THE Benchmark: Transferable Representation Learning for Monocular Height Estimation

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Abstract—Generating 3-D city models rapidly is crucial for many applications. Monocular height estimation (MHE) is one of the most efficient and timely ways to obtain large-scale geometric information. However, existing works focus primarily on training and testing models using unbalanced datasets, which does not align well with real-world applications. Therefore, we propose a new benchmark dataset to study the transferability of height estimation models in a cross-dataset setting. To this end, we first design and construct a large-scale benchmark dataset for cross-dataset transfer learning on the height estimation task. This benchmark dataset includes a newly proposed large-scale synthetic dataset, a newly collected real-world dataset, and four existing datasets from different cities. Next, a new experimental protocol, few-shot cross-dataset transfer, is designed. Furthermore, in this article, we propose a scale-deformable convolution (SDC) module to enhance the window-based Transformer for handling the scale-variation problem in the height estimation task. Experimental results have demonstrated the effectiveness of the proposed methods in traditional and cross-dataset transfer settings. The datasets and codes are publicly available at https://mediatum.ub.tum.de/1662763 and https://thebenchmarkh.github.io/.

Index Terms—Benchmark, cross-dataset transfer, remote sensing, synthetic data, transfer learning, Transformer.

I. INTRODUCTION

MONOCULAR height estimation (MHE) [1] is of great importance to rapid 3-D city modeling and can give a basic insight into urbanization level. Geometric information from 3-D cities can be used for energy demand estimation, population estimation, damage forecasting, and so on [2].

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are very common in real-world applications. One potential approach to mitigate these domain shifts is to gather data from multiple cities. However, it is prohibitively expensive or even impossible to collect high-quality data samples for the MHE task from diverse cities at a global scale.

Second, to ensure the performance of MHE models in real-world applications, it is imperative to construct datasets for MHE model training that encompass a wide range of imaging conditions. The existing methods usually train and test MHE models using unbiased datasets [5]. However, for real-world applications, providing the training data under diverse imaging conditions can be effective at improving the robustness and performance of deep networks. However, constructing datasets with different imaging conditions, such as different camera poses (heights and angles), camera resolutions, and viewing fields, is further expensive and difficult. Consequently, there is a lack of high-resolution, highly accurate, and large-scale annotated height estimation benchmark dataset.

To address these aforementioned limitations, we resort to constructing a large-scale synthetic dataset that contains high-resolution images with accurate geometric information captured under different conditions. The presented benchmark dataset, termed Transferable Monocular Height Estimation (THE), can foster research on transferable representation learning for MHE, as illustrated in Fig. 1. In addition to the benchmark dataset, we design a new Transformer-based method to enhance the performance of MHE models in two cross-dataset experimental settings. To summarize, we make the following contributions:

1) Collecting and releasing two new datasets for MHE. One is a large-scale synthetic dataset termed Grand Theft Auto for Height estimation (GTAH), which is obtained from the game Grand Theft Auto [6], under different imaging conditions. The other dataset is a real-world one collected from the Actueel Hoogtebestand Nederland (AHN) project, which covers multiple cities in the Netherlands.

2) Constructing a new benchmark platform for transferable MHE. Specifically, one synthetic dataset and five real-world datasets are included to explore the feasibility of height knowledge transfer from synthetic to real scenes. We propose a few-shot cross-dataset transfer setting to evaluate deep models on datasets that were not seen during training.

3) To further enhance the model transferability in a cross-dataset experimental setting, we design a new scale-deformable convolution (SDC) module to enhance the Transformer networks with adaptive spatial context. The SDC module can learn to adjust the spatial context of representations adaptively across different datasets.

Extensive quantitative and qualitative results show that our framework outperforms the existing methods clearly, which indicates the effectiveness of the proposed methods. The remainder of this article is organized as follows. Section II reviews related works. Section IV introduces the details of the proposed method. In Section V, extensive experiments and analysis are presented to verify the proposed method comprehensively. Finally, this work is concluded in Section VI.

II. RELATED WORK

Both monocular depth estimation (MDE) and MHE are geometry-related regression tasks; the former motivates the development of the latter to some extent. In this section, related works on MDE are first investigated, and then MHE is introduced.

A. Monocular Depth Estimation

Early works on MDE used hand-crafted visual features and probabilistic graphical models (PGMs) to encode depth-specific visual cues, including object size and texture density, based on a strong geometric assumption [7], [8], [9]. Recently, deep-learning-based methods have dominated this field because of their powerful feature representation capacity. There are roughly two types of deep-learning-based MDE, supervised methods [10], [11], [12], [13] and self-supervised (unsupervised) methods [14], [15], [16], [17], [18], [19], [20], [21], [22], [23], [24], [25].

In this work, we mainly introduce the supervised methods, which take a single image as input and generate a pixelwise depth prediction map, following the standard supervised-learning workflow with the need for manual-annotated depth labels. These methods achieve state-of-the-art performance by making breakthroughs in innovative architecture designs, effective incorporation of geometric and semantic constraints, and novel objective functions. Some enlightening works [10], [26], [27] have applied deep convolutional neural network (CNN) architectures to MDE, directly estimating depths from single monocular images in an end-to-end trainable manner, and achieving impressive performance. To model the semantic and geometric structure of objects within a scene, some work [28], [29], [30] has introduced semantic segmentation into MDEs as an auxiliary task, which can guide depth estimation at the object level.

Taking into account the imbalanced depth distribution that restricts model performance, Jiao et al. [12] presented an attention-based distance-related loss to concern more distant depth regions. Lee and Kim [31] combined multiple loss terms adaptively to train a monocular depth estimator from a constructed loss function space containing many loss terms. To balance the coverage speed of these losses, a loss-aware adaptive rebalancing algorithm was further designed in the course of training. The work most closely related to ours is [32], in which a robust training objective is designed to train deep-learning-based MDE models using multiple mixing datasets. For the first time, they propose to evaluate MDE models in a zero-shot cross-dataset transfer setting. More recently, vision Transformer-based deep models [33], [34] have also been proposed, to take advantage of the powerful representation learning ability of the Transformer backbone.

B. Monocular Height Estimation

Motivated by the success of deep-learning-based MDE, researchers have attempted to directly predict the height of objects, i.e., the DSM, within single aerial images from an overhead view [1], [35], [36], [37], [38], [39], [40], [41], [42],
Srivastava et al. [35] proposed a multitask CNN architecture for joint height estimation and semantic segmentation in monocular aerial images in 2017 for the first time. Mou and Zhu [1] published a concurrent work that proposed a fully convolutional–deconvolutional network for MHE and demonstrated its usefulness, for instance, the segmentation of buildings. Ghamisi and Yokoya [36] and Paoletti et al. [37] performed the image-to-image translation from monocular optical images to the corresponding depth maps within three cities, using the technique of generative adversarial network (GAN). Amini Amirkolaee and Arefi [38] presented a CNN-based method to identify collapsed buildings after an earthquake, based on preevent and postevent satellite images as well as airborne LiDAR data. Based on the CNN architecture, they further designed a postprocessing approach to merge multiple predicted height image patches into a seamless continuous height map [39]. Liu et al. [40] proposed a joint framework called height-embedding context reassembly network (HECR-Net) to simultaneously predict semantic labels and height maps from single aerial images, by distilling height-aware embeddings implicitly.

Leveraging the optical flow prediction technique, Chridtie et al. [41] developed an encoding strategy of the universal geocentric pose of objects within static monocular aerial images and trained a deep network to compute the dense representation; these attributes were exploited to rectify oblique images to dramatically improve the accuracy of height prediction of multiple images taken from different oblique viewpoints. Mahmud et al. [42] proposed a boundary-aware multitask deep-learning-based architecture for fast 3-D building modeling from single overhead images, by jointly learning a modified signed distance function, a dense height map, and scene semantics from building boundaries to model the buildings within the scenes. Madhuanand et al. [43] aimed to estimate depth from a single unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) aerial image, by designing a self-supervised learning approach named self-supervised MDE that does not need any information other than images.

Although these works have contributed to the development of MHE in the past few years, most of them stayed within a particular comfort zone. There is an urgent need to study some more crucial issues that restrict the practical application of MHE in the open real world, such as the exploration in few-shot knowledge transfer in a cross-dataset setting, and scale-adaptive MHE model design. Aiming to address these problems, this article conducts the corresponding research and exploration.

III. TRANSFERABLE MONOCULAR HEIGHT ESTIMATION

This section describes the proposed THE benchmark, which includes a synthetic GTAH dataset and five real-world datasets. The newly constructed GTAH and AHN datasets are described in detail, including their data source, dataset details, and statistical characteristics. Then to fairly evaluate the proposed two datasets in the MHE field, a comprehensive statistical analysis for datasets from five different domains is performed.

A. GTAH

In this section, the data source and dataset details of the synthetic GTAH dataset are introduced in detail.

1) Data Source: GTAH was collected from an electronic computer game called Grand Theft Auto V (GTA5) that was developed by Rockstar North and published by Rockstar Games [6]. The virtual world in GTA5 covers an area of 252 km², containing many scenes such as beach, stadium, mall, and store.

2) Dataset Details: GTAH contains a total of 85,881 pairs of synthetic monocular aerial images and their associated pixelwise height maps, with a resolution of 1920 $\times$ 1080. To simulate the complex real-world conditions in monocular...
aerial images, various imaging conditions are taken into consideration, as follows.

1) **Height Distribution**: Most of the scenes in GTAH are located in areas with a rich variety of buildings for height diversity. Diverse height facilitates a comprehensive and fair assessment of the performance of MHE algorithms, for the situation where height estimation is valid for some heights but is poor when faced with a wide variety of heights.

2) **Camera Locations**: For the diversity of height and scene information, 1111 positions are selected along the roads in GTA5’s city as the plane coordinates of the camera without respect to camera heights.

3) **Camera Angles**: Taking \([x, y, z]\) as the coordinate system, monocular aerial images of GTAH are captured from different viewpoints to simulate the diversity of camera pose.

4) **Camera Heights**: For the diversity of scene scales, monocular images are acquired at four camera heights of 300, 380, 460, and 540 m, to study the effects of the camera height in practice.

5) **Weather Types**: To evaluate the effectiveness and robustness of MHE methods in different weathers, GTAH contains three common weather conditions: “sunny,” “foggy,” and “cloudy.”

6) **Shadows**: Shadow is an implicit visual cue influencing the performance of MDE models. Dijk and Croon [47] made an ablation study of shadows to demonstrate their effect on MDE. As a similar task focusing on pixelwise regression, it could be presumed that MHE may also be influenced by shadows. To enable a study of this kind, GTAH contains the monocular images with (w/) and without (w/o) shadows.

7) **Capturing Different Times of Day**: Different times of day have a significant impact on light intensity and direction, which further determines the shadow direction of buildings. For the fine study of capturing times of day and their subsequent effects, three times of day are considered in GTAH: 9:00 A.M., 15:00 P.M., and 18:00 P.M.

Some example images of GTAH are shown in Fig. 2, and some statistical results of GTAH are shown in Fig. 3.

**B. AHN**

The data source, collection, and properties of the real-world AHN dataset are introduced in this section.

1) **Data Source**: AHN was collected from the Actueel Hoogtebestand Nederland\(^1\) project.

2) **Dataset Details**: AHN contains a total of 10775 pairs of real monocular aerial images and their associated pixelwise height maps, with a resolution of 1024 \(\times\) 1024. In the AHN dataset, images are selected to cover different scene types, including buildings, farms, forests, and water areas. The corresponding height maps are also carefully processed for MHE model training and evaluation. In addition, unlike other datasets, the AHN dataset covers multiple cities in the Netherlands, as shown in Fig. 2.

3) **How the Height Maps are Generated**: GTAH is generated using the GTA game, where we manipulate the pose of cameras and adjust other rendering parameters to obtain a variety of RGB images along with their corresponding height maps. The height data in GTAH are synthetically generated using a game engine, ensuring high quality and precision. The AHN dataset is acquired from the AHN project, which uses airborne LiDAR technology. The height data in the AHN project undergo extensive quality control checks before being released, ensuring its reliability and accuracy. For the US3D datasets, the height data are derived from airborne LiDAR data obtained from the Homeland Security Infrastructure Program.\(^2\) Specifically, the above ground level (AGL) height images are considered as the ground-truth height data.

**C. Comparison With Other Existing MHE Datasets**

To enrich the proposed THE benchmark dataset, we further take in the data of four cities from Urban Semantic 3-D \([48], [49], [50]\), including Jacksonville (JAX), Omaha (OMA), Atlanta (ATL), and Argentina (ARG). The detailed comparisons of these six MHE datasets are presented in **Table I**. In Fig. 3, we visualize the spatial distributions of the height in different datasets. The ARG dataset is collected from the Overhead Geopose Challenge (OGC).\(^3\) In addition, we have also analyzed the histogram of height distribution in six different datasets. In Fig. 4, we can see that the height distributions of all the six datasets obey long-tail distribution. It can be seen that the differences among these six datasets are clearly apparent. This also clearly indicates the domain shifts between different cities and the difficulty of cross-dataset transfer setting.

\(^1\)https://www.ahn.nl/het-verhaal-van-ahn

\(^2\)https://www.ahn.nl/hoe-werkt-het-inwinnen-van-hoogtegegevens

\(^3\)https://www.nasa.gov/overhead-geopose-challenge
IV. METHODOLOGY

In this section, we will introduce the proposed transformer-based frameworks for MHE. The whole network architecture is shown in Fig. 5. Specifically, we will first introduce some existing vision transformers and their limitations for the MHE task. Then, an adaptive-structure convolution module is introduced to improve the performance and transferability of MHE. Finally, based on the constructed synthetic dataset, a few-shot cross-dataset transfer learning method is designed.

A. Vision Transformer for Height Prediction

Compared with CNN-based deep architectures, Transformers enable relationship modeling between input tokens and can capture relative height information through the self-attention mechanism. To predict the pixelwise height value from monocular images accurately, it is beneficial to make use of the relative height relationships between neighboring pixels. For the MHE task, this advantage makes Transformer-based architectures more effective in improving both the performance and the transferability of deep models.

B. Scale-Deformable Convolution for Few-Shot Cross-Dataset Transfer

For real-world applications, few-shot cross-dataset performance is a more faithful evaluation metric than training and testing on datasets with the same biases. Compared with the MDE task, the cross-dataset evaluation for MHE is more challenging. The reason is that remote sensing imagery captured at different heights will be greatly different due to the change in resolutions. However, the height values of objects on the ground should not change with different camera poses. This inconsistency makes MHE an extremely challenging task, especially in cross-dataset evaluation settings.

The Swin Transformer (Swin-T) can greatly reduce the computational complexity by computing self-attention maps within local windows. The window size is an important hyperparameter for the window-based Transformer models. However, for images with significantly different resolutions, aggregating context information in fixed-size windows has an obvious limitation: the spatial context for objects with different scales will be inconsistent. This makes the standard window-based Transformer less effective for handling the scale-variation problem. Consequently, the severe scale-inconsistent problem in remotely sensed images (as shown in Fig. 2) makes the fixed window size for image partitioning ineffective.

Considering this limitation, in this work, we propose an SDC module to adjust the spatial context of each pixel for the Transformer model in a learnable way. We achieve this goal by designing a deformable convolution operation with learnable dilation rates to adjust the receptive field in a structured way. Given the input feature map $X \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times h \times w}$ and kernel weight $w \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times c \times k \times k}$, the standard convolution can be formulated as

$$V_{p_0} = \sum_{p_n \in \Omega} w(p_n) \cdot x(p)$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where $V_{p_0} \in \mathbb{R}^c$ denotes the output features at pixel $p_0$. Indexes of the 2-D spatial offsets for the convolution operation are denoted by $\Omega$. For a point $p_0$ in the output feature map, the coordinates used for convolution computation are $p = p_0 + p_n$.

To adjust the spatial context, the deformable convolution [51] was proposed to learn additional offsets to get a more flexible receptive field for each pixel. Although deformable convolution can learn adaptive context by offsets, we argue that merely using the offsets is still inefficient to adjust the receptive field with significant scale variation. For the traditional deformable convolution, usually, multiple deformable convolution layers are required to gradually adjust the context by the learned offsets. While using a learnable multiplier for the receptive field would be more effective, especially in the few-shot transfer settings. Thus, in this work,
we further extend the deformable convolution with learnable dilation rates. Based on this idea, the coordinates of point \( p \) becomes

\[
p^i = p_0^i + \eta^i p_n^i + \Delta p^i \quad \text{and} \quad p^j = p_0^j + \eta^j p_n^j + \Delta p^j
\]

where \( \eta = \{\eta^i, \eta^j\} \) are the learnable dilation rates, which can be used to control the receptive field for each pixel in a structured manner. The 2-D offsets of the deformable convolution are expressed by \( \Delta p_n = \{\Delta p_n^i, \Delta p_n^j\} \).

In practice, the dilation rates \( \eta \) and offsets \( \Delta p_n \) are typically fractional. To enable their end-to-end optimization, we adopt differentiable bilinear sampling to perform SDC, which can be defined as

\[
V^c_{p_0} = \sum_{u, v} \sum_{n} x^c(u, v) \max(0, 1 - |p^i - v|) \max(0, 1 - |p^j - u|)
\]

where \( p_0 \in \{1, 2, \ldots, HW\} \) is the index of output feature maps, and \( c \in \{1, \ldots, C\} \) is the index of feature channels. For the sake of simplicity, the coordinate \( p_0 \) will be omitted in the following formulas. The coordinates of input feature maps are denoted by \( u, v \). Note that coordinates \( (p^i, p^j) \) and \( (u, v) \) are normalized in the range of \([-1, 1]\). During backward propagation, we need to compute the partial derivatives with respect to \( x^c(u, v), p^i, p^j, \Delta p^i, p_n^i, \eta^i, \) and \( \eta^j \). Based on (3), the partial derivatives for \( x^c(u, v) \) can be easily obtained by

\[
\frac{\partial V^c}{\partial x^c(u, v)} = \sum_{u, v} \sum_{n} \max(0, 1 - |p^i - v|) \max(0, 1 - |p^j - u|).
\]

Next, the partial derivatives of \( p^i \) can be computed by

\[
\frac{\partial V^c}{\partial p^i} = \sum_{u, v} x^c(u, v) \max(0, 1 - |p^i - u|) g(v, p^i)
\]

where \( g(v, p^i) \) is a piecewise function that can be formulated as

\[
g(v, p^i) = \begin{cases} 
0, & \text{if } |v - p_i| \geq 1 \\
1, & \text{if } v \geq p_i \\
-1, & \text{if } v < p_i.
\end{cases}
\]

The partial derivative (\( \partial V^c / \partial p^i \)) is similar to that of \( p^i \). Furthermore, the partial derivative of \( \eta^i \) can be obtained by applying the chain rule

\[
\frac{\partial V^c}{\partial \eta^i} = \frac{\partial V^c}{\partial p^i} \frac{\partial p^i}{\partial \eta^i}
\]

The computation of partial derivatives (\( \partial V^c / \partial \eta^i \)) is similar to that of (\( \partial V^c / \partial p^i \)). Finally, we follow the same formulas described in deformable convolutional networks (DCN) [51] to compute the partial derivatives (\( \partial V^c / \partial \Delta p_n \)).

C. Scale-Invariant Training Loss

Different from the MDE task, the MHE datasets may contain images captured at diverse camera poses, e.g., different camera heights. Due to the fact that the range of object heights may vary greatly for different camera poses, as shown in Fig. 2, it will be difficult to learn consistent deep representations for the MHE model across different camera poses. In this situation, better deep representations can be learned by training MHE models with consideration to relative height relationships. Thus, during the training stage, the loss functions consist of two components. The first loss term is the regular height map regression loss, which is defined with a pixelwise MSE loss. The second loss term is the scale-invariant training loss between different pixel pairs. Let \( y_h \) denote the ground-truth height map, and \( \hat{y}_h \) be the predicted height map. Then the final loss function can be defined as

\[
L = L_{mse}(\hat{y}_h, y_h) + L_{rh}(\hat{y}_h, y_{hj})
\]

where \( L_{mse} \) denotes the MSE loss function, \( L_{rh} \) represents the relative height consistency loss. In the following part, we introduce three different implementations of the scale-invariant loss term including \( L_{si}, L_{r}, \) and \( L_{msg} \). These loss functions are initially proposed for the MHE task; in this work, we adapt them for the MHE task for performance comparison.

To handle the varying scale problem in training depth estimation models, Eigen et al. [52] designed a scale-invariant loss

\[
L_{si}(\hat{y}_h, y_h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i R_i^2 - \frac{1}{n^2} \left( \sum_i R_i \right)^2
\]
This relative constraint loss $L_r$ encourages the predicted depth map to agree with the ground-truth ordinal relationships.

Ranftl et al. [32] proposed to use gradient matching loss [54] to train the depth estimation models in the zero-shot cross-dataset transfer setting. In this work, the multiscale gradient matching loss is adapted to the MHE task by

$$L_{msg} (\hat{y}_h, y_h) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i=1}^{M} (|\nabla_r R_k^i| + |\nabla_y R_k^i|)$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

where $R_k^i$ is the difference between the predicted height map and the ground-truth height map at scale $k$. The number of pixels in a predicted height map is denoted by $M$. In this work, four different scales $[1, (1/2), (1/4), (1/8)]$ are used. We also combine the gradient matching loss $L_{msg}$ with a standard MSE loss to form the final training loss.

V. EXPERIMENTS

This section begins by introducing the experimental settings. Then, the evaluation metrics are defined in brief. Finally, the few-shot synthetic-to-real transfer experiments are conducted, based on the existing deep semantic models and the proposed method.

A. Experimental Settings

In this section, a series of experiments are set up to evaluate the transferability of MHE models comprehensively.

1) Benchmark Experiments on the GTAH Dataset: Extensive experiments are conducted on GTAH to compare the effectiveness of different existing deep architectures, relative height loss functions, and the proposed method in this work.

2) Few-Shot Cross-Dataset Transfer Experiments: Experiments under the few-shot cross-dataset setting are performed to examine the transfer performance from the GTAH to real datasets when only a few annotated target samples are available. In addition, to better understand the effect of the proposed SDC module, we visualize and analyze the module’s scale-adaptive ability for obtaining the adaptive spatial context.

3) Pretraining Comparison Experiments: Finally, to verify the superiority of the GTAH to ImageNet for pretraining the MHE models, their training losses and visualization of model weight distribution are provided intuitively.

B. Implementation Details

All the deep models are implemented in PyTorch. For the GTAH dataset, 100 epochs are used to train the deep models used for transfer learning in this work. For the CNN-based U-Net model with the ResNet-34 backbone, we use the code\(^4\) from [41]. Adam [56] is used for optimizing the model with an initial learning rate of $1e-4$. For the SwinUper backbone, the tiny version of the Swin-T is used and the UperNet [57] is used for the decoder. The optimizer AdamW [58] is used with an initial learning rate of $6e-5$ for training all the Transformer-based deep models. Adabins [59] and DenseViT [33] are the state-of-the-art MDE models selected for performance comparison on the proposed GTAH dataset. The detailed hyperparameters for model training can be found in the publicly available code.\(^5\)

In the few-shot cross-dataset transfer experiments, we randomly select 1% and 5% of the training data for each of the five real-world datasets (cities), as presented in Table II. Then 15 epochs are used to fine-tune the deep models initialized

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### TABLE II

| Datasets | Training (#Images) | Validation (#Images) | Test (#Images) |
|----------|-------------------|---------------------|---------------|
| ARG      | 16                | 80                  | 200           |
| ATL      | 4                 | 20                  | 200           |
| JAX      | 6                 | 30                  | 200           |
| OMA      | 12                | 60                  | 200           |
| AHN      | 50                | 250                 | 200           |

### TABLE III

| Method                  | Height Estimation Metrics |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
|                         | MAE | RMSE | SI-RMSE | MSGE |
| U-Net (ResNet34) [55]   | 4.860 | 6.731 | 39.511 | 3.357 |
| Adabins (ResNet30) [55] | 3.651 | 5.552 | 28.125 | 2.957 |
| DenseViT [55]           | 3.253 | 4.898 | 23.327 | 2.753 |
| SwinUper [56]           | 2.946 | 4.628 | 21.169 | 2.358 |
| SwinUper + $L_{msg}$ [32] | 2.943 | 4.614 | 20.754 | 2.277 |
| SwinUper + $L_{ci}$ [52] | 2.958 | 4.624 | 20.855 | 2.392 |
| SwinUper + $L_{ci}$ [53] | 2.995 | 4.683 | 21.302 | 2.371 |
| SwinUper + SDC (Ours)   | 2.928 | 4.562 | 19.990 | 2.336 |

### TABLE IV

| Datasets | MAE | SI-RMSE | RMSE | MSGE |
|----------|-----|---------|------|------|
| ARG      | 5.42 | 39.61   | 9.38 | 7.54 |
| ATL      | 17.6 | 156.7   | 14.57| 13.05|
| JAX      | 9.43 | 71.58   | 11.92| 7.13 |
| OMA      | 4.73 | 51.76   | 8.35 | 5.41 |
| AHN      | 2.66 | 22.18   | 6.24 | 5.86 |

\(^4\)https://github.com/pubgeo/monocular-geocentric-pose
\(^5\)https://github.com/EarthNets/3D-Understanding
of these, MAE and RMSE are measurements that account for a large percentage of the image. To evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed methods, we propose to use SI-RMSE and MSGE are more concerned with the correctness of relative relationships in height maps, which are useful complementary metrics for the evaluation of transferable MHE models.

### Experiments on GTAH Datasets

To verify the applicability and effectiveness of the proposed GTAH dataset and evaluate the proposed SDC module fairly, eight experiments are conducted on GTAH for performance comparison. First, following the work in [41], the U-Net [60] architecture with a CNN-based feature extraction backbone (ResNet-34) is adopted as a CNN-based baseline model for MHE. Then, Adabins [59] with ResNet-50 backbone and DenseViT [33] with the Vision Transformer backbone are selected as the state-of-the-art MDE methods for performance comparison. Furthermore, Swin-T is used as a Transformer-based feature extraction backbone for height estimation, which can be viewed as another baseline. To further explore the influence of the relative height loss functions on MHE, three different types of loss functions, \( L_{msg}, L_s, \) and \( L_r \), are added to constrain the relative relationship between pairwise pixels.

The experimental results are provided in Table III. When comparing the results of the two different baseline methods: U-Net and Swin-T, it is clear that the Transformer-based model significantly outperforms U-Net. Such results indicate that under the full-supervision setting within an unbiased dataset, the Transformer architecture can be more effective on the MHE task, benefiting from its excellent context modeling capability. Based on the Swin-T, the performance of \( L_{msg} \) is superior to the other two losses \( L_s \) and \( L_r \), which reveals that a reasonable relative height constraint is useful for improving the performance of MHE.

When integrating the proposed SDC module into the Swin-T, a notable performance gain is obtained, which verifies the effectiveness of the proposed SDC module for MHE due to its adaptive context modeling ability. It is worth noting that

\[
\text{MSGE} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i=1}^{M} \left( |\nabla_x R_i^k| + |\nabla_y R_i^k| \right). \quad (13)
\]

Compared with MAE and RMSE, the metrics SI-RMSE and MSGE are more concerned with the correctness of relative relationships in height maps, which are useful complementary metrics for the evaluation of transferable MHE models.
TABLE VI
EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS ON THE JAX DATASET IN THE FEW-SHOT CROSS-DATASET TRANSFER SETTING. THE RESULTS OF USING 1% AND 5% TRAINING DATA ARE REPORTED. THE BEST RESULTS ARE IN BLUE, AND THE SECOND-BEST ONES ARE IN GREEN

| Methods          | Height Estimation | MAE | SI-RMSE | RMSE | MSE | Height Estimation | MAE | SI-RMSE | RMSE | MSE |
|------------------|-------------------|-----|---------|------|-----|-------------------|-----|---------|------|-----|
|                  | Metrics (1% Training) |     |         |      |     | Metrics (5% Training) |      |         |      |     |
| U-Net (ImageNet) [55] | 7.403            | 54.166 | 9.891   | 4.038 | 5.738 | 40.100            | 6.807 | 3.204   |
| U-Net (GTAH) [55]   | 6.297            | 49.096 | 9.345   | 3.703 | 5.691 | 35.678            | 6.703 | 3.181   |
| Adabins (ImageNet) [60] | 6.510            | 48.972 | 9.001   | 3.970 | 5.22  | 35.239            | 6.592 | 3.202   |
| Adabins (GTAH) [60]  | 5.779            | 40.335 | 7.327   | 3.522 | 5.082 | 27.418            | 6.390 | 3.092   |
| DenseViT (ImageNet) [33] | 7.165            | 30.660 | 9.777   | 3.975 | 5.676 | 35.343            | 6.534 | 3.144   |
| DenseViT (GTAH) [33] | 3.936            | 40.695 | 8.667   | 3.708 | 5.648 | 29.517            | 6.768 | 3.103   |
| SwinUper (ImageNet) [56] | 6.281            | 43.410 | 6.984   | 3.328 | 5.694 | 31.480            | 6.930 | 3.060   |
| SwinUper (GTAH) [56] | 5.507            | 40.314 | 6.600   | 3.324 | 4.739 | 25.276            | 6.602 | 2.920   |
| SwinUper+\(L_{msg}\) (GTAH) [32] | 5.645            | 40.719 | 6.818   | 3.420 | 4.828 | 26.054            | 6.632 | 2.998   |
| SwinUper+SDC (GTAH) (Ours) | 5.425            | 37.773 | 6.530   | 3.136 | 4.576 | 23.506            | 6.211 | 2.799   |

TABLE VII
EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS ON THE OMA DATASET IN THE FEW-SHOT CROSS-DATASET TRANSFER SETTING. THE RESULTS OF USING 1% AND 5% TRAINING DATA ARE REPORTED. THE BEST RESULTS ARE IN BLUE, AND THE SECOND-BEST ONES ARE IN GREEN

| Methods          | Height Estimation | MAE | SI-RMSE | RMSE | MSE | Height Estimation | MAE | SI-RMSE | RMSE | MSE |
|------------------|-------------------|-----|---------|------|-----|-------------------|-----|---------|------|-----|
|                  | Metrics (1% Training) |     |         |      |     | Metrics (5% Training) |      |         |      |     |
| U-Net (ImageNet) [55] | 3.755            | 17.682 | 6.399   | 2.031 | 3.475 | 19.402            | 6.156 | 1.925   |
| U-Net (GTAH) [55]   | 3.572            | 16.452 | 6.388   | 2.009 | 3.439 | 14.815            | 6.028 | 1.873   |
| Adabins (ImageNet) [60] | 3.431            | 17.630 | 6.125   | 1.915 | 3.248 | 18.977            | 6.101 | 1.876   |
| Adabins (GTAH) [60]  | 3.334            | 14.725 | 5.291   | 1.887 | 2.913 | 13.815            | 4.838 | 1.618   |
| DenseViT (ImageNet) [33] | 3.665            | 17.679 | 6.203   | 1.974 | 2.593 | 18.379            | 5.913 | 1.872   |
| DenseViT (GTAH) [33] | 3.546            | 15.257 | 5.619   | 1.898 | 3.250 | 11.009            | 3.490 | 1.650   |
| SwinUper (ImageNet) [56] | 3.780            | 16.350 | 4.349   | 1.980 | 3.577 | 14.757            | 4.465 | 1.786   |
| SwinUper (GTAH) [56] | 3.318            | 14.247 | 4.600   | 1.969 | 2.800 | 9.956             | 4.439 | 1.382   |
| SwinUper+\(L_{msg}\) (GTAH) [32] | 3.411            | 14.826 | 4.572   | 2.109 | 2.896 | 10.625            | 4.401 | 1.604   |
| SwinUper+SDC (GTAH) (Ours) | 3.237            | 13.714 | 4.480   | 1.866 | 2.735 | 9.519             | 4.238 | 1.336   |

there is great potential to combine \(L_{msg}\) with our proposed SDC, which may further boost MHE performance.

To further explore the generalization of the proposed method, we directly use the proposed method “SwinUper+SDC” that is pretrained on GTAH to predict the height of real-world images. Note that these images are randomly selected from Google Earth Map, as illustrated in Fig. 6. We can see that the pretrained model can reasonably estimate the height maps of these images, especially for the buildings with clear geometric information.

E. Experiments on Few-Shot Cross-Dataset Transfer

Few-shot learning has been studied heavily for image classification and semantic segmentation. However, for the dense regression task like MHE, there is still a lack of research on few-shot cross-dataset transfer. In this work, we fill in this gap by conducting cross-dataset transfer experiments from GTAH to the five real-world datasets under the few-shot setting. Before the few-shot cross-dataset transfer setting, we first conduct zero-shot transfer experiments to show the MHE results on real-city datasets using the GTAH pretrained weights with no fine-tuning process. The results in Table IV reveal that the MHE performance in the zero-shot transfer setting is poor due to significant domain shifts.

In the few-shot setting, for each dataset, only 1% or 5% of the training samples are randomly sampled for fast fine-tuning. As presented in Table II, for 1% setting, only less than 100 images are used for the model fine-tuning. The experimental results of AHN, JAX, OMA, ATL, and ARG are shown in Tables V–IX, respectively.

When we focus on the initialization strategy, it can be seen that the results of all the different models including U-Net, Adabins, DenseViT, and the SwinUper pretrained
on GTAH have a dramatic superiority to those pretrained on ImageNet. Especially for the ATL dataset with higher height distribution, ImageNet pretrained U-Net and Swin-T experience a performance collapse, whereas these models pretrained on GTAH maintain a stable performance. The results demonstrate that our proposed GTAH dataset is more suitable for MHE initialization.

Next, the results of the Swin-T model pretrained on GTAH with relative constraint loss $L_{msg}$ show that the introduction of $L_{msg}$ is not beneficial for improving performance in general. The reason may be that introducing the relative constraint by loss functions is not useful for improving the generalizability of the MHE model across different datasets. In contrast, the proposed SDC module is still effective in the few-shot setting. The model “SwinUper + SDC (GTAH)” obtains the best results on all the datasets. Compared with the baseline method “SwinUper (GTAH),” the proposed model “SwinUper + SDC (GTAH)” shows virtue of its overall superiority with a considerable performance gain, which verifies that the adaptive scale modeling ability is helpful for the Swin-T by learning an adaptive receptive field.

To intuitively illustrate the effect of the SDC module, some visualization examples of the dynamic spatial context are provided in Fig. 7. In Fig. 7, we can see that the low-frequency region needs a larger receptive field to acquire enough context information, while the high-frequency region only requires a relatively smaller receptive field for the MHE task.

Some visualization examples on the five real-world datasets under the few-shot transfer setting are presented in Fig. 8.

### F. ImageNet Pretraining Versus GTAH Pretraining

To further study the effectiveness of model pretraining in the cross-dataset transfer setting, we present and analyze the loss trends of the model “SwinUper + SDC” during the few-shot model fine-tuning stage. As shown in Fig. 9, from the loss trend we can see that models with GTAH pretrained parameters can converge faster. Especially on the JAX, OMA, and ATL datasets, models initialized with the ImageNet pretrained parameters are difficult to converge. 1) Visualization of the Loss Tendency: In Fig. 9, we can observe that for the datasets of AHN and ARG, both ImageNet and GTAH pretrained parameters can accelerate model training, while using GTAH can result in a faster convergence rate at the early stage. Taking into consideration their test results in Tables V and IX, the Swin-T pretrained on the GTAH dataset still outperforms that pretrained on ImageNet. When we turn to the JAX and ATL datasets, the model using GTAH pretrained parameters experiences a rapid decline and shows a dramatic advantage to ImageNet. From the perspective of loss tendency, our proposed GTAH dataset can facilitate the training process of all the datasets, albeit to different extents.

2) Visualization of the Weight Distribution: We also visualize and compare the weight distributions of deep models trained on ImageNet, GTAH, and real-world datasets, respectively. As presented in Fig. 10, the weight distribution of the last two layers (Layer1 and Layer2) of the SwinUper method is visualized. For both the layers, the parameters
trained on GTA H have a more similar distribution to those trained on real-world datasets than the ImageNet pretrained parameters. Especially for Layer1, the distribution of weights trained on GTA H is highly consistent with those trained on real datasets. For Layer2, the differences in weight distributions between ImageNet and real-world datasets become larger. This is reasonable because the shallow layers mainly extract the universal representations, while the final layer is usually responsible for the dataset-specific predictions.

3) Comparison With Pretrained Weights on Remote Sensing Data: In Table X, we also compare the performance of weights pretrained on GTA H with other remote sensing datasets. Considering that natural images in ImageNet are different from remotely sensed images, we compare our...
method with SSLTransformerRS [61] that are pretrained on the Sentinel-2 dataset using self-supervised learning. As shown in Table X, SwinUper (SSLTransformerRS) is slightly better than SwinUper (ImageNet). Pretraining using GTAH can achieve superior performance than others, which indicates the effectiveness of the proposed dataset.

### VI. Conclusion

In this article, we study the transferability of height estimation models in a cross-dataset transfer setting. To start with, a new large-scale synthetic dataset, named GTAH, for height estimation from monocular remote sensing images is constructed and released. GTAH contains highly accurate high-resolution RGB/height image pairs captured under different imaging conditions, which can be helpful to foster research on MHE. Furthermore, we also collect and release a large-scale real-world dataset termed AHN, for the MHE task. Then, we study the transferability of deep learning models for MHE in a cross-dataset setting, which is more consistent with real-world applications. To achieve this goal, a large-scale benchmark dataset for cross-dataset transfer learning on the MHE task is constructed. Furthermore, a new experimental protocol, few-shot cross-dataset transfer, is designed to evaluate the generalizability of MHE models in a cross-dataset setting. In addition, an SDC module is designed to handle the severe scale variation problem. The experimental results have verified the effectiveness of the proposed new datasets and methods for the height estimation task.

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