Refign: Align and Refine for Adaptation of Semantic Segmentation to Adverse Conditions

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Abstract

Due to the scarcity of dense pixel-level semantic annotations for images recorded in adverse visual conditions, there has been a keen interest in unsupervised domain adaptation (UDA) for the semantic segmentation of such images. UDA adapts models trained on normal conditions to the target adverse-condition domains. Meanwhile, multiple datasets with driving scenes provide corresponding images of the same scenes across multiple conditions, which can serve as a form of weak supervision for domain adaptation. We propose Refign, a generic extension to self-training-based UDA methods which leverages these cross-domain correspondences. Refign consists of two steps: (1) aligning the normal-condition image to the corresponding adverse-condition image using an uncertainty-aware dense matching network, and (2) refining the adverse prediction with the normal prediction using an adaptive label correction mechanism. We design custom modules to streamline both steps and set the new state of the art for domain-adaptive semantic segmentation on several adverse-condition benchmarks, including ACDC and Dark Zurich. The approach introduces no extra training parameters, minimal computational overhead—during training only—and can be used as a drop-in extension to improve any given self-training-based UDA method. Code is available at https://github.com/brdav/refign.

1. Introduction

Semantic segmentation is a central task for scene understanding, e.g., in fully autonomous vehicle systems. In such safety-critical applications, robustness of the segmentation model to adverse visual conditions is pivotal. Since state-of-the-art semantic segmentation models are typically trained on clear-weather domains [6], where detailed pixel-level annotations are available, they have proven to be frail [19,41] with respect to changes in image quality, illumination, or weather. Accordingly, a large body of research has focused on unsupervised domain adaptation (UDA) to adapt these models to different domains in which no labels are available [14,39,57,59,70].

In this paper, we propose an extension to UDA approaches, which leverages additional reference—or normal-condition—images to improve the predictions of the target-domain images (see Fig. 1). The reference image depicts the same scene as the target image, albeit from a different viewpoint and under favorable conditions (daytime and clear weather). For driving datasets, such image pairs can be collected with minimal extra effort by capturing the same route twice and matching frames via GPS. In recent years, a number of driving datasets have followed this procedure, e.g. RobotCar [31], Dark Zurich [42], ACDC [41], and Boreas [4]. When adapting a semantic segmentation model from a normal-condition dataset (e.g. Cityscapes [6]) to adverse conditions, the reference frames represent an intermediate domain. While they overlap with the target frames in terms of sensor and region characteristics, they share source domain weather and time of day. This can bolster the domain adaptation process by providing complementary, more easily learnable information, even if reference and target images might differ slightly in semantic content.

Current state-of-the-art UDA approaches [15,66,75] rely on self-training [71], where the network is trained with its own target domain predictions as self-supervision. The surprising effectiveness of self-training can be largely attributed to clever regularization strategies [62], in the ab-
sence of which it suffers from confirmation bias. These regularization strategies aim at correctly propagating available true labels to neighboring unlabeled samples in an iterative fashion. A critical issue in this procedure is the error propagation of noisy labels, leading to a drift in pseudo-labels if unmitigated. It has been shown that large neural networks easily overfit to label noise, which deteriorates their generalization performance [1, 74]. Our method ameliorates this error propagation issue by incorporating the predictions of two separate views to reason about the labels of a given scene. Broadly speaking, it could thus be considered an instance of Multi-View Learning [69]. More specifically, we consider the target prediction as a noisy label to be modiﬁed by the complementary reference class-wise probabilities, posing the fusion process as self-label correction [60].

Echoing recent advances in that ﬁeld, we design an adaptive label reﬁnement mechanism, which allows the learner to ignore or revise noisy labels.

Considering that semantic segmentation requires precise, pixel-level predictions, we hypothesize that the reference-target label fusion beneﬁts greatly from spatial alignment of the two frames. Thus, in a preliminary step to reﬁnement, we warp the reference prediction to align it with the target. In anticipation that such alignment is imperfect—due to dynamic objects, occlusions, and warp inaccuracies—we jointly estimate a conﬁdence for each warped pixel, which serves as guidance in the downstream reﬁnement. To streamline this process, we design a probabilistic extension to the geometric matching framework WarpC [55], and show its effectiveness in terms of accuracy and uncertainty awareness.

Altogether, Refign consists of the alignment module and the reﬁnement module. Both modules introduce limited computational overhead during training and are shown to boost the performance of baseline UDA methods signiﬁcantly. When added on top of DAFormer [15], Refign achieves 65.6% and 56.2% mIoU for semantic segmentation on ACDC and Dark Zurich respectively, setting the new state of the art on these adverse-condition benchmarks.

2. Related Work

Adaptation to Adverse Domains. Several works on domain adaptation for semantic segmentation have been developed with the synthetic-to-real adaptation setting in mind, focusing on adversarial alignment of the source and target domains [13, 14, 29, 43, 57–59, 61, 76], self-training with pseudo-labels in the target domain [80, 81], and combining self-training with adversarial adaptation [25] or with pixel-level adaptation via explicit transforms from source to target [20, 70]. Signiﬁcantly fewer methods have been presented for adaptation from normal to adverse domains, which is highly relevant for practical scenarios such as automated driving, in which the perception system needs to be robust to unfavorable conditions such as fog, night, rain, and snow. Generating partially synthetic data with simulated adverse weather from clear-weather counterparts has proven to improve performance on real adverse-condition sets featuring fog [40] and rain [52].

Sequences of domains of progressively increasing adversity have been leveraged in [7, 39, 65] via curriculum-based schemes. Light-weight input adapters [34] and adversarial style transfer [37, 48] are proposed as a generic pre-processing step at test time before predicting with source-domain models. Shared characteristics between different domains, such as sensor and time of day [9] or visibility [23], are leveraged to learn consistent representations across different datasets. The recent introduction of adverse-condition semantic segmentation datasets with image-level cross-condition correspondences, such as Dark Zurich [38] and ACDC [41], has enabled the development of approaches which leverage these correspondences as weak supervision for adapting to adverse conditions. Sparse, pixel-level correspondences are used in [22] to enforce consistency of the predictions across different conditions. DANIA [64] warps daytime predictions into the nighttime image viewpoint and applies a consistency loss for static classes only. Closely related to our work, MGCDA [42] fuses cross-time-of-day predictions after two-view-geometry-based alignment. Differently from their work, we directly warp the two corresponding images with an uncertainty-aware dense matching network. The warp uncertainty provides guidance for the downstream fusion, which enables more nuanced reﬁnement, even incorporating dynamic objects. Finally, while most of the aforementioned approaches are tailored to specific conditions, our method can address arbitrary adverse conditions.

Dense Geometric Matching. Dense correspondence estimation aims at ﬁnding pixel-wise matches relating a pair of images. Approaches such as [24, 32, 36, 56] predict a 4D correlation volume, from which the dense correspondences are extracted as the argmax of the matching scores. Our matching network instead follows a recent line of works [18, 32, 45, 53–55] which directly regress the dense ﬂow ﬁeld or correspondence map. DGC-Net [32] employs a coarse-to-ﬁne approach where a global cost volume is constructed at the coarsest scale to handle large motions. However, it can only handle input images of a ﬁxed, low resolution, which signiﬁcantly impacts the accuracy of the predicted ﬂow. To circumvent this issue, GLU-Net [53] integrates both local and global correlation layers. RANSAC-Flow [45] is based on a two-stage reﬁnement strategy, ﬁrst estimating homographies relating the pair and then reﬁning them by a predicted residual ﬂow. COTR [18] relies on a transformer-based architecture to perform matching. Similarly to us, PDC-Net [54] adopts a probabilistic framework to regress both the ﬂow and its uncertainty. Differently from our work, it requires sparse ground-truth matches obtained
through structure from motion (SfM) for training. Instead, we present a probabilistic extension of the warp consistency framework [55], which leverages both synthetic flow and real image pairs and requires no training annotations.

**Label Correction.** Label correction (LC) approaches aim to improve learning from noisy labels by modifying the one-hot labels, e.g. through convex combinations with predicted distributions. Response-based knowledge distillation (KD) [12] methods are a prominent example for LC. While the correction is initiated by a separate teacher model in KD, Self-LC methods [35, 47, 49, 60, 73] rely on the learner itself to correct erroneous labels. Similarly to our method, multiple works have used Self-LC to improve self-training for domain-adaptive semantic segmentation [75, 78, 79]. In contrast to these works, our method uses complementary information gained from two different views of the same scene to correct the labels.

### 3. Refign

Given labeled images from a source domain \( \mathcal{S} \) (e.g. Cityscapes [6]), and unlabeled, corresponding pairs of images from a target domain \( \mathcal{T} \) (e.g. adverse-condition images of ACDC [41]) and a reference domain \( \mathcal{R} \) (e.g. normal-condition images of ACDC), we aim to learn a model which predicts semantic segmentation maps for target-domain images. Ground-truth semantic segmentation labels are only available for the source-domain images during training. The reference image is assumed to depict the same scene as the target image, but from a different viewpoint and under better visual conditions.

Our method—Refign—is a framework-agnostic extension to self-training-based UDA methods, leveraging the additional reference image. Underpinning Refign is the hypothesis that \( \mathcal{R} \) can serve as an intermediate domain between \( \mathcal{S} \) and \( \mathcal{T} \). It is a well-established fact that intermediate domains can bolster UDA [10, 11, 39]. In our case, we hypothesize that the higher-quality predictions for \( \mathcal{R} \) can be used to guide self-training in \( \mathcal{T} \).

Fig. 2 shows a generic self-training UDA setup, with our Refign module shaded in gray. In each training iteration, the model \( f_\theta \) is trained both with the source ground-truth labels \( Y_S \) and the target pseudo-labels \( Y_T \). Most state-of-the-art UDA approaches [15, 16, 66] generate the pseudo-labels with a Mean Teacher [50] (\( f_{EMA} \)), using the exponential moving average (EMA) weights of \( f_\theta \). This increases pseudo-label accuracy and mitigates confirmation bias [50]. As depicted in Fig. 2 and summarized in Alg. 1, Refign introduces two additional steps at training time to improve the pseudo-labels: (1) A pre-trained alignment module (Line 7) computes the flow from target to reference image and warps the reference prediction accordingly. The alignment module also estimates a pixel-wise warp confidence map \( P_R \). (2) A non-parametric refinement module (Line 8) fuses the target and warped reference predictions—using \( P_R \) for the fusion weights—to produce refined target predictions. The target predictions are subsequently converted to pseudo-labels according to the base UDA method (Line 9, e.g. through argmax and confidence weighting if Refign is built on DACS [51]). Since Refign hinges on high-quality reference predictions, we adapt \( f_\theta \) to \( \mathcal{R} \) in every second training iteration via the employed UDA base method (Lines 12-15, omitted in Fig. 2).

Refign does not introduce any additional training parameters, since the alignment module is pre-trained and frozen, and the refinement module is non-parametric. Con-
sequently, the memory and computation overhead during training is minor since no additional backpropagation is required. During inference, Refign is removed altogether. We describe the main two components of Refign—the alignment and refinement modules—in more detail in Sec. 3.1 and Sec. 3.2 respectively.

3.1. Alignment

Exact spatial alignment of the target and reference images is a crucial preliminary step for precise, pixel-wise semantic label refinement. Our alignment module warps the reference image to align it with the target and estimates a confidence map of the warp, which is an important asset to guide the downstream label refinement. To fulfill these requirements, we extend the warp consistency (WarpC) framework of [55] with uncertainty prediction.

WarpC. We first recap WarpC, referring to the original work [55] for a more in-depth discussion. Given two images $I, J \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times 3}$ depicting a similar scene, the goal is to find a dense displacement field $F_{j\rightarrow i} \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times 2}$ relating pixels in $J$ to $I$. WarpC exploits the consistency graph shown in Fig. 3 to train the flow estimator. $I$ is augmented heavily—e.g. through a randomly sampled homography—to yield $I’$. The synthetic augmentation warp $W$ subsequently supervises two objectives: (1) the direct estimate $F_{i\rightarrow j}$ of the flow $F_{i\rightarrow j}$,

$$L_{i\rightarrow j} = \|F_{i\rightarrow j} - W\|^2,$$  
(1)

and (2) estimation of the composite flow $F_{i\rightarrow j\rightarrow i}$ formed by chaining $F_{i\rightarrow j}$ and $F_{j\rightarrow i}$:

$$L_{i\rightarrow j\rightarrow i} = \|V \cdot (F_{i\rightarrow j} + \Phi_{F_{i\rightarrow j}}(F_{j\rightarrow i}) - W)\|^2$$
$$= \|V \cdot (F_{i\rightarrow j\rightarrow i} - W)\|^2.$$  
(2)

$\Phi_F(T)$ defines the warp of $T$ by the flow $F$ and $V \in \{0,1\}^{h \times w}$ is the estimated visibility mask. $V$ aims to mask out all pixels in $I’$ which have no correspondence in $J$ due to occlusion, image boundary, etc. We estimate $V$ analogously to [55] based on the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality (see appendix, Sec. B.1). The two loss terms in (1) and (2) complement each other: $L_{i\rightarrow j}$ promotes convergence and favors smooth solutions, while $L_{i\rightarrow j\rightarrow i}$ learns realistic motion patterns and appearance changes. The overall network is trained via $L_{\text{align}} = L_{i\rightarrow j} + \lambda L_{i\rightarrow j\rightarrow i}$, where $\lambda$ is a weighting term balancing the individual losses.

UAWarP. Our extension, Uncertainty-Aware WarpC (UAWarP) adds predictive uncertainty estimation [33] to WarpC. We model the flow conditioned on the image inputs $I, J$ via a Gaussian $p(F_{j\rightarrow i}|I, J) = \mathcal{N}(F_{j\rightarrow i}; \hat{F}_{j\rightarrow i}, \hat{\Sigma}_{j\rightarrow i})$, implying that the predicted flow is corrupted with additive Gaussian noise. Note that a different Gaussian is predicted for each pixel. To accommodate $x$ and $y$ flow directions, the distributions are bivariate. We assume for simplicity that the variance is equal in both directions. Thus, the network is trained to output mean $\hat{F}_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and log-variance $\log \hat{\Sigma}_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$ at each spatial location $(i, j)$.

Estimating the distribution of the composite flow $F_{i\rightarrow j\rightarrow i}$ precisely would be computationally infeasible in our case. Instead, we take the simplifying assumption that the flow predictions $F_{i\rightarrow j}$ and $F_{j\rightarrow i}$ are conditionally independent random variables given the images. Their sum is normally distributed with a mean and variance equal to the sum of the two means and variances. We thus model $p(F_{i\rightarrow j\rightarrow i}|I, J, I’) = \mathcal{N}(F_{i\rightarrow j\rightarrow i}; \hat{F}_{i\rightarrow j\rightarrow i}, \hat{\Sigma}_{i\rightarrow j\rightarrow i})$ as another Gaussian. Analogously to the composite flow mean in (2), the composite flow variance is calculated through warping.

$$\hat{\Sigma}_{i\rightarrow j\rightarrow i} = \hat{\Sigma}_{i\rightarrow j} + \Phi_{F_{i\rightarrow j}}(\hat{\Sigma}_{j\rightarrow i})$$  
(3)

We follow the principle of maximum log-likelihood estimation to train our model (derivation in appendix, Sec. A).

$$L_{i\rightarrow j}^{\text{prob}} = -\log p(W|I, I’)$$
$$\propto \frac{1}{2\hat{\Sigma}_{i\rightarrow j}} L_{i\rightarrow j} + \log \hat{\Sigma}_{i\rightarrow j}$$  
(4)

The formulation for $L_{i\rightarrow j}^{\text{prob}}$ is obtained simply by replacing the subscripts. Although the negative log-likelihood of a Gaussian corresponds to the squared error loss, in practice we use a Huber loss [17] in (1) and (2) to increase robustness to outliers.

Alignment for Label Refinement. The alignment module is trained separately on the large-scale MegaDepth [26] dataset and is subsequently frozen during self-training of the segmentation network. During self-training, it estimates the flow $F_{i\rightarrow i\rightarrow j}$ and accordingly warps the reference class-wise probability map $Q_R \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times c}$, yielding $Q_R^a$ (see Fig. 2). In addition, it estimates a warp confidence map $P_R \in \{0, 1\}^{h \times w}$. To obtain $P_R$ from our probabilistic model, we compute the probability of the true flow $F_{i\rightarrow i\rightarrow j}$ being within a radius $r$ of the estimated flow $F_{i\rightarrow i\rightarrow j}$, as
in [54] (derivation in appendix, Sec. A).

\[
P_R = p(\|F_{1R} \rightarrow I_R - \hat{F}_{1R} \rightarrow I_R\| \leq r) = 1 - \exp \left( -\frac{-r^2}{2\Sigma_{1R} \rightarrow I_R} \right)
\]

We set \(r = 1\). The elements of \(P_R\) corresponding to invalid warp regions are set to zero.

### 3.2. Refinement

The refinement module aims to improve target class-wise probabilities \(Q_T\) using the aligned reference class probabilities \(Q^a_R\) and the matching confidence map \(P_R\). The refined target class weights \(Q^r_T\) are then converted to pseudo-labels for self-training. The refinement is a convex combination with element-wise weights \(\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times c}\):

\[
Q^r_T = (1 - \alpha) \odot Q_T + \alpha \odot Q^a_R, \tag{6}
\]

where \(\odot\) denotes element-wise multiplication. Our construction of \(\alpha\) builds on principles of self-label correction [60], as we describe in the following.

**Confidence.** During early training stages, the network’s predictions are unreliable, especially in the more challenging adverse domain. In line with the principle of curriculum learning [3], the model should thus rely more heavily on the “easier” reference images first. Even if the reference prediction guidance is inaccurate—e.g. due to erroneous warping—degradation during early training is limited, as deep networks tend to learn simple patterns first before memorizing noise [1]. Later in training, on the other hand, the model should be allowed to ignore or revise faulty reference predictions. This progression can be captured via the model confidence, which increases steadily during training. More formally, we gauge the model confidence with the normalized entropy of the target probability map \(\hat{H}(Q_T) = \frac{H(Q_T)}{H_{\text{max}}(Q_T)} \in [0, 1]^{h \times w}\). We take the mean over all pixels to obtain a global image-level estimate, and introduce a hyperparameter \(\gamma\) as an exponent to allow for tuning. This yields a trust score \(s\):

\[
\alpha \propto s(Q_T) = \left( \text{mean} \left\{ \hat{H}(Q_T) \right\} \right)^\gamma. \tag{7}
\]

**Large Static Classes.** Based on the average size of connected class segments, we here refer to the three classes pole, traffic light, and traffic sign as small static classes (avg. size of 8k pixels on Cityscapes [6]), while the other eight static classes are named large static classes (avg. size of 234k pixels). We experimentally observe that large static classes are more accurately matched by the alignment module compared to small static classes (see appendix, Sec. C). In fact, guiding the refinement through \(P_R\) for large static classes might be overly pessimistic. The matching network learns to be uncertain in non-textured regions (e.g. road, sky), where it is unable to identify distinct matches [54]. However, even though \(P_R\) is low for these regions, the broader semantic class is still matched correctly, due to smooth interpolation learned by the alignment network.

We propose more aggressive refinement for large static classes to compensate for this effect. To rule out unwanted drift towards large classes, we restrict the aggressive mixing both spatially and across channels via a binary mask \(M \in \{0, 1\}^{h \times w \times c}\) with elements \(m_{ijk}\). We define \(A\) as the set of large static classes, \(Z_T = \arg \max Q_T\) as the target predictions, and \(Z_R\) as the reference predictions.

\[
m_{ijk} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k \in A \text{ and } Z^{ij}_{T} \in A \text{ and } Z^{ij}_{R} \in A, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases} \tag{8}
\]

\(M\) restricts aggressive mixing only to tensor elements fulfilling two criteria: (1) The element belongs to the channel of a large static class. (2) The corresponding pixel is labeled with a large static class in both domains. Aggressive mixing is incorporated as follows:

\[
\alpha \propto \max(P_R, M). \tag{9}
\]

As slight abuse of notation, we use \(\max(\cdot, \cdot)\) to denote the element-wise maximum of two tensors, which are broadcast to the same shape. Here, \(P_R\) is stacked \(c\) times along the third dimension to match the shape of \(M\).

**Refinement Equation.** Combining the two propositions, we obtain adaptive pseudo-label refinement:

\[
\alpha = s(Q_T) \max(P_R, M). \tag{10}
\]

Owing to pixel-wise modulation by \(P_R\), this refinement scheme can ignore dynamic objects and small static objects, which are difficult to align. On the other hand, if e.g. two cars are coincidentally present at the same location, information transfer is still possible. Furthermore, the scheme allows for easy tuning of the degree of mixing with a single hyperparameter—the exponent \(\gamma\) of trust score \(s\). Finally, since entries of \(P_R\) corresponding to invalid warp regions are zero, no mixing happens if no match can be found.

### 4. Experiments

We present extensive experiments for both UDA and geometric matching. Sec. 4.1 provides an overview of the experimental setup. Sec. 4.2 and Sec. 4.3 present comparisons with state-of-the-art methods in UDA and semi-supervised domain adaptation, respectively. Sec. 4.4 discusses ablations and Sec. 4.5 shows geometric matching comparisons. Training settings and implementation details are discussed in Sec. B of the appendix.

#### 4.1. Setup

**Datasets.** For the source domain we use Cityscapes [6]. For the target and reference domains, we use ACDC [41], [41].
Table 1. Comparison to the state of the art in Cityscapes→ACDC domain adaptation on the ACDC test set. Methods above the double line use a DeepLabv2 model. "Ref." for each adverse input image a reference frame from the same geo-location is used.

| Method                  | Ref. | Dark Zurich-test [42] | ND [8] | BN [42, 72] | mIoU ↑ |
|-------------------------|------|------------------------|--------|-------------|--------|
| AdaptSegNet [57]        |      | 69.4                    | 34.0   | 52.8        | 89.5   |
| BDL [25]                |      | 56.0                    | 32.5   | 68.1        | 73.4   |
| FDA [70]                |      | 73.2                    | 34.7   | 59.0        | 50.6   |
| DANNet (DeepLabv2) [63] | ✓    | 82.9                    | 53.1   | 75.3        | 84.3   |
| DANIA (DeepLabv2) [64]  | ✓    | 87.8                    | 57.1   | 80.3        | 58.4   |
| DACT [51]               |      | 58.5                    | 34.3   | 76.4        | 55.4   |
| Refign-DACS (ours)      | ✓    | 49.5                    | 56.7   | 79.8        | 60.5   |
| DACS [51]               |      | 88.4                    | 60.6   | 81.1        | 82.9   |
| DAFormer [15]           |      | 58.4                    | 51.3   | 84.0        | 60.5   |
| Refign-DAFormer (ours)  | ✓    | 89.5                    | 63.4   | 87.3        | 83.6   |

Table 2. Comparison of Cityscapes→Dark Zurich methods on Dark Zurich-test. Trained models are tested for generalization on the Nighttime Driving (ND) and BDD100k-night (Bn) test sets.

| Method                      | Ref.       | Dark Zurich-test [42] | ND [8] | BN [42, 72] | mIoU ↑ |
|-----------------------------|------------|------------------------|--------|-------------|--------|
| DMAda (RefineNet) [8]       |            | 32.1                    | 36.1   | 29.3        | 55.4   |
| GCMA (RefineNet) [38]       |            | 42.0                    | 45.6   | 33.2        | 55.4   |
| MGCDA (RefineNet) [42]      |            | 42.5                    | 49.4   | 34.9        | 55.4   |
| CDAda (RefineNet) [66]      |            | 45.0                    | 50.9   | 33.8        | 55.4   |
| DANNet (PSPNet) [63]        | ✓          | 45.2                    | 47.7   | 28.0        | 55.4   |
| DANIA (PSPNet) [64]         | ✓          | 47.0                    | 48.4   | 27.0        | 55.4   |
| CDDistil (RefineNet) [9]    |            | 47.5                    | 46.2   | 33.0        | 55.4   |
| DACT (DeepLabv2) [51]       |            | 36.7                    | 39.5   | 25.3        | 55.4   |
| Refign-DACS (DeepLabv2, ours) |            | 41.2                    | 41.5   | 26.2        | 55.4   |
| DAFormer [15]               |            | 53.6                    | 51.2   | 33.3        | 55.4   |
| Refign-DAFormer (ours)      | ✓          | 56.2                    | 56.8   | 35.2        | 55.4   |

Table 3. Semi-supervised domain adaptation on Cityscapes→RobotCar and Cityscapes→CMU. "Ref.: for each adverse input image a reference frame is used for each adverse input image.

| Method                  | Ref. | RobotCar [22, 31] | CMU [2, 22] | mIoU ↑ |
|-------------------------|------|------------------|-------------|--------|
| PSPNet [77]             |      | 45.8             | 73.6        |        |
| Cross-Season, CE [22]   | ✓    | 53.8             | 79.3        |        |
| Cross-Season, HingeGn [22] | ✓  | 50.6             | 72.4        |        |
| Cross-Season, HingeSp [22] | ✓  | 55.4             | 75.3        |        |
| DAFormer [15]           |      | 51.7             | 75.6        |        |
| Refign-DAFormer (ours)  | ✓    | 60.5             | 83.6        |        |

Dark Zurich [42], RobotCar Correspondence [22, 31], or CMU Correspondence [2, 22]. Each of these four target-domain datasets contains adverse-normal condition street scene image pairs in the training set. ACDC contains 1600 training, 406 validation, and 2000 test images distributed equally among fog, night, rain, and snow. Dark Zurich contains 2416 training, 50 validation, and 151 test images for nighttime. RobotCar (resp. CMU) Correspondence contains 6511 (28766) training, 27 (25) validation, and 27 (33) test images, captured at various conditions. The RobotCar and CMU Correspondence datasets additionally have 40 and 66 coarsely annotated images, enabling semi-supervised domain adaptation. For training the alignment network, we use MegaDepth [26] and evaluate using the test split of [45]. To test the ability of the alignment module to generalize to road scenes, we additionally evaluate it on the sparse ground-truth matches provided by [22] for the RobotCar and CMU Correspondence datasets.

Architectures. To showcase the flexibility of Refign, we combine it with state-of-the-art UDA methods. We choose DACT [51] (using DeepLabv2 [5]) and DAFormer [15] (based on SegFormer [67]) as base methods. Our alignment network follows almost exactly the same architecture as WarpC [55] (VGG-16 [46] encoder and GLU-Net [53] decoder), complemented with the uncertainty decoder of [54].

Metrics. For evaluating segmentation results, we use mean intersection over union (mIoU). Geometric matching accuracy is evaluated using the percentage of correct keypoints at a given pixel threshold T (PKC-T). The quality of matching uncertainty estimates is evaluated using sparsification error, specifically the area under the sparsification error curve (AUSE) [54] for average end-point error (AEPE).

4.2. Comparison to the State of the Art in UDA

ACDC. We present comparisons to several state-of-the-art methods on the ACDC test set in Table 1. Applying Refign on top of DAFormer [15] results in a mIoU of 65.5%, setting the new state of the art in domain adaptation from Cityscapes to ACDC. Refign boosts the performance of DAFormer by a substantial 10.1%. Besides static classes, we observe substantial improvement for dynamic classes as well, owing to our adaptive refinement method. Among DeepLabv2-based methods, our method Refign-DACS is the second best after DANIA [64]. Note that Refign boosts...
Table 5. Hyperparameter study of the mean-entropy exponent \( \gamma \) on the ACDC validation set.

| \( s \) | \( P_\gamma \) | \( M \) | mIoU | 11% | 15% | 24% | 33% | 50% | 67% | 75% | 87% |
|--------|----------|--------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1      | ✓        | ✓      | 64.3  | 25.4 | 63.3 | 26.5 | 18.0 | 5.5  | 6.4  | 9.3  | 63.7 | 12.3 | 13.3 | 79.1 | 6.9  | 0.8  | 23.8 | 24.8 | 30.5 | 8.3  | 6.7  | 23.7 | 26.8 |
| 2      | ✓        | ✓      | 86.9  | 60.0 | 82.7 | 49.0 | 32.3 | 43.9 | 58.1 | 40.7 | 83.3 | 38.3 | 94.4 | 12.8 | 7.2  | 52.7 | 43.4 | 50.4 | 15.1 | 30.0 | 43.6 | 48.7 |
| 3      | ✓        | ✓      | 67.6  | 52.0 | 83.8 | 47.8 | 36.7 | 56.0 | 63.7 | 51.7 | 73.6 | 37.0 | 63.7 | 46.0 | 27.2 | 78.9 | 76.7 | 75.1 | 53.2 | 42.6 | 48.7 | 58.3 |
| 4      | ✓        | ✓      | 87.8  | 77.3 | 84.1 | 47.7 | 31.1 | 55.3 | 69.8 | 51.9 | 84.5 | 37.8 | 94.0 | 45.4 | 28.5 | 79.3 | 68.7 | 78.7 | 60.2 | 43.6 | 49.2 | 62.2 |
| 5      | ✓        | ✓      | 88.5  | 84.9 | 85.0 | 48.4 | 34.2 | 57.2 | 71.0 | 54.1 | 85.2 | 40.1 | 95.1 | 55.1 | 36.5 | 82.9 | 76.9 | 79.1 | 53.4 | 45.5 | 47.9 | 64.0 |
| 6      | ✓        | ✓      | 88.4  | 82.4 | 85.5 | 48.6 | 36.6 | 77.7 | 74.0 | 55.0 | 85.3 | 41.0 | 90.1 | 57.3 | 30.1 | 82.8 | 73.0 | 82.7 | 56.0 | 43.9 | 48.1 | 63.0 |

Table 4. Ablation study on the ACDC validation set (metric: IoU) for different components of Refign, as detailed in (10). Default values in case of component omission are: \( P_\gamma = \frac{1}{s}, M = 0, s = 1 \). “R-ad”: concurrent adaptation to \( R \), i.e., Lines 12-15 of Alg. 1.

Table 5. Hyperparameter study of the mean-entropy exponent \( \gamma \) on the ACDC validation set.

| \( \gamma \) | mIoU | 11% | 15% | 24% | 33% | 50% | 67% | 75% | 87% |
|------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1          | 59.2 | 61.8 | 65.0 | 64.3 | 63.5 |

Figure 5. Trust score \( s(Q_T) \) during training for images of the different conditions in ACDC. On average, difficult conditions (night, snow—lower mIoU) exhibit a higher \( s \), meaning their target predictions undergo more intensive correction by reference predictions. Shown are mIoU validation scores of the DAFormer [15] baseline.

Figure 6. Prediction diversity on the ACDC validation set during training. We use normalized entropy as a diversity index. Refign preserves higher prediction diversity compared to a naive refinement scheme, which consists of simple averaging (\( \alpha = 0.5 \) in (6)).

the mIoU of DACS [51] by 6.8%.

We present qualitative comparisons with FDA, DANIA, and DAFormer in Fig. 4. Our Refign-DAFormer consistently produces more accurate segmentation maps than the other methods. For instance, Refign corrects typical mis-classifications of DAFormer, e.g., sky as road.

Dark Zurich. In Table 2, we benchmark our method on Dark Zurich-test. Following previous works, the trained Dark Zurich models are also tested for generalization on Nighttime Driving [8] and BDD100k-night [42,72]. Refign markedly improves over the DACS and DAFormer baselines, both on Dark Zurich-test and the two unseen domains. Notably, Refign-DAFormer achieves a mIoU of 56.2% on Dark Zurich, setting the new state of the art.

4.3. Semi-Supervised Domain Adaptation Results

Table 3 lists semi-supervised domain adaptation results on the RobotCar and CMU Correspondence datasets. We compare to DAFormer [15] and the three PSPNet-based [77] models proposed in [22]. The models in [22] rely on sparse 2D matches obtained via a multi-stage pipeline involving camera pose estimation, 3D point cloud generation and matching, match pruning, and 2D reprojection. In contrast, our alignment module directly establishes correspondences through a dense matching network. Our models achieve the best score on both datasets, demonstrating the generality of our approach.

4.4. Ablation Study and Further Analysis

We perform an extensive analysis of our method on the ACDC validation set. To obtain more reliable performance estimates, all experiments in this section are repeated three times and we report the average performance.

Table 4 shows the ablation study of different components of our refinement scheme (10). The first row lists a naive refinement scheme, where \( \alpha = 0.5 \) and no alignment is
Table 6. Comparison to the state of the art in geometric matching. All methods are trained on MegaDepth and evaluated on MegaDepth, RobotCar, and CMU. “w/o SIM”: trained without sparse structure from motion matches, “UA”: uncertainty-aware matching network.

| Method w/o SIM | UA | MegaDepth [26] | RobotCar [22, 31] | CMU [2, 22] |
|----------------|----|----------------|-----------------|-------------|
|                |    | PCK-1 ↑ | PCK-5 ↑ | PCK-10 ↑ | AUSE ↓ | PCK-1 ↑ | PCK-5 ↑ | PCK-10 ↑ | AUSE ↓ | PCK-1 ↑ | PCK-5 ↑ | PCK-10 ↑ | AUSE ↓ |
| DGC+M-Net [32] | ✓  | ✓ | 4.10  | 33.60  | 49.39  | 0.320 | 1.11  | 19.12  | 38.92  | 0.241 | 1.99  | 27.15  | 51.99  | 0.320 |
| GLU-Net [53]   | ✓  | ✓ | 29.46 | 55.96  | 62.39  | -    | 2.21  | 33.72  | 55.28  | -    | 21.18 | 80.95  | 91.44  | -    |
| WarpC [55]     | ✓  | ✓ | 50.86 | 78.76  | 83.00  | -    | 2.51  | 35.93  | 57.45  | -    | 24.74 | 86.10  | 95.65  | -    |
| PDC-Net+ [54]  | ✓  | ✓ | 72.42 | 88.10  | 89.31  | 0.293| 2.57  | 36.71  | 58.44  | 0.186| 27.84 | 85.21  | 92.57  | 0.268|
| UAWarpC (ours) | ✓  | ✓ | 53.04 | 78.52  | 81.92  | 0.217| 2.59  | 36.79  | 56.10  | 0.155| 27.44 | 88.17  | 95.94  | 0.270|

4.5. Geometric Matching Results

In Table 6 we compare our alignment strategy UAWarpC to state-of-the-art geometric matching methods. All reported methods are trained on MegaDepth. To estimate their suitability for deployment as an alignment module in Refign, we report generalization performance on two road datasets, RobotCar and CMU. UAWarpC improves the generalization accuracy compared to the WarpC [55] baseline, demonstrating that our uncertainty modeling increases the robustness of the flow estimator. In terms of uncertainty estimation, our method matches or even outperforms the recent probabilistic PDC-Net+ [54] in AUSE.

Finally, we show qualitative warp results in Fig. 7. Notably, the alignment module successfully manages to identify dynamic objects and assigns them a low confidence.

5. Conclusion

We present Refign, a generic add-on to self-training-based UDA methods that leverages an additional reference image for each target-domain image. Refign consists of two steps: (1) uncertainty-aware alignment of the reference prediction with the target prediction, and (2) adaptive refinement of the target predictions with the aligned reference predictions. To enable step (1), we propose UAWarpC, a probabilistic extension to the matching method WarpC [55]. UAWarpC reaches state-of-the-art performance in both flow accuracy and uncertainty estimation. Step (2) consists of a non-parametric label correction scheme. We apply Refign to two existing UDA methods—DACS [51]
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Appendix

A. Mathematical Derivations

Derivation of Log-Likelihood Loss We model the likelihood with an uncorrelated, bivariate Gaussian with mean $\hat{F} = [\hat{F}_u, \hat{F}_v]_I^T$ and variance $\hat{\Sigma} = \hat{\Sigma}_u = \hat{\Sigma}_v$ for flow directions $u$ and $v$.

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{I}}^{prob} = -\log p(W | I, I') = -\log \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \hat{\Sigma}_u}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\hat{\Sigma}_u} (\hat{F}_{I'} - I - W u)^2} \right) \\
= -\log \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \hat{\Sigma}_v}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\hat{\Sigma}_v} (\hat{F}_{I'} - I - W v)^2} \right)
$$

$$
\propto \frac{1}{2\hat{\Sigma}_I -1} \| \hat{F}_{I'} - I - W \|_2^2 + \log \hat{\Sigma}_{I'} - I
\\
= \frac{1}{2\hat{\Sigma}_I -1} \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{I}} + \log \hat{\Sigma}_{I'} - I
$$

Derivation of Confidence Map We integrate the bivariate Gaussian density function over a circle with radius $r$ (subscripts are omitted).

$$
P_R(p(\|\mathbf{F} - \hat{\mathbf{F}}\|_2 \leq r) = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^r \frac{1}{2\pi \hat{\Sigma}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\hat{\Sigma}} \rho^2} \rho d\rho d\phi
\\
= 1 - \exp\left(\frac{-\rho^2}{2\hat{\Sigma}}\right)
$$

B. Training Details

In this section, we describe training settings and implementation details. Both alignment and segmentation network were trained using Automatic Mixed Precision on a single consumer RTX 2080 Ti GPU.

B.1. Alignment Network

UAWarpC training almost exactly follows the setup of [55]. The training consists of two stages: In the first stage, the network is trained without the visibility mask, as the visibility mask estimate is still inaccurate. In the second stage, the visibility mask is activated and more data augmentation is used.

Data Handling The alignment network is trained using MegaDepth [26], consisting of 196 scenes reconstructed
from 1,070,468 internet photos with COLMAP [44]. 150 scenes are used for training, encompassing around 58,000 sampled image pairs. 1800 image pairs sampled from 25 different scenes are used for validation. No ground-truth correspondences from SfM reconstructions are used to train UAWarpC.

During training, the image pairs $I, J$ are resized to 750x750 pixels, and a dense flow $W$ is sampled to create $I'$. Finally, all three images $I, J, I'$ are center-cropped to resolution 520x520. In the first training stage, $W$ consists of sampled color jitter, Gaussian blur, homography, TPS, and affine-TPS transformations. In the second stage, local elastic transformations are added, and the strength of the transformations is increased. For the detailed augmentation parameters, we refer to [55].

Architecture and Loss Function  Again following [55], a modified GLU-Net [53] is used as a base architecture for flow prediction. GLU-Net is a four-level pyramidal network with a VGG-16 [46] encoder. The encoder is initialized with ImageNet weights and frozen. GLU-Net requires an additional low-resolution input of 256x256 to establish global correlations, followed by repeated levels of upsampling and local feature correlations. As in [55], our flow decoder uses residual connections for efficiency. In addition, we replace all transposed convolutions with bilinear upsampling, and normalize all encoder feature maps, to increase the convergence rate.

The uncertainty estimate is produced using the uncertainty decoder proposed in [54]. However, instead of predicting the parameters of several mixture components, we simply output a single value per pixel—the log-variance.

As in [55], the loss is applied at all four levels of the pyramidal GLU-Net. We simply add the four components. The employed loss functions are explained in Sec. 3.1 of the main paper. To obtain the visibility mask for the second training stage, we use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, analogously to [55].

$$V = 1 \left| \| \Phi_{F_{Y \rightarrow J}} + \Phi_{F_{Y' \rightarrow J}} (\tilde{F}_{J \rightarrow I}) - W \|^2 < \alpha_2 + \alpha_1 \left( \| \Phi_{F_{Y \rightarrow J}} \|^2 + \| \Phi_{F_{Y' \rightarrow I}} (\tilde{F}_{J \rightarrow I}) \|^2 + \| W \|^2 \right) \right|$$ (13)

$1$ denotes the element-wise indicator function. We use $\alpha_1 = 0.03$ and $\alpha_2 = 0.05$.

Optimization Schedule  For the first training stage, the alignment network is trained with a batch size of 6 for 400k iterations. We use the Adam optimizer [21] with weight decay $4 \cdot 10^{-5}$. The initial learning rate is $10^{-4}$, and is halved after 250k and 325k iterations. For the second training stage, we use 225k training steps with initial learning rate $5 \cdot 10^{-5}$, halved after 100k, 150k, and 200k iterations.

B.2. Segmentation Network

For training the domain adaptive segmentation network, we follow the employed base UDA method, respectively. We summarize here the settings used with DAFormer [15]. For more details, and the DACS [51] settings, we refer to the original papers or the authors’ codes.

Data Handling  Input images are resized to half resolution for Cityscapes [6], ACDC [41], and Dark Zurich [42]. For RobotCar Correspondence [22, 31] and CMU Correspondence [2, 22], we resize to 720x720 and 540x720, respectively. Data augmentation consists of random cropping to 512x512 and random horizontal flipping. For the coarsely labeled extra target images in the semi-supervised domain adaptation for RobotCar and CMU, we additionally apply random rotation with maximum 10° and color jittering.

Optimization Schedule  We use the AdamW [28] optimizer with a weight decay of 0.01. The learning rate follows a linear warmup for 1500 steps, followed by linear decay. The peak learning rate is $6 \cdot 10^{-4}$. On ACDC and Dark Zurich, we train for 40k iterations; on RobotCar and CMU, we train for 20k iterations. A batch size of 2 is used throughout.

To mitigate the risk of overfitting, we use the coarsely labeled extra target images in semi-supervised domain adaptation on RobotCar and CMU only in every second training iteration.

C. Small vs. Large Static Classes

To motivate the distinction between small and large static classes (as defined in Sec. 3.2), we generate ACDC [41] reference image predictions using a SegFormer [67] trained on Cityscapes [6], and warp them onto the corresponding
Table D-1. State-of-the-art comparison on Dark Zurich-test for Cityscapes→Dark Zurich domain adaptation. Methods above the double line all use a DeepLabv2 [5] model. "Ref.": For each adverse input image a reference image at similar geo-location is used.

| Method                          | IoU ↑ | Ref. |
|---------------------------------|-------|------|
| DeepLabv2 [5]                   | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| ADVENT [59]                     | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| AdaptSegNet [57]                | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| DANNet (DeepLabv2) [63]         | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| DMAda (RefineNet) [8]           | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| GCMA (RefineNet) [38]           | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| MGCDA (RefineNet) [42]          | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| CDAda (RefineNet) [68]          | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| DANNet (PSPNet) [63]            | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| CDNet (RefineNet) [9]           | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| DANIA (PSPNet) [64]             | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| DAFormer [15]                   | 97.0  | 79.0 |
| Refign-DAFormer                 | 97.0  | 79.0 |


Table D-2. State-of-the-art comparison of models which do not follow the common image input resizing protocol. Refign-HRDA currently ranks first on public leaderboards.

| Method                          | Cityscapes→ACDC | Cityscapes→Dark Zurich |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|------------------------|
| Refign-HRDA                     | 72.1            | 63.9                   |

D. Additional Experimental Results

Due to space restrictions, we present the full class-wise performances of state-of-the-art UDA methods on Dark Zurich-test here in Table D-1. The models reported in Tables 1, 2, and D-1 all use the same image input size at test-time for fairness of comparison. Table D-2 presents models which do not follow that protocol. Using Cityscapes-pretrained weights for initialization, Refign added on top of HRDA [16] achieves 72.1 mIoU and 63.9 mIoU on ACDC and Dark Zurich-test, respectively, ranking first on the public leaderboard charts of these benchmarks at the time of publication.

Due to space restrictions, we present the full class-wise performances of state-of-the-art UDA methods on Dark Zurich-test here in Table D-1. The models reported in Tables 1, 2, and D-1 all use the same image input size at test-time for fairness of comparison. Table D-2 presents models which do not follow that protocol. Using Cityscapes-pretrained weights for initialization, Refign added on top of HRDA [16] achieves 72.1 mIoU and 63.9 mIoU on ACDC and Dark Zurich-test, respectively, ranking first on the public leaderboard charts of these benchmarks at the time of publication.

In Table D-3, we report the performance of Cityscapes→ACDC Refign-DAFormer on the four different conditions of the ACDC validation set. Refign improves markedly over the baseline for all conditions.

We also compare the Cityscapes→ACDC Refign-DAFormer model with state-of-the-art foggy scene understanding methods in Table D-4. All methods are trained with Cityscapes as source domain, however the foggy scene understanding methods utilize both synthetic foggy data and adverse-image viewpoint. As shown in Fig. C-1, we observe a correlation between the resulting IoU and the average size of the connected class component for static classes (pearson correlation coeff. of 0.70). The classes pole, traffic light, and traffic sign are drastically smaller than the rest, and consequently have lower accuracy. On the other hand, such indiscriminate warping (i.e., without \( P_R \)) is surprisingly accurate for the large static classes.

Furthermore, we analyze the mIoU improvement when only considering pixels above a certain \( P_R \) threshold for the above mentioned warped SegFormer predictions, see Fig. C-2. While the performance increases monotonically for both dynamic and small static classes, it remains mostly flat for large static classes. This suggests that large static classes are largely insensitive to the warping confidence, while both dynamic and small static classes benefit greatly from confidence guidance.

Figure C-2. Performance increase for different class categories as a function of the warp confidence (\( P_R \)) threshold. Dynamic classes and small static classes (see Sec. 3.2) are more sensitive to the warp confidence, while large static classes do not improve considerably.
Table D-3. Performance of Cityscapes→ACDC models for different conditions on the validation set.

| Method            | night | snow | rain | fog  |
|-------------------|-------|------|------|------|
| DAFormer [15]     | 34.8  | 56.3 | 58.5 | 67.9 |
| Refign-DAFormer   | 48.1  | 65.0 | 65.2 | 73.4 |

Table D-4. Performance comparison with specialized foggy scene understanding methods on the Foggy Zurich [7] and Foggy Driving [40] test sets.

| Method         | Target Domain | Training Data | Foggy CS-DBF [7] | Foggy Zurich [7] | ACDC [41] | Foggy Zurich [7] | Foggy Driving [40] | mIoU ↑ |
|----------------|---------------|---------------|------------------|------------------|-----------|------------------|-------------------|-------|
| CMAda3+ [7]    | ✓             | ✓             | 46.8             | 49.8             |           |                   |                   |       |
| FIFO [13]      | ✓             | ✓             | 48.4             | 50.7             |           |                   |                   |       |
| CuDA-Ni+ [30]  | ✓             | ✓             | 49.1             | 53.8             |           |                   |                   |       |
| TDo-Dif [27]   | ✓             | ✓             | 51.9             | 50.7             |           |                   |                   |       |
| Refign-DAFormer| ✓             |               | 51.4             | 53.8             |           |                   |                   |       |

Table D-5. Performance of Refign vs. DAFormer baseline with a DeepLabv2 model on the ACDC and Dark Zurich validation sets.

| Method                   | ACDC [41] | Dark Zurich [42] |
|--------------------------|-----------|-------------------|
| DAFormer (DeepLabv2) [15]| 46.4      | 24.8              |
| Refign-DAFormer (DeepLabv2)| 55.6      | 38.7              |

Table E-1. Applying Refign only for one refinement iteration at test-time to DAFormer on the ACDC and Dark Zurich validation sets.

| Method                  | ACDC [41] | Dark Zurich [42] |
|-------------------------|-----------|-------------------|
| DAFormer [15]           | 55.6      | 34.1              |
| DAFormer + Test-Time Refign | 56.8      | 38.0              |

and a larger pool of real foggy data as targets. Surprisingly, our model achieves state-of-the-art performance despite this handicap.

Finally, we conduct experiments substituting the SegFormer [67] based architecture of DAFormer [15] with DeepLabv2 [5]. On both ACDC and Dark Zurich validation sets, this version of Refign improves substantially over the baseline, as reported in Table D-5.

E. Refign at Test-Time

Although designed to refine pseudo-labels during online self-training, Refign can also be applied at test-time to arbitrary, trained models, if a reference image is available. We report ACDC and Dark Zurich validation set scores in Table E-1. The performance gain is more moderate than if Refign is applied at training-time. This is unsurprising, given that we only conduct a single refinement iteration in that case.

F. Qualitative Results

We show more qualitative results in this section. Fig. F-1 shows more qualitative segmentation results for randomly selected ACDC validation samples. Fig. F-2 shows the warps and corresponding confidence maps for randomly selected ACDC samples. Finally, in Fig. F-3, we show some warp failures. Importantly, the confidence map correctly blends out the inaccurate warps.
| Image | FDA [70] | DANIA (PSPNet) [64] | DAFormer [15] | Refign-DAFormer | Ground Truth |
|-------|----------|---------------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------|
| ![Image](image1.jpg) | ![Image](image2.jpg) | ![Image](image3.jpg) | ![Image](image4.jpg) | ![Image](image5.jpg) | ![Image](image6.jpg) |
| ![Image](image7.jpg) | ![Image](image8.jpg) | ![Image](image9.jpg) | ![Image](image10.jpg) | ![Image](image11.jpg) | ![Image](image12.jpg) |
| ![Image](image13.jpg) | ![Image](image14.jpg) | ![Image](image15.jpg) | ![Image](image16.jpg) | ![Image](image17.jpg) | ![Image](image18.jpg) |
| ![Image](image19.jpg) | ![Image](image20.jpg) | ![Image](image21.jpg) | ![Image](image22.jpg) | ![Image](image23.jpg) | ![Image](image24.jpg) |
| ![Image](image25.jpg) | ![Image](image26.jpg) | ![Image](image27.jpg) | ![Image](image28.jpg) | ![Image](image29.jpg) | ![Image](image30.jpg) |
| ![Image](image31.jpg) | ![Image](image32.jpg) | ![Image](image33.jpg) | ![Image](image34.jpg) | ![Image](image35.jpg) | ![Image](image36.jpg) |
| ![Image](image37.jpg) | ![Image](image38.jpg) | ![Image](image39.jpg) | ![Image](image40.jpg) | ![Image](image41.jpg) | ![Image](image42.jpg) |
| ![Image](image43.jpg) | ![Image](image44.jpg) | ![Image](image45.jpg) | ![Image](image46.jpg) | ![Image](image47.jpg) | ![Image](image48.jpg) |
| ![Image](image49.jpg) | ![Image](image50.jpg) | ![Image](image51.jpg) | ![Image](image52.jpg) | ![Image](image53.jpg) | ![Image](image54.jpg) |

Figure F-1. Prediction samples of the ACDC validation set.
Figure F-2. Example visualizations of warped reference images and the corresponding confidence maps from ACDC.
Figure F-3. Warp failure examples on ACDC.