



# **Bootstrapping Objectness from Videos by Relaxed Common Fate and Visual Grouping**

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#### **Abstract**

We study learning object segmentation from unlabeled videos. Humans can easily segment moving objects without knowing what they are. The Gestalt law of common fate, i.e., what move at the same speed belong together, has inspired unsupervised object discovery based on motion segmentation. However, common fate is not a reliable indicator of objectness: Parts of an articulated / deformable object may not move at the same speed, whereas shadows / reflections of an object always move with it but are not part of it.

Our insight is to bootstrap objectness by first learning image features from relaxed common fate and then refining them based on visual appearance grouping within the image itself and across images statistically. Specifically, we learn an image segmenter first in the loop of approximating optical flow with constant segment flow plus small within-segment residual flow, and then by refining it for more coherent appearance and statistical figure-ground relevance.

On unsupervised video object segmentation, using only ResNet and convolutional heads, our model surpasses the state-of-the-art by absolute gains of 7/9/5% on DAVIS16 / STv2 / FBMS59 respectively, demonstrating the effectiveness of our ideas. Our code is publicly available.

#### 1. Introduction

Object segmentation from videos is useful to many vision and robotics tasks [1,19,30,32]. However, most methods rely on pixel-wise human annotations [4,5,13,20,23,25, 26,29,33,35,46,47], limiting their practical applications.

We focus on learning object segmentation from entirely *unlabeled* videos (Fig. 1). The Gestalt law of *common fate*, i.e., *what move at the same speed belong together*, has inspired a large body of unsupervised object discovery based on motion segmentation [6, 18, 22, 28, 41, 43, 45].

There are three main types of *unsupervised* video object segmentation (UVOS) methods. 1) **Motion segmentation** methods [18,28,41,43] use motion signals from a pretrained

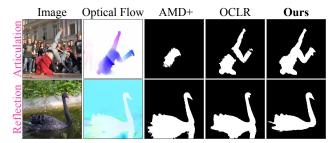
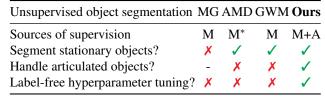


Figure 1. We study how to discover objectness from unlabeled videos based on common motion and appearance. AMD [22] and OCLR [41] rely on common fate, i.e., what move at the same speed belong together, which is not always a reliable indicator of objectness. Top: Articulation of a human body means that object parts may not move at the same speed; common fate thus leads to partial objectness. Bottom: Reflection of a swan in water always moves with it but is not part of it; common fate thus leads to excessive objectness. Our method discovers full objectness by relaxed common fate and visual grouping. AMD+ refers to AMD with RAFT flows as motion supervision for fair comparison.

optical flow estimator to segment an image into foreground objects and background (Fig. 1). OCLR [41] achieves state-of-the-art performance by first synthesizing a dataset with arbitrary objects moving and then training a motion segmentation model with known object masks. 2) Motion-guided image segmentation methods such as GWM [6] use motion segmentation loss to guide appearance-based segmentation. Motion between video frames is only required during training, not during testing. 3) Joint appearance segmentation and motion estimation methods such as AMD [22] learn motion and segmentation simultaneously in a self-supervised fashion by reconstructing the next frame based on how segments of the current frame move.

However, while *common fate* is effective at binding parts of heterogeneous appearances into one whole moving object, it is not a reliable indicator of objectness (Fig. 1).

1. **Articulation**: Parts of an articulated or deformable object may not move at the same speed; common fate thus leads to *partial* objectness containing the major moving part only. In Fig.1 top, AMD+ discovers only the mid-



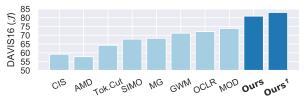


Figure 2. Advantages over leading unsupervised object segmentation methods MG [43]/AMD [22]/GWM [6]: 1) With motion supervision instead of motion input, we can segment stationary objects. 2) With both motion (M) and appearance (A) as supervision, we can discover full objectness from noisy motion cues. M\* refers to implicit motion via image warping. 3) By modeling relative motion within an object, we can handle articulated objects. 4) By comparing motion-based segmentation with appearance-based segmentation, we can tune hyperparameters without labels. Our performance gain is substantial, more with post-processing (†).

dle torso of the street dancer since it moves the most, whereas OCLR misses the exposed belly which is very different from the red hoodie and the gray jogger.

 Reflection: Shadows or reflections of an object always move with the object but are not part of the object; common fate thus leads to *excessive* objectness that covers more than the object. In Fig.1 bottom, AMD+ or OCLR cannot separate the swan *from* its reflection in water.

We have two insights to bootstrap full objectness from common fate in unlabeled videos. 1) To detect an articulated object, we allow various parts of the same object to assume different speeds that deviate slightly from the object's overall speed. 2) To detect an object from its reflections, we rely on visual appearance grouping within the image itself and statistical figure-ground relevance. For example, swans tend to have distinctive appearances from the water around them, and reflections may be absent in some swan images.

Specifically, we learn unsupervised object segmentation in two stages: Stage 1 learns to discover objects from motion supervision with relaxed common fate, whereas Stage 2 refines the segmentation model based on image appearance.

At Stage 1, we discover objectness by computing the optical flow and learning an image segmenter in the loop of approximating the optical flow with constant segment flow plus small within-segment residual flow, relaxing common fate from the strict same-speed assumption. At Stage 2, we refine our model by image appearance based on low-level visual coherence within the image itself and usual figure-ground distinction learned statistically across images.

Existing UVOS methods have hyperparameters that significantly impact the quality of segmentation. For example,

the number of segmentation channels is a critical parameter for AMD [22], and it is usually chosen according to an annotated validation set in the downstream task, defeating the claim of *unsupervised* objectness discovery.

We propose **unsupervised hyperparameter tuning** that does not require any annotations. We examine how well our motion-based segmentation aligns with appearance-based affinity on DINO [2] features self-supervisedly learned on ImageNet [34], which is known to capture semantic objectness. Our idea is also *model-agnostic* and applicable to other UVOS methods.

Built on the novel concept of <u>Relaxed Common Fate</u> (RCF), our method has several advantages over leading UVOS methods (Fig. 2): It is the only one that uses both motion and appearance to supervise learning; it can segment stationary and articulated objects in single images, and it can tune hyperparameters without external annotations.

On UVOS benchmarks, using only standard ResNet [12] backbone and convolutional heads, our RCF surpasses the state-of-the-art by absolute gains of 7.0%/9.1%/4.5% (6.3%/12.0%/5.8%) without (with) post-processing on DAVIS16 [32] / STv2 [19] / FBMS59 [30] respectively, validating the effectiveness of our ideas.

### 2. Related Work

Unsupervised video object segmentation (UVOS) requires segmenting prominent objects from videos without human annotations. Mainstream benchmarks [1, 19, 30, 32] define the task as a binary figure-ground segmentation problem, where salient objects are the foreground. Despite the name, several previous UVOS methods require *supervised* (pre-)training on *other* data such as large-scale images or videos *with* manual annotations [10,16,20,25,33,44,46,47]. In contrast, we focus on UVOS methods which do not rely on any labels at either *training or inference* time.

Motion segmentation separates figure from ground based on motion, which is typically optical flow computed from a pre-trained model. FTS [31] utilizes motion boundaries for segmentation. SAGE [39] additionally considers edges and saliency priors jointly with motion. CIS [45] uses independence between foreground and background motion as the goal for foreground segmentation. However, this assumption does not always hold in real-world motion patterns. MG [43] leverages attention mechanisms to group pixels with similar motion patterns. SIMO [18] and OCLR [41] generate synthetic data for segmentation supervision, with the latter supporting individual segmentation of multiple objects. Nevertheless, both rely on human-annotated sprites for realistic shapes in artificial data synthesis. Motion segmentation fails when objects do not move.

**Motion-guided image segmentation** treats motion computed by a pre-trained optical flow model such as RAFT [38] as ground-truth and uses it to supervise appearance-

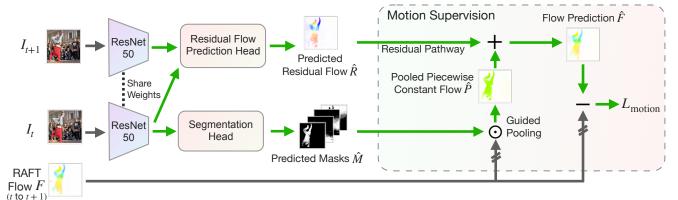


Figure 3. Our object discovery stage uses motion as supervision and follows the principle of relaxed common fate, in which training signals are obtained by reconstructing the reference RAFT flow with the sum from the two pathways: 1) a piecewise constant flow pathway, which is created from pooling the RAFT flow with the predicted masks in order to model object-level motion; 2) a predicted pixel-wise residual flow pathway, which models intra-object motion for articulated and deformable objects. Green arrows indicate gradient backprop.

based image segmentation. GWM [6] assumes smooth flows within an object and learns appearance-based segmentation by seeking the best segment-wise affine flows that fit RAFT flows. Such methods can discover stationary objects in videos and single images.

Joint appearance segmentation and motion estimation methods such as AMD [22] learn motion and segmentation simultaneously in a self-supervised manner such that their outputs can be used to successfully reconstruct the next frame based on how segments of the current frame move.

AMD is unique in that it has no preconception of optical flow or visual saliency. Since our model considers bootstrapping objectness from optical flow, for fair comparisons, we consider AMD+, a version of AMD with motion supervision from RAFT flows [38] instead.

Existing UVOS methods, whether they examine motion only or together with appearance, assume that objectness is revealed through common fate of motion: What move at the same speed belong together. We show that this notion fails for objects with articulation and reflection (Fig. 1). Our RCF first bootstraps objectness by relaxed common fate and then improves it by visual appearance grouping.

# 3. Objectness from Relaxed Common Fate

Our RCF consists of two stages: a motion-supervised object discovery stage (Fig. 3) and an appearance-supervised refinement stage (Fig. 4). Stage 1 formalizes relaxed common fate and learns segmentation by fitting RAFT flow with both object-level motion and intra-object motion. Stage 2 refines Stage 1's motion-based segmentations by appearance-based visual grouping and then use them to further supervise segmentation learning. Neither stage requires any annotation, making RCF *fully unsupervised*. We also present motion-appearance alignment as a model-agnostic label-free hyperparameter tuner.

# 3.1. Problem Setting

Let  $I_t \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times h \times w}$  be the  $t^{\text{th}}$  frame from a sequence of T RGB frames, where h and w are the height and width of the image respectively. We will omit the subscript t except for input images for clarity. The goal of UVOS is to produce a binary segmentation mask  $M \in \{0,1\}^{h \times w}$  for each time step t, with 1 (0) indicating the foreground (background).

To evaluate a method on UVOS, we compute the mean Jaccard index  $\mathcal{J}$  (*i.e.*, mean IoU) between the predicted segmentation mask M and the ground truth G. In UVOS, the ground truth mask G is not available, and no human-annotations are used throughout training and inference.

#### 3.2. Object Discovery with Motion Supervision

As shown in Fig. 3, during training, our method takes a pair of consecutive frames and RAFT flow between them as inputs. To instantiate the idea of common fate, our method begins by pooling the RAFT Flow with respect to the predicted masks, creating the piecewise constant flow pathway. As a relaxation, the predicted residual flow, which models intra-object motion for articulated and deformable objects, is added to the piecewise constant flow. The composite flow prediction is then supervised by the RAFT flow to train the model. At test time, only the backbone and the segmentation head are utilized to perform inference per frame.

Specifically, let  $f(I_t) \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times H \times W}$  be the feature of  $I_t$  extracted from backbone  $f(\cdot)$ , where K, H, and W are the number of channels, height, and width of the feature. Let  $\hat{M} = g(f(I_t)) \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times H \times W}$  be C soft segmentation masks extracted with a lightweight fully convolutional segmentation head  $g(\cdot)$  taking the image feature from  $f(\cdot)$ . Softmax is taken across channels inside  $g(\cdot)$  so that the C soft masks sum up to 1 for each of the  $H \times W$  positions. Following [22], although there are C segmentation masks competing for each pixel (i.e., C output channels in  $\hat{M}$ ), only one corresponds to the foreground, with the rest

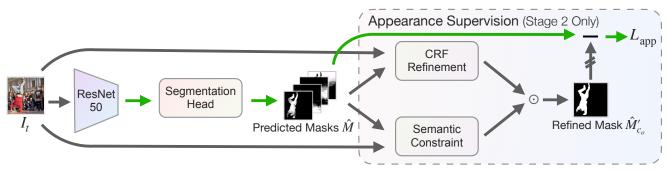


Figure 4. **Our appearance refinement stage** corrects misconceptions from motion supervision. The predicted mask is supervised by a refined mask based on both the CRF that enforces low-level appearance consistency (*e.g.*, color and texture) and the semantic constraint that enforces high-level semantic consistency. External frozen image features used to enforce the semantic constraint are omitted for clarity.

capturing background patches. We define  $c_o$  as the object channel index with value obtained in Sec. 3.4.

Following [6,18,41,43], we use off-the-shelf optical flow model RAFT [38] trained on synthetic datasets [9, 27] to provide motion cues between consecutive frames. Let  $F \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times H \times W}$  be the flow output from RAFT from  $I_t$  to  $I_{t+1}$ .

**Piecewise constant pathway.** We first pool the flow according to each mask to form C flow vectors  $\hat{P}_c \in \mathbb{R}^2$ :

$$\hat{P}_c = \phi_2(\text{GuidedPool}(\phi_1(F), \hat{M}_c)) \tag{1}$$

$$GuidedPool(F, M) = \frac{\sum_{p=1}^{HW} (F \odot M)[p]}{\sum_{p=1}^{HW} M[p]}$$
 (2)

where [p] denotes the pixel index and  $\odot$  element-wise multiplication. Following [22],  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  are two-layer lightweight MLPs that transform each of the motion vectors independently before and after pooling, respectively. We then construct predicted flow  $\hat{P} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times H \times W}$  according to the soft segmentation mask:

$$\hat{P} = \sum_{c=1}^{C} \text{Broadcast}(\hat{P}_c, \hat{M}_c)$$
 (3)

Broadcast
$$(\hat{P}_c, \hat{M}_c)[p] = \hat{P}_c \odot (\hat{M}_c[p]).$$
 (4)

As the mask prediction  $\hat{M}_c$  approaches binary during training, the flow prediction approaches a piecewise-constant function with respect to each segmentation mask, capturing common fate. Previous methods either directly supervise  $\hat{P}$  with an image warping for self-supervised learning [22] or matches  $\hat{P}$  and F by minimizing the discrepancies up to an affine factor (i.e., up to first order) [6].

Nonetheless, hand-crafted non-learnable motion models, while capturing the notion of common fate, underfit complex optical flow in real-world videos, which often put object parts into different segmentation channels in order to minimize the loss, despite similar color or texture. [6] uses two mask channels as a remedy, still falling short for scenes with complex backgrounds.

**Learnable residual pathway.** Rather than using more complicated hand-crafted motion models to model the mo-

tion patterns in videos, we employ *relaxed* common fate by separately fitting object-level and intra-object motion by adding a *learnable* residual pathway  $\hat{R}$  in addition to the piecewise constant pathway  $\hat{P}$  to form the final flow prediction  $\hat{F}$ . The residual pathway models relative intra-object motion such as the relative motion of the dancer's feet to the body in Fig. 3.

Let  $h(\cdot)$  be a lightweight module with three Conv-BN-ReLU blocks that take the concatenated feature of a pair of frames  $\{I_t, I_{t+1}\}$  as input and predicts  $\hat{R}' \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times 2 \times H \times W}$ , which includes C flows with per-pixel upper bound  $\lambda$ :

$$\hat{R}' = \lambda \tanh(h(\operatorname{concat}(f(I_t), f(I_{t+1}))) \tag{5}$$

where the upper bound  $\lambda$  is set to 10 pixels unless stated otherwise. The C residual flows form aggregated residual flow  $\hat{R}$  using mask predictions, which sums up with the piecewise constant pathway to form the final flow prediction  $\hat{F}$ :

$$\hat{R} = \sum_{c=1}^{C} \hat{R}'_c \odot \hat{M}_c \tag{6}$$

$$\hat{F} = \hat{P} + \hat{R} \tag{7}$$

In this way,  $\hat{F}$  additionally takes into account relative motion that is within  $(-\lambda,\lambda)$  for each spatial location. The added residual pathway provides greater flexibility by allowing the model to relax from common fate that does not take intra-object motion into account. This leads to better segmentation results for articulated and deformable objects.

At stage 1, we minimize the L1 loss between the predicted reconstruction flow  $\hat{F}$  and target flow F in order to learn segmentation by predicting the correct flow:

$$L_{\text{stage 1}} = L_{\text{motion}} = \frac{1}{HW} \sum_{p=1}^{HW} ||\hat{F}[p] - F[p]||_1$$
 (8)

### 3.3. Refinement with Appearance Supervision

A primary focus of self-supervised learning is to find sources of useful training signals. While the residual pathway greatly improves segmentation quality, the supervision still primarily comes from motion. This single source of supervision can lead to predictions that are optimal for flow prediction but often suboptimal from an appearance perspective. For instance, in Fig. 4, the segmentation prediction before refinement ignores a part of the dancer's leg, despite the ignored part sharing a very similar color and texture with the included parts. Furthermore, the RAFT flow tends to be noisy in areas where nearby pixels move very differently, which leads to segmentation ambiguity.

To address these issues, we propose to incorporate lowand high-level appearance signals as another source of supervision to correct the misconceptions from motion.

Appearance supervision with low-level intra-image cues. With the model in stage 1, we obtain the mask prediction  $\hat{M}_{c_o}$  of  $I_t$ , where  $c_o$  is the objectness channel that could be found without annotation (Sec. 3.4). We then apply fully-connected conditional random field (CRF) [17], a training-free technique that refines the value of each prediction based on other pixels with an appearance and a smoothness kernel. The refined masks  $\hat{M}'_{c_o}$  are then used as supervision to provide appearance signals in training:

$$\hat{M}_{c_o}' = \text{CRF}(\hat{M}_{c_o}) \tag{9}$$

$$L_{\rm app} = \frac{1}{HW} \sum_{p=1}^{HW} ||\hat{M}_{c_o}[p] - \hat{M}'_{c_o}[p]||_2^2$$
 (10)

Since stage 2 is mainly misconception correction and thus much shorter than stage 1, we generate the refined masks for supervision only once between the two stages for efficiency.

The total loss in stage 2 is a weighted sum of both motion and appearance loss:

$$L_{\text{stage 2}} = w_{\text{app}} L_{\text{app}} + w_{\text{motion}} L_{\text{motion}}$$
 (11)

where  $w_{app}$  and  $w_{motion}$  are weights for loss terms.

The CRF in our method for appearance supervision is different with the traditional CRF used in post-processing [6,45], as our refined masks provide the supervision for training the network. Furthermore, we show empirically that our method is orthogonal to the traditional CRF in the ablation (Sec. 4.4).

Appearance supervision with semantic constraint. Low-level appearance is still insufficient to address misleading motion signals from naturally occurring confounders with similar motion patterns. For example, the reflections share similar motion as the swan in Fig. 5, which is confirmed by low-level appearance. However, humans could recognize that the swan and the reflection have distinct semantics, with the reflection's semantics much closer to the background.

Inspired by this, we incorporate the statistically learned feature map from a frozen auxiliary DINO ViT [2,8] trained with self-supervised learning across ImageNet [34] without human annotation, to create a semantic constraint for mask prediction. We begin by taking the key features from the last transformer layer, denoted as  $f_{\rm aux}(I_t)$ , inspired by [40].







(b) Ambiguous low-level cues



(c) Seg. mask (pre-refine) (d) Seg. mask (post-refine)

Figure 5. Semantic constraint mitigates false positives from naturally-occurring misleading motion signals. The reflection has semantics distinct from the main object and is thus filtered out. The refined mask is then used as supervision to disperse the misconception in stage 2. Best viewed in color and zoom in.

Next, we compute and iteratively optimize the normalized cut [36] with respect to the mask to refine the mask.

Specifically, we initialize a 1-D vector  $\mathbf{x}$  with a flattened and resized  $\hat{M}_{c_o}$  with shape HW. Then we build an appearance-based affinity matrix A, where:

$$A_{ij} = \mathbb{1}(\sin(f_{\text{aux}}(I_t)_i, f_{\text{aux}}(I_t)_j) \ge 0.2)$$
 (12)

Next, we compute  $NCut(A, \mathbf{x})$ :

$$Cut(A, \mathbf{x}) = (1 - \mathbf{x})A\mathbf{x} \tag{13}$$

$$NCut(A, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{Cut(A, \mathbf{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^{HW} (A\mathbf{x})_i} + \frac{Cut(A, \mathbf{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^{HW} (A(1 - \mathbf{x}))_i}$$
(14)

where  $sim(\cdot, \cdot)$  cosine similarity. Since  $NCut(A, \mathbf{x})$  is differentiable with respect to  $\mathbf{x}$ , we use Adam [15] to minimize  $NCut(A, \mathbf{x})$  in order to refine  $\mathbf{x}$  for k=10 iterations. We denote the optimized vector as  $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ , which is thus the refined version of the mask that carries consistent semantics, thus decoupling the objects from their shadows and reflections. With the semantic constraint, Eq. (9) changes to:

$$\hat{M}'_{c_o} = \operatorname{CRF}(\hat{M}_{c_o}) \odot \operatorname{CRF}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \tag{15}$$

where  $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$  is reshaped to 2D and resized to match the mask sizes prior to CRF.

Since the semantic constraint introduces an additional frozen model  $f_{aux}(\cdot)$ , we benchmark both with and without the semantic constraint for a fair comparison with previous methods. We use RCF (w/o SC) to denote RCF without the semantic constraint. Our method is still fully unsupervised even with the semantic constraint.

### 3.4. Label-free Hyperparameter Tuner

Following previous appearance-based UVOS work, our method also requires several tunable hyperparameters for high-quality segmentation. The most critical ones are the number of segmentation channels  ${\cal C}$  and the object channel

index  $c_o$ . [6, 22] tune both hyperparameters either with a large labeled validation set or a hand-crafted metric tailored to a specific hyperparameter, limiting the capability towards other hyperparameters in a real-world setting.

We propose motion-appearance alignment as a metric to quantify the segmentation quality. The steps for tuning are:

- 1. Train a model with each hyperparameter setting.
- 2. Export the predicted mask  $\hat{M}_{co}$  for each image in the *unlabeled* validation set.
- 3. Compute the negative normalized cuts  $-\mathrm{NCut}(A, \hat{M}_{c_o})$  w.r.t.  $\hat{M}_{c_o}$  and the appearance-based affinity matrix A as the metric quantifying motion-appearance alignment.
- 4. Take the mean metric across all validation images.
- 5. Select the setting with the highest mean metric.

Our hyperparameter tuning method is model-agnostic and applicable to other UVOS methods. We also demonstrate its effectiveness in tuning weight decay and present the pseudo-code in the supp. mat.

# 4. Experiments

### 4.1. Datasets

We evaluate our methods using three datasets commonly used to benchmark UVOS, following previous works [6, 22, 41, 43, 45]. **DAVIS2016** [32] contains 50 video sequences with 3,455 frames in total. Performance is evaluated on a validation set that includes 20 videos with annotations at 480p resolution. **SegTrackv2** (STv2) [19] contains 14 videos of different resolutions, with 976 annotated frames and lower image quality than [32]. **FBMS59** [30] contains 59 videos with a total of 13,860 frames, 720 frames of which are annotated with a roughly fixed interval. We follow previous work to merge multiple foreground objects in STv2 and FBMS59 into one mask and train on all unlabeled videos. We adopt mean Jaccard index  $\mathcal{J}$  (mIoU) as the primary evaluation metric.

### 4.2. Unsupervised Video Object Segmentation

**Setup.** Our architecture is simple and straightforward. We use a ResNet50 [12] backbone followed by a segmentation head and a residual prediction head. Both heads only consist of three Conv-BN-ReLU layers with 256 hidden units. This standard design allows efficient implementation in real-world applications. Unless otherwise stated, we use C=4 object channels, which we determine without human annotation in Sec. 4.3. We also determine the object channel index  $c_o$  using the same approach. The RAFT [38] model we use is only trained on synthetic FlyingChairs [9] and FlyingThings [27] dataset without human annotation. For more details, please refer to supplementary materials. **Results.** As shown in Tab. 1, RCF outperforms previous methods under fair comparison, often by a large margin.

On DAVIS16, RCF surpasses the previous state-of-the-art

Methods	Post-process I	DAVIS16	STv2	FBMS59
SAGE [39]		42.6	57.6	61.2
CUT [14]		55.2	54.3	57.2
FTS [31]		55.8	47.8	47.7
EM [28]		69.8	_	_
CIS [45]		59.2	45.6	36.8
MG [43]		68.3	58.6	53.1
AMD [22]		57.8	57.0	47.5
SIMO [18]		67.8	62.0	_
GWM [6]		71.2	66.7	60.9
GWM* [6]		71.2	69.0	66.9
OCLR <sup>†</sup> [41]		72.1	67.6	65.4
TokenCut [40]		64.3	59.6	60.2
MOD [7]		73.9	62.2	61.3
RCF		80.9	76.7	69.9
		<b>(+7.0)</b>	<b>(+9.1)</b>	(+4.5)
CIS [45]	CRF + SP <sup>‡</sup>	71.5	62.0	63.6
TokenCut [40]	CRF only	76.7	61.6	66.6
GWM* [6]	CRF + SP <sup>‡</sup>	73.4	72.0	68.6
OCLR <sup>†</sup> [41]	DINO-based <sup>‡</sup>	78.9	71.6	68.7
MOD [7]	DINO-based <sup>‡</sup>	79.2	69.4	66.9
RCF (w/o SC)	CRF only	82.0	78.8	71.9
RCF	CRF only	83.0	<b>79.6</b>	72.4
		(+6.3)	<b>(+12.0)</b>	(+5.8)

Table 1. Our method achieves significant improvements over previous methods on common UVOS benchmarks. RCF (w/o SC) indicates low-level refinement only (no  $f_{aux}$  used). \*: uses Swin-Transformer w/ MaskFormer [3, 24] segmentation head orthogonal to VOS method and thus is not a fair comparison with us. † leverages manually annotated shapes from large-scale Youtube-VOS [42] to generate synthetic data. ‡: SP: significant post-processing (e.g., multi-step flow, multi-crop ensemble, and temporal smoothing). DINO-based: performs contrastive learning or mask propagation on a pretrained DINO ViT model [2, 8] at test time; not a fair comparison with us. Our post-processing is a CRF pass only. CIS results are from [23].

method by 7.0% without post-processing (abbreviated as pp.). With CRF as the only pp., RCF improves on previous methods by 6.3% without techniques such as multi-step flow, multi-crop ensemble, and temporal smoothing. RCF also outperforms GWM [6] that employs more complex Swin-T + MaskFormer architecture [3, 24] by 9.7% w/o pp. Furthermore, RCF achieves significantly better results compared with TokenCut [40] that also uses normalized cuts on DINO features [2] (16.6% better w/o pp.). Despite the varying image quality in STv2 and FBMS59, RCF improves over past methods under fair comparison, by 9.1% and 4.5%without pp, respectively. Semantic constraint (SC) could be included if additional gains are desired. However, RCF still outperforms previous works without the semantic constraint (5.3\% improvement on DAVIS16 w/o SC), thus not relying on external frozen features.

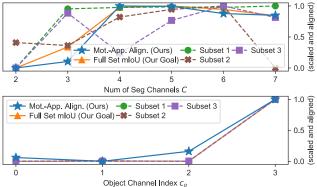


Figure 6. Our proposed label-free motion-appearance metric aligns well with mIoU on the full validation set. Top: When tuning the number of segmentation channels C, our method follows full validation set mIoU better than mIoU on validation subsets with 25% of the sequences labeled. Bottom: Our method correctly determines the object channel  $c_o=3$  for this run, without any human labels. Although  $c_o$  varies in each training run by design [22], our tuning method has negligible overhead and can be performed after training ends to find  $c_o$  within seconds.

## 4.3. Label-free Hyperparameter Tuning

We use motion-appearance alignment as a metric to tune two key hyperparameters: the number of segmentation masks C and the object channel index  $c_o$ . To simulate the real-world scenario that we only have limited labeled validation data, we also randomly sample 25% sequences three times to create three labeled subsets of the validation set to evaluate mIoU on. As shown in Fig. 6, for the number of mask channels C, despite not using any manual annotation, our label-free motion-appearance alignment closely follows the validation mIoU compared to mIoU on validation subsets, showing the effectiveness of our metric on hyperparameter tuning. Although increasing the number of channels improves the segmentation quality of our model by increasing its fitting power, such an increase saturates at C=4. Therefore, we use C=4 unless otherwise stated. Regarding the object channel index  $c_o$ , since it changes with each random initialization [22], optimal  $c_o$  needs to be obtained at the end of each training run. We propose to use only the first frame of each video sequence for finding  $c_o$ . With this adjustment, our tuning method completes within only 3 seconds for each candidate channel, which enables our tuning method to be performed after the whole training run with negligible overhead.

# 4.4. Ablation Study

Contributions of each component. As shown in Tab. 2, residual pathway allows more flexibility and contributes 7.8% mIoU. The appearance refinement in the second stage boosts the performance to 80.7%, resulting in a 9.6% gain in total. The CRF post-processing leads to 83.0% mIoU, an 11.9% increase over the baseline.

Residual	Low-level		CRF	$\mathcal{J}\left(\uparrow ight)$
pathway	refinement	constraint		J ( )
				71.1
✓				78.9 (+7.8)
✓	✓			79.7 (+8.6)
✓	✓	✓		80.7 (+9.6)
✓	✓	✓	1	83.0 (+11.9)

Table 2. Effect of each component of our method (DAVIS16). Residual pathway on its own provides the most improvement in our method. All components together contribute to an 11.9% gain.

Variants	DAVIS16 $\mathcal{J}\left(\uparrow\right)$	
None	71.1	
None (w/ robust loss [37])	74.0	
Scaling	73.8	
Residual (affine)	76.3	
Residual	78.9	

Table 3. Ablations on additional pathway confirm our design choice of residual pathway. We benchmark without the refinement stage to show the raw performance gain.

DAVIS16 $\mathcal{J}(\uparrow)$	Stage 1 only	Stage 1 & 2
Without post-processing	78.9	80.9
With CRF post-processing	g <b>81.4</b>	83.0
Δ	+2.5	+2.1

Table 4. The refinement CRF in our stage 2 is orthogonal to upsampling CRF in post-processing, since the latter still gives significant improvements even with CRF in stage 2.

**Designing additional pathway.** In Tab. 3, we show that robustness loss [21,37] does not effectively reduce the impact of misleading motion. We also implemented a pixel-wise scaling pathway, which multiplies each value of the motion vector by a predicted value. Furthermore, we fit an affine transformation per segmentation channel as the residual. In our setting, the pixel-wise residual performs the best and is selected for our model, showing the effectiveness of a *learnable* and *flexible* motion model inspired by relative motion.

**Orthogonality of our appearance supervision with post- processing**. The refined masks after our appearance-based refinement have the same resolution as the original exported masks. Therefore, the refinement CRF in stage 2 has an orthogonal effect to the upsampling CRF in post-processing which is mainly used to create high-resolution masks from bilinearly-upsampled ones. As shown in Tab. 4, the gains that come from post-processing remain comparable as we apply appearance-based refinement in stage 2, which also shows our orthogonality to post-processing.

**Modeling camera motion?** RCF does not explicitly model the flow from camera motion. To investigate whether modeling camera motion could further benefit RCF, we estimate

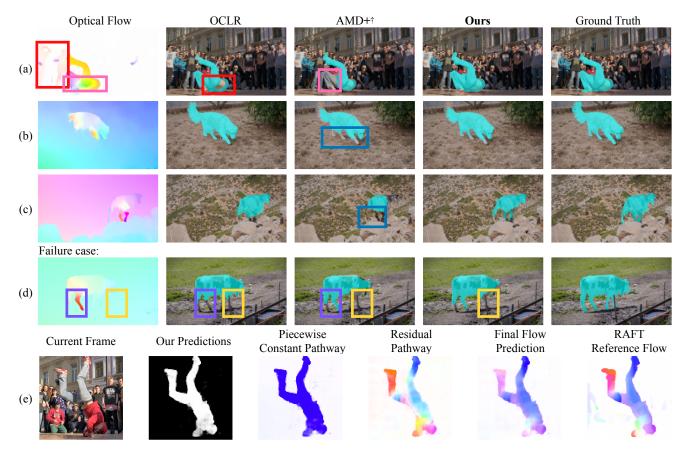


Figure 7. Our method delivers great performance in challenging scenes. Our method shows significant improvements compared to OCLR [41] and AMD [22] in scenes with complex foreground motion (a)(b), distracting background motion (a)(c), motion parallax from camera motion (c). In the failure case (d), neither motion nor appearance information is informative, leading to the front legs being missed from the segmentation. However, our method still outperforms previous works and segments most of the cow's hind legs. (e) shows that the piecewise-constant pathway and the residual pathway work together to fit the reference flow, resulting in high-quality segmentation. The symbol † denotes AMD with higher-quality RAFT flow [38] for a fair comparison. More visualizations are available in the supp. mat.

Camera motion modeling	No	Yes
DAVIS16 $\mathcal{J}(\uparrow)$	78.9	77.9

Table 5. **Modeling camera motion does not improve our method.** Lower segmentation quality results from removing camera motion as preprocessing. Only stage 1 is used in both settings.

it with the planar homography and RANSAC [11] and remove it as a preprocessing step prior to training our method. Despite the relatively accurate estimation when visualized, Tab. 5 shows that it is ineffective in improving the segmentation quality. We hypothesize that it is because 3D camera motion is equivalent to 3D scene motion in an opposite direction and thus additional modeling is unnecessary.

### 4.5. Visualizations and Discussions

Fig. 7 compares RCF with [22, 41] and shows its ability to handle challenging cases such as complex non-uniform foreground motion, distracting background motion, and camera motion including rotation. However, when neither motion nor appearance provides informative signals, RCF

may suffer from the lack of information. For instance, in the absence of relative motion, RCF is misled by the similarity between the color of the cow's front legs and the color of the ground in Fig. 7(d). Although RCF has the ability to recognize multiple foreground objects with similar motion, it sometimes captures only one object when the objects move in very different patterns. Finally, RCF is not designed to separate multiple foreground objects. More visualizations and discussions are available in the supp. mat.

## 5. Summary

We present RCF, an unsupervised video object segmentation method based on relaxed common fate and appearance grouping. Our approach includes a motion-supervised object discovery stage with a learnable residual pathway, a refinement stage with appearance supervision, and using motion-appearance alignment as a label-free hyperparameter tuning method. Extensive experiments show our method's effectiveness and utility in challenging scenarios.

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