

# Scene-Centric Unsupervised Video Panoptic Segmentation

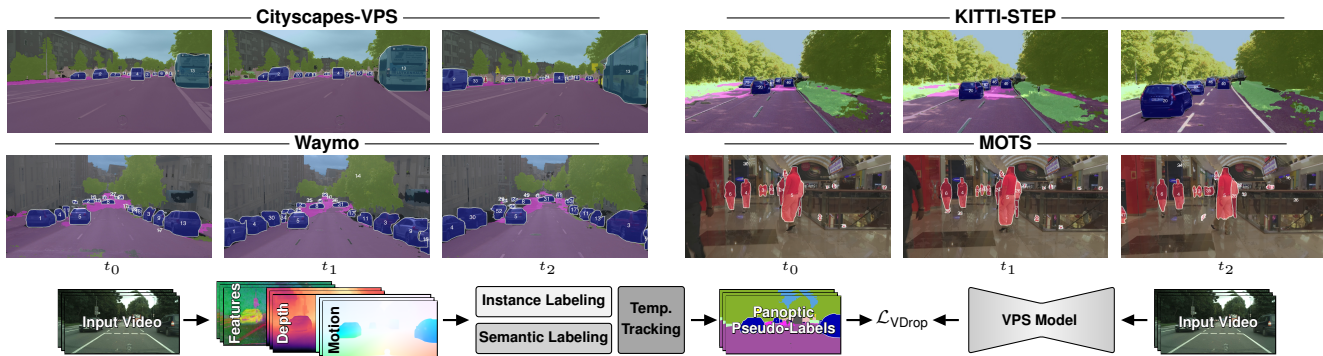
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Figure 1. **Results and overview of our unsupervised video panoptic segmentation approach VideoCUPS.** *Top:* Panoptic video predictions by VideoCUPS across four datasets. *Bottom:* We use self-supervised representations, motion, and depth cues from monocular videos to generate scene-centric panoptic video pseudo-labels and train a video panoptic segmentation model using a novel Video DropLoss.

## Abstract

*Video panoptic segmentation (VPS) aims to jointly detect, segment, and track all objects while partitioning the video into semantically consistent regions. We introduce the task setting of unsupervised VPS, omitting any human supervision. Existing unsupervised scene understanding works mainly focused on image segmentation tasks; the video domain remains underexplored. We propose VideoCUPS, the first unsupervised VPS approach. VideoCUPS generates temporally consistent panoptic video pseudo-labels from scene-centric videos by exploiting unsupervised depth, motion, and visual cues. Training on these pseudo-labels using a novel Video DropLoss yields an accurate, unsupervised VPS model. To benchmark progress, we introduce a comprehensive evaluation protocol and four competitive baselines, extending state-of-the-art unsupervised panoptic image and instance video segmentation models to VPS. VideoCUPS outperforms all baselines and demonstrates strong label-efficient learning. With VideoCUPS, our evaluation protocol, and baselines, we provide a strong foundation for future research on unsupervised VPS.*

## 1. Introduction

Video Panoptic Segmentation (VPS) [57, 113] is a holistic scene understanding task that extends panoptic segmenta-

tion [59] from the spatial to the spatio-temporal domain, unifying instance and semantic segmentation over time. Specifically, VPS aims to detect, segment, classify, and temporally associate individual object instances, while also assigning each pixel a semantic category. This comprehensive segmentation task enables parsing of complex, dynamic real-world environments and has a wide range of applications, such as autonomous driving, robotics, video editing, and medical imaging [see 118, 125, for an overview].

Advances in panoptic video understanding have been driven by supervised learning, relying on significant amounts of human-annotated data for training [19, 29, 57, 69, 83, 90, 113]. However, acquiring dense pixel-level instance and semantic annotations for images is highly resource intensive [23]. Extending labeling efforts to the temporal domain poses even more challenges, including limited scalability and label quality [21, 113, 116]. Despite the success of densely annotated large-scale datasets, such as SA-1B [60], there is a natural interest in more efficient and scalable annotation-free alternatives [41, 48, 93, 110].

Unsupervised learning has emerged as a powerful paradigm, showcasing significant progress in scene understanding tasks such as unsupervised semantic [40, 42, 91], instance [92, 108, 110], and panoptic segmentation [41, 81]. Among these, U2Seg [81] established the first approach for unsupervised image panoptic segmentation by combining semantic pseudo-labels from STEGO [42] and in-

stance masks from CutLER’s MaskCut component [108]. CUPS [41] extended the paradigm to scene-centric<sup>1</sup> imagery by using motion and depth cues from real-world *stereo video* to generate panoptic pseudo-labels for *images*, overcoming the need for object-centric imagery required for training U2Seg. These advances have focused on unsupervised *image* segmentation. In contrast, the unsupervised panoptic segmentation of *videos* remains underexplored, while offering broader applications for dynamic real-world environments and a more natural human perception of the world by also perceiving the temporal domain. We therefore introduce the task setting of *unsupervised video panoptic segmentation*, which aims to panoptically segment videos without any human supervision.

To approach unsupervised VPS for the first time, we introduce **VideoCUPS**: scene-Centric Unsupervised **Video** Panoptic Segmentation. While building on CUPS [41], which addresses unsupervised *image* panoptic segmentation, VideoCUPS directly produces temporally consistent *video* panoptic pseudo-labels. Additionally, our VPS pseudo-labeling method operates solely on monocular videos as input, thereby overcoming the need for stereo video during VPS training. To enable effective training on our pseudo-labels, we introduce a Video DropLoss and self-enhanced video copy-paste augmentation. For assessing the accuracy of VideoCUPS, we establish four competitive baselines, built using CUPS [41], U2Seg [81], and VideoCutLER [109]. VideoCUPS, together with the proposed baselines and evaluation protocol, forms a foundation for future work on unsupervised panoptic video understanding.

Specifically, we make the following contributions: (i) We introduce the task setting of unsupervised video panoptic segmentation and propose a unified evaluation protocol spanning four established VPS datasets. To enable comparison, we extend the Segmentation and Tracking Quality (STQ) to the unsupervised setting by incorporating pseudo-semantic matching. Moreover, we construct four competitive VPS baselines that combine state-of-the-art unsupervised semantic, video instance, and panoptic image segmentation models with unsupervised tracking. (ii) We generate high-quality video panoptic pseudo-labels solely from monocular scene-centric videos using self-supervised visual, depth, and motion cues. Using a novel Video DropLoss and self-enhanced video copy-paste augmentation, we train on our pseudo-labels, leading to the first unsupervised VPS approach. (iii) VideoCUPS consistently outperforms all unsupervised baselines across a wide range of scene-centric video datasets. Additionally, we show that VideoCUPS provides a strong foundation for approaching VPS using label-efficient learning.

<sup>1</sup>Scene-centric imagery captures complex environments with multiple interacting objects, as in Cityscapes [23], whereas object-centric imagery typically depicts a single and isolated object, as in ImageNet [85].

## 2. Related Work

Unsupervised segmentation methods have been shaped by advances in self-supervised learning (SSL) and unsupervised low-level vision, particularly in motion and depth estimation. We first review these developments before discussing unsupervised segmentation approaches.

**Self-supervised representation learning** aims to learn expressive and transferable visual representations from unlabeled data [30]. A variety of pretext tasks have been proposed to achieve this [3, 30], enabling feature extractors that generalize across downstream tasks [82, 93]. The advent of Vision Transformers (ViTs) [26] has further shaped SSL by facilitating large-scale training and enabling novel pretext designs [48, 123]. Contemporary methods typically optimize ViTs through contrastive learning [6, 17, 18, 47], negative-free objectives [7, 13, 16, 37], clustering [5, 11, 12, 104], masked modeling [39, 48, 80], or a combination of these [82, 93, 123]. Recent SSL frameworks, such as the DINO family [13, 82, 93], provide semantically rich, dense features, suited for unsupervised segmentation [42, 108].

**Unsupervised optical flow** aims to estimate apparent motion directly from video without ground truth [2, 122]. While classical formulations were inherently unsupervised [8, 49, 74], early deep learning approaches relied on synthetic datasets to provide supervision [25, 76, 97]. Inspired by traditional formulations and motivated by the synthetic-to-real gap, deep learning-based unsupervised optical flow has been introduced [2, 54, 78, 84, 122]. Recent unsupervised deep optical flow methods provide accurate motion estimation, efficient inference, and strong generalization across diverse real-world domains [70, 75, 96].

**Unsupervised monocular depth estimation** aims to estimate depth of monocular imagery by learning from stereo images or monocular videos [32, 34, 124]. Learning depth from monocular videos is done by novel-view synthesis and photometric consistency [105, 124]. Novel-view synthesis, however, assumes a static scene and breaks for dynamics [35, 99, 119]. Recent approaches use auto-masking [35], semantic/instance cues [14, 15, 31, 38, 61, 67, 115], or multi-view [31, 112, 117] to compensate for dynamic objects. Other methods, such as DynamoDepth [99], jointly learn depth, motion, and/or motion segmentation, decomposing the scene into static and dynamic parts [50, 68].

**Unsupervised instance segmentation** aims to detect and segment objects in images without human supervision [94]. Recent approaches [100, 103, 107, 108, 110] train class-agnostic detectors using pseudo-labels derived from SSL features of object-centric imagery. TokenCut [111] obtains foreground masks from DINO features using normalized cuts [89]. CutLER [108] extends this by iteratively cutting multiple pseudo-masks per image, and is further improved by [4, 92, 110]. A complementary direction exploits motion

cues for object discovery [22, 36, 55, 71, 86, 95, 100, 121]. Recently, unsupervised extensions to video have emerged. VideoCutLER [109] trains on synthetic videos from image pseudo-masks, FlowCut [87] enforces motion-based temporal consistency, and AutoQ-VIS [73] improves pseudo-labels via automatic quality assessment.

**Unsupervised semantic segmentation** aims to divide images into semantically meaningful regions without any human annotations. Early deep learning approaches [20, 44, 53] used representation learning, encouraging embeddings to capture dense semantic similarity. Leveraging self-supervised DINO [13] features as an inductive bias, STEGO [42] distills and clusters features to obtain unsupervised semantic segmentations. Building on the STEGO framework, subsequent methods [40, 52, 56, 88, 91] refine the distillation and probing process. Other unsupervised segmentation approaches [24, 79, 102] alternatively use vision-language diffusion features. To the best of our knowledge, there are no extensions of unsupervised semantic segmentation methods to video to date.

**Unsupervised panoptic segmentation** has recently emerged as a natural next step, following advances in unsupervised semantic and instance segmentation. While panoptic segmentation of images and videos has been extensively studied in the supervised setting [see 29, 125, for an overview], we are only aware of two unsupervised image panoptic segmentation approaches, U2Seg [81] and CUPS [41]. U2Seg combines CutLER’s MaskCut [108] and STEGO [42] to create pseudo-labels for panoptic training, but inherits MaskCut’s object-centric bias, significantly limiting accuracy on scene-centric data [41]. CUPS overcomes this by grouping unsupervised scene flow from stereo into rigid instances [95] and combining these with unsupervised semantics [91] to train a panoptic network. In our work, we employ both U2Seg and CUPS in competitive baselines and propose the first approach to directly perform unsupervised video panoptic segmentation. While we, similar to CUPS [41], use self-supervised representations, motion, and depth cues, VideoCUPS requires only monocular video for VPS pseudo-labeling, captures non-rigid instance motions, and directly generates panoptic video pseudo-labels.

### 3. Method: Unsupervised VPS

*First*, we generate panoptic video pseudo-labels (*cf.* Sec. 3.1 and Fig. 2) from monocular videos. *Second*, we train a VPS model (*cf.* Sec. 3.2) using these pseudo-labels, a novel Video DropLoss, and self-enhanced video copy-paste augmentations, leading to the first unsupervised VPS model. *Third*, to enable evaluation of VideoCUPS and future approaches, we present an evaluation protocol for the unsupervised VPS setting (*cf.* Sec. 3.3).

#### 3.1. Generating VPS pseudo-labels

To generate temporally coherent panoptic video pseudo-labels, we adopt a bottom-up strategy (*cf.* Fig. 2). Initially, we produce semantic and instance pseudo-labels for individual frames, which are then refined through temporal consistency processing along the video sequence.

**From motion and depth to instance pseudo-labels.** Drawing inspiration from Gestalt principles [62, 63, 114], we adopt the common fate, proximity, and similarity principle—neighborhoods that move together belong together—to derive class-agnostic instance pseudo-masks from monocular videos. Accordingly, we defined objects as entities capable of moving. We obtain *per-frame* instance pseudo-labels across an entire video clip as follows. Given two consecutive monocular frames, we obtain unsupervised optical flow  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times H \times W}$  using SMURF [96]. Monocular depth  $\mathbf{d} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$  is estimated by DynamoDepth [99]. Alongside depth, DynamoDepth also estimates dense motion probabilities  $\mathbf{m} \in [0, 1]^{H \times W}$ , decomposing the scene into static ( $m_{h,w} \rightarrow 0$ ) and dynamic regions ( $m_{h,w} \rightarrow 1$ ).

We employ a variant of region growing [1, 43] to extract a variable number of instance pseudo-masks. Specifically, we threshold  $\mathbf{m}$  at  $\alpha = 0.15$  to obtain instance seeds. Next, we iteratively merge pixels within a Chebyshev neighborhood  $r$  based on their relative depth and flow difference. In particular, for pixel  $\mathbf{x} = (h, w)$  with  $m_{\mathbf{x}} > \alpha$ , we merge pixels within the Chebyshev neighborhood  $\mathcal{N}_r(\mathbf{x}) = \{\mathbf{y} \mid \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} \leq r \wedge m_{\mathbf{y}} > \alpha, \mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{x}\}$  to  $\mathbf{x}$  if

$$\frac{|d_{\mathbf{x}} - d_{\mathbf{y}}|}{|d_{\mathbf{x}}|} < \tau_d \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\|f_{\mathbf{x}} - f_{\mathbf{y}}\|_2}{\|f_{\mathbf{x}}\|_2} < \tau_f, \quad (1)$$

with  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{N}_r(\mathbf{x})$ . Merging proceeds iteratively until convergence and can be parallelized for efficiency. The resulting set of  $l$  class-agnostic pseudo-instance masks  $\mathbf{M} \in \{0, 1\}^{l \times H \times W}$  groups pixels that share consistent relative depth and motion. Unlike the rigid-motion pseudo-labeling in CUPS [41], we do not assume rigidity but exploit smoothness, enabling us to also capture non-rigidly moving instances, such as pedestrians in motion (*cf.* Fig. 5).

**From SSL features to semantic pseudo-labels.** We derive an unsupervised semantic segmentation model  $\mathcal{S}$  by distilling DINO [13] features into a lower-dimensional embedding via a contrastive objective, leveraging monocular depth as an auxiliary cue. Clustering with stochastic cosine-distance  $k$ -means yields  $\mathcal{S} : \mathbb{R}^{3 \times H \times W} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{c_p \times H \times W}$ , mapping an input image  $\mathbf{I}$  to dense semantic pseudo-labels with  $c_p$  semantic pseudo-classes, consistent across the entire dataset. While unsupervised semantic segmentation approaches typically operate at low resolutions (*e.g.*,  $320^2$ ), close to that used for SSL pre-training [13], we use depth-guided semantic inference [41] to obtain high-resolution semantic predictions. Specifically, we infer a semantic prediction  $\mathbf{P}^{\text{low}}$  at lower resolution and  $\mathbf{P}^{\text{high}}$  at a higher resolution

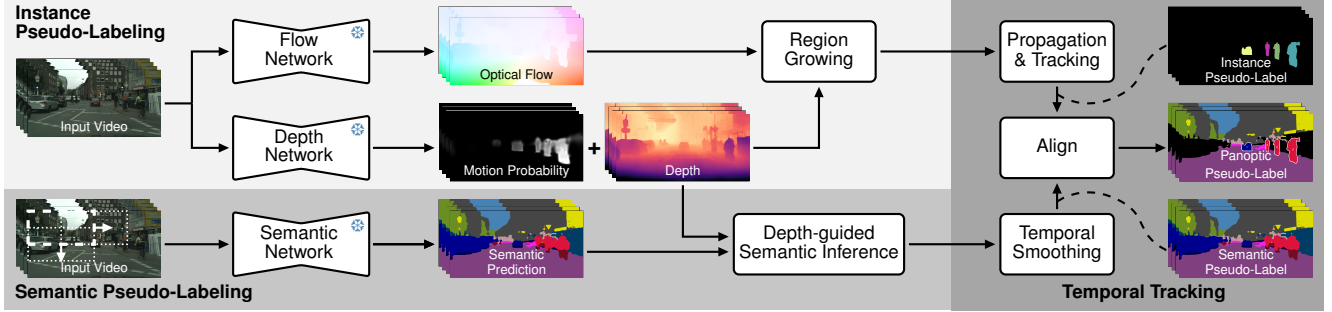


Figure 2. **VideoCUPS pseudo-label generation.** *Instance pseudo-labeling* applies motion-based region growing segmentation using unsupervised optical flow from SMURF [96] and depth from DynamoDepth [99]. *Semantic pseudo-labeling* uses a  $k$ -means clustering prediction of distilled DINO features [13], combined with a depth-guided inference [41]. *Temporal tracking* propagates and tracks the instance pseudo-labels, temporally smooths the semantic pseudo-labels, and aligns the two signals into video panoptic pseudo-labels.

using sliding-window inference.  $\mathbf{P}^{\text{low}}$  captures coarse, near-field semantics and  $\mathbf{P}^{\text{high}}$  preserves fine details via sliding-window inference and soft aggregation.  $\mathbf{P}^{\text{low}}$  is upsampled to the resolution of  $\mathbf{P}^{\text{high}}$  and both are fused with a per-pixel depth weight  $\alpha_{h,w} = (d_{h,w} + 1)^{-1}$  using the monocular depth prediction  $\mathbf{d}$  from DynamoDepth:

$$\mathbf{P}^* = \alpha \odot \mathbf{P}^{\text{low}} + (1 - \alpha) \odot \mathbf{P}^{\text{high}}. \quad (2)$$

We further apply regularized Frank-Wolfe inference [66] for dense CRFs [64], enabling fast spatial regularization. Building on [41], we adapt DepthG [91] retrained with the monocular depth from DynamoDepth [99], ensuring consistency with our unsupervised, monocular setting.

**From image to video pseudo-labels.** A key component of our pseudo-label generation is the temporal processing and fusion of frame-wise semantic and instance information.

*Instance propagation and tracking* extends the frame-wise, class-agnostic instance pseudo-labels to the video domain using optical-flow-based mask propagation and IoU-based association. Given three consecutive frames  $\mathbf{I}_{t-1}$ ,  $\mathbf{I}_t$ , and  $\mathbf{I}_{t+1}$ , we estimate the forward and backward optical flows  $\mathbf{f}_{t-1,t}^{\text{fw}}$ ,  $\mathbf{f}_{t-1,t}^{\text{bw}}$  and  $\mathbf{f}_{t,t+1}^{\text{fw}}$ ,  $\mathbf{f}_{t,t+1}^{\text{bw}}$ , using SMURF. We then perform backward warping of the instance pseudo-labels  $\mathbf{M}_t$  and  $\mathbf{M}_{t+1}$  to their respective previous frames, resulting in  $\hat{\mathbf{M}}_{t \rightarrow t-1}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{M}}_{t+1 \rightarrow t}$  while ignoring occluded pixels identified via forward-backward flow consistency [101]. To match the instance IDs between frame  $t-1$  and  $t$ , we compute an IoU cost matrix between all instance masks in  $\mathbf{M}_{t-1}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{M}}_{t \rightarrow t-1}$ . Hungarian matching is applied to all pairs with  $\text{IoU} > \tau_m = 0.4$ , and the resulting associations are used to update the instance IDs in  $\mathbf{M}_t$ . For instances in  $\mathbf{M}_{t-1}$  without a match, we attempt recovery using  $\hat{\mathbf{M}}_{t+1 \rightarrow t}$  under the same threshold  $\tau_m$ , thereby resurrecting instances lost in frame  $t$  by warping back masks from  $t+1$ . The remaining masks in  $\hat{\mathbf{M}}_{t+1 \rightarrow t}$  are assigned new IDs, and the temporal window advances by one frame until the end of the video clip. Finally, we filter out short-lived instances that appear in less than 2 frames of the clip.

*Temporal semantic smoothing* enforces temporal consistency of semantic pseudo-labels by aggregating neighboring predictions. For each frame  $t$ , we obtain  $\hat{\mathbf{P}}_{t-1 \rightarrow t}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{P}}_{t+1 \rightarrow t}$ , the warped pseudo-labels from adjacent frames using flow. The temporally smoothed label  $\hat{\mathbf{P}}_t$  is obtained via pixel-wise majority vote over  $\{\hat{\mathbf{P}}_{t-1 \rightarrow t}, \mathbf{P}_t^*, \hat{\mathbf{P}}_{t+1 \rightarrow t}\}$  using a three-frame sliding window.

*Aligning semantic and instance pseudo-labels* per video clip results in the final video panoptic pseudo-labels. We align the semantic and instance signals by assigning a consistent semantic pseudo-class to all masks of an instance ID across an entire clip, determined by a majority vote over all semantic pseudo-labels within the instance masks.

Once all video panoptic pseudo-labels are obtained, we aim to retrieve the split of the semantic pseudo-classes into pseudo “thing” and “stuff” classes. We aggregate pixel distributions across all clips by computing the ratio of each semantic pseudo-class frequency within the instance masks relative to its overall frequency. We designate semantic pseudo-classes with a high ratio above a threshold  $\psi^{\text{ts}}$  as “thing”, and those below as “stuff”.

### 3.2. Learning from VPS pseudo-labels

Using our panoptic video pseudo-labels, we aim to train a model to perform unsupervised VPS. In particular, given an input video of  $T$  frames, the model predicts a panoptic video segmentation  $\mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{S}, \mathbf{R})$ , composed of the predicted pseudo-classes  $\mathbf{S} \in \{1, 2, \dots, c_p\}^{T \times H \times W}$  and  $n_p$  binary video instance masks  $\mathbf{R} \in \{0, 1\}^{n_p \times T \times H \times W}$  for “thing” object instances. Since our pseudo-labels capture only moving “thing” instances (e.g., moving cars), we train the VPS model sparsely to generalize to static objects (e.g., parked cars). We introduce a Video DropLoss, extending the DropLoss [108] to video, and a self-enhanced video copy-paste augmentation to improve small-object detection.

**Video DropLoss.** Given two consecutive video frames of our pseudo-labeled clips, we infer “thing” video instance detections  $\mathbf{D}_j$  (masks & semantic class) with their tracking

latent representation  $\mathbf{E}_j$  from our model. Given a sparse set of pseudo “thing” video instance labels  $\hat{\mathbf{D}}_i$  (masks & pseudo-class, derived from  $\mathbf{M}$  &  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$ ) and their track  $\hat{\mathbf{d}}_i$ , we supervise “thing” detections with our Video DropLoss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{VDrop}} = \mathbb{1}(\text{IoU}_j^{\max} > \tau_{\text{IoU}}) \mathcal{L}_d(\mathbf{D}_j, \hat{\mathbf{D}}_i) \mathcal{L}_t(\mathbf{E}_j, \hat{\mathbf{d}}_i), \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathcal{L}_t$  denotes the tracking loss [120] and  $\mathcal{L}_d$  the “thing” detection loss [59]. This Video DropLoss pseudo-supervises only “thing” instance predictions  $\mathbf{D}_j$  and their tracking representation  $\mathbf{E}_j$  that sufficiently overlap with a pseudo-instance  $\hat{\mathbf{D}}_i$  (*i.e.*  $\text{IoU}_j^{\max} > \tau_{\text{IoU}}$ ). Our Video DropLoss enables learning from our sparse pseudo-labels while providing the freedom to predict objects and their tracks that are not covered by our pseudo-labels (*e.g.*, static objects). Semantics of “stuff” regions are supervised using a standard cross-entropy loss.

**Self-enhanced video copy-paste augmentation.** To improve the “thing” detection and tracking accuracy of the VPS model on small objects, we introduce a self-enhanced video copy-paste augmentation. Copy-pasting instance masks [27, 28, 33] has been shown to be particularly effective when training with sparse pseudo-labels [41, 92, 108]. Instead of copy-pasting instance masks derived from the pseudo-labels onto another image for augmentation, CUPS [41] has shown that it is beneficial to derive the instance mask from the model’s prediction itself. The intuition behind this is that the network gradually discovers more “thing” objects than captured by the pseudo-labels. We extend this idea to the video domain. In particular, given a training batch, we perform inference and extract confident “thing” video instances from the model’s VPS prediction. We apply random scaling and horizontal flipping to the video instance masks and paste the augmented masks into clips of the training batch. We paste masks using random trajectories, ensuring diverse motion patterns. Finally, we train our model on the batch of augmented clips.

### 3.3. Unsupervised VPS evaluation protocol

In the absence of supervision, our predicted semantic pseudo-classes do not align with the ground-truth semantic class IDs [20, 40–42, 52, 56, 88, 91]. Therefore, a mapping between pseudo and ground-truth categories is required before using standard evaluation metrics. We present a simple, hyperparameter-free matching strategy for aligning the pseudo-classes while strictly preserving the separation between “thing” and “stuff” categories.

Specifically, given a video of length  $T$ , we obtain an unsupervised VPS prediction  $\mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{S}, \mathbf{R})$ . Only for evaluation, we have given the ground-truth VPS label  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}} = (\tilde{\mathbf{S}}, \tilde{\mathbf{R}})$ , with the semantic ground truth  $\tilde{\mathbf{S}} \in \{1, 2, \dots, c_{\text{gt}}\}^{T \times H \times W}$  and the corresponding  $n_{\text{gt}}$  binary video instance masks  $\tilde{\mathbf{R}} \in \{0, 1\}^{n_{\text{gt}} \times T \times H \times W}$ .

Panoptic segmentation [57, 59, 113] distinguishes between “thing” categories for which instance masks are predicted and “stuff” categories for which only semantics are predicted. To adhere to this strict separation between both, we extract the set of semantic pseudo “thing” categories  $\mathbb{S}_p^{\text{Th}} \subset \{1, \dots, c_p\}$  (*i.e.*, categories with video instance predictions) and semantic pseudo “stuff” categories  $\mathbb{S}_p^{\text{St}} \subset \{1, \dots, c_p\}$ , with  $\mathbb{S}_p^{\text{Th}} \cap \mathbb{S}_p^{\text{St}} = \emptyset$  and  $\mathbb{S}_p^{\text{Th}} \cup \mathbb{S}_p^{\text{St}} = \{1, \dots, c_p\}$ . Similarly, we know the ground-truth semantic “thing” categories  $\mathbb{S}_{\text{gt}}^{\text{Th}} \subset \{1, \dots, c_{\text{gt}}\}$  and semantic “stuff” categories  $\mathbb{S}_{\text{gt}}^{\text{St}} \subset \{1, \dots, c_{\text{gt}}\}$ , with  $\mathbb{S}_{\text{gt}}^{\text{Th}} \cap \mathbb{S}_{\text{gt}}^{\text{St}} = \emptyset$  and  $\mathbb{S}_{\text{gt}}^{\text{Th}} \cup \mathbb{S}_{\text{gt}}^{\text{St}} = \{1, \dots, c_{\text{gt}}\}$ . For each category type, we construct a cost matrix  $\mathbf{A}^{\text{Th}} \in \mathbb{N}^{|\mathbb{S}_p^{\text{Th}}| \times |\mathbb{S}_{\text{gt}}^{\text{Th}}|}$  and  $\mathbf{A}^{\text{St}} \in \mathbb{N}^{|\mathbb{S}_p^{\text{St}}| \times |\mathbb{S}_{\text{gt}}^{\text{St}}|}$  that accumulates the number of overlapping pixels between every pseudo and ground-truth class across all videos in the validation set. We independently apply Hungarian matching [65] to both matrices, maximizing pixel overlap, and establish an initial correspondence by matching one ground-truth class with a pseudo-class. If there exist more pseudo than ground-truth classes, unmatched pseudo-classes are assigned to the ground-truth class with the highest overlap.

After alignment, we follow the established protocol by Weber *et al.* [113] from the supervised literature. In particular, we compute the Segmentation and Tracking Quality (STQ), composed of the Association Quality (AQ) and Segmentation Quality (SQ). STQ measures accuracy on full videos at the pixel level, requires no threshold-based matching for validating video instance detections, and considers both precision and recall, different from other VPS metrics [51, 57, 113]. More details and a discussion on other VPS metrics are provided in the supplement.

## 4. Experiments

We evaluate the unsupervised VPS accuracy of VideoCUPS within its training domain and its generalization (Sec. 4.1). To assess VideoCUPS’s accuracy, we also report four baselines. Next, we provide label-efficient learning results (Sec. 4.2). Finally, we analyze the impact of our core components (Sec. 4.3). Additional results are in the supplement.

**Datasets.** We train VideoCUPS on video pseudo-labels generated from the Cityscapes training sequences (2975 clips of 30 frames each) and evaluate it on the Cityscapes-VPS val set [57]. To assess generalization, we conduct cross-domain evaluations on KITTI-STEP [113] and Waymo [77, 98], and further test out-of-domain (OOD) generalization on MOTs [106]. While Cityscapes-VPS, KITTI-STEP, and Waymo focus on understanding driving scenes, MOTs addresses human-centric segmentation and tracking in indoor and outdoor settings. For all cross-domain datasets, we ensure compatibility of their label spaces with the Cityscapes category definitions through matching (*cf.* Sec. 3.3). Note, we ignore extremely small

Table 1. **Unsupervised VPS on Cityscapes-VPS val.** We compare VideoCUPS to our unsupervised VPS baselines, using STQ, AQ, and SQ (all in %, †). VideoCUPS achieves state-of-the-art accuracy on Cityscapes-VPS val. † denotes CUPS retrained using monocular videos.

Method	Training data	Pseudo-classes	STQ	AQ	SQ
Supervised [58, 120]	Cityscapes & Cityscapes-VPS	–	42.0	27.0	65.3
DepthG [91] + VideoCutLER [109]	Cityscapes & ImageNet	27	9.9	3.4	28.2
U2Seg [81] + SORT [9]	COCO & ImageNet	800 + 27	11.4	5.6	23.0
CUPS [41] + SORT [9]	Cityscapes (stereo videos)	27	20.6	13.3	31.8
CUPS <sup>†</sup> [41] + SORT [9]	Cityscapes (monocular videos)	27	17.8	10.6	29.9
VideoCUPS ( <i>Ours</i> )	Cityscapes (monocular videos)	27	<b>22.2</b>	<b>15.3</b>	<b>32.3</b>

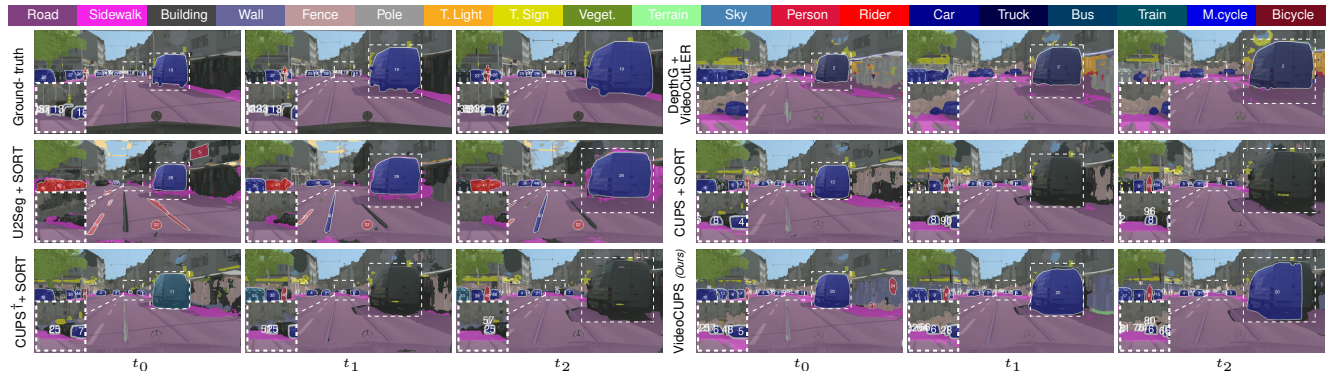


Figure 3. **Qualitative unsupervised VPS examples.** We compare VideoCUPS to our baselines DepthG [91] + VideoCutLER [109], U2Seg [81] + SORT, CUPS [41] + SORT [9], and CUPS<sup>†</sup> [41] + SORT [9] on Cityscapes-VPS val. We highlight regions of improvement.

instances in Waymo; more details are in the supplement.

**Evaluation details.** We follow the evaluation protocol outlined in Sec. 3.3 and report the Segmentation and Tracking Quality (STQ) [113] alongside the Association Quality (AQ) and Segmentation Quality (SQ), all in %.

**Implementation details.** We generate video pseudo-labels using  $c_p = 27$  pseudo-classes, following CUPS [41]. To adhere to our purely unsupervised and monocular setup, we retrain DynamoDepth [99] with a DINO ResNet-18 [13, 46], instead of an ImageNet-supervised ResNet-18, and also retrain DepthG with monocular depth from DynamoDepth. Our region growing uses  $\tau_d = 0.02$ ,  $\tau_f = 0.04$ , and  $r = 8$ . To ensure fairness to our baselines U2Seg [81] and CUPS [41], which employ a Panoptic Cascade Mask R-CNN [10, 58], we use the closest video extension Panoptic Cascade MaskTrack R-CNN [10, 58, 120] with a DINO ResNet-50 [13, 46, 108]. We train using AdamW [72], our self-enhanced video copy-paste augmentation, and Video DropLoss (with  $\tau_{IoU} = 0.5$ ) for eight epochs. We refer to the supplement for further details.

**Unsupervised VPS baselines.** As there are no existing unsupervised VPS approaches, we construct four competitive baselines. *DepthG + VideoCutLER* combines the unsupervised semantic segmentation approach DepthG [91] with the class-agnostic video instance segmentation method VideoCutLER [109]. We adopt the “thing”/“stuff” separation and the semantic-instance fusion scheme from our pseudo-labeling. Since running VideoCutLER on long

videos leads to memory exhaustion, we split them into clips of 30 frames with a 5-frame temporal overlap. Instance IDs are aligned across clips using IoU overlap. *U2Seg [81] + SORT* and *CUPS [41] + SORT* combine existing state-of-the-art approaches to unsupervised panoptic image segmentation with SORT [9], a well-established unsupervised multi-object tracker. SORT assigns temporally consistent IDs to the “thing” detections of the respective model. We use the proposed hyperparameters by Bewley *et al.* [9]. As CUPS utilizes stereo video for training, we also provide a monocular variant of CUPS using monocular depth from DynamoDepth to assess the impact of using stereo cues. This variant is denoted as *CUPS<sup>†</sup> + SORT*.

**Supervised upper bound.** To contextualize our unsupervised results, we train a supervised equivalent of VideoCUPS. Following the protocol in supervised VPS [57, 113], we initialize with a pre-trained backbone (DINO [13]) and pre-train on Cityscapes [23] panoptic image annotations. Next, we fine-tune for VPS on Cityscapes-VPS [57].

#### 4.1. Unsupervised VPS results

**In-domain results.** In Tab. 1, we compare VideoCUPS against our proposed baselines DepthG + VideoCutLER, U2Seg + SORT, and CUPS + SORT (w/ and w/o stereo) on the Cityscapes-VPS validation set. VideoCUPS significantly outperforms DepthG + VideoCutLER and U2Seg + SORT, increasing STQ by 12.3% and 10.8% points, respectively. We attribute the lower STQ of

Table 2. **Generalization results.** Video panoptic segmentation results, comparing VideoCUPS to our unsupervised VPS baselines, using STQ, AQ, and SQ (all in %,  $\uparrow$ ). We evaluate generalization to the Waymo and KITTI-STEP datasets as well as to the OOD dataset MOTs. VideoCUPS consistently outperforms all of the proposed baselines.  $\dagger$  denotes CUPS retrained using monocular videos.

Method	KITTI-STEP			Waymo			MOTS (OOD)		
	STQ	AQ	SQ	STQ	AQ	SQ	STQ	AQ	SQ
Supervised [58, 120]	53.9	59.9	48.4	22.3	12.6	39.4	20.5	12.7	33.1
DepthG [91] + VideoCutLER [109]	13.2	8.7	20.1	7.9	2.6	23.9	14.5	6.8	30.7
U2Seg [81] + SORT [9]	24.0	21.1	27.2	10.4	4.8	22.6	14.9	7.2	30.8
CUPS [41] + SORT [9]	34.2	37.7	31.1	17.5	9.9	30.8	16.7	10.4	27.0
CUPS $^\dagger$ [41] + SORT [9]	32.9	35.4	30.5	16.6	9.3	29.8	14.9	7.8	28.3
VideoCUPS (Ours)	<b>37.3</b>	<b>43.6</b>	<b>32.0</b>	<b>18.4</b>	<b>10.7</b>	<b>31.6</b>	<b>18.6</b>	<b>10.5</b>	<b>33.0</b>

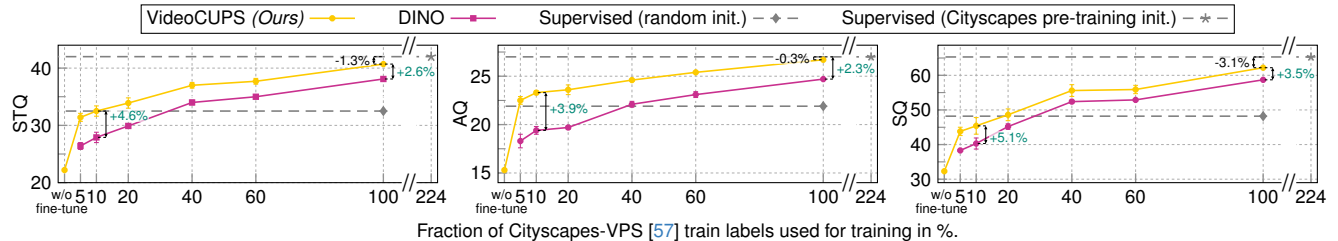


Figure 4. **Label-efficient learning.** We fine-tune VideoCUPS and a DINO-initialized model on varying fractions of labeled Cityscapes-VPS train clips and report STQ, AQ, & SQ (all in %,  $\uparrow$ ) on Cityscapes-VPS val. We also report models trained on the full Cityscapes-VPS train set, *without* any pre-training (rand. init.) and *with* supervised image pre-training on Cityscapes. 224 % denotes using both Cityscapes & Cityscapes-VPS. For training on Cityscapes-VPS subsets, we report the average and standard deviation over three different subsets.

both baselines to their training on object-centric data. Instead, VideoCUPS can train directly on scene-centric videos. CUPS + SORT requires *stereo* video for video training, limiting applicability. While being *monocular*, VideoCUPS reaches an STQ of 22.2 %, outperforming the stereo CUPS + SORT baselines (20.6 % STQ). In comparison to the monocular variant, CUPS $^\dagger$  + SORT, VideoCUPS leads to an improved STQ of 4.4 %. This demonstrates that our pseudo-labeling approach leverages monocular and scene-centric video more effectively, while CUPS requires stereo cues to achieve competitive results. These findings are also reflected in the qualitative comparison in Fig. 3.

**Domain generalization results.** In Tab. 2, we assess cross-domain generalization on KITTI-STEP, Waymo, and MOTs (OOD). VideoCUPS consistently outperforms all four baselines across datasets, achieving improvements of up to 3.3 % STQ on KITTI-STEP. We observe that STQ is higher for KITTI-STEP compared to Waymo and MOTs, as fewer instances need to be detected and tracked [77, 113]. These results showcase that unsupervised training generalizes effectively across domains. While the supervised model is still more accurate than unsupervised approaches, we observe that supervised learning is more susceptible to domain shifts, particularly on Waymo and MOTs.

## 4.2. Label-efficient learning

Achieving high-quality video panoptic segmentation ultimately depends on adapting to a predominantly human-defined semantic taxonomy, which remains beyond the

reach of fully unsupervised approaches (*cf.* Tab. 1 & 2). A promising direction is unsupervised pre-training to acquire robust spatio-temporal and segmentation priors, followed by fine-tuning on a small set of labelled examples. This approach enables efficient adaptation to human-defined tasks while minimizing the need for extensive annotations.

In Fig. 4, we explore this scenario by comparing the unsupervised VideoCUPS-initialized model to the same architecture initialized with DINO [13] and trained with varying fractions of Cityscapes-VPS labels. We also report our supervised upper bound, using supervised panoptic image pre-training on Cityscapes and full Cityscapes-VPS fine-tuning. To assess the impact of the supervised image pre-training, we also report a randomly initialized model (with He init. [45]) trained on the full Cityscapes-VPS training set. Note that the Cityscapes and Cityscapes-VPS training splits are disjoint, containing 2 975 images / 2 975 labels and 400 clips / 2 400 labels, respectively.

Fine-tuning VideoCUPS with different fractions of VPS labels consistently outperforms the DINO pre-trained model. In particular, when using 10 % of Cityscapes-VPS labels, VideoCUPS improves by 4.6 % STP over DINO. While the delta reduces for larger fractions of annotations, VideoCUPS still outperforms DINO by 3.5 % STQ when using 100 % of labels. In comparison to the randomly initialized supervised model trained on 100 % of the Cityscapes-VPS labels, VideoCUPS requires only 10 % of the labels to reach the same STQ. Training VideoCUPS on all Cityscapes-VPS labels, almost closes the gap to the su-

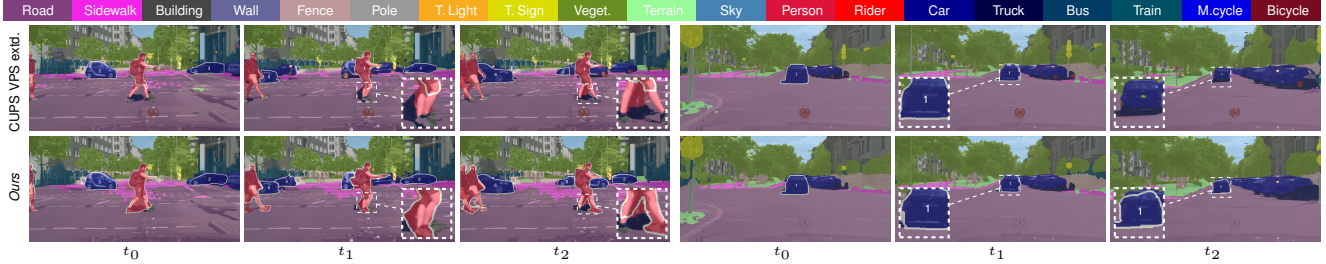


Figure 5. **Qualitative pseudo-label examples.** We compare VideoCUPS pseudo-labels to CUPS pseudo-labels extended to video with our approach. While CUPS benefits from stereo cues for improved depth, resulting in better semantics, our monocular pseudo-labels discover more instances, maintain longer tracks ( $t_1$  &  $t_2$ ; *right*), and capture more non-rigid motion ( $t_1$ ; *left*). We visualize matched pseudo-classes.

Table 3. **Video pseudo-label generation ablation**, analyzing the contribution of individual components, using STQ, AQ, and SQ (all in %,  $\uparrow$ ) for pseudo-labels generated on Cityscapes-VPS val.

Pseudo-label configuration	Mono.	STQ	AQ	SQ
Vanilla semantics + region growing instances	✓	9.3	2.6	32.5
+ Depth-guided semantic inference [41]	✓	9.4	2.7	32.6
+ Instance propagation & tracking	✓	12.0	4.4	32.4
+ Temporal semantic smoothing ( <i>full config.</i> )	✓	<b>12.1</b>	<b>4.5</b>	32.3
Video-extended CUPS pseudo labels [41]	✗	11.6	3.9	<b>35.0</b>

pervised model trained on *both* Cityscapes & Cityscapes-VPS (38.1 % vs. 40.4 % STQ), despite the latter using 124 % more labels. These results show that our unsupervised training is a strong initialization for learning with limited labels.

### 4.3. Analyzing VideoCUPS

**VideoCUPS pseudo-label analysis.** Table 3 presents an ablation of our pseudo-label generation, evaluating the contribution of each core component on Cityscapes-VPS val. Starting from combining the unsupervised semantic prediction of DepthG (vanilla semantics) with region-growing object proposals, we incrementally add depth-guided semantic inference [41], instance propagation, and temporal semantic smoothing. Each component contributes to improving the final STQ of our pseudo-labels, while our instance propagation aids the most. Temporal semantic smoothing results in only a minor increase in STQ. We attribute this partly to the limited temporal quality of the Cityscapes-VPS labels, as noted by Zhou *et al.* [123] and Woo *et al.* [116].

For reference, we also compare against CUPS pseudo-labels generated using stereo video. In particular, we use the CUPS panoptic image pseudo-labels and extend these by our tracking and temporal smoothing (*cf.* Sec. 3.1) to obtain temporally consistent video pseudo-labels. Despite the absence of strong stereo cues, our purely monocular pseudo-labels achieve a higher STQ (12.1 % vs. 11.6 %). Only in SQ, the stereo pseudo-labels from CUPS improve over our monocular pseudo-labels. We attribute this to the lower-quality depth cues of our monocular approach, resulting in weaker depth-guided semantic inference. As a qualitative reference, we provide examples of our VideoCUPS

Table 4. **VideoCUPS training ablation**, analyzing the contribution of our core training components, using STQ, AQ, and SQ (all in %,  $\uparrow$ ) on Cityscapes-VPS val.

Training configuration	STQ	AQ	SQ
Vanilla training	17.8	10.0	31.8
+ Video DropLoss ( $\mathcal{L}_{VDrop}$ )	21.5	14.4	32.1
+ Video copy-paste augmentation	21.7	14.8	31.8
+ Self-enhance copy-paste augmentation ( <i>full config.</i> )	<b>22.2</b>	<b>15.3</b>	<b>32.3</b>

pseudo-labels as well as our video extension of the CUPS pseudo-labels in Fig. 5.

**VideoCUPS training analysis.** In Tab. 4, we analyze the contribution of individual training components on Cityscapes-VPS. Starting from a vanilla training setup, adding our Video DropLoss improves STQ and AQ by mitigating instances missed by pseudo-labeling. Adding video copy-paste augmentation further improves STQ. Adding our self-enhanced copy-paste augmentation (*full config.*) achieves the highest STQ, aiding in the detection and tracking of small objects, as indicated by the improved AQ.

## 5. Conclusion

We introduced the task setting of *unsupervised video panoptic segmentation* and defined a comprehensive evaluation protocol across multiple scene-centric datasets. Our proposed method, VideoCUPS, is the first to approach this problem, showcasing that unsupervised panoptic video understanding can be achieved entirely *without* human supervision. VideoCUPS relies solely on monocular videos for VPS pseudo-labeling, removing the need for stereo. Compared with four proposed baselines built from state-of-the-art unsupervised panoptic image and video instance segmentation methods, VideoCUPS consistently outperforms these baselines across various scene-centric VPS datasets. We further demonstrate that VideoCUPS provides a strong initialization for learning from limited annotated VPS examples. Together, our task definition, evaluation protocol, baselines, and method establish a foundation for future research on unsupervised panoptic video understanding.

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