estimation using the KITTI 2015 dataset. From top to bottom we show image, ground-truth labels, FlowNetS [10], FlowNetC [10], Unflow [20], DF-Net [38] and our Ω Net(SD-OFNet).



Figure 5. Qualitative comparison between the initial optical flow network Ω Net(OFNet) and the self-distilled one Ω Net(SD-OFNet) obtained with our strategy on the KITTI 2015 dataset. From left to right we show image, Ω Net(OFNet) and Ω Net(SD-OFNet) results respectively. It can be noticed that the proposed self-distilled paradigm greatly alleviates motion boundaries occlusions and improves details in the final optical flow predictions.



Figure 6. Visualization of the flow error map of our optical flow network on the KITTI 2015 testing benchmark. Larger errors are encoded in red, while blue pixels represents good optical flow estimates with respect to the ground-truth.



Figure 7. Qualitatives on motion segmentation. From left to right, the input images, the motion objects detected in the scene by our method (highlighted in red), the optical flow and the rigid flow.

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Figure 8. Motion segmentation results on the KITTI 2015 dataset. From left to right, we show the monocular sequence, the outcome of the proposed motion probability strategy (high probability of motion is encoded in red), semantic priors extracted from ours semantic predictions, ground-truth motion masks and ours estimated motion segmentation masks.



Figure 9. Qualitative results of Ω Net on a raw YouTube video. From left to right, we show the input images of a monocular sequence, the single-view depth and semantic predictions and, finally, the optical flow estimate.

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