When the Future Becomes the Past: Taming Temporal Correspondence for Self-supervised Video Representation Learning

Supplementary Material

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A. Supplementary Explanation of Method

A.1. Differences with Previous Methods

The success of Masked Image Modeling (MIM) has inspired its extension to the video domain as Masked Video Modeling (MVM), which has demonstrated impressive performance for multiple video tasks.

Given a video $\hat{V} = \{v_j \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times C}\}_{j=1}^T$, early MVM methods [8–10, 25, 27–29] aim to train the video encoder f through dense sampling from videos and forcing the model to recover the masked pixels. Specifically, as shown in Fig. 1a, for a sampled video clip $V' \subset V$, V' is divided into several tubes, which will be masked with learnable [MASK] tokens at a large probability. Next, the masked clip is passed through an encoder-decoder structure to predict the original clip $\widehat{V'}$ by recovering the masked pixels. Finally, the mean square error (MSE) loss is utilized to minimize the difference between $\widehat{V'}$ and V':

$$\mathcal{L}_{MSE}^{v} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{M}|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}} \| (\mathbf{V}')^{i} - (\widehat{\mathbf{V}'})^{i} \|_{2}^{2}, \tag{1}$$

where \mathcal{M} is the set of [MASK] tokens.

Recent MVM methods [7, 11, 14, 30] have shifted to a random sampling strategy to reduce computational cost in the early efforts. Typically, as shown in Fig. 1b, these methods first sample a current frame $v_c \in V$ with several masked patches, then sample an unmasked past frame $v_p \in V$. The masked current frame v_c are restored to \hat{v}_c

using v_p as prior information based on a conditional decoder. Similarly, the mean square error (MSE) loss is used to minimize the difference between \hat{v}_c and v_c :

$$\mathcal{L}_{MSE}^{f} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{M}|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}} \|(\boldsymbol{v}_c)^i - (\widehat{\boldsymbol{v}}_c)^i\|_2^2.$$
 (2)

As discussed in Sec.1, the random sampling strategy introduces uncertainty in reconstruction since one single conditional frame can lead to multiple potential predictions. Besides, previous MVM methods primarily restore the masked regions at the pixel level, making the model retain excessive low-level information. To address these issues, as shown in Fig. 1c, we propose a framework named T-CoRe with two key properties: 1) a sandwich sampling strategy to establish temporal correspondence from auxiliary frames, thereby reducing the reconstruction uncertainty; 2) an auxiliary branch on top of a self-distillation structure to reconstruct the masked patches in the latent space, facilitating the capture high-level semantic representations. Following the detailed illustration in Sec.3, we employ CE loss for representation reconstruction and MSE loss for temporal squeezing:

$$\mathcal{L}_{pt} = -\frac{1}{|\mathcal{M}(\boldsymbol{v}_c)|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}(\boldsymbol{v}_c)} (\hat{\boldsymbol{p}}_c)^i \log(\boldsymbol{p}_c^p)^i,$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{ft} = -\frac{1}{|\mathcal{M}(\boldsymbol{v}_c)|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}(\boldsymbol{v}_c)} (\hat{\boldsymbol{p}}_c)^i \log(\boldsymbol{p}_c^f)^i,$$
(3)

$$\mathcal{L}_{pf} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{M}(v_c)|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}(v_c)} \|(p_c^p)^i - (p_c^f)^i\|_2^2, \quad (4)$$

where p_c^p , p_c^f are the restored representations of the current frame guided by the past and future frame, respectively, and \hat{p}_c is the representation from the teacher branch.

B. Detailed Description of Experiments

B.1. Training Datasets

Kinetics-400 [16] is a large-scale video dataset with 400 categories of daily actions, widely used for tasks like action recognition and video understanding. It includes 239,789 available training videos, each about 10 seconds long. We extract frames at FPS = 2 to create our training set.

ImageNet-1k [5] is a widely used large-scale static image dataset containing 1,000 categories, covering a broad range of real-world objects. The training subset consists of 1.28 million images in the training subset, which we use to pre-train our framework.

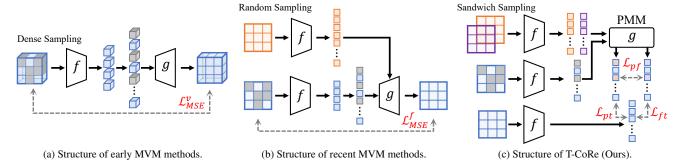


Figure 1. Comparison of structures between our framework with previous MVM methods.

B.2. Evaluation Datasets and Metrics

DAVIS-2017 [21] is a benchmark dataset for video object segmentation. The following three metrics are commonly used to evaluate the overall segmentation performance.

1) \mathcal{J}_{m} measures the average region similarity by calculating the overlap between the predicted segmentation mask P_{i} and the ground truth mask G_{i} for each video V_{i} :

$$\mathcal{J}_{\mathbf{m}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{|P_i \cap G_i|}{|P_i \cup G_i|}.$$
 (5)

2) \mathcal{F}_{m} accesses the average contour accuracy by calculating the harmonic mean of the precision Pre_{i} and recall Rec_{i} for the predicted boundary of each video V_{i} :

$$\mathcal{F}_{m} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{2 \cdot Pre_{i} \cdot Rec_{i}}{Pre_{i} + Rec_{i}}.$$
 (6)

3) $\mathcal{J}\&\mathcal{F}_{\rm m}$ provides a comprehensive measure by averaging $\mathcal{J}_{\rm m}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{\rm m}$:

$$\mathcal{J}\&\mathcal{F}_{\mathrm{m}} = \frac{\mathcal{J}_{\mathrm{m}} + \mathcal{F}_{\mathrm{m}}}{2}.\tag{7}$$

JHMDB [15] is primarily used for action recognition and human pose estimation. In our work, we use it for the human pose propagation task, which is evaluated using the PCK@k metric to measure the precision of predictions:

$$PCK@k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{|S_i|} \sum_{j=1}^{|S_i|} \mathbb{1} \left[D(\hat{p}_{i,j}, p_{i,j}) < k \cdot d_i \right], \quad (8)$$

where S_i is the set of key points and d_i is the scale of the human body in video V_i , $D(\hat{p}_{i,j}, p_{i,j})$ represents Euclidean distance between predicted key point $\hat{p}_{i,j}$ and ground truth key point $p_{i,j}$. The parameter k is the threshold for the maximum allowable distance error. Following previous works [7, 11, 14], we use PCK@0.1 and PCK@0.2 as evaluation metrics.

VIP [32] is designed for fine-grained instance parsing, which can be applied to the semantic part propagation task. The primary evaluation metric is mIoU, which measures the

segmentation performance by calculating the overlap between the predicted segmentation mask $P_{i,j}$ and the ground truth mask $G_{i,j}$ for each video V_i and each class C_j :

$$mIoU = \frac{1}{|C|} \sum_{i=1}^{|C|} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{|P_{i,j} \cap G_{i,j}|}{|P_{i,j} \cup G_{i,j}|}.$$
 (9)

B.3. Training Settings

Sampling strategy. For each video, we first randomly select a current frame within the range [0.3,0.7] of the total video duration. Then, we randomly sample the past and future frames relative to the current frame based on the offset range of [0.15,0.25]. Moreover, we generate 2 global views (224×224) and 8 local views (96×96) from the current frame, applying standard data augmentations such as color jittering, gray scaling, and Gaussian blur. Following [19], 50% of the global crops in the student branch are masked with 10% to 50% of randomly selected patches.

Optimizing settings. We adopt ViT-Small and ViT-Base [6] with a patch size of 16 as the backbone models in our framework. The feature dimensions are set to 384 and 768, respectively. For the ViT-S/16 backbone, we pretrain our framework for 400 epochs with a batch size of 256, where the first 20 epochs are allocated for warm-up. For the ViT-B/16 backbone, we pre-train our framework for 200 epochs with a batch size of 128, with the first 10 epochs used for warm-up. The base learning rate blr for ViT-S/16 and ViT-B/16 are adaptively set to 2×10^{-3} and 1×10^{-3} , respectively, and decay to 1×10^{-6} using a cosine decay schedule. The real learning rate lr is scaled according to the batch size: $lr = blr \cdot \sqrt{bs/1024}$. The learning rates for PMM are set to $0.1 \times lr$ for ViT-S/16 and $0.13 \times lr$ for ViT-B/16. The student branch is optimized by AdamW [18] and the teacher branch is updated with the exponential moving average of the student weights.

Loss function. The hyper-parameters of the loss function are set as follows: $\lambda_1 = 0.8$, $\lambda_2 = 20$, $\lambda_3 = 1.0$, and $\lambda_4 = 0.1$. Note that λ_3 and λ_4 are taken from the default setting of [19] and we only tune the λ_1 and λ_2 in our experiments.

The general hyperparameters settings for our T-CoRe

		Value						
Hyperparameter	Notation	ViT-S/16	ViT-B/16					
Sampling strategy								
Current frame range	/	[0.3, 0.7]						
Past frame offset range	[lpha,eta]	[0.15]	[0.25]					
Future frame offset range	$[\alpha, \beta]$	[0.15]	[0.25]					
Mask probability	/	0	.5					
Mask ratio	/	[0.1]	[0.5]					
Global crop size	/	(224×224)						
Local crop size	/	$(96 \times 96)^{'}$						
Past and future frame size	/	(224×224)						
Optimizing settings								
Optimizer	/	AdamW						
Learning rate scheduler	/	Cosine						
Weight decay	/	0.04 -	$\rightarrow 0.4$					
Momentum	/	0.992	$2 \rightarrow 1$					
Number of ViT encoder blocks	/	1	2					
Patch size	p	1	6					
Base learning rate	blr	2×10^{-3}	1×10^{-3}					
PMM learning rate	/	$0.1 \times lr$	$0.13 \times lr$					
Epochs	/	400	200					
Warm-up epochs	/	20	10					
Batch size	bs	256	128					
Number of ViT feature dim.	d	384	768					
Loss function								
Weight of reconstruction loss	λ_1	0.8						
Weight of squeezing loss	λ_2	20						
Weight of DINO loss	λ_3	1						
Weight of koleo loss	λ_4	0.1						

Table 1. The hyperparameters settings for our T-CoRe framework during the training process.

Config	DAVIS-2017	VIP	JHMDB
Тор-К	7	10	7
Queue Length	20	20	20
Neighborhood Size	20	20	20

Table 2. The hyperparameters settings for our T-CoRe framework during the evaluation process.

framework during the training process are summarized in Tab. 1. All experiments in this work are conducted with Pytorch [20] on a Linux machine equipped with an AMD EPYC 9654 96-Core Processor and 4 NVIDIA 4090 GPUs.

B.4. Evaluation settings

Following [7], the hyperparameters for three downstream tasks are listed in Tab. 2. Note that these hyperparameters remain fixed in our framework without further tuning to ensure a fair comparison.

B.5. Competitors

We compare our T-CoRe with various state-of-the-art selfsupervised representation learning methods, which can be categorized into the following two types:

1) Contrastive learning methods:

- SimCLR [3] aims to learn meaningful representations by contrasting positive and negative samples.
- MoCo v3 [4] designs a momentum encoder with a memory bank to store negative samples.
- DINO [2] uses a self-distillation structure to learn representations with Vision Transformer [6] as the encoder.
- ODIN² [13] combines object discovery with representation networks to capture meaningful semantics without annotation.
- CrOC [24] proposes a cross-view consistency objective with an online clustering mechanism for semantic segmentation

2) Masked modeling methods:

- MAE [12] proposes to mask and recover image patches at the pixel level based on an encoder-decoder structure.
- MAE-ST [8] extends MAE to learn spatiotemporal representations from videos.
- RC-MAE [17] introduces a mean teacher network into MAE for consistent reconstruction.
- VideoMAE [25] simply extends MAE into the video domain by masking video tubes with an extremely high masking ratio and recovering the masked pixels.
- DropMAE [29] applies adaptive spatial-attention dropout to enhance temporal relations in videos
- SiamMAE [11] uses a past frame and a masked current frame as input to a Siamese network, reconstructing the masked patches with a conditional decoder.
- CropMAE [7] samples different crops or augmented versions of a frame as input to a similar structure with SiamMAE.
- RSP [14] learns to recover a future frame through stochastic frame prediction, using the current frame for prior and posterior distributions.
- iBOT [31] aligns both cross-view [CLS] tokens and inview patch tokens within a self-distillation framework.
- DINO v2 [19] employs a discriminative self-supervised pre-training approach and incorporates additional techniques [1, 22, 23, 26] to improve iBOT. For a fair comparison, we do not apply the costly techniques in DINO v2 like distillation from a larger model or pre-training with a larger resolution.

C. Additional Experimental Results

C.1. Training Dynamics

Fig. 2 illustrates the performance dynamics of the training schedule for ViT-S/16 and ViT-B/16 backbones across three downstream tasks. We report the performance of the framework at different checkpoints during the training process. The figures indicate that training with a larger model and a longer duration leads to further performance improvements on these downstream tasks.

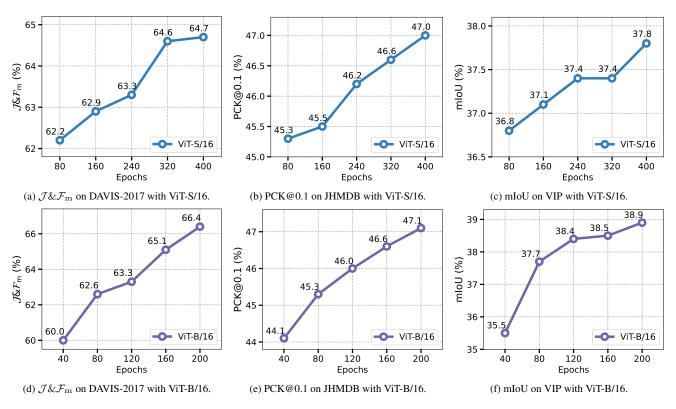


Figure 2. The performance on three downstream tasks during the training phase with ViT-S/16 and ViT-B/16 backbones.

C.2. Computational Efficiency

Our framework (VIT-B/16 backbone) is pre-trained on 4 GPUs for 200 epochs with bs=128 in 30 hours. As shown in the Tab. 3, we provide a comparison of model efficiency. Although the self-distillation architecture introduces a slight computational overhead, our method achieves superior performance on downstream tasks with fewer training epochs, while maintaining relatively acceptable time and space costs, thus seeking a balance between computational efficiency and model effectiveness.

Method	Backbone	GPU Mem.	Epoch	PT-Time	$\int \& \mathcal{F}_{\mathrm{m}}$	\mathcal{J}_{m}	\mathcal{F}_{m}
VideoMAE	ViT-B/16	8×24.39 GB	800	160 h	34.7	33.9	35.4
SiamMAE	ViT-B/16	4×5.04 GB	400	21 h	45.5	43.6	47.5
CropMAE	ViT-B/16	4×5.02 GB	400	22 h	57.8	56.9	58.7
RSP	ViT-B/16	4×12.19 GB	400	113 h	60.5	<u>57.8</u>	63.2
T-CoRe (Ours)	ViT-B/16	4×17.57 GB	200	30 h	66.4	64.6	68.2

Table 3. Efficiency comparison on ViT-B/16 with same settings.

C.3. Additional Visualization Results

Cross-attention Maps. We provide additional cross-attention heatmaps of the masked patches between the current frame and both the past and future frames in PMM. As shown in Fig. 3, the masked patches could successfully match similar regions in the auxiliary frames through the cross-attention mechanism, demonstrating the favorable ability to establish temporal correspondence. This capabil-

ity remains effective in perceiving and matching the corresponding targets even when the target is almost completely masked in the current frame. Moreover, it is worth noting that PMM can also capture edge details, such as the outline of the rope in the top-right example.

Downstream Tasks. In Fig. 4, we provide more visualization results on three downstream tasks. The prediction masks show that T-CoRe performs well in instance segmentation and posture tracking across most scenarios, making it an effective pre-training framework for video representation learning that facilitates the video understanding process.

C.4. k-NN Images for Pre-training on ImageNet-1k

To ensure a fair comparison with previous methods in the image domain, we extend our framework for pre-training on the ImageNet-1k [5]. Specifically, we employ k-NN images to simulate the adjacent frames in videos for establishing temporal correspondence. In this setting, the auxiliary branch receives one k-NN image. The k-NN images are determined based on our framework pre-trained without the auxiliary branch, where k is set to 5 at default. Fig. 5 presents several examples of original images and their corresponding k-NN images, which exhibit similar appearance and share the same semantics as the original images, effectively simulating the selection of adjacent frames from a video to establish correspondence.

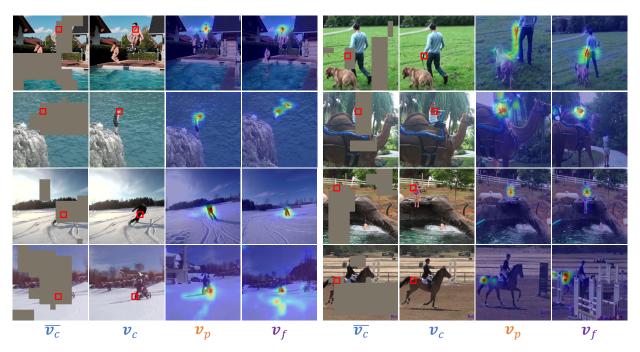


Figure 3. Additional cross-attention heatmaps of the masked current frame \bar{v}_c to the past and future frames v_p, v_f in the PMM.

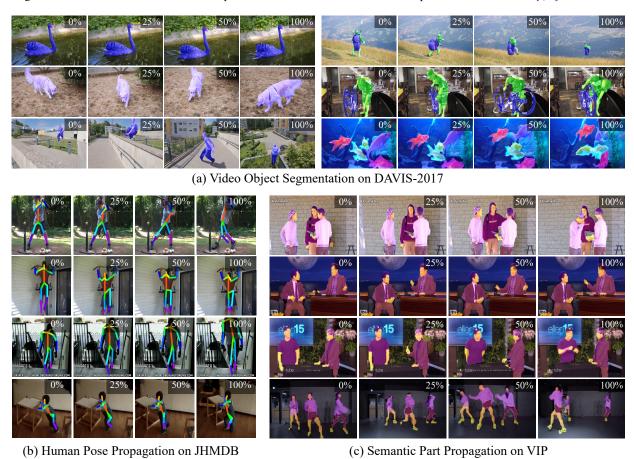


Figure 4. Additional visualization results of T-CoRe for three downstream tasks including (a) video object segmentation on DAVIS-2017 [21], (b) human pose propagation on JHMDB [15], and (c) body part propagation on VIP [32].

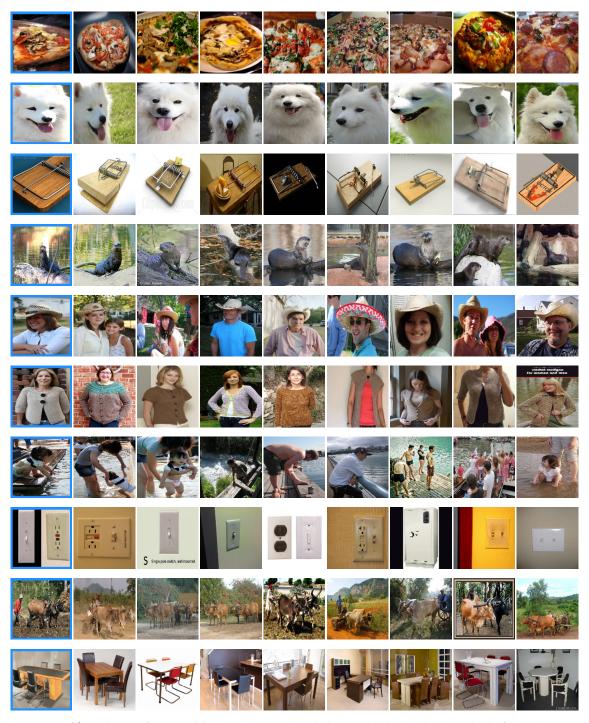


Figure 5. Examples of k-NN images for pre-training on ImageNet-1k. The images within the blue boxes in the first column are the origin images, while the following 8 columns show their top-k nearest neighbor images in the training set.



Figure 6. Failure cases on downstream tasks.

C.5. Failure Case Analysis

As shown in Fig. 6, obvious prediction errors occur in some challenging test samples, such as tightly fitting instances, considerable motion amplitudes, and significant camera movements. These failures likely result from the limitations in the training data processing, which prevents the model from learning such difficult scenarios. This issue could be mitigated by using higher-quality datasets, more precise sampling methods, and smaller patch sizes for training. In future work, we will consider further enhancing the framework to better handle more complex scenarios.

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