

Stronger, Fewer, & Superior: Harnessing Vision Foundation Models for Domain Generalized Semantic Segmentation

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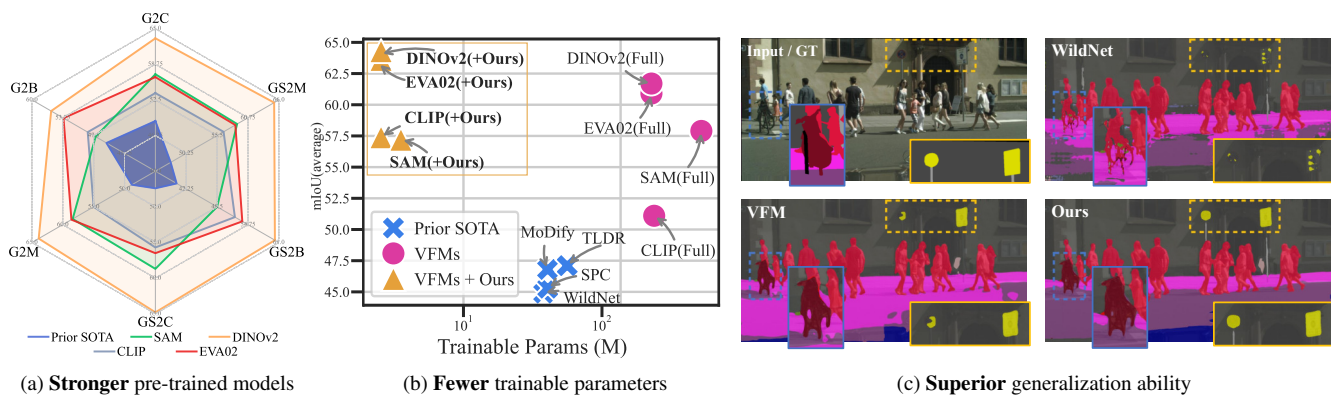


Figure 1. Vision Foundation Models (VFMs) are **stronger** pre-trained models that serve as robust backbones, effortlessly outperforming previous state-of-the-art Domain Generalized Semantic Segmentation (DGSS), as shown in (a). Yet, the extensive parameters of VFMs make them challenging to train. To address this, we introduce a robust fine-tuning approach to efficiently harness VFMs for DGSS. As illustrated in (b) and (c), the proposed methods achieve **superior** generalizability with **fewer** trainable parameters within backbones.

Abstract

In this paper, we first assess and harness various Vision Foundation Models (VFMs) in the context of Domain Generalized Semantic Segmentation (DGSS). Driven by the motivation that **Leveraging Stronger pre-trained models and Fewer trainable parameters for Superior generalizability**, we introduce a robust fine-tuning approach, namely “**Rein**”, to parameter-efficiently harness VFMs for DGSS. Built upon a set of trainable tokens, each linked to distinct instances, Rein precisely refines and forwards the feature maps from each layer to the next layer within the backbone. This process produces diverse refinements for different categories within a single image. With fewer trainable parameters, Rein efficiently fine-tunes VFMs for DGSS tasks, surprisingly surpassing full parameter fine-tuning. Extensive experiments across various settings demonstrate that Rein significantly outperforms state-of-the-art methods. Remarkably, with just an extra **1%** of trainable parameters

within the frozen backbone, Rein achieves a mIoU of **78.4%** on the Cityscapes, without accessing any real urban-scene datasets. Code is available at <https://github.com/wloves/Rein.git>.

1. Introduction

Prior works [32, 34, 36, 56, 63, 66, 72] in Domain Generalized Semantic Segmentation (DGSS) focus on improving prediction accuracy across multiple unseen domains without accessing their data, thus enabling a high generalization for real applications. Since models are fine-tuned using datasets [11, 57] that are either limited in scale or different in image style from the target domain, complex data augmentation approaches [4, 53, 73] and domain invariant feature extraction strategies [9, 51, 62, 67] have been widely explored in previous DGSS. These methods result in enhanced generalization when applied to classic backbones, e.g., VGGNet [61], MobileNetV2 [60], and ResNet [23].

In recent years, large-scale Vision Foundation Models (VFMs) like CLIP [55], MAE [24], SAM [38], EVA02 [17, 18], and DINOv2 [50] have significantly advanced the

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Methods	Previous DGSS methods						Frozen backbone of VFMs				
	GTR[53]	AdvStyle[73]	WildNet[40]	SPC[27]	PASTA[4]	TLDR[37]	CLIP-ViT-L[55]	MAE-L[24]	SAM-H[38]	EVA02-L[17]	DINOv2-L[50]
Publications	TIP21	NIPS22	CVPR22	CVPR23	ICCV23	ICCV23	ICML21	CVPR22	ICCV23	arXiv23	arXiv23
mIoU (Citys)	43.7	43.4	45.8	46.7	45.3	47.6	53.7	43.3	57.0	56.5	63.3
mIoU (BDD)	39.6	40.3	41.7	43.7	42.3	44.9	48.7	37.8	47.1	53.6	56.1
mIoU (Map)	39.1	42.0	47.1	45.5	48.6	48.8	55.0	48.0	58.4	58.6	63.9
mIoU (Average)	40.8	41.9	44.9	45.3	45.4	47.1	52.4	43.0	54.2	56.2	61.1

Table 1. Performance benchmarking of **multiple VFMs and previous DGSS methods** under the *GTAV* \rightarrow *Cityscapes* (*Citys*) + *BDD100K* (*BDD*) + *Mapillary* (*Map*) generalization setting. Without specialized design, frozen VFMs demonstrate **stronger** performance.

boundaries of performance in a variety of computer vision challenges. Giving the remarkable generalization of these VFMs across various unseen scenes, two intuitive questions emerge: *How do VFMs perform in the context of DGSS?* And *How to harness VFMs for DGSS?* We attempt to answer these questions as follows:

Stronger: We begin by evaluating and comparing the performance of various VFMs against existing DGSS methods. To ensure a fair comparison, we use image encoders from a variety of VFMs as the backbone for feature extraction in all cases. These backbones are coupled with the widely-used decode head, *i.e.*, Mask2Former [8], to generate semantic predictions. As illustrated in Tab. 1, while previous DGSS methods have showcased commendable results, they perform less effectively compared to frozen VFMs. This finding clearly demonstrates the powerful potential of VFMs in DGSS, outperforming traditional backbones like ResNet [23] and MobileNetV2 [60], thereby establishing VFMs as a meaningful benchmark in the field.

Fewer: Although VFMs have exhibited impressive generalization capabilities, fine-tuning them for DGSS tasks poses a challenge. The datasets [11, 57] commonly used in DGSS tasks are significantly smaller in scale compared to ImageNet [12], and fine-tuning VFMs with their huge number of trainable parameters on these datasets result in limited generalizability [33]. To address this issue, instead of the difficult task of large datasets collection, we resort to fine-tuning VFMs with fewer trainable parameters. However, most existing parameter-efficient fine-tuning strategies, which fine-tune a large-scale model with fewer trainable parameters, are primarily designed for adapting large language models [25, 26, 41, 43, 44, 70, 74] or classification networks [6, 28]. These methods are not developed for refining features for distinct instances within a single image, thereby limiting their effectiveness in DGSS contexts.

Superior: In this work, we introduce a robust and efficient fine-tuning approach, namely “Rein”. Tailored for DGSS tasks, Rein employs fewer trainable parameters to harness stronger VFMs for achieving superior generalization. At its core, Rein comprises a set of randomly initialized tokens, each directly linked to different instances. These tokens, through a dot-product operation with VFMs features, generate an attention-like similarity map. This map enables Rein to perform precise refinement tailored to

each instance within an image, significantly boosting VFMs in the context of DGSS. Moreover, to reduce the number of trainable parameters, we employ shared weights across MLPs in different layers and design our learnable tokens by multiplying two low-rank matrices. Extensive experiments on various DGSS settings demonstrate that the proposed Rein outperforms existing DGSS methods by a large margin with fewer trainable parameters. In a nutshell, the **main contributions** of this paper are as follows:

- We first assess various Vision Foundation Models (VFMs) in the context of Domain Generalized Semantic Segmentation (DGSS). Our extensive experiments in the DGSS framework highlight the impressive generalization capabilities of VFMs. The findings confirm that VFMs serve as **Stronger** backbones, thereby establishing a significant benchmark in this field.
- We present a robust fine-tuning method, namely “**Rein**”, to parameter-efficiently harness VFMs. At its core, Rein consists of a set of learnable tokens, each directly linked to instances. With deliberate design, this linkage enables Rein to refine features at an instance-level within each layer. As a result, Rein reinforces the ability of VFMs in DGSS tasks, achieving this with **Fewer** trainable parameters while preserving the pre-trained knowledge.
- Comprehensive experiments across various DGSS settings demonstrate that Rein employs **Fewer** trainable parameters to effectively leverage **Stronger** VFMs for achieving **Superior** generalizability. This performance surpasses existing DGSS methods by a large margin. Notably, Rein is designed to integrate smoothly with existing plain vision transformers, improving their generalization ability and making training more efficient.

2. Related Works

Domain Generalized Semantic Segmentation. Domain Generalized Semantic Segmentation (DGSS) focuses on enhancing model generalizability. This field involves training models on a set of source domain to enhance their performance on distinct and unseen target domain. Various approaches [5, 13, 20, 21, 27, 29–31, 42, 54, 65] have been proposed to address this issue, with methods including splitting the learned features into domain-invariant and domain-specific components [62, 67], or employing meta-learning to train more robust models [35]. A standard scenario in

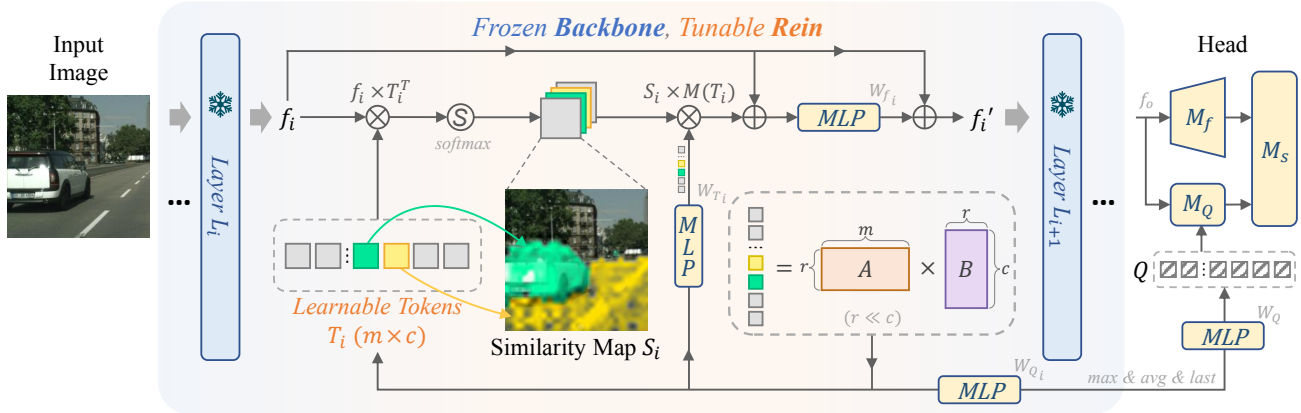


Figure 2. An overview of proposed Rein. Rein primarily consists of a collection of low-rank learnable tokens, denoted as $T = \{T_1, T_2, \dots, T_N\}$. These tokens establish direct connections to distinct instances, facilitating instance-level feature refinement. This mechanism results in the generation of an enhancement feature map $f'_i = f_i + \text{Rein}(f_i)$ for each layer within backbone. All parameters of MLPs are layer-shared to reduce the number of parameters. M_f , M_Q , and M_S are features module, queries module, and segmentation module, respectively. The notation *max & avg & last* refers to the equation Eq. (8) and Eq. (10).

Backbone	Fine-tune Method	Trainable Params*	mIoU			
			Citys	BDD	Map	Avg.
CLIP [55] (ViT-Large)	Full	304.15M	51.3	47.6	54.3	51.1
	Freeze	0.00M	53.7	48.7	55.0	52.4
	Rein	2.99M	57.1	54.7	60.5	57.4
MAE [24] (Large)	Full	330.94M	53.7	50.8	58.1	54.2
	Freeze	0.00M	43.3	37.8	48.0	43.0
	Rein	2.99M	55.0	49.3	58.6	54.3
SAM [38] (Huge)	Full	632.18M	57.6	51.7	61.5	56.9
	Freeze	0.00M	57.0	47.1	58.4	54.2
	Rein	4.51M	59.6	52.0	62.1	57.9
EVA02 [17, 18] (Large)	Full	304.24M	62.1	56.2	64.6	60.9
	Freeze	0.00M	56.5	53.6	58.6	56.2
	Rein	2.99M	65.3	60.5	64.9	63.6
DINOv2 [50] (Large)	Full	304.20M	63.7	57.4	64.2	61.7
	Freeze	0.00M	63.3	56.1	63.9	61.1
	Rein	2.99M	66.4	60.4	66.1	64.3

Table 2. Performance Comparison with the proposed **Rein** across **Multiple VFMs** as Backbones under the *GTAV* \rightarrow *Cityscapes* (*Citys*) + *BDD100K* (*BDD*) + *Mapillary* (*Map*) generalization setting. Mark * denotes trainable parameters in backbones.

DGSS is generalizing from one urban-scene dataset to another, for instance, from the synthetic GTAV [57] dataset to the real-world Cityscapes [11]. In this classic setting, certain techniques [9, 51, 52] have achieved notable performance through learning feature normalization/whitening schemes, while others [40] have improved segmentation results through feature-level style transfer and the introduction of additional data. Additionally, strong data augmentation [4, 16, 53, 73] often simply and effectively enhances model robustness. However, most of previous DGSS methods generally utilize outdated backbones like ResNet [23], VGGNet [61], MobileNetV2 [60], and ShuffleNetV2 [47], thereby leaving the efficacy of stronger Vision Foundation

Models (VFMs) in DGSS relatively unexplored.

Vision Foundation Models. The concept of a Foundation Model, initially introduced by Bommasani *et al.* [2] in the field of Natural Language Processing (NLP), defined as “the base models trained on large-scale data in a self-supervised or semi-supervised manner that can be adapted for several other downstream tasks”. While models like the ViT [14] and Swin Transformer [45] have demonstrated excellent performance, the quest for a Vision Foundation Model (VFM) similar to their NLP counterparts is ongoing. This pursuit has yielded significant advancements with the advent of models such as CLIP [55], which learn high-quality visual representation by exploring contrastive learning with large-scale image text pairs; MAE [24], utilizing a masked image modeling for learning latent image representations; SAM [38], which develops a promptable model and pre-train it on a broad dataset for segmentation task; EVA02 [17, 18], which integrates Masked Image Modeling pre-training with CLIP’s vision features; and DINOv2 [50], which is pretrained on extensive, curated datasets without explicit supervision. These VFMs have shown remarkable performance in downstream applications. Yet, a dedicated investigation into their performance in the specific context of DGSS tasks remains unexplored.

Parameter-Efficient Fine-tuning. In the realm of NLP, parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) has achieved notable success by freezing most parameters of VFMs and fine-tuning a select few. Various approaches have been developed, such as BitFit [70], which adjusts only the model’s bias terms; Prompt-tuning [41], introducing soft prompts to adapt frozen language models; Adapter-tuning [25], adding lightweight modules to each transformer layer; and notably, LoRA [26], which injects trainable rank decomposition matrices into transformer layers, yielding significant influence.

Target	ACDC[59] (test)					Cityscapes-C[48] (level-5)																
	Night	Snow	Fog	Rain	All	Blur				Noise				Digital				Weather				Avg.
						Motion	Defoc	Glass	Gauss	Gauss	Impul	Shot	Speck	Bright	Contr	Satur	JPEG	Snow	Spatt	Fog	Frost	
HGFormer	52.7	68.6	69.9	72.0	67.2	64.1	67.2	61.5	63.6	27.2	35.7	32.9	63.1	79.9	72.9	78.0	53.6	55.4	75.8	75.5	43.2	59.4
Ours	70.6	79.5	76.4	78.2	77.6	68.5	71.7	69.7	68.7	6.2	23.0	13.1	63.7	81.5	78.9	80.6	68.8	63.8	73.6	79.5	47.9	60.0

Table 3. Results on **Cityscapes** \rightarrow **ACDC (test)** and **Cityscapes-C (level-5)** datasets, utilizing a batch size of 8.

Backbone	Fine-tune Method	Trainable Params*	mIoU				
			Citys	BDD	Map	Avg.	
EVA02 (Large) [17, 18]	Full	304.24M	62.1	56.2	64.6	60.9	
	+AdvStyle [73]	304.24M	63.1	56.4	64.0	61.2	
	+PASTA [4]	304.24M	61.8	57.1	63.6	60.8	
	+GTR-LTR [53]	304.24M	59.8	57.4	63.2	60.1	
	Freeze	0.00M	56.5	53.6	58.6	56.2	
	+AdvStyle [73]	0.00M	51.4	51.6	56.5	53.2	
	+PASTA [4]	0.00M	57.8	52.3	58.5	56.2	
	+GTR-LTR [53]	0.00M	52.5	52.8	57.1	54.1	
	+LoRA [26]	1.18M	55.5	52.7	58.3	55.5	
	+AdaptFormer [6]	3.17M	63.7	59.9	64.2	62.6	
	+VPT [28]	3.69M	62.2	57.7	62.5	60.8	
	+Rein (ours)	2.99M	65.3	60.5	64.9	63.6	
	DINOv2 (Large) [50]	Full	304.20M	63.7	57.4	64.2	61.7
		+AdvStyle [73]	304.20M	60.8	58.0	62.5	60.4
+PASTA [4]		304.20M	62.5	57.2	64.7	61.5	
+GTR-LTR [4]		304.20M	62.7	57.4	64.5	61.6	
Freeze		0.00M	63.3	56.1	63.9	61.1	
+AdvStyle [73]		0.00M	61.5	55.1	63.9	60.1	
+PASTA [4]		0.00M	62.1	57.2	64.5	61.3	
+GTR-LTR [4]		0.00M	60.2	57.7	62.2	60.0	
+LoRA [26]		0.79M	65.2	58.3	64.6	62.7	
+AdaptFormer [6]		3.17M	64.9	59.0	64.2	62.7	
+VPT [28]		3.69M	65.2	59.4	65.5	63.3	
+Rein (ours)		2.99M	66.4	60.4	66.1	64.3	

Table 4. Performance Comparison of the proposed **Rein against other DGSS and PEFT methods** under the *GTAV* \rightarrow *Cityscapes* (*Citys*) + *BDD100K* (*BDD*) + *Mapillary* (*Map*) generalization setting. Mark * denotes trainable parameters in backbones.

The application of PEFT methods is also expanding into the field of computer vision [15, 39], with notable examples such as Visual Prompt Tuning (VPT) [28], which prepends prompts into the input sequence of transformer layers; AdaptFormer [6], replacing the MLP block in the transformer encoder with an AdaptMLP; LP-FT [39] find that fine-tuning can achieve worse accuracy than linear probing out-of-distribution; and Prompt-ICM [19], applying large-scale pre-trained models to the task of image coding for machines. Contrasting with these methods, we aim to refine feature maps for each instance within an image, thereby achieving superior performance in the realm of DGSS.

3. Methods

3.1. Preliminary

Driven by the motivation that **Leveraging Stronger pre-trained models and Fewer trainable parameters for Su-**

Source Domain	Cityscapes mIoU
GTAV	66.4
+Synthia	68.1
+UrbanSyn	78.4
+1/16 of Cityscapes Training set	82.5

Table 5. **Synthetic data + 1/16 of Citys.** \rightarrow **Citys.** val set.

prior generalizability, we choose to fine-tune VFMs with a reduced parameter set. A straightforward thought might involve a smaller decode head; however, this method merely acts as a passive receiver of feature maps from the backbone, lacking the flexibility to effectively adapt a frozen backbone for generating task-specific or scene-specific features. In contrast, we propose to embed a mechanism, named ‘‘Rein’’, between the layers within the backbone. Rein actively refines and forwards the feature maps from each layer to the subsequent one. This approach allows us to more effectively utilize the powerful capabilities of VFMs, much like using rein to control a horse.

Given a pre-trained VFM with parameters Φ_M , consisting of a sequence of layers L_1, L_2, \dots, L_N , a decode head \mathcal{H} parameterized by θ_h , and the Rein strategy with parameters θ_R , the optimization objective can be written as:

$$\arg \min_{\theta_R, \theta_h} \sum_{i=1}^{N_d} \mathcal{Loss}(\mathcal{H}_{\theta_h}(\mathcal{F}_{\Phi_M, \theta_R}(x_i)), y_i), \quad (1)$$

where x_i and y_i denote the input image and its corresponding ground truth, respectively, and N_d signifies the total number of samples. $\mathcal{F}_{\Phi_M, \theta_R}$ represents the forward process of VFM after applying the Rein strategy.

3.2. Core of Rein

For simple implementation across different VFMs, we opt not to modify MLP weights at specific positions as described in the [6, 26]. Instead, our approach focuses on refining the output feature maps at each layer within the VFMs, as illustrated in Fig. 2. Precisely, for the features f_i produced by the i -th layer L_i , Rein produces enhanced feature maps for the next layer as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} f_1 &= L_1(\text{Embed}(x)) & f_1 &\in \mathbb{R}^{n \times c}, \\ f_{i+1} &= L_{i+1}(f_i + \Delta f_i) & i &= 1, 2, \dots, N-1, \\ f_{out} &= f_N + \Delta f_N, \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where $f'_i = f_i + \Delta f_i$ symbolizes the refined feature map, x is the input image, Embed denotes the patch embedding

layer in VFMs, n represents the number of patches, N denotes the number of layers, and c is the dimensionality of f_1, f_2, \dots, f_N . Note that the layers L_1, L_2, \dots, L_N are kept frozen, and our focus is on training an efficient module, Rein, to generate Δf_i as follows:

$$\Delta f_i = \text{Rein}(f_i) \quad \Delta f_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times c}, i = 1, 2, \dots, N. \quad (3)$$

In the context of DGSS, an ideal Δf_i should assist VFMs to bridge two types of gaps. The first is gap in scene between pre-training dataset and target scene, exemplified by the contrast between ImageNet [12] and urban-scene images [11, 57]. The second is task divergence between pre-training and fine-tuning, such as the differences between masked image modeling and semantic segmentation tasks.

To establish this dual bridge, Rein starts with a set of learnable tokens $T = \{T_i \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times c} \mid i \in \mathbb{N}, 1 \leq i \leq N\}$, where each token sequence T_i is randomly initialized, and m denotes the sequence length of T_i . Rein freezes the backbone and embeds knowledge learned from the fine-tuning dataset into these tokens, thereby bridging the gap in scene relative to the pre-training dataset. Moreover, considering the essential need in semantic segmentation to discern multiple instances within a single image, Rein implements an attention-inspired mechanism, which enables VFMs to make tailored adjustments to the features of distinct instances, thereby aiding VFMs in adapting to the differences between semantic segmentation and pre-training tasks. Specifically, Rein employs a dot-product operation to generate a similarity map S_i , which captures the associations between feature vectors in f_i and the tokens in T :

$$S_i = f_i \times T_i^T \quad S_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}, \quad (4)$$

where T_i represents the token sequence of the i -th layer, m indicates the number of tokens in T_i . As S quantitatively evaluates the relationships between various tokens and feature vectors, Rein can apply a softmax function to align each patch with a unique instance:

$$S_i = \text{Softmax}\left(\frac{f_i \times T_i^T}{\sqrt{c}}\right). \quad (5)$$

Leveraging the feature-to-token similarity map S_i , we can preliminarily estimates of Δf_i using the equation:

$$\Delta \bar{f}_i = S_i(:, 2 : m) \times [T_i(2 : m) \times W_{T_i} + b_{T_i}], \quad (6)$$

where W_{T_i} and b_{T_i} denote the weights and biases of a MLP, respectively. This MLP enables the transformation of T_i across different feature spaces during the computation of S_i and $\Delta \bar{f}_i$. Optionally, Rein can pre-calculate $T_i \times W_{T_i} + b_{T_i}$ to reduce inference time. The sum of S_i equals one due to the softmax function; however, this can induce unneeded changes when all features are precise. To

avoid this, $S_i(:, 2 : m)$ is designed to choose columns 2 to m of S_i , and $T_i(2 : m)$ denotes the selection of rows 2 to m of T_i . This strategic selection allows models to sidestep unnecessary adjustments by assigning a high value to the first token and subsequently discarding it. This approach allows the sum of each row in S_i to vary from 0 to 1, thus reducing the risk of inappropriate changes.

To enhance the flexibility in feature adjustment, Rein utilizes a MLP composed of W_{f_i} and b_{f_i} to produce the final feature modifications Δf_i :

$$\Delta f_i = (\Delta \bar{f}_i + f_i) \times W_{f_i} + b_{f_i}. \quad (7)$$

Benefiting from these instance-level Δf_i adjustments, Rein is capable of generating diverse modifications for various categories within a single image. The details of Rein will be explained in the next section.

3.3. Details of Rein

Linking tokens to instances. At the core of Rein, we establish an implicit yet effective linkage between tokens and instances, which has demonstrated notable performance, as detailed in Sec. 4. This connection is further reinforced by utilizing object queries, a key component in DETR[3]-style decode heads [7, 8, 71], as intermediaries. These queries are empirically proven to establish a direct association with instances. Specifically, we generate layer-wise queries Q_i from our learnable tokens T_i via linear transformation:

$$Q_i = T_i \times W_{Q_i} + b_{Q_i} \quad Q_i \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times c'}, \quad (8)$$

where W_{Q_i} and b_{Q_i} signify the weights and biases, respectively, and c' denotes the dimension of Q_i . However, due to the complexity arising from the large numbers of various layers in VFMs, transforming the diverse Q_i into a single query Q poses computational challenges. To address this, Rein computes both the maximal component $Q_{max} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times c'}$ and the average component $Q_{avg} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times c'}$ using the following equation:

$$Q_{max}(j, k) = \max_{i=1,2,\dots,N} Q_i(j, k), \quad (9)$$

$$Q_{avg}(j, k) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N Q_i(j, k).$$

Subsequently, Q is derived as:

$$Q = \text{Concat}([Q_{max}, Q_{avg}, Q_N]) \times W_Q + b_Q. \quad (10)$$

By mapping T onto Q , which subsequently links to instances, Rein achieves enhanced performance with a marginal increase in parameters.

Layer-shared MLP weights. To address the redundancy of parameters in the layer-specific MLP weights, specifically W_{T_i} in Eq. (6), W_{f_i} in Eq. (7), and W_{Q_i} in Eq. (8), which

collectively contribute to a substantial trainable parameter count, we adopt a new strategy. Since the learnable T_i is capable of producing distinct Δf_i for each layer, we design the role of the MLP to primarily perform consistent linear transformations across different feature spaces for each layer within the backbone. To this end, we employ shared MLP weights across layers as outlined in the equations:

$$\begin{aligned} [W_{T_1}, b_{T_1}] &= [W_{T_2}, b_{T_2}] = \dots = [W_{T_N}, b_{T_N}], \\ [W_{f_1}, b_{f_1}] &= [W_{f_2}, b_{f_2}] = \dots = [W_{f_N}, b_{f_N}], \\ [W_{Q_1}, b_{Q_1}] &= [W_{Q_2}, b_{Q_2}] = \dots = [W_{Q_N}, b_{Q_N}]. \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

Low-rank token sequence. Recognizing the potential for information overlap among diverse learnable tokens, such as the high similarity between tokens representing a car’s headlight and a bicycle’s light, Rein adopts a strategy to generate a low-rank token sequence T as follows:

$$T_i = A_i \times B_i, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times r}, B \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times c}, \quad (12)$$

where c denotes the dimension of T_i , m is the length of sequence T_i , and r represents the rank, with $r \ll c$. Here, matrices A and B are constructed as low-rank matrices. To reduce inference time, Rein can precompute and store T . By implementing this low-rank token sequence approach, Rein significantly reduces the number of parameter.

4. Experiments

4.1. Settings

Visual Foundation Models. To thoroughly assess the influence of Visual Foundation Models (VFMs) within the context of DGSS, we analyze five distinct VFMs, each with different training strategies and datasets. Our selection includes CLIP [55], a language-image pre-training model; MAE [24], known for its masked pre-training approach; SAM [38], which leverages a large-scale segmentation dataset; EVA02 [17, 18] combines CLIP with masked image modeling; and DINOv2 [50], based on self-supervised pre-training with curated dataset. For balancing precision and efficiency, we mainly employ the ViT-Large architecture for these VFMs, except SAM, which utilizes a ViT-Huge image encoder, as described in its original paper [38]. We establish two fundamental baselines for VFMs: “Full”, where we fine-tune the entire network, and “Freeze”, in which all backbone parameters are fixed, with training solely on the segmentation head. More details about VFMs and PEFT methods are available in the supplementary material.

Datasets. We evaluate VFMs and proposed methods on both real-world datasets (Cityscapes [11], BDD100K [68], Mapillary [49]) and synthetic datasets (GTAV [57], Synthia [58], UrbanSyn [22]). In detail, Cityscapes (denoted as Citys) is an autonomous driving dataset that contains 2975 training images and 500 validation images, each with the

resolution of 2048×1024 . BDD100K (shortened to BDD) and Mapillary (denoted by Map) offer 1,000 (1280×720) and 2,000 (1902×1080) validation images, respectively. GTAV, a synthetic dataset, presents 24,966 labeled images obtained from the game. Synthia, a synthetic dataset, provides 25,000 images created by photo-realistic rendering. UrbanSyn, a synthetic dataset consists of 7,539 images.

Implementation details. We utilize the MMSegmentation [10] codebase for our implementation. For superior performance, mask2former [8], a widely-used segmentation head, is integrated with various VFMs that serve as the backbone. Additional experiments involving other decode heads are detailed in the supplementary material. For the training phase, the AdamW optimizer [46] is employed, setting the learning rate at $1e-5$ for the backbone and $1e-4$ for both the decode head and the proposed Rein. Aiming to efficient training process, we utilize a configuration of 40,000 iterations with a batch size of 4, and crop images to a resolution of 512×512 . Our approach includes only basic data augmentation, following Mask2Former [8]. Thanks to our streamlined training configuration and reduced number of trainable parameters, **Rein can fine-tune models like DINOv2-Large or EVA02-Large on a single RTX 3090Ti GPU within 12 hours** for superior generalization ability.

4.2. Comparison with State-of-The-Art Methods

In this section, we comprehensively evaluate Rein over five datasets within three generalization settings: $GTAV \rightarrow Citys + BDD + Map$, $GTAV + Synthia \rightarrow Citys + BDD + Map$, and $Citys \rightarrow BDD + Map$. Rein is benchmarked against state-of-the-art (SOTA) methods, which can be classified into two groups, including domain generalized semantic segmentation (DGSS) methods [4, 9, 13, 27, 35, 40, 51, 53, 54, 64, 69, 73], and parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) approaches [6, 26, 28].

Investigation of various VFMs. Our analysis of VFMs and proposed Rein in the $GTAV \rightarrow Citys + BDD + Map$ setting is presented in Tables 1 and 2. In this setup, models are fine-tuned using GTAV and evaluated on Cityscapes, BDD100K, and Mapillary. Note that, due to the fixed and relatively small number of trainable parameters in the decode head (20.6M), the count of trainable parameters presented in the tables are focused solely on the backbone and the PEFT module. Our results, as detailed in Table 1, indicate that frozen VFMs significantly outperform previous DGSS methods without specialized design. Moreover, as shown in Table 2, VFMs with full parameter fine-tuning exhibit enhanced performance relative to their frozen counterparts. Remarkably, Rein achieves even superior generalization capabilities, surpassing the full parameter fine-tuning with merely an extra 1% of trainable parameters compared to the original backbone. Visual samples for qualitative comparison are given in Fig. 3.

Backbone	Fine-tune Method	Trainable Params*	road	side.	build.	wall	fence	pole	light	sign	vege	terr.	sky	pers.	rider	car	truck	bus	train	moto.	bicy.	mIoU
EVA02 (Large) [17, 18]	Full	304.24M	89.3	46.9	89.9	47.7	45.6	50.1	56.8	42.2	88.8	48.4	89.9	75.8	49.0	90.5	45.3	69.2	55.9	44.4	55.1	62.2
	Freeze	0.00M	93.1	52.7	88.0	47.4	31.1	41.7	46.0	39.6	85.7	41.4	89.5	67.5	39.7	89.0	47.0	72.8	46.3	19.2	35.2	56.5
	Rein-core	52.84M	91.1	53.8	90.0	50.3	47.7	46.6	56.4	42.9	87.8	44.2	90.4	73.5	44.2	91.8	58.1	77.2	57.3	43.4	57.3	63.4
	+ Rein-link	59.33M	90.9	48.5	90.0	52.6	49.4	49.1	57.2	39.8	88.9	46.5	90.5	74.4	44.0	91.0	52.3	80.7	67.3	44.3	60.3	64.1
	+ Rein-share	5.02M	92.7	54.3	90.0	51.8	48.6	48.8	55.3	45.0	88.9	46.7	89.8	73.7	43.3	90.6	49.5	81.1	69.6	41.7	50.2	63.4
	+ Rein-lora	2.99M	91.7	51.8	90.1	52.8	48.4	48.2	56.0	42.0	89.1	44.1	90.2	74.2	47.0	91.1	54.5	84.1	78.9	47.2	59.4	65.3
DINOv2 (Large) [50]	Full	304.20M	89.0	44.5	89.6	51.1	46.4	49.2	60.0	38.9	89.1	47.5	91.7	75.8	48.2	91.7	52.5	82.9	81.0	30.4	49.9	63.7
	Freeze	0.00M	92.1	55.2	90.2	57.2	48.5	49.5	56.7	47.7	89.3	47.8	91.1	74.2	46.7	92.2	62.6	77.5	47.7	29.6	47.2	61.1
	Rein-core	52.84M	92.4	57.8	90.6	56.8	50.7	50.5	57.5	44.8	89.8	47.0	91.1	75.9	47.2	91.9	60.1	80.3	59.8	37.9	52.3	64.9
	+ Rein-link	59.33M	91.2	55.5	90.6	55.6	52.5	51.1	59.7	45.1	89.8	47.1	91.1	75.8	47.1	92.6	64.6	82.2	65.5	40.4	52.7	65.8
	+ Rein-share	5.02M	93.5	61.2	90.7	57.7	53.2	52.4	58.0	50.1	89.7	49.9	90.7	74.8	45.0	91.7	58.5	80.1	66.3	36.9	50.7	65.8
	+ Rein-lora	2.99M	92.4	59.1	90.7	58.3	53.7	51.8	58.2	46.4	89.8	49.4	90.8	73.9	43.3	92.3	64.3	81.6	70.9	40.4	54.0	66.4

Table 6. Ablation Study about Rein under *Cityscapes* \rightarrow *BDD100K* generalization in terms of mIoU. Components are sequentially incorporated. To better illustrate the gains contributed by each component, we employ varying shades of yellow to demonstrate the relative performance of the Freeze and Rein methods. The best results across all methods are **highlighted**.

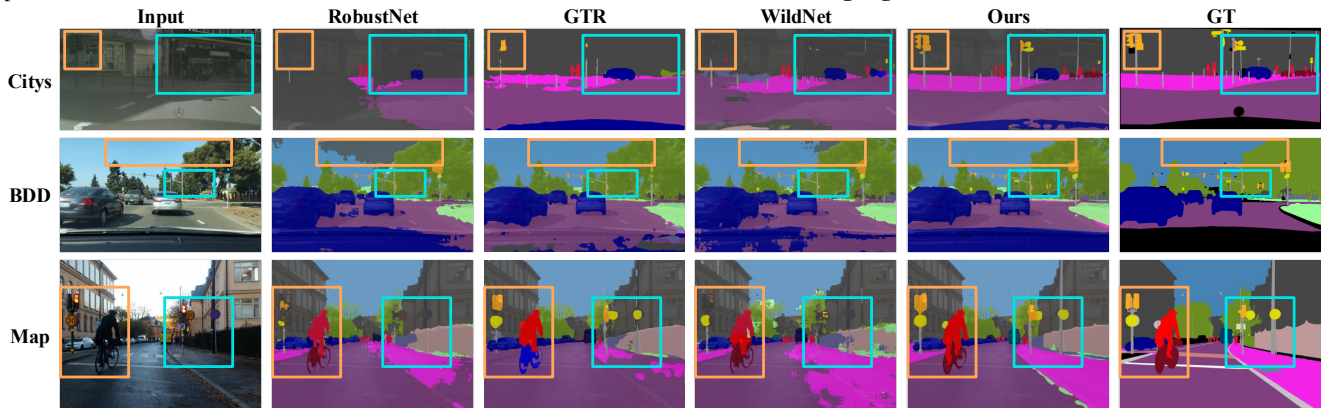


Figure 3. Qualitative Comparison under *GTAV* \rightarrow *Cityscapes* (*Citys*) + *BDD100K* (*BDD*) + *Mapillary* (*Map*) generalization setting.

Comparing Rein with SOTA. We conduct a comprehensive performance comparison of the proposed **Rein** against existing **DGSS** and **PEFT** methods under the *GTAV* \rightarrow *Citys* + *BDD* + *Map* setting, as detailed in Table 4. Owing to the robust feature extraction capabilities inherent in VFMs, DGSS methods, which typically enhance generalizability through strong data augmentation or consistency constraints, (e.g., AdvStyle, PASTA, and GTR), do not exhibit significant performance improvement. On the other hand, PEFT methods have demonstrated notable advancements. For instance, AdaptFormer outperforms the “Freeze” baseline using EVA02 as the backbone, while VPT shows improved performance over “Full” with DINOv2. Employing the same backbones (DINOv2 and EVA02), proposed Rein achieves superior performance and surpass previous DGSS and PEFT methods.

Real-to-Real generalization of Rein. The generalization from one real-world dataset to others is pivotal for practical applications in the field. To this end, we conduct experiments under the *Citys* \rightarrow *ACDC*, *Citys* \rightarrow *Cityscapes-C*, and *Citys* \rightarrow *BDD* + *Map* generalization setting. As shown in Table 3 and 7, Rein, when coupled with the DINOv2-Large, demonstrates superior performance across all datasets. This underscores the effectiveness of Rein in generalizing to diverse real-world scenarios.

Synthetic-to-real generalization of Rein. As Tab. 5 illustrates, trained on **synthetic** *UrbanSyn*+*GTAV*+*Synthia* datasets, Rein achieved a **78.4% mIoU** on the *Cityscapes* validation set. Further improvement is possible with additional synthetic data and higher-quality images generated by diffusion models, like [1]. This result can also be a valuable pre-trained weight for data-efficient training, **reaching an 82.5% mIoU with 1/16 of Cityscapes training set**. This is a significant performance for semi-supervised semantic segmentation.

More backbones. We extend our analysis to integrating Rein with Convolutional Networks, such as ResNet and ConvNeXt, and smaller scale architectures like DINOv2-S/B. As shown in Table 8, our findings reveal that Rein exhibits remarkable performance with diverse backbones.

4.3. Ablation Studies and Analysis

We conduct extensive ablation studies within two settings: *GTAV* \rightarrow *Citys* and *GTAV* \rightarrow *Citys* + *BDD* + *Map*. **Analysis of the key components.** Table 6 is dedicated to thoroughly examining the effectiveness of each component within Rein. In the *GTAV* \rightarrow *Citys* generalization setting, we sequentially incorporate different components of Rein and assess their impact. Interestingly, we observe that the “Freeze” occasionally exhibit better recognition for specific

Methods	Backbone	Trainable Parameters*	mIoU		
			BDD	Map	Avg.
IBN [51]	ResNet50 [23]	23.58M	48.6	57.0	52.8
DRPC [69]	ResNet50 [23]	23.58M	49.9	56.3	53.1
GTR [53]	ResNet50 [23]	23.58M	50.8	57.2	54.0
SAN-SAW [54]	ResNet50 [23]	23.58M	53.0	59.8	56.4
WildNet [40]	ResNet101 [23]	42.62M	50.9	58.8	54.9
HGFormer [13]	Swin-L [45]	196.03M	61.5	72.1	66.8
Freeze	EVA02-L [17]	0.00M	57.8	63.8	60.8
Rein (Ours)	EVA02-L [17]	2.99M	64.1	69.5	66.8
Freeze	DINOv2-L [50]	0.00M	63.4	69.7	66.7
Rein (Ours)	DINOv2-L [50]	2.99M	65.0	72.3	68.7

Table 7. Performance Comparison of the **Rein against other DGSS methods** under *Cityscapes* \rightarrow *BDD100K (BDD)* + *Mapillary (Map)* generalization. The best results are **highlighted**.

Avg. mIoU	ResNet	ResNet	ConvNeXt	DINOv2	DINOv2
	(50)	(101)	(Large)	(S)	(B)
Full	38.9	46.1	52.2	51.8	56.7
Ours	46.6	46.3	55.5	55.7	59.1

Table 8. Results for **ConvNets and smaller backbones**.

categories, e.g., ‘road, sidewalk’, compared to the ‘Full’. This suggests that VFMs lose some pre-training knowledge during fine-tuning, and ‘Freeze’ helps to prevent. Similarly, our methods mitigate this knowledge forgetting. Furthermore, our methods show improved recognition capabilities for the majority of the 19 categories. For example, in recognizing ‘wall, motorcycle, bicycle’, our approach significantly outperforms both the ‘Full’ and ‘Freeze’ baselines.

Overall, ‘Rein-core’ boosts the average performance across 19 classes. Furthermore, ‘Rein-link’ further boosts accuracy for certain objects, including ‘car, bus, train, motorcycle’, especially for DINOv2. Employing layer-shared MLP weights and low-rank token sequence efficiently reduces the number of trainable parameters and positively influences the performance of the model.

Study on token length m . The core component of Rein is learnable tokens $T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times c}$. We explored various lengths m for the token sequence, ranging from 25 to 200. As demonstrated in Fig. 4, models with $m = 100$ and $m = 150$ both achieve a strong mIoU of 64.3%. We ultimately selected $m = 100$ as the most suitable parameter.

Study on rank r . As shown in Table 9, we turn attention to the effect of rank r on model performance. With DINOv2 as the backbone, the optimal results are observed at $r = 16$ and $r = 32$. Consequently, unlike LoRA [26], we opt for a comparatively higher value of $r = 16$ for our model.

Speed, memory, and storage. For practical applications, training speed, GPU memory usage, and model storage requirements are crucial. As shown in Table 10, compared to ‘Full’ baseline, proposed Rein improves training speed and reduces GPU memory usage. A significant advantage of Rein is that models trained under different settings can share the same backbone parameters. This means that for switch

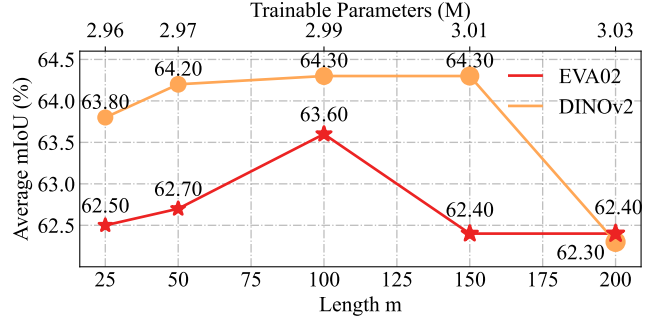


Figure 4. Ablation study on token length m .

Rank r		4	8	16	32	64
Params		2.67M	2.77M	2.99M	3.42M	4.28M
DINOv2 (Large) [50]	Citysc	65.8	66.1	66.4	66.1	66.4
	BDD	60.2	60.3	60.4	60.7	61.0
	Map	65.2	65.1	66.1	65.9	65.0
	Avg.	63.7	63.9	64.3	64.3	64.1

Table 9. Ablation study on lora dim r .

VFMs	Method	Training	GPU	Storage
		Time	Memory	
DINOv2 (Large)	Full	11.2 h	14.7 GB	1.22 GB
	Rein	9.5 h	10.0 GB	1.23 GB

Table 10. Training Time, GPU Memory, and Storage.

in diverse tasks and settings, we can only store and swap the rein weights (0.01GB) and head weights (0.08GB), rather than all parameters.

5. Conclusions

In this paper, we assess and harness Vision Foundation Models (VFMs) in the context of DGSS. Driven by the motivation that **Leveraging Stronger pre-trained models and Fewer trainable parameters for Superior generalizability**, we first investigate the performance of VFMs under diverse DGSS settings. Subsequently, we introduce a robust fine-tuning approach, namely **Rein**, to parameter-efficiently harness VFMs for DGSS. With a fewer trainable parameters, Rein significantly enhance generalizability of VFMs, outperforming SOTA methods by a large margin. Rein can be seamlessly integrated as a plug-and-play adapter for existing VFMs, improving generalization with efficient training. Extensive experiments demonstrate the substantial potential of VFMs in the DGSS field, validating the effectiveness of proposed Rein in harnessing VFMs for DGSS.

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