

# Dynamic Anchor Feature Selection for Single-Shot Object Detection

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## Abstract

*The design of anchors is critical to the performance of one-stage detectors. Recently, the anchor refinement module (ARM) has been proposed to adjust the initialization of default anchors, providing the detector a better anchor reference. However, this module brings another problem: all pixels at a feature map have the same receptive field while the anchors associated with each pixel have different positions and sizes. This discordance may lead to a less effective detector. In this paper, we present a dynamic feature selection operation to select new pixels in a feature map for each refined anchor received from the ARM. The pixels are selected based on the new anchor position and size so that the receptive field of these pixels can fit the anchor areas well, which makes the detector, especially the regression part, much easier to optimize. Furthermore, to enhance the representation ability of selected feature pixels, we design a bidirectional feature fusion module by combining features from early and deep layers. Extensive experiments on both PASCAL VOC and COCO demonstrate the effectiveness of our dynamic anchor feature selection (DAFS) operation. For the case of high IoU threshold, our DAFS can improve the mAP by a large margin.*

## 1. Introduction

Object detection is a prerequisite for many downstream computer vision applications, such as person re-identification [2], autonomous driving [7], and action recognition [12]. As such a fundamental and important task, object detection has been extensively studied for several decades. Due to the progressively promising development in Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) recently, object detection has seen significant improvements both in speed and accuracy [14, 18, 33, 15, 3, 6, 35].

Based on the deep CNN feature, there are mainly two dominant detection frameworks. One is two-stage detec-

Table 1: The original IoU distribution of adjusted positive anchors

0-0.1	0.1-0.2	0.2-0.3	0.3-0.4	0.4-0.5	0.5-0.6	0.6-1.0
0.02%	0.32%	9.0%	47.6%	27.9%	10.8%	4.4%

tors such as Faster-RCNN [29] and the other one is one-stage detectors such as SSD [24]. Given color images as input, both type of detectors employ a stack of convolutional layers (usually some typical backbone like ResNet [14] or VGG [33]) to extract several feature maps for the input. For one stage detectors, classification scores are predicted and bounding boxes are estimated directly on the feature maps with respect to a set of default anchors using extra convolutional layers. By contrast, two stage detectors also start with anchors, but utilize a two-step cascade detector, where the first step mainly aims to regress better initialized proposals and eliminate a large number of negatives.

Inspired by the two stage detectors, some researchers borrow the two-step cascade regression method into one-stage detectors. One example is RefineDet [36]. It uses an Anchor Refinement Module (ARM) to adjust the locations and sizes of anchors, and at the same time to filter out easy negative anchors. Experiments show that the accuracy gain mainly results from the adjusted anchors. Table 1 shows the original IoU distribution of the new positive anchors (IoU > 0.5). We can see that after the refinement, the number of positive anchors greatly increases. Nearly 85% of positive anchors come from negative anchors. However, RefineDet keeps the feature points associated with each anchor unchanged, resulting in a discordance between the adjusted anchors and the receptive field of the feature points. The discordance at each position of a feature map is different from each other since the shapes of the adjusted anchors become irregular, making the detector especially the regression part be sub-optimal.

Since the anchor positions are adjusted, why can not the sampling feature points associated with the anchors be adjusted? Motivated by this, we propose a simple yet effective feature selection operation to dynamically select suitable feature points for each adjusted anchor basing on its new position and size. The selected feature points can cover most

\*Corresponding author. This work is supported by China NSFC grant (no. 61672446) and Hong Kong RGC GRF grant (PolyU 152135/16E).

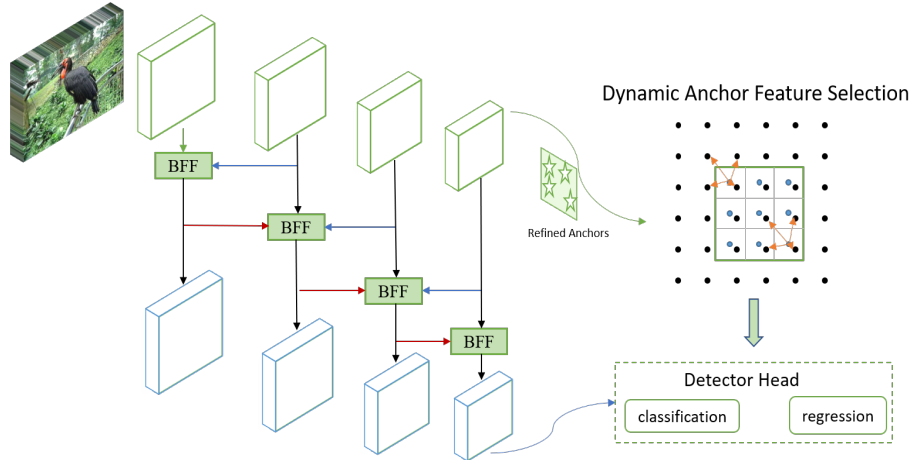


Figure 1: Architecture of our proposed method. Four green feature maps, computed by the forward computation process, are used to adjust the initialization of default anchors. The four blue feature maps, fused by the green features through bidirectional feature fusion block, are the source detection layers. The adjusted anchors are then sent to the dynamic feature selection module to do feature adaptation. The detector head takes the source feature maps and selected feature points as input and outputs the classification score and regression positions with respect to the adjusted anchors.

part of the adjusted anchor, making the receptive field of these feature points be well aligned with the new anchor. The number of selected feature points keep the same with the setting in original one-stage detectors so that we do not need to change the structure of the final classifier and regressor, which means we can maintain a quick inference speed. We follow a similar network structure as RefineDet except two modifications. First, in RefineDet, the features in the first stage (Anchor Refinement Module) are transferred to the second stage (Object Detection Module) by a Transfer Connection Block (TCB). We replace the TCB with a newly designed bidirectional feature fusion block (BFF). In TCB, each feature map only receives information from its upper layer while in BFF both lower layers and higher layers are combined to fuse the current feature map. Second, we change the class-agnostic classifier in ARM to a class-specific classifier in the first phase as this stronger regulation contributes to more discriminative features in ARM. In summary, Our contributions are twofold.

(1) We propose a simple yet effective dynamic anchor feature selection (DAFS) operation to solve the discordance between the adjusted anchor shapes and the receptive field of feature maps, when the anchor refinement is used in one-stage detectors. Extensive experiments are conducted to show this operation can consistently improve the performance over RefineDet on both PASCAL VOC [8] and COCO [22].

(2) Different from TCB or FPN which use higher feature maps to fuse lower feature maps through a top-down path, we present a bidirectional feature fusion block to allow different level features to activate each other so that each fea-

ture map can capture both basic visual cues and high level features.

## 2. Related Work

**Two-stage detectors.** Two-stage detectors adopt the two stage, proposal based mechanism. A sparse set of clustered proposals is generated in the first stage, which can be realized by Region Proposal Network [29], Edge Boxes [40] or Selective Search [34]. In the second stage, classification scores and bounding box positions are predicted for each proposal by training a detector head. Some typical two-stage detectors are R-CNN [11], Fast-RCNN [10] and Faster-RCNN [29]. RFCN [4] is another special two stage detector which replaces the detector head with some position sensitive score maps. The predicted class label and position offsets are directly sampled from the score maps which greatly reduces inference time but requires a much more memory footprint due to the large score maps. Two-stage detectors have been leading top performances on several benchmarks including PASCAL VOC [8] and MS COCO [22] for many years.

**One-stage detectors.** Compared with two-stage detectors, one-stage detectors predefine a set of default anchors with various sizes and aspect ratios at each pixel of a feature map. Classification and regression are applied directly on the feature map with respect to these default anchors. Typical one stage detectors are YOLO [27] and SSD [24]. The detection performance for one-stage detectors has been improved continuously by a series of methods focusing on different aspects. For example, semantic information on different layers is enhanced in [9, 31, 37, 23] to boost the

discrimination. New loss functions are proposed in [19, 21] to deal with class imbalance issues. Multi-level feature pyramid network [38] is used to detect objects with different sizes on different level feature maps. RefineDet [36] introduces anchor refinement into SSD to improve the quality of reference anchors. One stage detectors can run at a fast speed but in accuracy still trail of two stage detectors. CornerNet [17] is another type of detector which regards the detecting objects as detecting paired keypoints. Although it achieves remarkable performance, it still suffers from a low inference speed.

**Detector head.** Generally, a detector head includes a classifier and a regressor. How to prepare the inputs for the detector head is a major difference between two-stage detectors and one-stage detectors. Proposal features are extracted using RoIPooling [10] or RoIAlign [13]. The extracted features, which are the inputs of the detector head, are processed independently further by a small network (usually two fully connected layers) before being feed to the classifier and the regressor. While in the one-stage detectors, a  $3 \times 3$  convolutional filter is applied on each position at a feature map to directly give predictions with respect to default anchors. Sometimes before the  $3 \times 3$  convolution filter, the feature map will be processed by a stack of convolution layers, which has been proved to be more important than some hyper parameters in [21]. In this paper, we only change the sampling positions for this  $3 \times 3$  detection filter to make the new selected features be more aligned with the anchors. We never separate the anchor features from the feature map and independently process them as what two-stage detectors do, which is a key characteristic for two-stage detectors.

**Feature aggregation network.** Image features used to perform classification and regression have attracted the majority of attention in modern one-stage detectors. SSD [24] utilizes a multi-scale feature pyramid to detect objects with different sizes. This strategy is adopted by succedent modern detectors with modifications to augment the representation ability further. FPN [20] introduces a top-down architecture with lateral connections to build high level semantic feature maps at all levels. Similar module can be seen in TDM [32], SharpMask [26], DSSD [9], DES [37] and DSOD [31]. RefineDet [36] uses TCB to transfer the feature from anchor refinement module into object detection module. This transfer is necessary as directly sharing features between two modules will influence the optimization of both parts, demonstrated by experiments in the later part.

### 3. Dynamic Anchor Feature Selection

We illustrate the network structure in Fig 1, which is based on RefineDet [36]. A feature selection operation is added before the detector head to select suitable feature points for each classifier and regressor. We also replace the

transfer connection block with our own bidirectional feature fusion (BFF) block, which utilizes both a bottom-up path and a top-down path to combine different layers.

#### 3.1. Anchor refinement module

Anchor refinement module is a RPN-like module used in one-stage detectors, which is first proposed by [36]. It attaches two convolutional kernels (a regressor and a binary classifier) on each detection source layer under a multi-scale detection framework. The main aim of ARM is to assign background/foreground scores and predict adjusted locations for each anchor. The binary classification scores are used to filter out easy negatives and the refined anchors are sent to the final object detection module (ODM), which is exactly the same with the detector head in SSD. According to the experiment results in [37], the performance gain mainly comes from the well initialized anchors.

In order to better analyze the influence of ARM on the detector, we first give a definition of bounding box regression and classification in the detector head.

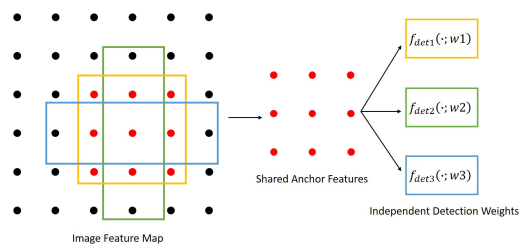


Figure 2: Detector head in SSD. The green, blue and yellow boxes are three anchors on a feature map, centering on the same feature point. A  $3 \times 3$  sliding window (red points) in the feature map is chosen as the shared feature for the input of the three functions  $f$ , each of which has its own prediction weights.

#### 3.2. Bounding box regression

For one-stage detectors, the task of bounding box regression is to regress an anchor  $a$  into a target bounding box  $g$ , using a regressor  $f(x, a)$ . Both the anchor  $a$  and bounding box  $g$  are defined with four coordinates  $(x, y, w, h)$ . The regressor  $f$  is learned by optimizing the function:

$$R_{loc}[f] = \sum_{i=1}^N L_{loc}(f(x_i, a_i), g_i) \quad (1)$$

where  $L_{loc}$  is a smoothed L1 loss function in SSD.  $x_i$  is the input associated with anchor  $a$ . During training,  $L_{loc}$  optimizes on the distance vector  $d = (d_x, d_y, d_w, d_h)$  to achieve regression invariance.  $d$  is defined as:

$$d_x = (g_x - a_x)/a_x \quad d_y = (g_y - a_y)/a_y \quad (2)$$

$$d_w = \log(g_w/a_w) \quad d_h = \log(g_h/a_h) \quad (3)$$

In SSD, each pixel point in a detection feature map is associated with several kinds of anchors, which have different sizes and aspect ratios. For example in Fig 2, blue, yellow and green are three kinds of anchors attached on a feature map. The  $3 \times 3$  red feature points are the input  $x_i$  for the regressor. Note that the actual receptive field of  $x_i$  doesn't necessarily need to match the anchors. The regressor  $f(\cdot)$  can automatically learn to be responsive to particular scales of boxes  $g$  as in each position for a regressor, the anchor coordinates  $a_w, a_h$  are the same, which can be seen as constant values. This means that for each kind of anchor, the variance of its size distribution is zero. In RefineDet, the same kind of anchors will shift towards various directions approaching the ground truth box  $g$ . This makes the distance vector  $d$  smaller than the distance in SSD, which seems to make the regressor easier to optimize. However, this is not the truth as each kind of adjusted anchors become more various after ARM, which means the  $a_w$  and  $a_h$  become variables in the distance vector, not constant values any more. What's more, the inputs for the regressor in ODM keep the same as original, so they are not aware of the particular shape of adjusted anchors because  $a_w$  and  $a_h$  are dynamically predicted by ARM.

### 3.3. Classification

The classifier  $h(x)$  in one-stage detectors aims to assign a M+1-dimensional estimate of posterior distribution over classes, where 0 means background and M is the remaining classes.  $H(x)$  is trained by minimizing a classification loss function:

$$R_{cls}[h] = \sum_{i=1}^N L_{cls}(h(x_i), y_i) \quad (4)$$

An anchor is defined as positive if its maximal IoU with any ground truth box is larger than 0.5. This metric is used both in ARM and ODM. Some default negative anchors will become positive after ARM if the IoU of new adjusted anchors are larger than 0.5, which is possible as the negative anchors does not contribute to the regression loss in the ARM. This could lead to a sub-optimal classifier as the feature points are too far from their associated anchors that they are not representative enough to be classified as a foreground class label. As shown in Table 1, for over 47% of adjusted anchors, their IoU before the refinement is less than 0.4.

### 3.4. Dynamic Feature selection

As we can see from above analysis, ARM will cause a discordance between the receptive field of the input feature points and their associated new refinement anchors. This discordance may lead to a sub-optimal detector, especially for the regression part. A simple solution is to sample feature points for the detector head dynamically basing on the new shape of anchors. In this way, the feature points are

able to perceive the existence of anchors. The feature selection function  $s$  can be written as:

$$p = s(a_w, a_h, x, y) \quad (5)$$

where  $a_w, a_h$  are the width and height of an adjusted anchor  $a$ .  $x, y$  describe the position on a feature map which the anchor is associated with.  $p \in H \times W \times C$ , is the coordinates of selected feature points for the detector head. The coordinates along  $H$  and  $W$  axis are the same for each channel so we can reduce the matrix to  $H \times W$ . In RefineDet [36] and SSD [24],  $H$  and  $W$  are set to  $3 \times 3$  and  $p$  is set to a  $3 \times 3$  sliding window centered on  $(x, y)$ . In this paper, we want to make use of the shape of the adjusted anchors. Inspired by the RoIAlign [13], we simply divide the anchor  $a$  into  $H_a \times W_a$  sub-windows uniformly. In each sub-window, we select the center position  $c$  as the representative position for this sub-window. Then we will have  $H_a \times W_a$  representative positions. The feature at each position is a weighted sum of features from other positions in the feature map, which can be written as:

$$f_c = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i \times f_i \quad (6)$$

$$w_i = \max(1 - |x_c - x_i|, 0) \times \max(1 - |y_c - y_i|, 0) \quad (7)$$

where  $f_i$  is a feature point whose coordinates are int.  $x_c, x_i$  are the  $x$  coordinates for position  $c$  and  $i$ .  $y_c, y_i$  are the  $y$  coordinates for position  $c$  and  $i$ .  $w_i$  is the weight assigned to  $f_i$ . Now we have a feature matrix  $F \in H_a \times W_a$ . To fit the input size of the regressor and classifier, we use maxpooling to reduce the size of  $F$  to  $H \times W$ .

There are some alternatives to sample the feature positions for an anchor. RoIPooling [10] can be used to directly pool a  $H \times W$  feature matrix based on the adjusted anchor, but it needs to compare all the points within the anchor which is time consuming. DeformConv [5] can also be utilized to predict the sampling positions for an anchor by an extra branch, the input of which is the feature map. This is not efficient as the memory and computation complexity will increase. Related experiments are conducted in the ablation study.

### 3.5. Bidirectional feature fusion

Directly sharing features between ARM and ODM is not a good choice as these two modules have different goals. So a bridge is needed to link the feature from ARM to ODM. In RefineDet, a transfer connection block (TCB) is proposed to build a feature pyramid using a top-down path for ODM. In this paper, we replace TCB with a Bidirectional Feature Fusion (BFF) block as shown in Fig 1, where both a top-down path and a bottom-up path are used to fuse different layers. Specifically, each layer receives more abstract information from its upper layer and meanwhile gets more basic cues from its lower layer. We find this small modification

over TCB can improve the detection performance one step further with negligible computation cost increase.

#### 4. Training settings

**Backbone** VGG16 [33] and ResNet101 [14], which are pretrained on the standard ImageNet-1k classification task [30], are used as our backbone networks. Other settings keep the same with RefineDet [36]. For VGG16, conv4\_3, conv5\_3, fc7 and an extra layer conv6\_2 are used as the multi-level detection layers. L2 normalization [25] is applied to scale the feature norms in conv4\_3 and conv5\_3. For ResNet101, the last three blocks together with an extra block res6 are used for multi-scale detection. These four feature maps have strides  $\{8, 16, 32, 64\}$  respectively.

**Anchors and matching strategy** Anchors associated with each feature map have one specific size (4 times of the feature stride). For aspect ratios, we try different combinations selected from a group settings (1/2, 1/3, 1/1) and find only using 1/1 can reach comparable accuracy. Relevant results will be discussed in the ablation study. An anchor is set to positive if its maximal IoU with ground truth is larger than 0.5 in both two stages.

**Loss function** Our feature selection operation doesn't change the form of loss function except that in ARM, we adopt a class-specific classifier. For hard negative mining, we select negatives according the loss value to ensure the ratio between the positives and negatives is 1:3. Focal loss [21] can also be used but this is not the focus of this paper. The loss function can be formulated as:

$$L(I; \theta) = \alpha L_{arm}(a, y, p, t) + L_{odm}(a', y', p', t') \quad (8)$$

$$L_{arm}(a, y, p, t) = L_{cls}(p, y) + 1[y > 0]L_{loc}(a, t) \quad (9)$$

$$L_{odm}(a', y', p', t') = L_{cls}(p', y') + 1[y' > 0]L_{loc}(a', t') \quad (10)$$

where  $I$  is the input image,  $\{a, y, p, t\}$  are the coordinates, class label, predicted confidence and predicted anchor coordinates for the default anchor, and  $\{a', y', p', t'\}$  are the coordinates, class label, predicted confidence and predicted coordinates for the adjusted anchor. The classification loss  $L_{cls}$  is set as the cross entropy loss and the localization loss  $L_{loc}$  is set as the smoothed  $L_1$  loss [10]. We simply set  $\alpha = 1$  in all our experiments.

#### 5. Experiments

In this section, we first conduct ablation analysis of the proposed feature selection operation. We then make comparison with the competing methods as well as state-of-the-arts. All our models are trained under the PyTorch framework with SGD solver on NVIDIA GeForce 1080Ti GPUs.

**Datasets.** Experiments are conducted on two dominant datasets: PASCAL VOC [8] and MS COCO [22], which have 20 and 80 classes, respectively. For VOC2007, models

Table 2: Results of ablation study.

Aspect ratio	Num of anchors	AP	AP <sub>50</sub>	AP <sub>60</sub>	AP <sub>70</sub>	AP <sub>80</sub>	AP <sub>90</sub>
1	1	57.0	80.6	75.7	65.4	46.0	17.3
0.5,1,2	3	58.1	80.2	75.8	66.4	48.6	19.7
0.3,1,3	3	58.1	80.4	76.0	66.1	48.2	19.8
0.3,0.5,1,2,3	5	<b>58.2</b>	80.3	76.0	66.0	48.5	20.4

(a) Impact of anchor number.

	AP	AP <sub>50</sub>	AP <sub>60</sub>	AP <sub>70</sub>	AP <sub>80</sub>	AP <sub>90</sub>
(3,3,3,3)	56.7	80.7	76.0	65.4	45.7	15.9
(3,3,6,6)	<b>57.0</b>	80.6	75.7	65.4	46.0	17.3
(6,6,6,6)	56.5	80.3	75.3	65.4	45.4	16.0
(6,6,9,9)	56.6	80.6	75.5	64.9	45.7	16.2
(9,9,9,9)	56.7	81.0	75.9	64.8	45.6	16.1

(b) Comparison of different selected feature points.

Transfer module	AP	AP <sub>50</sub>	AP <sub>60</sub>	AP <sub>70</sub>	AP <sub>80</sub>	AP <sub>90</sub>
None	56.0	80.3	74.4	64.2	45.4	15.9
TCB	56.6	80.5	75.8	64.9	45.1	16.5
BFF	<b>57.0</b>	80.6	75.7	65.4	46.0	17.3

(c) BFF block performance.

Feature selection	AP	AP <sub>50</sub>	AP <sub>60</sub>	AP <sub>70</sub>	AP <sub>80</sub>	AP <sub>90</sub>
Anchor Pooling based (R)	50.9	79.5	73.6	59.3	34.1	7.6
Deformable convolution (D)	53.6	79.9	73.7	62.1	41.4	10.9
DAFS	<b>57.0</b>	80.6	75.7	65.4	46.0	17.3

(d) Alternatives for feature point selection.

Classifier in ARM	AP	AP <sub>50</sub>	AP <sub>60</sub>	AP <sub>70</sub>	AP <sub>80</sub>	AP <sub>90</sub>
Class-agnostic	56.6	80.3	74.8	64.9	46.1	16.6
Class-specific	<b>57.0</b>	80.6	75.7	65.4	46.0	17.3

(e) Classifier in ARM.

are trained on the union of VOC2007 trainval and VOC2012 trainval. For VOC2012, the training data is the union of VOC2007 trainval and 2007 test plus VOC2012 trainval set. Following the conventional splitting method, we use the 2014 trainval35k set which contains around 135k images to train our model, and validate the performance on the 2015 test-dev dataset which contains around 20k images.

**Experimental setting.** We set the batchsize as 32 for all datasets. The momentum is fixed to 0.9 and the weight decay is set to 0.0005, which is consistent with the original SSD settings. We start the learning rate with  $10^{-3}$  for 100 epochs and decay it to  $10^{-4}$  and  $10^{-5}$  for another 50 and 30 epochs respectively in VOC datasets. For COCO, we train the model longer due to its large size. The learning rate is initialized to  $10^{-3}$  for 150 epochs and is decayed to  $10^{-4}$  and  $10^{-5}$  for another 40 and 30 epochs, respectively. During training, we initialize the newly added layers by drawing weights from a zero-mean Gaussian distribution with standard deviation 0.001. All other layers are initialized by the



Table 5: Detection results on COCO 2015 test-dev.

Method	Train set	Backbone	FPS	AP	AP <sub>50</sub>	AP <sub>75</sub>	AP <sub>S</sub>	AP <sub>M</sub>	AP <sub>L</sub>
Faster R-CNN [29]	trainval	VGG16	7	21.9	42.7	-	-	-	-
R-FCN [4]	trainval	ResNet101	9	29.2	51.5	-	10.3	32.4	43.3
CoupleNet [39]	trainval	ResNet101	8.2	34.4	54.8	37.2	13.4	38.1	52.0
YOLOv2 [28]	trainval35k	DarkNet-19 [27]	19.8	21.6	44.0	19.2	5.0	22.4	35.5
SSD300 [24]	trainval35k	VGG16	43	25.1	43.1	25.8	6.6	25.9	41.4
RON384++ [16]	trainval	VGG16	15	27.4	49.5	27.1	-	-	-
SSD321 [9]	trainval35k	ResNet101	-	28.0	45.4	29.3	6.2	28.3	49.3
DSSD321 [9]	trainval35k	ResNet101	9.5	28.0	46.1	29.2	7.4	28.1	47.6
DES300 [37]	trainval35k	VGG16	-	28.3	47.3	29.4	8.5	29.9	45.2
M2Det320 [38]	trainval35k	VGG16	33.4	<b>33.5</b>	52.4	35.6	14.4	37.6	47.6
RefineDet320 [36]	trainval35k	VGG16	38.7	29.4	49.2	31.3	10.0	32.0	44.4
RefineDet320 [36]	trainval35k	ResNet101	-	32.0	51.4	34.2	10.5	34.7	50.4
DAFS320 (ours)	trainval35k	VGG16	46.0	31.2	50.8	33.4	10.8	34.0	47.1
DAFS320 (ours)	trainval35k	ResNet101	-	33.2	52.7	35.7	10.9	35.1	52.0
SSD512 [24]	trainval35k	VGG16	22	28.8	48.5	30.3	10.9	31.8	43.5
SSD513 [9]	trainval35k	ResNet101	-	31.2	50.4	33.3	10.2	34.5	49.8
DSSD513 [9]	trainval35k	ResNet101	5.5	33.2	53.3	35.2	13.0	35.4	51.1
RetinaNet500 [21]	trainval35k	ResNet101	11.1	34.4	53.1	36.8	14.7	38.5	49.1
DES512 [37]	trainval35k	VGG16	-	32.8	53.2	34.6	13.9	36.0	47.6
CornerNet511 [17]	trainval35k	Hourglass-104	4.4	<b>40.5</b>	56.5	43.1	19.4	42.7	53.9
M2Det512 [38]	trainval35k	VGG16	18.0	37.6	56.6	40.5	18.4	43.4	51.2
RefineDet512 [36]	trainval35k	VGG16	22.3	33.0	54.5	35.5	16.3	36.3	44.3
RefineDet512 [36]	trainval35k	ResNet101	-	36.4	57.5	39.5	16.6	39.9	51.4
DAFS512 (ours)	trainval35k	VGG16	35	33.8	52.9	36.9	14.6	37.0	47.7
DAFS512 (ours)	trainval35k	ResNet101	-	38.6	58.9	42.2	17.2	42.2	54.8

Table 6: Results on PASCAL VOC2007 with strict evaluation metric. For SSD and RefineDet, we re-implement the models according to the settings in their papers.

Method	Backbone	AP	AP <sub>50</sub>	AP <sub>60</sub>	AP <sub>70</sub>	AP <sub>80</sub>	AP <sub>90</sub>
SSD300 [24]	VGG16	52.8	77.8	72.3	60.3	40.9	12.7
RefineDet320 [36]	VGG16	54.7	80.0	74.2	63.5	43.3	12.2
DAFS320	VGG16	57.0	80.6	75.7	65.4	46.0	17.3
DAFS320	Resnet101	<b>58.7</b>	81.0	76.3	66.9	49.2	20.0

sub-window and select the maximal one as the representative feature point for this sub-window. For deformable convolution, we add one extra layer on each detection layer to predict the new selected feature positions for each adjusted anchor. Comparison results are shown in Table 2d. As we can see, model 'R' performs worst under higher thresholds. The reason behind this may be that RoIPooling can cause dis-alignment between the feature and anchor. The accuracy of model 'D' is higher than model 'R' but still lower than the base model. One possible explanation is that some of the predicted positions may be outside the anchor, which is not very helpful for training the detector.

**Class-agnostic or class-specific.** For the classifier in ARM, we try class-agnostic and class-specific respectively and compare the results in Table 2e. We can see a class-specific classifier results in a higher accuracy than a class-agnostic classifier. The reason maybe that the loss function

based on a class-specific classifier can provide stronger supervision for the network, thus the feature in ARM can be transferred to the final detector better.

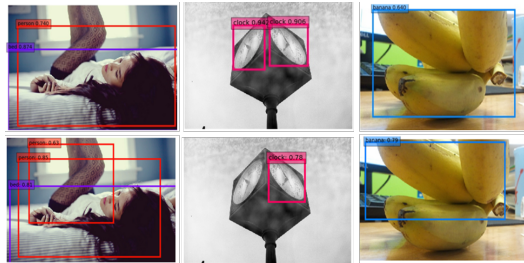


Figure 3: Examples of detection results. Up: DAFS320. Bottom: RefineDet320.

## 5.2. Comparison with Competing Networks

If not specified, for all the models in this part,  $H_a$  and  $H_b$  on four detection layers are set to (3,3,6,6) and only one aspect ration (1:1) is used due to limited computation resources.

**PASCAL VOC 2007.** We compare our method with the state-of-the-art detectors in Table 3. DES300 [37], DSSD320 [9] and RFB Net300 [23] are methods that aim to increase the representation ability of feature maps by introducing semantic loss, a feature pyramid network and an

inception-like fusion block, respectively. Compared with these one-stage detectors which are based on semantic enhancement, DAFS320 achieves 80.6% mAP and 81.1% mAP with VGG and ResNet respectively, higher than all of them. DAFS320 is also 0.6% higher than RefineDet [36] with the same VGG16 backbone. Since our detector is based on RefineDet, the comparison with it can demonstrate the effectiveness of our model convincingly. As can be seen in Table 3, DAFS320 even outperforms ResNet101 based SSD models (*e.g.*, 77.1% for SSD321 [9], 78.6% for DSSD321 [9]), which are much deeper than VGG. By using a larger input size 512, DAFS512 produces 82.4% mAP, improving RefineDet512 by 0.6%. These results clearly demonstrate the effectiveness of the feature selection operation.

**PASCAL VOC 2012.** Following the VOC 2012 protocol, we submit our detection results to the evaluation server. We compare our method against some representative methods and the results are shown in Table 4. Similar findings to those in VOC2007 can be made. With a small input size 320, DAFS320 achieves 79.1% accuracy, higher than SSD321 [24] and RefineDet320 by 3.7 points and 1.0 points. DAFS512 achieves 81.0% mAP, a 0.9 points boost over RefineDet512.

**PASCAL VOC with strict metric.** We evaluate the performance on PASCAL VOC2007 with a COCO-style metric and compare our method with two baseline detectors, SSD300 and RefineDet320. The results are shown in Table 6. As shown in Table 6, although RefineDet boosts SSD300 under the official VOC evaluation threshold (0.5) by 2.2 points, it decreases the performance for AP@0.9. By contrast, our model can consistently improve SSD under all thresholds and for AP@0.9, the boost is nearly 7 points. DAFS320 achieves 57% AP with the coco-style metric, 2.3 points higher than RefineDet320. This further demonstrates that our model can greatly improve the localization ability of the detector.

**MS COCO.** Table 5 shows the comparison results on COCO 2015test set. In order to compare the speed fairly, we test the inference time using Titan X with batch size 1. With the standard COCO evaluation metric, SSD321 scores 28.0% AP with ResNet101 backbone, and DAFS320 improves it to 31.2% AP with a shallower backbone VGG16. Note that with  $320 \times 320$  input size, DAFS even brings a 2.4 points boost compared with SSD512 based on VGG16. When increasing the input size to 512, DAFS512 gains a 5.0 and 2.6 points boost compared with VGG16 based SSD512 and ResNet101 based SSD512, respectively. Since our model is based on RefineDet [36], directly comparing with it can demonstrate the effectiveness of DAFS. DAFS320 improves the AP of RefineDet320 from 29.4% to 31.2%, a 1.8 absolute points gain. DAFS512 is also higher than RefineDet512, with 1.4 points improvement for AP@75. This

again demonstrates that our DAFS can significantly boost the localization ability of one-stage detectors.

We also compare our method against some other excellent one-stage detectors (*e.g.*, DES [37], CornerNet [17], M2Det [38]). DES [37] produces 28.3% AP and 32.8% AP with input size 300 and 512. Our method improves them by 2.9 points and 1 points, respectively. CornetNet regards detecting objects as paired keypoints, a very different detection framework from the anchor based detectors like SSD. Although Cornetnet achieves a remarkable accuracy, it can only run at 4.4 fps. M2Det utilizes a multi-level feature pyramid network to improve the representation ability of feature maps. Compared with M2Det, DAFS has a relative lower AP but it has a much faster inference speed than M2Det. It is noteworthy to mention that, if built upon this network, the performance of our model can improve further.

Figure 3 shows some visual results for DAFS (up) and RefineDet (bottom). Due to the inconsistency between the receptive field of feature map and anchor areas, RefineDet may cause some unsatisfactory results such as overlapped boxes (first column), missing detection (second column) and low quality bounding box (third column).

Table 7: Generality of DAFS on VOC2007

Method	Backbone	AP	AP <sub>50</sub>	AP <sub>60</sub>	AP <sub>70</sub>	AP <sub>80</sub>	AP <sub>90</sub>
SSD320 [24]	VGG16	47.1	72.2	64.8	52.7	34.2	11.6
(DAFS+SSD)320	VGG16	49.8	74.2	67.6	55.7	38.3	13.2
DSSD320 [9]	VGG16	51.1	74.6	68.6	57.1	40.0	15.3
(DAFS+DSSD)320	VGG16	52.7	76.0	69.9	58.8	42.1	16.8
RetinaNet320 [21]	ResNet101	52.8	74.4	68.5	58.8	43.6	19.0
(DAFS+RetinaNet)320	ResNet101	53.9	75.0	69.4	60.4	45.2	19.3

### 5.3. Generality

To verify the effectiveness of DAFS on other one stage detectors, we conducted experiments on three representative detectors, including SSD [24], DSSD [9] and RetinaNet [21], on VOC2007. Note that DSSD is a combination of SSD and FPN [20]. Four feature maps are used for final detection and one scale anchor is used for each pixel. The results are shown in Table 7. We can see that our method can bring 1.6, 2.7 and 1.1 points gains for DSSD, SSD and RetinaNet, respectively. This validates the generality of DAFS to one-stage detectors.

### 6. Conclusion

This work was focused on the discordance problem between the feature receptive field and anchors brought by RefineDet. A simple yet effective anchor feature selection operation was proposed to dynamically select feature points for the detector head based on the shapes of adjusted anchors. Extensive experiments demonstrated that our methods improved the performance over RefineDet consistently while keeping a fast inference speed. Our work indicated that apart from enhancing the representational power of CNNs, it is also important to investigate the anchor feature extraction process of one-stage detectors.



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