

# Taylor Series-Inspired Local Structure Fitting Network for Few-shot Point Cloud Semantic Segmentation

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## Abstract

Few-shot point cloud semantic segmentation aims to accurately segment "unseen" new categories in point cloud scenes using limited labeled data. However, pretraining-based methods not only introduce excessive time overhead but also overlook the local structure representation among irregular point clouds. To address these issues, we propose a pretraining-free local structure fitting network for few-shot point cloud semantic segmentation, named **TaylorSeg**. Specifically, inspired by Taylor series, we treat the local structure representation of irregular point clouds as a polynomial fitting problem and propose a novel local structure fitting convolution, called **TaylorConv**. This convolution learns the low-order basic information and high-order refined information of point clouds from explicit encoding of local geometric structures. Then, using TaylorConv as the basic component, we construct two variants of TaylorSeg: a non-parametric **TaylorSeg-NN** and a parametric **TaylorSeg-PN**. The former can achieve performance comparable to existing parametric models without pre-training. For the latter, we equip it with an **Adaptive Push-Pull (APP)** module to mitigate the feature distribution differences between the query set and the support set. Extensive experiments validate the effectiveness of the proposed method. Notably, under the 2-way 1-shot setting, TaylorSeg-PN achieves improvements of +2.28% and +4.37% mIoU on the S3DIS and ScanNet datasets respectively, compared to the previous state-of-the-art methods.

**Code** — <https://github.com/changshuowang/TaylorSeg>

## 1 Introduction

Point cloud semantic segmentation (Zhang et al. 2023b, 2024b,a) is an essential task in numerous computer vision applications, such as autonomous driving (Wang et al. 2025; Fei et al. 2024d,c), robotics (Soori, Arezoo, and Dastres 2023; Hu et al. 2024, 2023), and augmented reality (Serenio et al. 2020; Zhao et al. 2024b). This task involves accurately assigning each point in the three-dimensional space to a specific semantic category. Recent advances in deep learning have led to significant improvements in many tasks

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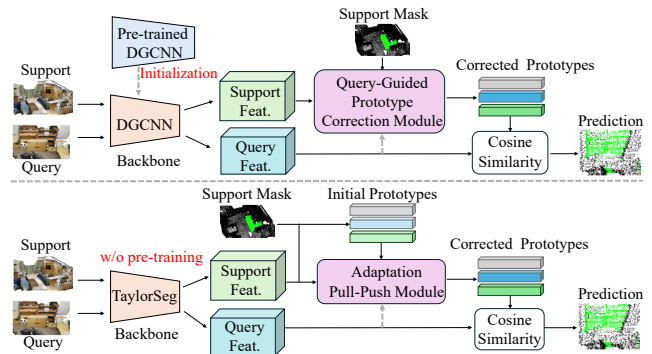


Figure 1: **Top:** Most existing methods are based on fine-tuning a pre-trained DGCNN, followed by using query features to guide and align the prototype features. This strategy is not only time-consuming but also overlooks the importance of local structure representation. **Bottom:** We propose a new backbone for point cloud tasks that requires no pre-training and possesses strong local structure representation capabilities. Additionally, we design an APP module that effectively aligns query features with prototype features.

(Fei et al. 2024b,a; Fang, Easwaran, and Genest 2024; Fang et al. 2025; Yu et al. 2024), particularly in tasks involving complex scene understanding (Tang et al. 2022a, 2024, 2022c; Feng et al. 2023). However, constructing large-scale, accurately annotated datasets requires enormous time and human resources, limiting the widespread applicability of these methods in real-world scenarios (Fang et al. 2023b, 2024b,c; Ning et al. 2023a,b). Moreover, existing methods often struggle to maintain good generalization when faced with unseen new categories. Therefore, achieving efficient and accurate point cloud semantic segmentation with limited annotated data while endowing models with the ability to recognize unseen categories has become a critical research challenge.

To address these challenges, few-shot learning strategies (Snell, Swersky, and Zemel 2017) have gained widespread attention as an effective method to alleviate the issue of data scarcity. The core idea of few-shot learning is to achieve ef-

fective segmentation of new categories with a small number of labeled samples. Zhao et al. (Zhao, Chua, and Lee 2021) introduced attMPTI, applying this concept to the few-shot point cloud semantic segmentation. This method first pre-trains DGCNN (Wang et al. 2019) and then uses it as the encoder to extract feature embeddings from the support and query sets. Finally, each category in the support set is represented by multiple prototypes, utilizing a transductive label propagation method to associate the labeled prototypes with the unlabeled query points to recognize unseen categories. Following this approach, as shown in Fig.1(a), subsequent approaches (Mao et al. 2022; Zhu et al. 2023; Zhang et al. 2023a) have focused on prototype construction and reducing the feature distribution gap between the support set and the query set. However, these methods suffer from three significant issues: (1) Pretraining DGCNN on seen categories introduces severe class bias when evaluating on unseen categories, reducing the model’s generalization; (2) The pre-training phase increases time and resource costs; (3) Using DGCNN as the backbone limits the effective extraction of local structural information, affecting downstream prototype construction. Although the recently proposed Seg-NN (Zhu et al. 2024) avoids the burden of pretraining, its local structural representation module lacks learnability.

To address the aforementioned issues, we propose a pretraining-free local structure fitting network, TaylorSeg, for few-shot point clouds semantic segmentation. First, the local structure feature extractor is the core component of the point cloud encoder, significantly impacting the prototype representation of the support set under scarce sample conditions. Inspired by Taylor series (Rudin et al. 1964), we design a novel local structure fitting convolution, called TaylorConv. In this convolution, we view the local structure representation as a polynomial fitting problem to capture subtle changes in local geometric information more accurately. Specifically, the lower-order terms of this convolution are used to fit the flat regions of the local structure, which typically contain the basic shapes and overall trends of the point cloud. Higher-order terms are used to fit the edges and detailed parts, capturing complex variations and fine features within the local structure. Based on this convolution, we construct two variants of TaylorSeg: the non-parametric TaylorSeg-NN and the parametric TaylorSeg-PN. TaylorSeg-NN achieves performance equal to or better than existing parametric models without pretraining and with zero parameters. As an upgrade of TaylorSeg-NN, we parameterize TaylorConv to enhance the ability to represent local structures, thereby constructing TaylorSeg-PN. Additionally, to further enhance the capability of TaylorSeg-PN, we equip it with a learnable Adaptive Push-Pull (APP) module. This module learns common features between the support set and query set while distancing irrelevant features to bring their feature distributions closer together, thereby increasing the model’s generalization ability.

In summary, our contributions are as follows:

- We propose a pretraining-free local structure fitting network, TaylorSeg, for few-shot point cloud semantic segmentation. It exhibits strong generalization ability on un-

seen categories.

- Inspired by the Taylor series, we introduce TaylorConv, a novel operator that models local representation as a polynomial fitting problem, accurately capturing implicit shape information in local geometry.
- We design a new adaptive push-pull module, which can learn specific and common features between the support set and query set to bring their feature distributions closer.
- We conducted extensive experiments on S3DIS and ScanNet datasets, achieving state-of-the-art results with fewer parameters and faster efficiency.

## 2 Relation Works

### 2.1 3D Point Cloud Semantic Segmentation

3D point cloud semantic segmentation (Zhou et al. 2024; Liang et al. 2024b,a; He and Ding 2024; He et al. 2025) aims to assign a specific label to each individual point in a given point cloud, and it has been extensively studied in the field of computer vision (Fang et al. 2024a, 2023a,c, 2021b,a; Zhao et al. 2024a). The pioneering work, PointNet (Qi et al. 2017), introduced an end-to-end symmetric MLP network for segmenting raw point clouds. However, due to PointNet’s lack of local structure information, PointNet++ (Qi et al. 2017) was proposed, which groups point clouds into different local neighborhoods using Farthest Point Sampling (FPS) and aggregates features within each local neighborhood. Nevertheless, this method still does not model the spatial relationships within local neighborhoods. Subsequent works (Wang et al. 2022a, 2023, 2022b; Jiang et al. 2023) have primarily focused on methods based on point-wise Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP), convolution operations, and attention mechanisms. Recent works (Wang et al. 2024; Park et al. 2023) have made significant improvements by designing various Transformer structures to learn long-range dependencies in point clouds. Despite these advancements, these methods still require large amounts of labeled data, which is impractical in real-world applications. Furthermore, these methods struggle to recognize unseen categories.

### 2.2 Few-shot Point Cloud Semantic Segmentation

Few-shot point cloud semantic segmentation (An et al. 2024; Liu et al. 2024; Ning et al. 2023c) is the task of accurately predicting the categories of unknown point clouds using a limited number of training samples. As a pioneering work, AttMPTI (Zhao, Chua, and Lee 2021) introduced few-shot learning of image processing tasks (Fang et al. 2020; Fang and Hu 2020; Tang et al. 2022b, 2023; Liu et al. 2023; Ning et al. 2024) into point cloud semantic segmentation by first pretraining DGCNN (Wang et al. 2019) and then using it as the backbone for the encoder. It predicts the category of each instance in the query set by representing each class in the support set with multiple prototypes. BFG (Mao et al. 2022) enhances the global perception ability of points by embedding global awareness bi-directionally into local points through the similarity measurement between the point features and the prototype features. 2CBR (Zhu et al.

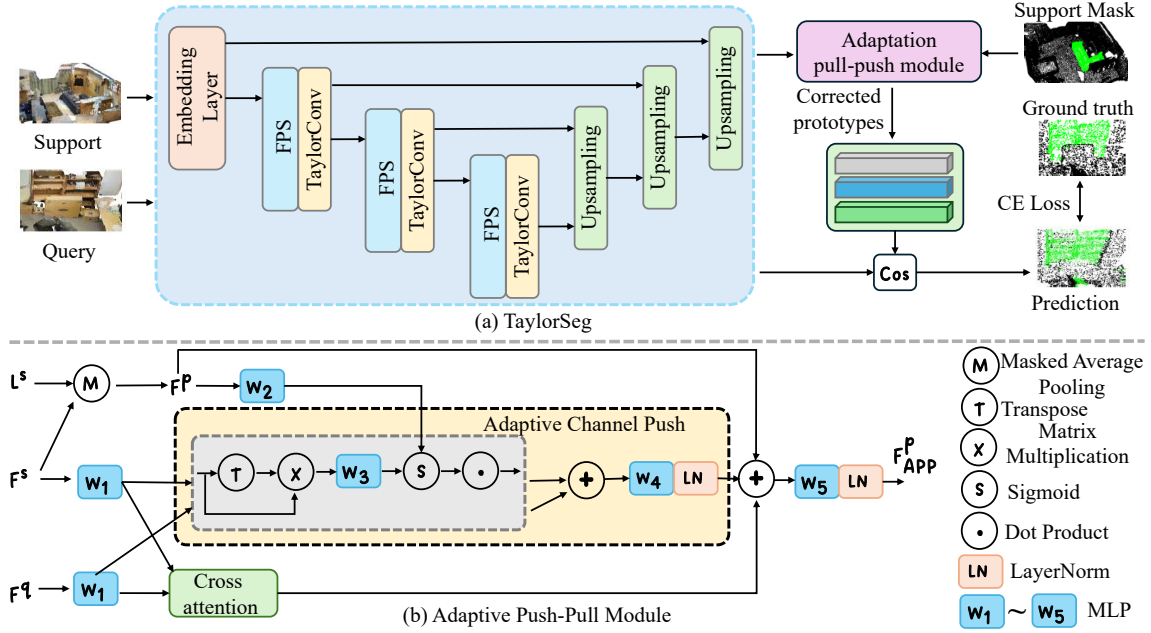


Figure 2: (a) The overall architecture of TaylorSeg. It centers around TayConv, a locally feature extraction module inspired by the Taylor series. TayConv forms the Taylor Block when combined with the FPS operation, and stacking these blocks along with upsampling operations constitutes our backbone network. TaylorSeg has two variants: for TaylorSeg-NN, the APP module is replaced with masked average pooling, allowing direct testing without training. For TaylorSeg-PN, both the TaylorConv and APP modules are optimized during training before testing. (b) The data flow diagram of the APP module. It is primarily designed for TaylorSeg-PN. It is not only parameter-efficient but also significantly reduces the feature distribution discrepancy between the query and support sets. Additionally, it is plug-and-play, making it compatible with many few-shot methods.

2023) proposed cross-class rectification to alleviate the domain gap between the query set and the support set. PAFZ3D (He et al. 2023) designed the QGPA module to reduce the feature distribution differences between the query set and the support set while introducing word embeddings into zero/few-shot point cloud semantic segmentation tasks. However, these tasks increase time costs and resource consumption due to their reliance on pretraining strategies, and the DGCNN they depend on cannot sufficiently learn shape information from the local structures of point clouds. Although the recent Seg-NN (Zhu et al. 2024) eliminates the need for pretraining, its local structure learner lacks the ability to learn and encode local structure information. To solve these issues, we propose the novel TaylorSeg, inspired by the Taylor series (Rudin et al. 1964), which not only eliminates the need for pretraining but also fully learns local structural information.

### 3 Methods

In this section, we first review the problem definition of few-shot tasks; then, we introduce the concept of the Taylor series; next, we present TaylorConv. Finally, we explain how to construct TaylorSeg which is shown in Fig.2.

#### 3.1 Problem Definition

We divide all categories of the dataset into two classes: visible classes  $C_{seen}$  and invisible classes  $C_{unseen}$ , sat-

isfying  $C_{seen} \cap C_{unseen} = \emptyset$ . The sample set constructed from visible classes  $C_{seen}$  serves as the training set, while the sample set from invisible classes  $C_{unseen}$  serves as the test set. Following (He et al. 2023), we also adopt the episodic paradigm. Specifically, each few-shot task (a.k.a. an episode) instantiates each training/testing set as an N-way K-shot segmentation learning task.

The support set can be represented as  $S = \{(P_S^{(1,k)}, M_S^{(1,k)}), \dots, (P_S^{(N,k)}, M_S^{(N,k)})\}_{k=1}^K$ , which consists of  $K$  annotated  $P_S^{(n,k)}$  and their corresponding binary masks  $M_S^{(n,k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_s \times 1}$ , where  $N_s$  represents the number of points in support sample. The query set  $Q = \{(P_q^i, M_q^i)\}_{i=1}^T$ , where  $T$  is the number of query samples, and  $M_q^i \in \mathbb{R}^{N_q \times 1}$  is the ground truth of the query point cloud, which is only available during training.  $N_q$  represents the number of points in the query sample.

Typically, each point cloud  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{N_p \times (3+C)}$  consists of  $N_p$  points, where each point is composed of 3-dimensional coordinates and  $C$ -dimensional additional information (color, normal vector, etc.). In each episode, by inputting  $(P_S^{(1,k)}, M_S^{(1,k)}, P_q^i)$ , we predict the category of the query point cloud  $P_q^i$  and calculate the cross-entropy loss with the ground truth  $M_q^i$  to obtain an optimized model.

### 3.2 Taylor Series

Taylor series (Rudin et al. 1964) has many applications in various fields. It can be used to approximate the value of complex functions and can be expressed as:

$$f(x) = f(a) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n, \quad |x-a| < \epsilon, \quad (1)$$

where  $a$  is a constant,  $\epsilon$  is infinitesimal, and  $f^{(n)}(a)$  represents the  $n$ -th derivative of  $a$ . To simplify the calculation, we will approximate the Taylor series with a low-frequency term and a high-frequency term. The specific formula is shown below:

$$f(x) = f(a) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n (x-a)^n, \quad |x-a| < \epsilon, \quad (2)$$

where  $a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$ . From the above, we can see that the Taylor series only needs to learn the local information near the constant  $a$ , and also needs to learn the relative information of  $x$  and  $a$ . Therefore, we can easily introduce this property into the local structure representation of point cloud.

### 3.3 Local Structure Fitting Convolution

Suppose the coordinates and features of the  $i$ -th point of a point cloud can be represented as  $p_i \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 3}$  and  $f_i \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times C}$ , where  $C$  denotes the number of channels. Then, with  $p_i$  as the center point, the local feature aggregation can be formalized as:

$$f'_i = \mathcal{A}(\{\mathcal{M}(p_i, p_j) \cdot \mathcal{T}(f_i, f_j) | p_j \in \mathcal{N}(p_i)\}). \quad (3)$$

Here,  $\mathcal{A}$  is the aggregation function, typically max pooling.  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\mathcal{T}$  are mapping functions, usually MLPs.  $\mathcal{N}(p_i)$  is the local neighborhood of  $p_i$ , and  $p_j$  is  $p_i$ 's neighboring point. This formula simply maps the coordinates and features to a high-dimensional space, which cannot accurately model the local structure of the point cloud. This coarse-grained local structure learning is far from sufficient for tasks under sample-scarce conditions.

Due to the complexity of the point cloud scene, accurately representing local structural information plays a crucial role in extracting discriminative features and effective representation of the support set. Taylor series (Rudin et al. 1964) can be used to approximate the value of complex functions. It not only contains overall information but also includes high-frequency information. Inspired by this, we propose a local structure fitting convolution, called TaylorConv, to refine the analysis of the local structure and detail information of the point cloud. Specifically, TaylorConv consists of two parts: Low-order Convolution (LoConv) and High-order Convolution (HiConv). The former learns the overall structural information (low-frequency information)  $f_i^L$  of the local structure through max pooling of all neighboring points. The latter mainly learns the refined detail information (high-frequency)  $f_i^H$  from the relative features of neighboring points. Therefore, TaylorConv can be formalized as:

$$g \approx f_i^L + f_i^H = \mathcal{A}(\{\phi(f_j)\}_{j=1}^L) + \mathcal{A}(\{\mathcal{T}(f_i, f_j)\}_{j=1}^L), \quad (4)$$

where  $g$  is the output feature,  $\phi$  represents the feature mapping function,  $L$  represents the number of neighboring points.  $\mathcal{T}(f_i, f_j) = \left(\frac{w_j \cdot (f_j - f_i)}{|w_j \cdot (f_j - f_i)|}\right)^s \cdot |w_j \cdot (f_j - f_i)|^p$  is a new type of isometry function we designed, called high-order kernel function. Here,  $|\cdot|$  represents the absolute value of vector elements,  $s \in \{0, 1\}$ ,  $p$  is an integer parameter. When  $s = 1, p = 1$ ,  $\mathcal{T}(f_i, f_j)$  degenerates to the traditional Affine Basis Function (ABF (Rosenblatt 1958)) (see Eq. 5); when  $s = 0, p = 2$ ,  $\mathcal{T}(f_i, f_j)$  degenerates to the Radial Basis Function (RBF (Moody and Darken 1989)) (see 6). Therefore, the proposed high-order kernel function has strong expressiveness.

$$\mathcal{T} = \left(\frac{w_j \cdot (f_j - 0)}{|w_j \cdot (f_j - 0)|}\right)^1 \cdot |w_j \cdot (f_j - 0)|^1 = w_j \cdot f_j, \quad (5)$$

$$\mathcal{T} = \left(\frac{w_j \cdot (f_j - f_i)}{|w_j \cdot (f_j - f_i)|}\right)^0 \cdot |w_j \cdot (f_j - f_i)|^2. \quad (6)$$

### 3.4 Local Structure Fitting Network

As shown in Fig.2(a), we have developed two variants of TaylorSeg based on TaylorConv: the parameter-free TaylorSeg-NN and the parameterized TaylorSeg-PN. Both variants do not require pre-training, with TaylorSeg-NN in particular achieving desirable results without any training. The encoder of TaylorSeg is composed of stacked Taylor Blocks, which are constructed using FPS and TaylorConv. The decoder restores the resolution of the point cloud through upsampling. Between the encoder and decoder, we have implemented skip connections similar to the U-Net.

**TaylorSeg-NN.** To realize the parameter-free TaylorSeg-NN, we borrowed from Point-NN (Zhang et al. 2023c) and used trigonometric PEs for feature mapping. Suppose there is a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times d}$ , where  $d$  represents the dimension, then Trigonometric PEs can be expressed as  $E(\cdot)$ :

$$E(x; u) = [\sin(2\pi ux), \cos(2\pi ux)] \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 6d}, \quad (7)$$

where  $u = [u_1, \dots, u_d]$ ,  $u_d = 6^i, i = 1, \dots, d$ ,  $\theta$  is a super parameter. Since TaylorSeg-NN has no learnable parameters and only simple numerical transformations, in order to define the local structure information, we use 0-order and 1-order features. Thus, TaylorConv can be expressed as:

$$g \approx \mathcal{A}(\{f_j\}_{j=1}^K) + \mathcal{A}(\{w_j \cdot f_j\}_{j=1}^K), \quad (8)$$

where  $f_j = (E(p_j; u) + E(c_j; u) + E(f_j^g; u))/3$ ,  $w_j = \cos(2\pi \cdot E([p_i, p_j, p_j - p_i]; u))$ .  $c_j$  is the color information of the  $j$ -th point,  $f_j^g$  is the first layer of the point's feature. Here we have introduced the geometric coordinate information into the representation of local structural information, so TaylorSeg-NN can effectively model the spatial distribution relationship of objects.

**TaylorSeg-PN** To further enhance the expressive ability of TaylorSeg-NN, we obtain  $w_j = MLP(p_i, p_j, p_j - p_i)$  of HiConv through a learnable MLP. To further improve TaylorSeg-PN's ability to generalize to unseen categories, we propose a Adaptive Push-Pull (APP) module. It consists

of two parts: Adaptive Channel Push (ACP) and Cross Attention Pull (CAP). First, we perform local max pooling and mapping along the point dimension of the support feature  $F^s \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times C}$  and query feature  $F^q \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times C}$  separately to learn the statistical characteristics of each channel. We also further map the prototype feature  $F^p$  to increase its flexibility. The specific formulas are as follows:

$$F^s = W_1 \cdot \text{MaxPooling}(F^s) \in \mathbb{R}^{M' \times C}, \quad (9)$$

$$F^q = W_1 \cdot \text{MaxPooling}(F^q) \in \mathbb{R}^{M' \times C}, \quad (10)$$

$$\bar{F}^p = W_2 \cdot F^p \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times C}, \quad (11)$$

where  $W_1$  and  $W_2$  are learnable fully connected layers.

**Adaptive Channel Push.** In this stage, we focus on learning the correlation between the support feature and query feature for each channel. Then we push the original features to their respective feature distribution spaces. The specific formula is as follows:

$$G^s = (F^s)^T F^s \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times C}, \quad (12)$$

$$A^s = \text{Sigmoid}(W_3 \cdot G^s) \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times C}. \quad (13)$$

Similarly, we can obtain the channel attention weight  $A^q$  for the query set. Finally, we push the prototype to different distribution spaces according to the channel attention weights of the support set and query set respectively, and fuse these two prototype features. The formula is as follows:

$$F_{ACP}^p = \text{LN}(W_4(A^s \cdot \bar{F}^p + A^q \cdot \bar{F}^p)), \quad (14)$$

where  $W_4$  is a learnable fully connected layer,  $\text{LN}$  represents the layer normalization layer.

**Cross Attention Pull.** Due to the complexity of point clouds and the scarcity of samples, simply fusing prototype features in the spatial distribution of support features and query features cannot fully narrow the gap between query features and prototype features. Therefore, we learn the common features of the two domains through cross-attention. The specific formula is as follows:

$$A_{cross} = (F^q)^T F^s \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times C}, \quad (15)$$

$$F_{CAP}^p = \text{Softmax}(A_{cross}) \cdot (F^p)^T. \quad (16)$$

Finally, the updated prototype feature output by the APP module is:  $F_{APP}^p = \text{LN}(W_5(F_{ACP}^p + F_{CAP}^p) + F^p)$ . Here,  $W_5$  is a learnable fully connected layer. For N-way-K-shot tasks, we average all K-shot prototype features as the final prototype feature.

During the training process, we alternately optimize TaylorConv and the APP module. In the testing phase, we pair the prototype features output by the APP module with the query set features to perform similarity matching, thereby achieving segmentation of unseen points.

## 4 Experiments

In this section, we first introduce the datasets used and the experimental details. Then, we report the experimental results of TaylorSeg on the S3DIS and ScanNet datasets. Finally, we validate the effectiveness of our method through ablation experiments.

### 4.1 Datasets and Evaluation Metrics

**Datasets:** S3DIS (Armeni et al. 2016) is a dataset of 3D RGB point clouds collected from 272 rooms across 6 indoor environments. Each point is annotated with one of 13 semantic labels (12 semantic classes plus clutter). The ScanNet (Dai et al. 2017) dataset contains a total of 1513 scanned scenes. All points, except for unannotated spaces, are annotated with 20 semantic classes.

Following (Zhao, Chua, and Lee 2021), we divide each point cloud scene into  $1 \text{ m} \times 1 \text{ m}$  blocks, randomly sampling 2048 points from each block. The S3DIS and ScanNet datasets are divided into 7547 and 36350 blocks respectively. Simultaneously, each dataset is divided into two non-overlapping subsets of categories, denoted as  $S_0$  and  $S_1$ . When one subset is designated as the test set, the other subset is designated as the training set.

**Evaluation Metric:** We choose mIoU (Mean Intersection over Union), which is widely used in point cloud segmentation, as the performance evaluation metric.

### 4.2 Implementation Details

We conducted all experiments by pytorch framework and using one GeForce RTX 4090 GPU. For TaylorSeg-NN, its encoder was frozen in all experiments, and the local neighborhood in TaylorConv was determined by FPS, with each local neighborhood using 16 neighboring points from K-NN. In the initial layer of trigonometric PEs, we set the frequency parameter to 20, and  $\theta$  to 30. Since TaylorSeg-NN doesn't require pre-training, its output doesn't need to go through APP, only requiring the decoder's features.

For TaylorSeg-PN, we set the HiConv to be learnable, while passing TaylorSeg-PN's output through the APP module to obtain the final prototype features. In APP, we set the max pooling stride to 32. During training, we use the AdamW optimizer ( $\beta_1 = 0.9$ ,  $\beta_2 = 0.999$ ) to update TaylorSeg-PN's TaylorConv and APP module. The initial learning rate is set to 0.001, halving every 7,000 iterations. In episodic training, each batch contains 1 episode, which includes one support set and one query set. The support set randomly selects N-way-K-shot, and the query set randomly selects N unseen samples.

### 4.3 Comparison with State-of-the-Art Methods

To evaluate our method, we compared it with both parameter-free methods (Point-NN (Zhang et al. 2023c), Seg-NN (Zhu et al. 2024)) and parameterized methods (DGCNN (Wang et al. 2019), ProtoNet (Garcia and Bruna 2017), MPTI (Zhao, Chua, and Lee 2021), AttMPTI (Zhao, Chua, and Lee 2021), BFG (Mao et al. 2022), 2CBR (Zhu et al. 2023), PAP3D (He et al. 2023), Seg-PN (Zhu et al. 2024)).

**Results analysis on the S3DIS dataset.** As shown in Table 1, for non-parametric methods, we compared TaylorSeg-NN against Point-NN (Zhang et al. 2023c) and Seg-NN (Zhu et al. 2024). TaylorSeg-NN exhibited noticeable improvements across all settings, achieving +1.88% average mIoU increase in the 2-way 1-shot setting. This results suggest

Method	Param.	Two-way						Three-way					
		One-shot			Five-shot			One-shot			Five-shot		
		$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg	$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg	$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg	$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg
Point-NN	0.00 M	42.12	42.62	42.37	51.91	49.35	50.63	38.00	36.21	37.10	45.91	43.44	44.67
Seg-NN	0.00 M	49.45	49.60	49.53	59.40	61.48	60.44	39.06	40.10	39.58	50.14	51.33	50.74
<b>TaylorSeg-NN</b>	0.00 M	52.30	50.51	51.41	62.29	62.30	62.30	40.76	40.24	40.50	51.95	51.52	51.44
<i>Improvement</i>	-	<b>+2.85</b>	<b>+0.91</b>	<b>+1.88</b>	<b>+2.89</b>	<b>+0.82</b>	<b>+1.86</b>	<b>+1.70</b>	<b>+0.14</b>	<b>+0.92</b>	<b>+1.81</b>	<b>+0.19</b>	<b>+1.0</b>
DGCNN	0.62 M	36.34	38.79	37.57	56.49	56.99	56.74	30.05	32.19	31.12	46.88	47.57	47.23
ProtoNet	0.27 M	48.39	49.98	49.19	57.34	63.22	60.28	40.81	45.07	42.94	49.05	53.42	51.24
MPTI	0.29 M	52.27	51.48	51.88	58.93	60.56	59.75	44.27	46.92	45.60	51.74	48.57	50.16
AttMPTI	0.37 M	53.77	55.94	54.86	61.67	67.02	64.35	45.18	49.27	47.23	54.92	56.79	55.86
BFG	-	55.60	55.98	55.79	63.71	66.62	65.17	46.18	48.36	47.27	55.05	57.80	56.43
2CBR	0.35 M	55.89	61.99	58.94	63.55	67.51	65.53	46.51	53.91	50.21	55.51	58.07	56.79
PAP3D	2.45 M	59.45	66.08	62.76	65.40	70.30	67.85	48.99	56.57	52.78	61.27	60.81	61.04
Seg-PN	0.24 M	64.84	67.98	66.41	67.63	71.48	69.36	60.12	63.22	61.67	62.58	64.53	63.56
<b>TaylorSeg-PN</b>	0.27 M	<b>67.12</b>	<b>71.11</b>	<b>69.12</b>	<b>70.44</b>	<b>72.23</b>	<b>71.34</b>	<b>60.28</b>	<b>65.70</b>	<b>63.00</b>	<b>62.78</b>	<b>67.06</b>	<b>64.33</b>
<i>Improvement</i>	-	<b>+2.28</b>	<b>+3.13</b>	<b>+2.71</b>	<b>+2.81</b>	<b>+0.75</b>	<b>+1.98</b>	<b>+0.16</b>	<b>+2.48</b>	<b>+1.32</b>	<b>+0.20</b>	<b>+2.53</b>	<b>+1.37</b>

Table 1: **Few-shot Results (%) on S3DIS.**  $S_i$  denotes the split  $i$  is used for testing, and Avg is their average mIoU. The shaded rows represent non-parametric methods. 'Param.' represents the total number of learnable parameters of each method.

Setting	Two Way			Three Way		
	$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg	$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg
ABF	66.30	68.69	67.50	60.11	64.85	62.48
RBF	56.46	62.10	59.28	59.89	57.41	58.65
s=0, p learnable	65.97	67.96	66.97	59.59	64.85	62.22
s=1, p learnable	<b>67.12</b>	<b>71.11</b>	<b>69.12</b>	<b>70.44</b>	<b>72.23</b>	<b>71.34</b>

Table 2: The Influence of HiConv’s Parameters on TaylorSeg-PN. We report the results (%) under 2/3-way-1-shot settings on S3DIS datasets.

that TaylorSeg’s local structure fitting strategy is more effective in capturing subtle geometric features, even in scenarios with minimal training data. When comparing TaylorSeg-PN with its Seg-PN (Zhang et al. 2023c), we observed a remarkable increase of +2.71% in average mIoU across the 2-way 1-shot settings. TaylorSeg-PN consistently outperformed other methods like PAP3D (He et al. 2023), demonstrating its superiority in few-shot learning tasks by better mitigating the domain gap between seen and unseen classes.

**Results analysis on the ScanNet dataset.** As shown in Table 3, similar trends were observed on the ScanNet dataset. TaylorSeg-NN outperformed Point-NN and Seg-NN, with an average mIoU improvement of +1.31% in the 2-way 1-shot setting. This result indicates TaylorSeg’s robust generalization capability across different datasets. For parametric models, TaylorSeg-PN delivered a significant +5.40% improvement in average mIoU in the 2-way 1-shot scenario. Compared to the previous SOTA method, TaylorSeg-PN achieved better performance while utilizing similar parameters, highlighting its efficiency and effectiveness in leveraging limited labeled data.

#### 4.4 Ablation Study

**Ablation on HiConv.** The results in Table 2 highlight the significant impact of the parameter  $s$  in the HiConv on

TaylorSeg-PN’s performance. Specifically, when  $s = 1$ , the model achieves the highest accuracy, with average scores of 69.12% in 2-way and 71.34% in 3-way settings. This demonstrates that HiConv, which effectively captures high-frequency details, is essential for improving the model’s ability to learn complex local structures. Conversely, setting ABF or RBF results in reduced performance, indicating that a simpler form of the convolution is less effective. These findings confirm that the high-order kernel function plays a critical role in enhancing local feature representation.

**Ablation on APP Module.** The results in Table 4 highlight the effectiveness of the APP module in enhancing TaylorSeg-PN’s performance. The full APP module, which integrates both ACP and CAP, achieves the best results, with an average improvement of 18.07% in 2-way and 29.57% in 3-way settings compared to the baseline without APP. The CAP component alone also significantly boosts performance, but the combination of ACP and CAP maximizes the model’s ability to generalize to unseen categories. This indicates that the APP module’s approach of leveraging adaptive channel attention and cross-domain feature learning is highly effective in refining prototype features and improving segmentation accuracy under few-shot conditions.

**Different Numbers of Encoder Layers** Based on Fig. 3, we observe that both TaylorSeg-NN and TaylorSeg-PN models show variation in performance with the number of encoder layers. TaylorSeg-NN peaks at three layers, balancing feature learning and model efficiency, while performance declines beyond this point due to potential overfitting. TaylorSeg-PN also achieves its best performance with three layers but declines more gradually, maintaining strong performance with four layers. Notably, TaylorSeg consistently outperforms Seg-NN across all configurations, highlighting its superior architecture for capturing local point cloud structures and improving segmentation accuracy.

Method	Param.	Two-way						Three-way					
		One-shot			Five-shot			One-shot			Five-shot		
		$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg	$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg	$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg	$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg
Point-NN	0.00 M	28.85	31.56	30.21	34.82	32.87	33.85	21.24	17.91	19.58	26.42	23.98	25.20
Seg-NN	0.00 M	36.80	35.86	36.38	43.97	41.50	42.74	27.41	23.36	25.39	34.27	30.75	32.51
<b>TaylorSeg-NN</b>	0.00 M	38.55	36.83	37.69	46.41	44.58	45.50	27.62	24.63	26.03	34.98	31.82	33.40
<i>Improvement</i>	-	<b>+1.75</b>	<b>+0.97</b>	<b>+1.31</b>	<b>+2.44</b>	<b>+3.08</b>	<b>+2.76</b>	<b>+0.21</b>	<b>+1.27</b>	<b>+0.74</b>	<b>+0.71</b>	<b>+1.07</b>	<b>+0.89</b>
DGCNN	1.43 M	31.55	28.94	30.25	42.71	37.24	39.98	23.99	19.10	21.55	34.93	28.10	31.52
ProtoNet	0.27 M	33.92	30.95	32.44	45.34	42.01	43.68	28.47	26.13	27.30	37.36	34.98	36.17
MPTI	0.29 M	39.27	36.14	37.71	46.90	43.59	45.25	29.96	27.26	28.61	38.14	34.36	36.25
AttMPTI	0.37 M	42.55	40.83	41.69	54.00	50.32	52.16	35.23	30.72	32.98	46.74	40.80	43.77
BFG	-	42.15	40.52	41.34	51.23	49.39	50.31	34.12	31.98	33.05	46.25	41.38	43.82
2CBR	0.35 M	50.73	47.66	49.20	52.35	47.14	49.75	47.00	46.36	46.68	45.06	39.47	42.27
PAP3D	2.45 M	57.08	55.94	56.51	64.55	59.64	62.10	55.27	55.60	55.44	59.02	53.16	56.09
Seg-PN	0.24 M	63.15	64.32	63.74	67.08	69.05	68.07	61.80	65.34	63.57	62.94	68.26	65.60
<b>TaylorSeg-PN</b>	0.27 M	<b>67.52</b>	<b>70.75</b>	<b>69.14</b>	<b>68.39</b>	<b>71.55</b>	<b>69.97</b>	<b>63.60</b>	<b>67.55</b>	<b>65.58</b>	<b>66.98</b>	<b>69.78</b>	<b>68.38</b>
<i>Improvement</i>	-	<b>+4.37</b>	<b>+6.43</b>	<b>+5.40</b>	<b>+1.31</b>	<b>+2.50</b>	<b>+1.90</b>	<b>+1.80</b>	<b>+2.21</b>	<b>+2.01</b>	<b>+4.04</b>	<b>+1.52</b>	<b>+2.78</b>

Table 3: **Few-shot Results (%) on ScanNet.**  $S_i$  denotes the split  $i$  is used for testing, and Avg is their average mIoU. The shaded rows represent non-parametric methods. 'Param.' represents the total number of learnable parameters of each method.

Setting	Two Way			Three Way		
	$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg	$S_0$	$S_1$	Avg
w/o	49.42	52.67	51.05	40.66	42.87	41.77
ACP	51.02	55.23	53.13	41.56	44.63	43.10
CAP	64.64	68.54	66.59	61.45	64.12	62.79
APP	<b>67.12</b>	<b>71.11</b>	<b>69.12</b>	<b>70.44</b>	<b>72.23</b>	<b>71.34</b>

Table 4: Ablation for the APP Module in TaylorSeg-PN. We report the results (%) under 2/3-way-1-shot settings.

Method	mIoU	Param.	Pre-train Time	Episodic Train	Total Time
DGCNN	36.34	0.62 M	4.0 h	0.8 h	4.8 h
AttMPTI	53.77	0.37 M	4.0 h	5.5 h	9.5 h
2CBR	55.89	0.35 M	6.0 h	0.2 h	6.2 h
PAP3D	59.45	2.45 M	3.6 h	1.1 h	4.7 h
Seg-NN	49.45	0.00 M	0.0 h	0.0 h	0.0 h
Seg-PN	64.84	0.24 M	0.0 h	0.5 h	0.5 h
<b>TaylorSeg-NN</b>	52.30	0.00 M	0.0 h	0.0 h	0.0 h
<b>TaylorSeg-PN</b>	67.12	0.27 M	0.0 h	0.6 h	0.6 h

Table 5: Performance and efficiency comparison on S3DIS under 2-way-1-shot settings on the  $S_0$  split. Training time and test speed (episodes/second) are measured on a single NVIDIA A6000 GPU.

#### 4.5 Computational Complexity

In Table 5, we compare the training time and efficiency of our method with other approaches. TaylorSeg-NN and Seg-NN achieve few-shot point cloud segmentation with minimal resources and time. Notably, TaylorSeg-NN surpasses Seg-NN in accuracy by 2.85%. Additionally, when adjusted for equivalent computational cost, TaylorSeg-PN, with only a marginal increase of 0.03M parameters and 0.1h training time, outperforms Seg-PN by 2.28% mIoU.

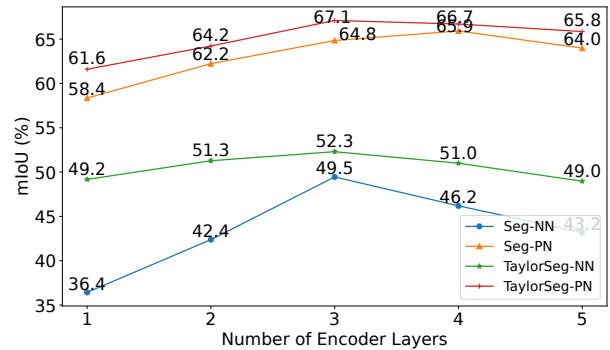


Figure 3: Ablation for Number of Encoder Layers in 2-way-1-shot setting on the S3DIS dataset.

## 5 Conclusion

In this paper, we introduced TaylorSeg, a pretraining-free local structure fitting network for few-shot point cloud semantic segmentation. Our key contributions are TaylorConv and the Adaptive Push-Pull (APP) module. TaylorConv captures both low-order and high-order geometric details, while APP bridges the feature distribution gap between query sets and prototypes. TaylorSeg-NN achieves competitive performance without training, while TaylorSeg-PN, with learnable components, achieves state-of-the-art results on S3DIS and ScanNet datasets. Future work will focus on reducing TaylorConv's computational complexity, integrating textual information for few-shot tasks, and exploring TaylorSeg's potential in other 3D vision applications.

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