Semantics-Depth-Symbiosis: Deeply Coupled Semi-Supervised Learning of Semantics and Depth

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Abstract

Multi-task learning (MTL) paradigm focuses on jointly learning two or more tasks, aiming for an improvement w.r.t model’s generalizability, performance, and training/inference memory footprint. The aforementioned benefits become ever so indispensable in the case of training for vision-related dense prediction tasks. In this work, we tackle the MTL problem of two dense tasks, i.e., semantic segmentation and depth estimation, and present a novel attention module called Cross-Channel Attention Module (CCAM), which facilitates effective feature sharing along each channel between the two tasks, leading to mutual performance gain with a negligible increase in trainable parameters. In a symbiotic spirit, we also formulate novel data augmentations for the semantic segmentation task using predicted depth called AffineMix, and one using predicted semantics called ColorAug, for depth estimation task. Finally, we validate the performance gain of the proposed method on the Cityscapes and ScanNet dataset, which helps us achieve state-of-the-art results for a semi-supervised joint model based on depth estimation and semantic segmentation.

1. Introduction

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) [35] have helped achieve state-of-the-art results for a range of computer vision tasks including image classification [23], semantic segmentation [46, 3, 4, 37], and depth estimation [20]. Generally, each of these tasks is trained in isolation, assuming that inter-task features are largely independent. On the contrary, multiple works in the domain of multi-task learning (MTL) [67, 43, 80, 7, 29, 32, 57, 25] point towards an inherent symbiotic relation among multiple tasks, where one task benefits from other sibling tasks. In [66], Standley et al. particularly point towards a synergy between semantic segmentation and depth estimation task, when trained jointly.

Despite previous success, the lack of sufficient labeled data for multi-task training can affect the performance of MTL. To address this limitation, MTL models such as [24, 33, 47, 16] propose parameter sharing to overcome data sparsity and enforce generalization by leveraging task losses to regularize each other. The data sparsity problem is more emphatically seen for dense tasks such as semantic segmentation and depth estimation, where obtaining perfect per-pixel annotations is both expensive and untenable in some scenarios, thus fully supervised learning may not be feasible. Motivated by the above observations, we propose to leverage large-scale video data using a semi-supervised MTL training paradigm [34, 68, 52, 76] where semantic segmentation follows a semi-supervised setting and the depth sub-model is trained in self-supervised manner. Specifically, to improve semi-supervised semantic training, we propose an AffineMix data augmentation strategy, which aims to create new labeled images under a varied range of depth scales. Under this scheme, randomly selected movable objects are projected over the same image, for a randomly selected depth scale. This unlocks another degree of freedom in data augmentation scheme, generating images which are not only close to original data distribution but also more diverse and class balanced. On the depth augmentation end, we propose a simple yet effective data augmentation scheme called ColorAug, which establishes strong contrast between movable objects and adjacent regions, using intermediate semantics information. At last, we employ orthogonal regularization as a strategy to improve MTL training efficacy, which has a positive impact on both semantics and depth evaluation.

Besides training paradigm, the architecture of MTL model is equally important as it determines how exactly the intermediate features, belonging to different tasks, interact with each other. As highlighted in [80], what to share and how to share still remains an open question. To improve MTL performance, we adopt a hybrid parameter
sharing approach [77, 25], which enforce a soft parameter sharing at decoder layers to facilitate both flexibility and inter-feature learnability. To emphasize inter-channel interactions between tasks, our proposed Cross-Channel Attention Module (CCAM) enforces dual attention on intermediate depth and segmentation features over both spatial and channel dimensions. This enables us to estimate a degree-of-affinity between inter-task channel-features as an intermediary score in an end-to-end differentiable framework. Using CCAM, we can linearly weight the contribution of features from each task before sharing and thus encourage a more informed and reliable feature transfer between two tasks.

To summarize our main contributions:

- To improve feature sharing for MTL, we propose CCAM to estimate cross-channel affinity scores between task features. This enables better inter-task feature transfer.
- To deal with data sparsity for MTL, we design a dual data augmentation mechanism for both semantics and depth. Our method encourages diversity, class balance for semantic segmentation, and better region discrimination for depth estimation.
- We incorporate orthogonal regularization for depth and semantics with diminishing weighting to facilitate better feature generalization and independence.

2. Related Work

2.1. Multi-Task Learning (MTL)

MTL [2] has been used across various tasks, as it improves generalization by transferring domain information of related tasks as an inductive bias. Previous works such as [2, 24, 33, 42] have advocated for hard parameter sharing, where as others [47, 16, 49] advocate soft sharing of parameters, where specific parameters are connected through a learnable link module. For encoder-decoder architectures, previous works such as [60, 49, 16] are encoder focused, while others [81, 77, 25] mainly focus on the decoder modules. Our work follows a hybrid approach. We use a shared encoder but employ soft parameter sharing over the decoder module as shown in Fig 1(a). Our approach gravitates more towards the decoder, but improves from the encoder-focused approaches by enabling an efficient cross-task feature sharing mechanism using CCAM module. Work such as [44, 58] employ Residual adapter module, to dedicate a set of model’s parameters to each task in a MTL setup; while we improve model’s shared representation capability through effective inter-task feature sharing. From optimization point of view, works such as [8, 62, 22] enforce task balancing by using gradient based multi-objective optimization. We find little to no effect employing such regularization during our training. Finally both adversarial training [65, 48] and uncertainty [30] are utilized for MTL. Both of them have entirely different motivations compared to our work, and are not necessarily looking to better feature sharing, for two related tasks.

A few other methods [7, 57] leverage semantic labels to jointly train on depth and semantics but mainly to improve on depth results. Marwin et al. [32] focus on improving depth results specifically for moving objects in a scene using the intermediary semantics information, whereas Jiao et al. [29] tackle long-tail distribution in depth prediction domain using semantics. Some of these models are not truly self-supervised for depth estimation or fail to jointly improve both tasks. Another approach uses knowledge distillation [21, 77] from segmentation to guide depth estimation. Furthermore, some other methods [77, 43] exploit spatial attention [53, 71] for more effective cross-feature distillation and task-related feature extraction. Most recently, Hoyer et al. [25] propose a joint training network, which has a feature sharing network between the task as proposed in [77]. Our experiments show that there is little impact on the result of depth metrics upon inclusion/exclusion of this feature sharing module, suggesting ineffective feature transfer between the two tasks. Also [25] focuses only on improving semantic results using depth estimation procedure but not vice-versa. In contrast, CCAM facilitates proportional sharing of features between depth and semantics across each channel (Fig 1). Please refer to Sec 3.2 for more details.

2.2. Semi-supervised Semantic Segmentation

Deep convolutional neural network models [46, 63] have been the go-to network for both supervised and semi-supervised semantic segmentation tasks. Subsequent models have improved by leveraging multi-scale input images [11, 5, 13, 40, 41], which capture finer details using multi-scale features. Furthermore, there have been models using feature pyramid spatial pooling [45, 82] and atrous convolutions [3, 4, 6, 37, 78] to further assist in better per-pixel feature learning and achieve state-of-the-art results. We choose an architecture similar to U-Net [59], details about which is in Sec 4.

Semi-supervised semantic segmentation training makes use of an unlabeled set of data. Many approaches take image-level labels [36, 38, 74] and class activation maps [83, 72] as a weak supervision signal, which gives marginal assistance in a dense prediction task such as per-pixel segmentation. Methods based on consistency training [34, 68, 52, 76] use the idea that label space for unlabeled data should remain broadly unchanged after adding noise or perturbation to the input. Ouali et al. [55] use the same idea but apply perturbation on encoder features instead. Similarly, CutMix [79] vouches for stronger augmentations, where crops from input images and pseudo la-
belrs are used to generate additional training data. ClassMix [54] takes it a step forward by using pseudo labels to get a mix mask, which is then used in consistency training. Our proposed data augmentation is most similar to DepthMix [25], which uses the idea of ClassMix [54] but also maintains geometric consistency. Our approach differs from DepthMix [25] on three counts. Firstly, we propose a new data augmentation strategy which generates the pseudo labels for selected foreground classes under different randomly selected depth scales, keeping geometric consistency intact. Secondly, we mix foreground masks over the same image and not across the other images for a given batch. Lastly we only consider movable objects as part of the data augmentation with the idea of better handling the intrinsic data bias due to class imbalance. Please refer to Sec. 3.3 for more details.

2.3. Self-supervised Depth Estimation (SDE)

Depth estimation in the absence of per-pixel ground truth is a well-studied problem. The self-supervised model relies on minimizing the image reconstruction loss, for an input that could either be in stereo-pairs or in a monocular sequence format. Depth estimation under a stereo setting [20, 17, 19] mainly focuses on predicting pixel disparity between the pairs and enforcing a consistency between left and right views. In the monocular sequence scenario, methods such as [20, 84, 17, 19, 27, 85, 69, 28] minimize the photometric reprojection loss during the training phase using the predicted depth and pose. Our depth module largely follows Godard et al. [20]. In addition to the reprojection loss, we also enforce a per-pixel minimum appearance loss and auto-masking which further improves prediction for occluded and stationary pixels.

3. Proposed Method

In this section, we start with the basic architecture in Sec. 3.1. We then discuss in detail about building blocks of CCAM in Sec. 3.2. Different strategies used for data augmentation for semi-supervised semantics and self-supervised depth network are subsequently discussed in Sec. 3.3. We then briefly discuss the training strategy for depth and semantics part in Sec. 3.4 and Sec. 3.5 respectively. We conclude this section by presenting how we can effectively apply orthogonal regularization on semantics and depth modules together to further enhance model’s performance in Sec. 3.6.

3.1. Basic Architecture

For the multi-task training at hand, we follow soft or partial parameter sharing between the tasks. We use a shared encoder but separate decoders for semantics and depth tasks respectively as shown in Fig. 1. Apart from this, we use a separate encoder block for camera pose estimation, and an encoder pretrained on ImageNet [61] to calculate the feature distance loss, similar to [25]. The CCAM block (details in suppl. material) consists of mainly two sub-blocks, which mainly have convolutional, global average pooling and fully connected layers to compute spatial and cross-channel attention respectively. More specific details about different blocks are mentioned in Sec. 4.1, under network architecture.

3.2. Cross Attention Network Architecture

Cross-task feature transfer, can be broadly divided into three sub-categories as described in [80]: (i) sharing initial layers to facilitate learning common features for complimentary tasks; (ii) using adversarial networks to learn common feature representation as in [64]; and (iii) learn-
CCAM Sub-block 1: We start with sub-block 1, where decoder modules represented by $B$. We extract intermediate output features from respective dealing with two tasks, we denote them as Task A and Task subdivided into four sub-blocks. Since in our case we are tire process of building scores of inter-task channels can be 

Figure 2. Complete sub-blocks of Cross Channel Affinity Module (CCAM). N: Batch Size, C: Number of channels, H: Height, and W: Width.

ing different but related feature representations as presented in [50]. In this very context, Xu et al. [77] propose a multi-modal distillation block, which shares cross-task features through message passing. It simulates a gating mechanism as shown in Eq. (1) and (2), by leveraging the spatial attention maps of each individual features of all tasks, which then helps decide what features a given task would share with other tasks. Without loss of generality, suppose we train a total number of $T$ tasks, and $F_i^k$ denotes the $i^{th}$ feature of the $k^{th}$ task before message passing and $F_i^{o,k}$ after message passing. Xu et al. [77] define the message transfer as:

$$F_i^{o,k} = F_i^k + \sum_{t=1(\neq k)}^T G_{i^{k}} \odot (W_{t,k} \otimes F_t^l), \quad (1)$$

where $\odot$ means element-wise product, $\otimes$ represents convolution operation, $W_{t,k}$ represents the convolution block and $G_{i^{k}}$ denotes the gating matrix for $i^{th}$ feature of the $k^{th}$ task:

$$G_{i^{k}} = \sigma (W_{g} \otimes F_i^k), \quad (2)$$

where $W_{g}$ is a convolution block and $\sigma$ denotes the sigmoid operator. We refer reader to [77] for more details regarding above message passing strategy. According to Eq. (1), it only shares cross-task features naively across the channel dimension. Suppose we are training simultaneously for two tasks namely: $F_i^k$ and $F_i^l$. Eq. (1) indirectly implies that $i^{th}$ channel-feature of $F^k$ is only important to $i^{th}$ channel-feature of $F^l$, which is not necessarily true in all scenarios. We overcome this major limitation by designing a module that calculates an affinity vector $\alpha_i$, which gives an estimate about how the $i^{th}$ channel of task $F^k$ is related to any $j^{th}$ channel of task $F^l$. As shown in Fig. 2, the entire process of building scores of inter-task channels can be subdivided into four sub-blocks. Since in our case we are dealing with two tasks, we denote them as Task A and Task B. We extract intermediate output features from respective decoder modules represented by $A_F$ and $B_F$ respectively, where $A_F, B_F \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times C \times H \times W}$.

CCAM Sub-block 1: We start with sub-block 1, where task’s intermediate features $A_F$ and $B_F$ are passed through a sequence of conv-blocks ($W_A$ and $W_B$), which serves as spatial attention layers, to compute $A_{SF}$ and $B_{SF}$ according to the following equations:

$$A_{SF_i} = \sigma (W_A \otimes A_i), \quad (3)$$

$$B_{SF_i} = \sigma (W_B \otimes B_i). \quad (4)$$

The idea is to get much more refined features from both tasks before estimating their cross-correlation. The output of this layer preserves the spatial resolution of the input features and gives output features represented by $A_{SF}$ and $B_{SF}$ respectively.

CCAM Sub-block 2: Subsequently in sub-block 2, we build a cross-task relation matrix $C_{Mi}$ for each channel $i$ of $A_{SF}$, where $C_{Mi} \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times C \times H \times W}$. We then pass the resultant matrix $C_{Mi}$ to a channel attention module $\Psi$, which estimates the affinity vector $\alpha_i$ between $i^{th}$ channel of $A_{SF}$ and all the channels of $B_{SF}$ in accordance with the equation:

$$\alpha_i = \Psi (A_{SF_i} \otimes (B_{SF}^T)), \quad (5)$$

where $\Psi$ denotes a combination of global average pooling layer followed by fully connected layers, with a sigmoid layer at the end, which serves as channel attention layer. We repeat this for all the channels of $A_{SF}$ to get the corresponding affinity vector $\alpha$.

CCAM Sub-block 3: As part of sub-block 3, we accumulate Affinity Scores for all the channels of $A_F$ to achieve a final cross task affinity matrix $M$, given by the equation:

$$M = [\alpha_i \oplus \alpha_j] \ \forall i, j \in [0, C), \quad (6)$$

where $\oplus$ denotes concatenation across the row dimension.

CCAM Sub-block 4: Finally in sub-block 4, the cross task affinity matrix $M$ achieved serves as a score accumulator, which helps get a linearly weighted features $A'_F$ and $B'_F$, given by equation:

$$A'_F = A_F + (B_F \odot M), \ B'_F = B_F + (A_F \odot M^T), \quad (7)$$

where $\odot$ represents element-wise multiplication.
3.3. Data Augmentation

Data augmentation plays a pivotal role in all machine learning tasks, as it helps gather varied data samples from a similar distribution. In the spirit of cooperative multi-tasking, in this subsection, we introduce novel ways of data augmentation on both segmentation and depth estimation tasks using predicted depth and semantics respectively.

**Data Augmentation for Segmentation** In the context of semi-supervised semantic segmentation, models such as [54, 79, 15] leverage consistency training by mixing image masks across two different images to generate a new image and its semantic labels. Hoyer et al. [25] go a step further to generate a much more diverse mixed label space by maintaining the integrity of the scene structure. We propose a new version of data augmentation called AffineMix, which considers mixing labels within the same image under a varied range of random depth values, thus producing a new set of affine-transformed images (see Fig 3(i)). To further improve the data augmentation process, we mix masks associated with only movable objects, to counter class imbalance, which is stark in a dataset such as Cityscapes. Given an image \( I \) and corresponding predicted depth \( D \), we seek to generate a mixed image \( I' \), by scaling the depth of a selected movable object \( m \) by a scale factor of \( s \):

\[
D' = s \cdot D ,
\]

such that its spatial location in the image is changed in a geometrically realistic way. Changing the depth by a factor of \( s \), results in an inverse scaling in the image domain and translational shift which would be given by:

\[
t_x = (1.0 - 1/s) \cdot o_x ,
\]

\[
t_y = (1.0 - 1/s) \cdot o_y ,
\]

where \( o_x \) and \( o_y \) are normalized offsets along x and y directions. Using \( t_x, t_y \) and inverse scaling \( 1/s \), we can perform affine transformation on the image and label space to generate \( I_a \) and \( L_a \). We then estimate the foreground mask, by comparing the new and old depths and masking it with the region which has the movable object in \( I_a \) and name it \( M_m \). The final image and label would be then given by:

\[
I' = M_m \odot I_a + (1 - M_m) \odot I ,
\]

\[
L' = M_m \odot L_a + (1 - M_m) \odot L .
\]

**Data Augmentation for Depth** As shown in work [18, 75], factors such as position in the image, texture density, shading, and illumination are some of the pictorial cues about distance in a given image. Recent work in this field [12] also re-emphasizes the importance of contrast between adjacent regions as well as bright and dark regions within an image. We particularly leverage this simple albeit important observation to develop an effective data augmentation technique called ColorAug, which uses different appearance based augmentation on movable and non-movable objects. We use the intermediate semantic labels predicted by the model to guide us in developing such an data augmentation as shown in Fig. 3(ii).

3.4. Self-Supervised Depth

Training formulation of the self-supervised depth network mainly follows good practices of [20] in terms of using a per-pixel minimum appearance, reprojection loss, and an auto-masking strategy. Main backbone of the depth network comprises of an encoder-decoder structure, represented by \( SE \) and \( DD \) in Fig. 1. We use a subsidiary pose network \( PN \), to predict the relative translation (T) and rotation (R) of the source frames \( I_{t-1} \) and \( I_{t+1} \) with respect to the target frame \( I_t \). Predicted poses and depth are then used to estimate the self-supervised depth loss, denoted by \( L_D \). Building blocks of the encoder and decoder are specified in more details in Sec. 4.1.

3.5. Semi-Supervised Semantic Segmentation

For the semi-supervised semantic segmentation module, we start with a set of labeled images \( \Omega_L \), unlabeled images \( \Omega_U \), and \( N \) unlabeled image sequences. We pretrain the pose network \( PN \), shared encoder \( SE \), and depth decoder \( DD \) (see Fig. 1) modules with \( N \) unlabeled image sequences, in a similar fashion as mentioned in [25]. During the joint-training step, parameters of the depth decoder (\( DD \)) are used to initialize the segmentation decoder (\( SD \)) module. The CCAM module springs into action during this stage of training, facilitating informative features transfer between \( DD \) and \( SD \) modules. During semi-supervised training, suppose the labeled and unlabeled samples are represented as \( (I_L, S_L) \) and \( (I_U, S_U) \), where \( S_U \) represents pseudo labels that are generated using a mean teacher algorithm [68]. The parameters of the mean teacher \( \theta_T \) is given by the following equation:

\[
\theta'_T = \alpha \theta_T + (1 - \alpha) \theta_{SD} ,
\]

where \( \theta_{SD} \) and \( \alpha \) represent parameters of the segmentation decoder module and smoothing coefficient hyper-parameter respectively. We then generate the pseudo labels \( S_U \) as suggested in [54] as:

\[
S_U = \arg \max_l (\theta_T(I_U)) ,
\]

where \( l \) represents all possible classes in the Cityscapes dataset. Using Eq. (13) and (14), we can formalize the total semi-supervised loss as:

\[
L_{SSL} = L_{CE}(\theta_{SD}(I_L), S_L) + L_{CE}(\theta_{SD}(I_U), S_U) .
\]
We then use our AffineMix samples, as a substitute for $I_U$ and $S_U$ in Eq. (15) to get the final semi-supervised loss.

### 3.6. Orthogonal Regularization (OR)

Orthogonality constraint on model’s parameters has shown encouraging results for tasks such as image classification [1, 70, 39], image retrieval [70], 3D classification [56] to name a few. Enforcing orthogonality has also helped improve model’s convergence, training stability, and promote learning independent parameters. In a multi-task setup such as ours, feature independence within a given task is also important. We study the effect of applying a variation of the orthogonal scheme proposed in [1] on different sub-modules. The new loss function of the model, after adding orthogonal constraint is given by:

$$L_I = L_{SSL} + L_D,$$

$$L_F = L_I + \lambda \cdot \| WT W - I \|_\sigma,$$  \hspace{1cm} (16)

where $W$, $\| \cdot \|_\sigma$, $I$, $L_F$ and $L_I$ represent the weights (for each layer), spectral norm, identity matrix, final model loss, and initial loss respectively. We find that enforcing orthogonality, particularly on the parameters of shared encoder $SE$, depth decoder $DD$, and segmentation decoder $SD$ has the most positive impact on the model’s performance. We confirm this by calculating average inter-channel correlation, for all decoder layers for both the tasks, with and without OR (more details in supplementary material). We postulate that independent features within semantics and depth module would make feature transfer between the tasks more effective. Details about enforcing this regularization and ablation study based on this are provided in Sec. 4.1.

### 4. Experiments

#### 4.1. Experimental Details

**Dataset** We use the Cityscapes dataset [9] and ScanNet dataset [10] for training and evaluating the model. For evaluating on semantics we use the ground-truth labels provided as part of the datasets. We use the data preprocessing and data augmentation step as suggested in [25], where we downsample and center-crop the original 1024x512 color images to 512x512 images for training. For depth we use the unlabeled frames provided by the Cityscapes dataset during the training phase, whereas depth is evaluated against 1,525 images from 6 cities taken from the test set, for which we use the ground-truth depths generated by Watson et al. in [73], using the disparity maps and for ScanNet we continue to use the provided ground-truth. More details regarding it is provided in the suppl. material.

**Network Architecture** Basic network as part of our multi-task training is similar to [25, 77] as seen in Fig. 1(a), which provides an intuitive and effective network for simultaneous training. It comprises of a shared encoder network which is ResNet101 [23] and two separate but identical architecture based on Deeplabv3 [3] with a U-Net [59] decoder. For pose network we use ResNet18 [23], whereas for the shared encoder network we use ResNet101 [23] pretrained on the ImageNet dataset [61]. We refer the readers to the original
Figure 4. Qualitative results: In each row we compare the semantics and depth results with the baseline [25]. Red boxes identify shortcomings in the baseline method whereas green boxes highlight the corresponding improvement by using our method.

| Model            | Seg. Metrics | Depth Metrics |
|------------------|--------------|--------------|
|                 | mIoU↑       | AbsRel↓     | SqRel↓     | RMSE↓     | a1↑    | a2↑    | a3↑    |
| 3-ways* [25]     | 68.09       | 0.150       | 2.032      | 7.492     | 0.824  | 0.953  | 0.985  |
| 3-ways* [25] w/o attn | 68.07       | 0.152       | 2.497      | 7.621     | 0.824  | 0.952  | 0.982  |
| Ours (CCAM)      | 69.35       | **0.142**   | 1.653      | **7.230** | 0.824  | **0.957** | **0.988** |
| Ours + AM        | 69.84       | 0.149       | 1.651      | 7.521     | 0.817  | 0.952  | 0.984  |
| Ours + AM + OR   | **70.72**   | 0.146       | **1.546**  | 7.239     | 0.815  | 0.953  | 0.987  |
| Ours + AM + OR + CA | 70.20       | **0.142**   | 1.553      | 7.284     | **0.824** | 0.956  | 0.987  |

Table 2. Comparative mIoU and depth results between baseline model with (vanilla) attention, without attention, and with cross channel affinity attention. Models with * show the results as reproduced by us running the original model. AM: AffineMix, OR: orthogonal Regularization, CA: ColorAug.

| Metric       | CutOut | CutMix | ClassMix | DepthMix | AffineMix |
|--------------|--------|--------|----------|----------|-----------|
| mIoU         | 57.74  | 60.34  | 63.86    | 68.09    | **68.70** |

Table 3. Table presents the comparative performance of AffineMix method with previous semi-supervised works, which establishes Affine-Mix superiority over previous approaches on Cityscapes dataset(1/8 labeled images).

paper’s [25] suppl. section for more details. CCAM block consists of mainly two sub-modules, which are, spatial and channel attention layers. Spatial attention comprises of convolutional blocks with kernel size of 3x3. Where as channel attention consist of a global average layer, and two fully connected layers respectively, followed by a sigmoid activation layer. Finer details about CCAM block architecture are provided in suppl. material.

**Training** For most part of the training, we follow the strategy as mentioned by Hoyer et al. [25]. We first train the self-supervised depth and pose module alone using Adam [31] till 300K iterations, with an initial learning rate of $10^{-4}$, which is reduced by a factor of 10 using the step-scheduled learning rate mechanism. In the second iteration we only look to finetune the shared encoder with a ImageNet feature distance for another 50K iterations. During joint training, we use SGD with an initial learning rate of $10^{-3}$ and $10^{-2}$ for encoder and decoder respectively, which are reduced by a factor of 10 after 30K iterations. We refer readers to [25] for more details. In our observation, we find freezing depth decoder parameters during data augmentation steps of self-supervised semantic learning leads to better model stability without any adverse effect on semantics or depth results. For orthogonal regularization we follow SRIP et al. [1] based method, starting with an initial weight $\lambda_O = 10^{-4}$, which is then reduced gradually to $10^{-5}$, $10^{-6}$, and $10^{-7}$ after 10K, 20K and 30K iterations respectively.
### 4.2. Ablation Studies

**Cross Channel Affinity Block** We study the effectiveness of the self-attention distillation module used in baseline [25] for cross-feature transfer between depth and semantics tasks. We follow that up with an experiment, incorporating the CCAM module and validate its positive impact on both tasks. As shown in Tab. 2, we observe minimal improvement to semantics and depth metrics with and without self-attention based distillation module; with mean IoU and absolute relative errors hovering around 68% and 15%. Including just the CCAM module, we see an improvement of 1.28% in mIoU and a drop of 5.3% in the absolute relative depth error.

**AffineMix Augmentation** We further incorporate the proposed AffineMix data augmentation, mainly with an aim to improve on semi-supervised semantic segmentation training. Through our experiments, we find that AffineMix consistently improves upon the baseline by 1.75% respectively as shown in Tab. 2. We see a drop in the depth metrics after applying AffineMix. We postulate this drop in depth performance is due to visual incoherence in the local region adjoining to newly added objects, which might be detrimental to the depth task. We also did a comparative ablation experiment verifying the efficacy of proposed data augmentation with the previous data augmentation approaches. As shown in Tab. 3, we observe an improvement of about 8.36%, 4.64% and 0.61% in mIoU numbers when compared to [79, 54, 25] respectively.

**Orthogonal Regularization** For verifying the efficacy of OR (Fig. 1(b)), we start out by comparing models trained with and without OR, from the perspective of feature independence after the completion of training. As postulated, we find that the features across all 4 layers of depth and semantics decoder module are much more independent after applying such a regularization.(More details in supplementary material). We further validate this claim by seeing a consistent improvement in semantics and depth metrics. We observe that with no obvious changes to our training strategy, simply employing CCAM module(details in suppl. material), mostly giving incremental improvements, proving utility of each individual part. Overall, as seen in Tab. 1, we achieve improvements of about 2.63%, 2.27%, 1.77% for semantic metrics for 372, 744, and 2.975 samples of Cityscapes dataset respectively, and depth metrics by 5.3% in parallel. Fig. 4 highlights qualitative improvement seen for both depth and semantic segmentation network. We took a closer look to narrow down the classes, which are most positively impacted by our training strategy. We find that much of improvement is mainly seen for low-mIoU-classes such as motorcycle, wall, rider, and movable-classes such as bicycle, train, truck, and bus. saturated-class such as building, vegetation, car, sky, and road shows marginal improvements as these classes already have achieved about 90% mIoU (Qualitative details in supplementary material).

**ScanNet Dataset** At last, as part of verifying generalizability of our proposed CCAM module, we conduct experiments on ScanNet [10], which is an indoor dataset, entirely different from Cityscapes dataset in more than one aspects. We observe that with no obvious changes to our training strategy, simply employing CCAM module, our model improves semantics metrics by 2.52% and depth metrics by 5.7% as shown in Tab. 4. With more than 3% mIoU improvement for classes such as door, box, screen, and cabinet. Due to dearth of space, we provide more details about data pre-processing and structuring, train/val split, and class wise mIoU numbers in the suppl. material.

### 5. Conclusions

Through this work, we go on to establish, how effective transfer of features between semantics and depth modules, could result in substantial performance gain for both the tasks, in a semi-supervised setting. We follow this up with an intelligent and diverse data augmentation for both depth and semantics. We hope these encouraging results would further push the research community in working towards finding much more efficient and effective ways for multi-task learning.
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