# MP-PolarMask: A Faster and Finer Instance Segmentation for Concave Images 

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#### Abstract

While there are a lot of models for instance segmentation, PolarMask stands out as a unique one that represents an object by a Polar coordinate system. With an anchor-box-free design and a single-stage framework that conducts detection and segmentation at one time, PolarMask is proved to be able to balance efficiency and accuracy. Hence, it can be easily connected with other downstream real-time applications. In this work, we observe that there are two deficiencies associated with PolarMask: (i) inability of representing concave objects and (ii) inefficiency in using ray regression. We propose MP-PolarMask (MultiPoint PolarMask) by taking advantage of multiple Polar systems. The main idea is to extend from one main Polar system to four auxiliary Polar systems, thus capable of representing more complicated convex-and-concave-mixed shapes. We validate MP-PolarMask on both general objects and food objects of the COCO dataset, and the results demonstrate significant improvement of $13.69 \%$ in $A P_{L}$ and $7.23 \%$ in AP over PolarMask with 36 rays.


## 1. Introduction

Computer vision techniques have been widely used in various areas $[8,23,29,30]$. Food science is gaining popularity with the growing emphasis on health. In particular, food segmentation offers valuable insights for calories estimation [26] and food waste statics [27]. Food segmentation presents a substantial challenge problem due to the diverse nature of its appearance and intra-class variations [1]. Therefore, our focus is directed towards convex-and-concave-mixed images, like those food images in the COCO dataset [21].

Food segmentation can be considered as one of the applications of instance segmentation. Instance segmenta-
tion stands as a crucial subfield within computer vision [ $6,12,24]$. Its primary purpose is to address the challenge of identifying specific objects or targets within an entire image while providing crucial information such as the target's category, precise location, and accurate segmentation boundaries. It can be seen as a combination of semantic segmentation and object detection. Object detection systems roughly localize multiple objects using bounding boxes, while semantic segmentation frameworks assign category information to each pixel for a class. In contrast, instance segmentation takes a step further by labeling each pixel with a specific instance, rather than just a particular class. This enhanced approach allows for more meaningful and detailed inferences on an image, which finds practical applications in various domains, enabling tasks such as object localization, recognition, and comprehensive scene understanding.

Instance segmentation primarily revolves around two frameworks: two-stage frameworks and one-stage frameworks. The two-stage instance segmentation can be implemented using two distinct approaches: the bottom-up method [9, 22], which relies on semantic segmentation, and the top-down method, which is based on detection [14, 16, 19, 24, 25]. In platforms with abundant computing resources, the two-stage frameworks tend to achieve higher accuracy, but spend much time on heavy computation, thus limiting their applications in real-time tasks. To resolve this issue, there are some upcoming approaches that employ a one-stage pipeline for both object detection and instance segmentation. One-stage frameworks often have a simpler structure, incorporate a lightweight backbone, deal with fewer candidate areas, and employ fully convolutional detection networks, thus generally running faster than twostage approaches $[2,3,7,28,31,33]$.

PolarMask [32] is an anchor-free and one-stage instance segmentation method that is characterized by its simplicity in concept and fully convolutional nature. The key ad-


Figure 1. Comparison of Polarmask and MP-PolarMask.
vantage lies in its seamless integration into most off-theshelf detection methods, enabling a high level of adaptability and practicality for diverse applications. The method yields good results when dealing with those convex-shaped objects. However, it encounters challenges when dealing with more complex objects, especially those concaveshaped ones.

This paper proposes MP-PolarMask (Multi-Point PolarMask) to relieve the aforementioned problem. We identify a deficiency of the "Distance Label Generation" algorithm in PolarMask, which tends to choose longer rays to represent masks, thereby ignoring the internal nodes within an object and adversely affecting its performance on concave objects. We then propose to utilize multiple auxiliary points that form multiple Polar systems to represent a mask. The predicted masks are finer, and there is not much extra computation cost in addition to PolarMask. We have validated MP-PolarMask on multiple datasets, with special focus on the food images in the COCO dataset. Fig. 1 illustrates the main idea of this work. Fig. 1a and Fig. 1c show examples of mask points found by PolarMask and MP-PolarMask, respectively, when using 8 rays. Fig. 1b and Fig. 1d show the exact output masks by PolarMask and MP-PolarMask, respectively, when using 36 rays.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Some related works are introduced in Sec. 2. Sec. 3 presents MPPolarMask. Sec. 4 shows our experiment results. Conclusions are drawn in Sec. 5.

## 2. Related Works

### 2.1. Anchor-based and Anchor-free Detection

Anchor-based methods are widely used in object detection and instance segmentation tasks. These methods use a pre-
defined set of bounding boxes, known as anchors, to localize and classify objects within an image. The anchor boxes define candidate regions of different shapes and sizes, representing potential object locations and aspect ratios. During training, the model adjusts these anchor boxes to better match the ground-truth bounding boxes of objects in the image and to predict their positions and categories.

Anchor-free methods do not rely on predefined anchor boxes to determine objects' positions. Objects' positions are directly predicted by such networks. CornerNet [18] and CenterNet [10] are two examples of anchor-free methods. CornerNet predicts object positions by estimating the topleft and bottom-right corners of objects. On the contrary, CenterNet takes a different approach by directly forecasting the center points of objects and employing convolutional operations to determine their boundaries.

Anchor-free methods are often simpler than traditional anchor-based methods and can achieve better detection results in certain scenarios. These methods are easier to implement since they eliminate the need for designing and tuning numerous anchor boxes. Despite their advantages, anchor-free methods also face challenges. They might struggle with detecting small and overlapped objects. Additionally, these methods often require more computational resources, creating a hurdle for resource-constrained devices.

### 2.2. Instance Segmentation

Instance segmentation is an important task in computer vision that may foster many downstream tasks. According to whether object detection and segmentation proceed in parallel, instance segmentation can be divided into one-stage and two-stage methods.

Two-stage instance segmentation methods, such as Mask R-CNN [14], first generate candidate regions of interests (ROIs) and then classify and segment those ROIs in the second stage. Because it requires re-extracting features for each ROI and processing them with subsequent computations, achieving real-time speeds remains challenging.

One-stage instance segmentation methods generate position-sensitive maps that are assembled into final masks by position-sensitive pooling or by combining semantic segmentation and direction prediction logits. In contrast to two-stage approaches, one-stage methods generally offer faster processing speeds at the cost of reduced accuracy. TensorMask [5] is a noexception among single-stage methods, as it achieves comparable accuracy to the twostage Mask R-CNN. YOLACT [2] eliminates the necessity for proposal (bounding-box) generation and feature pooling head networks used in two-stage methods, allowing it to achieve competitive accuracy at real-time speed (33 frames per second) on the COCO dataset [21]. When considering the same image size and device specifications, PolarMask


Figure 2. PolarMask [32].
with ResNet-101 [15] backbone is 4.7 times faster than TensorMask. The subsequent Polarmask++ [11] is proved to be even superior with a significant speed advantage over TensorMask.

### 2.3. PolarMask

PolarMask [32] stands out as an unique instance segmentation algorithm that is designed to keep a balance between accuracy and efficiency. Taking a one-stage approach, it performs object detection and segmentation simultaneously. Rather than using a traditional $x y$-coordinate, it is built upon a Polar coordinate system to model a contour. The segmentation problem is thus transformed into two subproblems: center regression and mask ray regression.

Fig. 2 shows its architecture. The first part is backbone and FPN. The backbone serves as a feature extractor, which can be realized by different architectures such as ResNet or ResNeXt. FPN then works as a generator to produce multi-scale feature maps through a top-down pathway coupled with lateral connections. We exemplify the idea by three feature maps $F_{2}, F_{3}$, and $F_{4}$. From $F_{4}$, via upsampling, $1 \times 1$ convolutions, and fusing with $C_{3}$, the feature map $F_{3}$ is yielded. In a similar way, $F_{2}$ is yielded. Then a $3 \times 3$ convolution layer is employed to smooth each feature map. The top-down pathway allows variable receptive fields to capture broader and more abstract information.

The second part, Head, has three parallel prediction networks, each for processing one scale of feature map. For each $F_{i}$, three branches are designed: classification, Polar centerness, and mask regression. $F_{i}$ first goes through some convolution layers. The classification branch produces a matrix $\mathcal{C} \in R^{W} \times R^{H} \times R^{k}$, where each tensor $(i, j, *)$ is the probability of $k$-class prediction. The Polar centerness branch produces a matrix $\mathcal{P} \in R^{W} \times R^{H}$, where each item $(i, j)$ is the score of pixel $(i, j)$ being a Polar center. The mask regression branch computes a matrix $\mathcal{M} \in R^{W} \times R^{H} \times R^{n}$, where each tensor $(i, j, *)$ denotes the lengths of $n$ rays. For example, when $n=36$, there are 36 rays, each separated by $360 / n=10$ degrees, whose length is described by $(i, j, k)$ for $k=1,2, \ldots, 36$. The contour connected by the endpoints of these 36 rays forms


Figure 3. Left: PolarMask; Right: MP-PolarMask
the Polar mask of the object.
The third part, Assembly, combines the above predictions by performing a pairwise multiplication $\mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{P}$ to get confidence scores, followed by thresholding for identifying the top-1000 centers of each $F_{i}$. At the end, the top-1000 predictions across all three scales are combined, subject to non-maximum suppression (NMS), to get multiple instance segmentation results, each represented by a Polar mask.

We remark that PolarMask follows the design of FCOS [28], but modifies the prediction networks into Polar representations, i.e., $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{M}$. It benefits from the Polar representation while keeping computation complexity comparable to FCOS.

## 3. MP-PolarMask

We make two observations on PolarMask. First, using one Polar system, its representation capability is somewhat limited, especially for concave-shaped objects (Fig. 3). In fact, when a ray encounters multiple boundary points of an object, the algorithm would choose the farthest one, tending to form a convex-like polygon. Second, it makes less efficient use of mask regression information. While many Polar centers and rays are identified in $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{M}$, only one center is selected per object to form the final mask.

To conquer the above deficiencies, we propose MultiPoint PolarMask (MP-PolarMask for short). The main idea is to use multiple Polar systems to represent an object's mask. In Fig. 1b, there are actually 5 Polar systems. A mask is formed by a two-level hierarchy. First, a main Polar center is determined for an object, from which $n$ rays are defined. Second, from the main center, four quadrants, denoted as $Q_{m}, m=1,2, \ldots, 4$, are defined. Then an auxiliary Polar center is determined for each $Q_{m}$, from which $n$ additional rays will be extended. These $5 n$ rays are as-


Figure 4. The architecture of MP-PolarMask.
sembled to form the final mask.
Fig. 4 shows the architecture of MP-PolarMask. The backbone remains the same as PolarMask, which computes $p-1$ scales of feature maps $F_{i}, i=2,3, \ldots, p$. The MultiPoint Head (MP-Head) module is designed to compute the main Polar center and its four auxiliary centers located at its four quadrants. Each auxiliary center is also accompanied by $n$ rays. At the end, the Multi-Point Assembly (MPAssembly) module integrates them into an instance segmentation. Below, we introduce these modules and the ground truth generation procedure. The symbols used in the paper are listed in Tab. 1.

### 3.1. MP-Head

The MP-Head module also has $p-1$ parallel networks, each for processing one feature map $F_{i}, i=2,3, \ldots, p$. Each network has 7 branches: (i) one classification branch, (ii) one Polar centerness branch, (iii) one mask regression branch, and (iv) four auxiliary-center branches. Similar to PolarMask [32], the first three branches compute the matrices $\mathcal{C} \in R^{W} \times R^{H} \times R^{k}, \mathcal{P} \in R^{W} \times R^{H}$, and $\mathcal{M} \in R^{W} \times R^{H} \times R^{n}$, respectively. The $m$-th auxiliarycenter branch computes a matrix $\mathcal{A}_{m} \in R^{W} \times R^{H} \times R^{2}$, $m=1,2, \ldots, 4$, in which each tensor $(i, j, *) \in \mathcal{A}_{m}$ is a 2D displacement vector with respect to $(i, j)$ to define the auxiliary center in $Q_{m}$.

Specifically, to get the main center, we multiply $\mathcal{C}$ and
$\mathcal{P}$. Following the mechanism of PolarMask, we can get a point, say $\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$, as the main center. From $\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$, we derive four auxiliary centers:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\left(i_{1}, j_{1}\right)=\left(i_{0}+\mathcal{A}_{1}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}, 1\right), j_{0}+\mathcal{A}_{1}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}, 2\right)\right)  \tag{1}\\
\left(i_{2}, j_{2}\right)=\left(i_{0}-\mathcal{A}_{2}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}, 1\right), j_{0}+\mathcal{A}_{2}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}, 2\right)\right) \\
\left(i_{3}, j_{3}\right)=\left(i_{0}-\mathcal{A}_{3}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}, 1\right), j_{0}-\mathcal{A}_{3}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}, 2\right)\right) \\
\left(i_{4}, j_{4}\right)=\left(i_{0}+\mathcal{A}_{4}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}, 1\right), j_{0}-\mathcal{A}_{4}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}, 2\right)\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

which are located in $Q_{1}, Q_{2}, Q_{3}$, and $Q_{4}$, respectively. Further, we use $\mathcal{M}$, the output of the mask regression branch, to obtain $n$ ray lengths, i.e., $\mathcal{M}\left(i_{m}, j_{m}, *\right)$, for auxiliary center $\left(i_{m}, j_{m}\right)$. Including the $n$ rays defined by $\mathcal{M}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}, *\right)$ for the main center $\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$, we have totally $5 n$ rays.

### 3.2. MP-Assembly

This module aims to construct the final mask. The algorithm is outlined in Algorithm 1. The inputs include: (i) the main center $\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$, (ii) four auxiliary centers $\left(i_{m}, j_{m}\right), i=$ $1,2, \ldots, 4$, and (iii) the tensor $\mathcal{M}$ that defines ray lengths for these centers. The output is a sequence of points that defines the mask of the object.

First, we will compute the mask points specified by the main center and the four auxiliary centers, denoted by 5 sequences $X_{m}, m=0,1, \ldots, 4$, respectively (line 2 ). The $k$ th mask points of these sequences, $k=1,2, \ldots, n$, are defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{m, k}=\left(i_{m}, j_{m}\right)+\vec{u}_{k} \cdot \mathcal{M}\left(i_{m}, j_{m}, k\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

| Symbol | Description |
| :---: | :--- |
| $\mathcal{C}$ | output matrix of classification branch <br> $\left(R^{W} \times R^{H} \times R^{k}\right)$ |
| $\mathcal{P}$ | output matrix of Polar centerness branch <br> $\left(R^{W} \times R^{H}\right)$ |
| $\mathcal{M}$ | output matrix of mask regression branch <br> $\left(R^{W} \times R^{H} \times R^{n}\right)$ |
| $F_{i}$ | feature map, $i=2,3, \ldots, p$ |
| $\mathcal{A}_{m}$ | the $m$-th auxiliary-point matrix <br> $\left(R^{W} \times R^{H} \times R^{2}\right)$ |
| $\mathcal{Q}_{m}$ | the $m$-th quadrant |
| $\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$ | the main center of an object |
| $\left(i_{k}, j_{k}\right)$ | the $k$-th auxiliary center of a main center |
| $X_{m}$ | a sequence of $n$ rays extended from the <br> main center or an auxiliary center <br> $\left(R^{m} \times R^{n}\right)$ |
| $X_{m}^{\prime}$ | a sequence of rays extended from an <br> auxiliary point falling in $\mathcal{Q}_{m}$ |
| $X_{m, k}$ | the $k$-th mask point of $X_{m}$ |
| $A_{m, k}$ | the angle to each point $X_{m, k}$ of $X_{m}$ |
| $X_{0}^{Q_{i} \rightarrow Q_{j}}$ | the mask points between $X_{i}^{\prime}$ and $X_{j}^{\prime}$ <br> contributed by the main center |
| $L$ | the loss function of MP-PolarMask |
| $L_{c l s}$ | the instance center classification loss |
| $L_{r e g}$ | the Polar coordinate distance regression <br> loss |
| $L_{s t}$ | the structure centerness loss |
| $L_{a c}$ | the auxiliary centerness loss |

Table 1. Summary of symbols.
where $\vec{u}_{k}$ is a unit vector with direction $2 \pi \cdot(k-1) / n$. That is, $X_{m}=\left\{X_{m, k} \mid k=1,2, \ldots, n\right\}, m=0,1, \ldots, 4$.

We are going to form a mask from the points in $X_{m}, m=0,1, \ldots, 4$. To do so, we associate an angle to each point $X_{m, k}$ of $X_{m}$ with respect to the main center:

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{m, k}=\angle X_{m, k} O O^{+} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $O=\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$ is the main center and $O^{+}=\left(i_{0}+\right.$ $\left.1, j_{0}\right)$ is to form the positive x -axis from the main center. We denote by $A_{m}$ the angle sequence of $X_{m}, m=0,1, \ldots, 4$ (line 3).

Next, we need to refine the four sequences formed by the auxiliary centers. We identify 4 points in $X_{0}$ that divide the

```
Algorithm 1: MP-Assembly
    input : Center \((i, j)\); Auxiliary centers \(\left(i_{m}, j_{m}\right)\),
            \(m=1,2, \ldots, 4\); Tensor \(\mathcal{M}\); Number of
            rays \(n\);
```

    output: A sequence of mask points;
    
## Function MP-Assembly()

        Calculate sequences \(X_{m}\) for \(m=0,1, \ldots, 4\);
        Calculate angle sequences \(A_{m}\) of \(X_{m}\) for
        \(m=1,2, \ldots, 4 ;\)
        Calculate angles \(\alpha_{m}\) for \(m=1,2, \ldots, 4\);
        Refine \(X_{m}\) into \(X_{m}^{\prime}, m=1,2, \ldots, 4\), by
        removing out-of-angle points;
        Refine \(A_{m}\) into \(A_{m}^{\prime}, m=1,2, \ldots, 4\),
        accordingly;
        for \(m=1: 4\) do
            \(a_{m} \leftarrow \min \left\{A_{m}^{\prime}\right\} ;\)
            \(b_{m} \leftarrow \max \left\{A_{m}^{\prime}\right\} ;\)
        end
        Calculate the sub-sequences \(X_{0}^{Q_{1} \rightarrow Q_{2}}\),
        \(X_{0}^{Q_{2} \rightarrow Q_{3}}, X_{0}^{Q_{3} \rightarrow Q_{4}}\), and \(X_{0}^{Q_{4} \rightarrow Q_{1}}\) from \(X_{0}\);
        return \(\left(X_{1}^{\prime}\left|X_{0}^{Q_{1} \rightarrow Q_{2}}\right| X_{2}^{\prime}\left|X_{0}^{Q_{2} \rightarrow Q_{3}}\right| X_{3}^{\prime} \mid\right.\)
        \(\left.X_{0}^{Q_{3} \rightarrow Q_{4}}\left|X_{4}^{\prime}\right| X_{0}^{Q_{4} \rightarrow Q_{1}}\right) ;\)
    end
    4 quadrants:

$$
X_{0,1}, X_{0,1+n / 4}, X_{0,1+2 n / 4}, X_{0,1+3 n / 4}
$$

For $k=1,2, \ldots, 4$, we draw 4 angles as follows (line 4):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha_{k}=\angle X_{0,1+(k-1) \times n / 4}\left(i_{k}, j_{k}\right) X_{0,1+(k \bmod 4) \times n / 4} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We take the sub-sequence of $X_{m}, m=1,2, \ldots, 4$, that falls within the angle $\alpha_{m}$ with respect to $\left(i_{m}, j_{m}\right)$ (line 5). That is

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{m}^{\prime}=\operatorname{subseq}\left(X_{m}, \alpha_{m}\right) . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where function $\operatorname{subseq}()$ is to retrieve a sub-sequence within an angle. We also refine $A_{m}$ into $A_{m}^{\prime}$ accordingly (line 6).

From $A_{m}^{\prime}, m=1,2, \ldots, 4$, we identify the minimal and the maximal angles in the sequence (note that the angles are relative to the main center). These two points are denoted as $a_{m}$ and $b_{m}$ (line 7).

In order to integrate the points of $X_{0}$ with those in $X_{m}^{\prime}, m=1,2, \ldots, 4$, the final step is to identify the gap between $X_{1}^{\prime}$ and $X_{2}^{\prime}$, the gap between $X_{2}^{\prime}$ and $X_{3}^{\prime}$, etc. We derive

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
X_{0}^{Q_{1} \rightarrow Q_{2}}=\operatorname{subseq}\left(X_{0}, \angle b_{1} O a_{2}\right)  \tag{6}\\
X_{0}^{Q_{2} \rightarrow Q_{3}}=\operatorname{subseq}\left(X_{0}, \angle b_{2} O a_{3}\right) \\
X_{0}^{Q_{3} \rightarrow Q_{4}}=\operatorname{subseq}\left(X_{0}, \angle b_{3} O a_{4}\right) \\
X_{0}^{Q_{4} \rightarrow Q_{1}}=\operatorname{subseq}\left(X_{0}, \angle b_{4} O a_{1}\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$



Figure 5. A running example of MP-PolarMask: (a) the input image, (b) the main center and four auxiliary centers, (c) the mask points expanded from the main center, (d) the sequence $X_{4}^{\prime}$ in Quadrant 4 refined by the angle $\alpha_{4}$, (e) ( $a_{m}, b_{m}$ ) and its corresponding $X_{m}^{\prime}$, where the yellow regions are to be filled by the mask points of the main center, and (f) the final mask $X_{1}^{\prime}\left|X_{2}^{\prime}\right| X_{0}^{Q_{2} \rightarrow Q_{3}}\left|X_{3}^{\prime}\right| X_{0}^{Q_{3} \rightarrow Q_{4}} \mid X_{4}^{\prime}$.
where $O$ is the main center (line 11). The final mask is formed by concatenating $X_{m}^{\prime}, m=1,2, \ldots, 4$, and the above four sub-sequences (line 12).

Below, we use Fig. 5 to run an example. Fig. 5a shows an image with an concave-shaped object. By running MPPolarMask, the main center and the four auxiliary centers in four Quadrants are identified in Fig. 5b. These centers further identify five sequences $X_{m}, m=0 . .4$. In Fig. 5c, the white points are the potential mask points expanding from the main center, i.e., $X_{0}$. In fact, these points would form the segmentation result found by PolarMask. We can observe that PolarMask misses a lot of areas in Quadrant 4. Fig. 5d shows the angle $\alpha_{4}$ that is determined by the maximum and the minimum angles of the points in $X_{4}$ in Quadrant 4. The points falling within $\alpha_{4}$ constitute the sequence $X_{4}^{\prime}$. Fig. 5e demonstrates the angle pairs $\left(a_{m}, b_{m}\right)$ in all Quadrants, delineating the sequences $X_{m}^{\prime}$ and the gaps between them. The final mask prediction is combined by $X_{m}^{\prime}$ and $X_{0}^{Q_{i} \rightarrow Q_{j}}$ as shown in Fig. 5f.

### 3.3. Loss Functions

We formulate the loss function as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
L=L_{c l s}+L_{r e g}+L_{s c}+L_{a c} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $L_{c l s}$ is the instance center classification loss, $L_{r e g}$ is the Polar coordinate distance regression loss, $L_{s c}$ is the structure centerness loss, and $L_{a c}$ is the auxiliary centerness loss. We extend the losses in PolarMask [32] to cover auxiliary centers. $L_{c l s}$ is formulated as the focal loss function [20], so we omit the details. We explain the other three terms below.

Following PolarMask, MP-PolarMask transforms the task of instance segmentation into a set of regression problems. In most object detection and image segmentation tasks, smooth L1 loss and IoU loss are two effective methods to supervise regression tasks. Smooth L1 loss ignores the correlation between samples of the same object, which leads to lower localization accuracy, while IoU loss considers the optimization globally and directly optimizes the pixel outcomes. However, computing the IoU of two areas is challenging and hard to parallelize. In Polarmask, it simplifies the computation of IoU by the following distance regression loss:

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{r e g}=\sum_{(x, y) \in O C} f(x, y) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x, y)=\log \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \max \left\{\mathcal{M}(x, y, i), \mathcal{M}^{*}(x, y, i)\right\}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \min \left\{\mathcal{M}(x, y, i), \mathcal{M}^{*}(x, y, i)\right\}} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $O C$ means the set of points belonging to any object class and $\mathcal{M}^{*}$ means the ground truth ray lengths. This is proved to be quite effective in [32], so we follow the same design.

Polarmask introduces the concept of Polar centerness into its loss

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { PolarCent }=\sqrt{\frac{\min \left\{\mathcal{M}^{*}(x, y, i) \mid i=1,2, \ldots, n\right\}}{\max \left\{\mathcal{M}^{*}(x, y, i) \mid i=1,2, \ldots, n\right\}}} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $(x, y)$ is a candidate center point. In our method, since there is a main center and four auxiliary centers, rather than considering centerness as a point, we consider centerness as a "structure." Therefore, we propose the Polar structure centerness as follows. During training, we will compute the matrix $\mathcal{P}$. We will use the ground truth to compute an optimal matrix $\mathcal{P}^{*}$ and train our model to approximate its output $\mathcal{P}$ to the optimal $\mathcal{P}^{*}$. The optimal matrix $\mathcal{P}^{*}$ is computed as follows. Consider any point $\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$ that belongs to any object class. We use it to partition the object into 4 Quadrants. Let the mask of the object that falls in Quadrant $m$ be $C_{m}^{*}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$. From the mask, we compute the mass center in Quadrant $m$, denoted by $\left(x_{m}, y_{m}\right)$. From $\left(x_{m}, y_{m}\right)$, we further compute a mask that may reflect the best inference result, called $C_{m}\left(x_{m}, y_{m}\right)$. Specifically, we take the $n$ rays in the ground truth $\mathcal{M}^{*}\left(x_{m}, y_{m}, *\right)$. However, if a ray crosses the $x$-axis or the $y$-axis, it will end at that intersection point; otherwise, the ray remains unchanged. Then, the contour formed by the endpoints of these $n$ rays is $C_{m}\left(x_{m}, y_{m}\right)$. In Fig. 6, we illustrate the concept using a simple $n=8$ case in Quadrant 1. So, we define the structure centerness at $\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$ in an IoU style:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{P}^{*}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)=\frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^{4} \frac{\left|C_{m}\left(x_{m}, y_{m}\right) \cap C_{m}^{*}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)\right|}{\left|C_{m}\left(x_{m}, y_{m}\right) \cup C_{m}^{*}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)\right|} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can repeat the above process for all $\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$ to obtain the optimal matrix $\mathcal{P}^{*}$. During training, we calculate the cross entropy loss of the predicted $\mathcal{P}$ and the optimal $\mathcal{P}^{*}$, denoted as $L_{s c}$.

For the auxiliary center loss, we define the optimal auxiliary array $\mathcal{A}_{m}^{*} \in R^{W} \times R^{H} \times 2, m=1,2, \ldots, 4$, as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{A}_{m}^{*}[x, y]=\operatorname{mass}_{m}(x, y)-(x, y) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\operatorname{mass}_{m}(x, y)$ returns the mass center of the object mask in Quadrant $m$ with respect to the origin $(x, y)$. The loss, Eq. (13), is defined based on the distance between the ground truth points, Eq. (14) and the predicted locations,


Figure 6. (a) area $C_{1}^{*}\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$ in Quadrant 1 for center $\left(i_{0}, j_{0}\right)$ enclosed by ground truth points and (b) area $C_{1}\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ for Quadrant 1 for the mass center $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$.

Eq. (15).

$$
\begin{gather*}
L_{a c}=\sum_{(x, y) \in O C} L_{a c}(x, y)  \tag{13}\\
\operatorname{dist}_{m}(x, y)=\left|\mathcal{A}_{m}^{*}[x, y]-\mathcal{A}_{m}[x, y]\right|  \tag{14}\\
L_{a c}(x, y)= \begin{cases}0.5\left(\operatorname{dist}_{m}(x, y)\right)^{2} & \text { if } \operatorname{dist}_{m}(x, y)<1 \\
\operatorname{dist}_{m}(x, y)-0.5 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \tag{15}
\end{gather*}
$$

## 4. Experiment Results

We have conducted extensive comparisons with a number of state-of-the-arts on the COCO dataset (dataset A) and in particular the food images in the COCO dataset (dataset B). Our evaluation criteria encompass various essential image processing metrics: AP (Average Precision), $\mathrm{AP}_{50}$ (AP at IoU 0.5 ), $\mathrm{AP}_{75}$ ( AP at IoU 0.75 ), $\mathrm{AP}_{L}$ (AP for large objects), $\mathrm{AP}_{M}$ (AP for medium-sized objects), $\mathrm{AP}_{S}$ (AP for small objects), and the speed factor FPS (Frames Per Second). All the results are reported in Tab. 2.

### 4.1. Validation on General Objects

In our experiment, except for ExtremeNet, which uses Hourglass-104 as its backbone, the backbones of all other models are based on ResNet-101. Based on PolarMask(side $=600,36$ rays) and MP-PolarMask(side $=600,36$ rays), we adjust the shorter side of test images to 600 pixels so as to enhance processing speed. To enrich our experiments and ensure fairness, we also test two backbones for MPPolarMask: BFP [17] and DCN [4] (refer to the test in PolarMask++ [11]). Regarding FPS, MP-PolarMask runs at 13.3 FPS with the ResNet-101 backbone, slightly behind PolarMask's 13.9 FPS. However, MP-PolarMask's AP of 35.5 surpasses PolarMask's AP of 32.1. Remarkably, MPPolarMask exhibits a noincrease in AP with only a slight decrease in FPS, highlighting its efficiency and competitive edge compared to PolarMask. If we adjust images' side size by using MP-PolarMask(side $=600,36$ rays), apart from

|  | $\mathbf{A P}$ | $\mathbf{A P}_{50}$ | $\mathbf{A P}_{75}$ | $\mathbf{A P}_{S}$ | $\mathbf{A P}_{M}$ | $\mathbf{A P}_{L}$ | FPS |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dataset A: All images of COCO test-dev |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Mask R-CNN [13] | 35.7 | 58.0 | 37.8 | 15.5 | 38.1 | 52.4 | 7.2 |
| FCIS [19] | 29.5 | 51.5 | 30.2 | 8.0 | 31.0 | 49.7 | 0.8 |
| YOLACT [2] | 29.8 | 48.5 | 31.2 | 9.9 | 31.3 | 47.7 | 22.1 |
| Tensormask [5] | $\underline{37.1}$ | $\underline{59.3}$ | $\underline{39.4}$ | $\underline{17.1}$ | 39.1 | 51.6 | 2.1 |
| Extremenet [34] | 18.9 | 44.5 | 13.7 | 10.4 | 20.4 | 28.3 | 2.2 |
| PolarMask(36 rays) [32] | 32.1 | 53.7 | 33.1 | 14.7 | 33.8 | 45.3 | 13.9 |
| PolarMask(side = 600, 36 rays) [32] | 30.7 | 52.1 | 31.9 | 13.2 | 31.9 | 43.4 | $\mathbf{2 3 . 2}$ |
| MP-PolarMask(36 rays, ResNet-101) | 35.5 | 58.5 | 36.6 | 16.2 | 37.7 | 51.7 | 13.3 |
| MP-PolarMask(side = 600, 36 rays, ResNet-101) | 34.8 | 57.8 | 35.9 | 15.4 | 37.2 | 51.1 | $\underline{22.8}$ |
| MP-PolarMask(36 rays, BFP) | 35.6 | 58.8 | 36.8 | 16.5 | $\underline{39.4}$ | $\underline{52.8}$ | 13.2 |
| MP-PolarMask(36 rays, DCN) | $\mathbf{3 7 . 5}$ | $\mathbf{6 0 . 3}$ | $\mathbf{3 9 . 6}$ | $\mathbf{1 7 . 5}$ | $\mathbf{3 9 . 7}$ | $\mathbf{5 3 . 5}$ | 9.2 |
| Dataset B: Food images of COCO test-dev |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| PolarMask(36 rays) [32] | 31.8 | 51.2 | 32.0 | 13.1 | 32.6 | 43.8 | $\mathbf{1 4 . 0}$ |
| MP-PolarMask(36 rays, ResNet-101) | $\mathbf{3 4 . 1}$ | 56.4 | 33.2 | 14.8 | 35.7 | 49.8 | $\mathbf{1 3 . 4}$ |
| MP-PolarMask(36 rays, BFP) | $\mathbf{3 4 . 1}$ | $\mathbf{5 6 . 6}$ | $\underline{33.3}$ | $\mathbf{1 4 . 9}$ | $\mathbf{3 6 . 0}$ | $\mathbf{5 0 . 1}$ | 13.3 |
| MP-PolarMask(36 rays, DCN) | $\mathbf{3 5 . 8}$ | $\mathbf{5 9 . 3}$ | $\mathbf{3 6 . 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 6 . 2}$ | $\mathbf{3 7 . 3}$ | $\mathbf{5 1 . 2}$ | 9.2 |

Table 2. Performance comparison of MP-PolarMask and other methods. (best boldfaced and second best underlined)


Figure 7. Comparison of segmentation results of food images by PolarMask (upper part) and MP-PolarMask (lower part).

Tensormask, MP-PolarMask exhibits better performance in terms of $\mathrm{AP}, \mathrm{AP}_{50}, \mathrm{AP}_{75}, \mathrm{AP}_{S}, \mathrm{AP}_{M}$, and $\mathrm{AP}_{L}$ compared to all other models. It is particularly noteworthy that, when we use DCN as the backbone for MP-PolarMask, a slight improvement is observed in $\mathrm{AP}, \mathrm{AP}_{50}, \mathrm{AP}_{75}, \mathrm{AP}_{S}, \mathrm{AP}_{M}$, and $\mathrm{AP}_{L}$ compared to Tensormask. Additionally, the FPS ratio to Tensormask is $9.2: 2.1$.

### 4.2. Validation on Food Objects

Food images are more challenging due to their irregular and concave shapes. From our evaluations, MP-PolarMask demonstrates superior performance compared to PolarMask in terms of $\mathrm{AP}, \mathrm{AP}_{50}, \mathrm{AP}_{75}, \mathrm{AP}_{S}, \mathrm{AP}_{M}$, and $\mathrm{AP}_{L}$. For example, MP-PolarMask improves AP by $\frac{(34.1-31.8)}{31.8}=$ $7.23 \%$ and $\mathrm{AP}_{L}$ by $\frac{(49.8-43.8)}{43.8}=13.69 \%$. If we switch the backbone of MP-PolarMask to DCN, there is a decrease of 4.8 FPS compared to PolarMask, but the improvements of AP and $\mathrm{AP}_{L}$ enlarge to $\frac{(35.8-31.8)}{31.8}=12.57 \%$ and $\frac{(51.2-43.8)}{43.8}=16.89 \%$, respectively.

In Fig. 7, we show some instance segmentation results for food-related images generated by PolarMask and MP-PolarMask. There is a clear advantage of using MPPolarMask, especially when objects are of concave shapes.

## 5. Conclusions

As instant segmentation is a fundamental issue in computer vision, it is critical to perform the task in a real-time manner to facilitate downstream tasks. We propose a way to extend PolarMask to multiple Polar systems, thus achieving finer segmentation results. Through validation on the COCO dataset, MP-PolarMask demonstrates excellence in handling concave objects. However, food objects are still very challenging for the segmentation task as we do observe lower AP when comparing to the AP of general objects by MP-PolarMask. Future work may be directed to choosing more flexible auxiliary points and developing a better mask assembly method.

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