000 LEARNING OBJECT SEGMENTATION THROUGH A PARA-001 002 METRIC POLYGON REPRESENTATION 003

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ABSTRACT

Differentiable polygon (boundary-/contour-based) modeling for object instance segmentation remains an open problem in computer vision and deep learning. It also has been under-explored in the deep learning era, compared with its counterpart, bit-mask (region-based) modeling. In this paper, we present a method of differentiable polygon-based instance segmentation. As commonly done in the prior art, 015 we assume a fixed topology, i.e., the number of vertices, K is predefined and fixed 016 (e.g., K = 250) in learning and inference. We address two modeling problems: i) The alignment between a predicted K-vertex polygon and a target ground-truth Lvertex polygon in learning, where L varies significantly. We present PolygonAlign similar in spirit to RoIAlign used in bit-mask-based instance segmentation, which enables using a simple ℓ_2 norm as the vertex prediction loss function in learning. ii) The parameterization of a K-vertex polygon. We present a variant of the active contour model, which consists of a learnable contour initialization module and an one-step vertex-aware refinement/updating module. The initialization is learned via an affine transformation decoupled vertex regression method. A polygon is parameterized by a translation vector, a rotation transformation matrix, and the vertex displacement vectors. In experiments, the proposed method is tested on the MS-COCO 2017 benchmark using the Sparse R-CNN framework. It obtains state-of-the-art performance compared with the prior art of polygon modeling methods. We also show the empirical upper-bound performance of the proposed method is much higher than all existing instance segmentation methods, which encourages further research on differentiable polygon modeling.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Object instance segmentation aims to localize objects in images accurately in terms of their boundary. It remains a challenging problem in computer vision due to the large variations of object shape, pose, 037 appearance and scale, and occlusions in images. A high-performing object instance segmentation 038 system has a wide range of important applications such as autonomous driving, robot object grasping and manipulation and medical image analyses.

040 There are two modeling schema in object instance segmentation: bit-mask (region-based) modeling 041 and polygon (boundary-/contour-base) modeling. Bit-masks and polygons are two dual representa-042 tions of localizing objects in an image. The former is a pixel-wise dense representation, while the 043 latter is a vectorized sparse representation. In fact, when annotating objects in images in collecting the 044 training and testing data, polygons are used by human due to its simplicity in labeling. When it comes to modern machine deep learning systems, bit-mask modeling is the current dominant approach since it is straightforward to design differentiable loss functions to evaluate a predicted bit-mask 046 with respect to a target ground-truth mask (e.g., the widely used pixel-wise cross entropy loss) at a 047 predefined canonical resolution (e.g., 14×14). Tremendous progress have been made for bit-mask 048 based object instance segmentation through the deep learning based systems (He et al., 2017; Kirillov et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2020; Fang et al., 2021), as shown in the leader board of MS-COCO object instance segmentation benchmark (Lin et al., 2014). 051

Polygon modeling lacks the simplicity of bit-mask modeling, and differentiable polygon modeling 052 remains an open problem from the general shape analysis perspective. More specifically, the challenge lies in: how to parameterize a polygon such that we can easily evaluate a predicted



Figure 1: Illustration of the proposed differentiable polygon model for object instance segmentation in comparison with the dominant bit-mask scheme. Our proposed method consists of three components: (i) A novel PolygonAlign method that enables aligning predicted polygons of a fixed topology of a predefined K vertices (e.g., K = 250) and annotated ground-truth L-vertex polygons of object instances, where L can vary significantly from instance to instance, which in turn facilitates a simple vertex ℓ_2 loss in end-to-end training. (ii) A learnable K-vertex polygon initializer from the regionof-interest (RoI) features of an object proposal (e.g., RoIAlign (He et al., 2017)). (iii) A one-step vertex-guided polygon refinement module.

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polygon with respect to a target ground-truth polygon, which in turn enables effective end-to-end learning to improve the polygon prediction based on the evaluated loss?

In the literature, polygon modeling has been long explored in image segmentation since the seminal 081 work of the active contour or snake model (Kass et al., 1988). Deep learning variants of active contour models (Gur et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2022) have also been proposed in recent years and evaluated in 083 challenging benchmarks such as the MS-COCO with promising results obtained. Those active contour models evolve some initial contours to fit objects' boundary, either using hand-crafted features and 084 formulated under the energy minimization framework before the deep learning era or using deep 085 learning features and formulated under some sort of recurrent/iterative neural network updating framework in more recent literature. Those methods often represent a polygon in the Cartesian 087 coordinate system. Apart from this, there are works which use the polar coordinate system and often 088 represent a polygon with a star-convex structure (i.e. radially convex), such as the PolarMask (Xie et al., 2021). Both lines of work assume fixed topology. Active contour based methods are sensitive 090 to the initialization and the updating strategy. PolarMasks often can not represent complex polygons 091 accurately due to its star-convexity constraint. 092

In this paper, we assume a fixed topology, i.e., the number of vertices, K is predefined and fixed in learning and inference, as commonly done in the prior art. We use a sufficiently large number K (e.g., K = 250). As illustrated in Fig. 1, we then address two problems in realizing differentiable polygon modeling for object instance segmentation,

099 i) How to address the alignment or vertex corre-100 spondence problem between a always-K-vertex pre-101 dicted polygon and a varying-L-vertex target ground-102 truth polygon, where L often varies significantly from 103 instance to instance? As shown in Fig. 2, we re-104 represent annotated polygons by re-sampling K ver-105 tices based on our proposed uniform Contour-Length-Fraction (CLF) sampling scheme. Intuitively, it is 106 to "untie" a polygon to a line segment with the two 107



Figure 2: *Left:* Illustration of the proposed PolygonAlign via uniform contour-lengthfraction (CLF) based vertex sampling. *Right:* An example of CLF based vertex sampling. See text for details.

end-points being the intersection point between the polygon and the x-axis, as shown in by the

red point. Then, we evenly divide the resulting line segment into K pieces to sample the new vertices. The sampled K vertices will be consistently sorted with respect to a predefined order (e.g., counter-clockwise), which enables building the vertex correspondence between a predicted polygon and a target ground-truth polygon in a straightforward way, i.e., **PolygonAlign**, similar in spirit to the **RoIAlign He et al.** (2017). It in turns facilitates using a simple ℓ_2 norm as the vertex prediction loss function in learning to realize differentiable polygon modeling.

ii) How to parameterize a K-

115 vertex polygon regression mod-116 ule that can plug-and-play in 117 existing object detection deep 118 learning pipeline such as the Sparse R-CNN (Sun et al., 119 2021a)? As shown in Fig. 3, 120 we present a simple yet effec-121 tive variant of the active contour 122 model (Kass et al., 1988). We 123 focus on developing a more ex-



Figure 3: Illustration of the proposed polygon initializer using affine transformation decoupled vertex regression.

124 pressive learnable polygon initializer, and on simplifying the iterative polygon updating to an one-step 125 refinement. In our learnable polygon initializer, a polygon is parameterized by a translation 2D vector 126 $\mathbb{T}_{1\times 2}$, a rotation 2×2 matrix $\mathbb{R}_{2\times 2}$, and K vertex offset vectors $\mathbb{L}_{K\times 2}$. The rotation matrix induces 127 the K vertex displacement vectors to the global sorting order used in the vertex sampling. The trans-128 lation vector can compensate for the position displacement error of the input detection bounding box, 129 so the predicted polygon is capable of moving closer to the target polygon without being restricted by the detection bounding box. With the decoupled affine transformation, the regression of the K vertex 130 displacement vectors is locally calibrated, which facilitates faster learning convergence. 131

In experiments, the proposed method is tested on the challenging MS-COCO 2017 instance segmentation benchmark (Lin et al., 2014) using the Sparse R-CNN framework (Sun et al., 2021a). It obtains state-of-the-art performance compared with the prior art of polygon modeling methods. We also show the empirical upper-bound performance of the proposed method is much higher than all existing instance segmentation methods, which encourages further research on differentiable polygon modeling.

138 **Our Contributions.** This paper makes three main contributions to the field of polygon (boundary-139 /contour-based) modeling for instance segmentation: (i) It presents an intuitive PolygonAlign method 140 that addresses the alignment between always-K-vertex predicted polygons (e.g., K = 250) and 141 varying-L-vertex target ground-truth polygons, where L varies significantly from instance to instance. 142 The proposed PolygonAlign method facilitates using a single and simple mean squared error (MSE) function as the polygon prediction loss function in end-to-end learning. (ii) It presents an affine 143 transformation decoupled vertex displacement based parameterization method for polygons to support 144 the proposed PolygonAlign to maintain the predefined vertex correspondences without sacrificing 145 modeling capability. It is used as the learnable polygon initializer under the active contour model. 146 It also simplify the iterative updating with an one-step refiner. (iii) The proposed method obtains 147 state-of-the-art performance in MS-COCO compared with the prior art of contour-based instance 148 segmentation. It also analyzes the upper bound performance of the proposed method with some 149 interesting observations.

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2 Method

In this section, we present details of our PolygonAlign (Fig. 2) and our polygon parameterization
method (Fig. 3). Then we present the integration between our polygon-based instance segmentation
module and a state of the art object detection pipeline, the Sparse R-CNN method (Sun et al., 2021a).

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2.1 POLYGONALIGN

We are motivated by the simplicity and expressivity of bit-mask (region-based) instance segmentation setting in which both predicted masks and target ground-truth masks are consistently kept at a predefined canonical resolution (e.g., a 14×14 grid based on RoIAlign in the Mask R-CNN (He et al., 162 2017)) to facilitate simple pixel-wise cross-entropy loss functions used in end-to-end training, see 163 Fig. 1. We aim to realize this in polygon-based instance segmentation. What would be the intuitive 164 counterpart, **PolygonAlign**? While spatial resolution is the defining factor for aligning bit-masks / 165 regions, the number of vertices is that for polygons. So, we focus on a fixed topology, i.e., the number 166 of polygon vertices, denoted by K (a hyperparameter in learning), is predefined and fixed in both training and inference. The number of vertices of predicted polygons can be easily controlled through 167 the network design based on the hyperparameter setting. Then we are facing the problem of aligning 168 always-K-vertex predicted polygons with varying-L-vertex target ground-truth polygons, where Lvaries significantly from instance to instance? Our proposed PolygonAlign is simple yet effective 170 with two steps as follows, 171

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We first re-sample vertices for ground-truth polygons from the labeled L ones to the needed K ones in training. As illustrated in Fig. 2, the proposed vertex re-sampling is a uniform sampling strategy based on the contour-length-fraction (CLF) to best preserve the geometry of polygons with the sampled discrete vertices. Our CLF mapping creates a map S : ℝ → ℝ². The map S takes us from the space of contour-length-fractions, [0, 1] onto ℝ² where the polygon vertices are defined. For example, this map can answer the question: *Given a fixed start point in the polygon, what is the endpoint that would form an arc that is* 10% of the length of the polygon?

• After aligning the number of vertices between predicted polygons and ground-truth polygons, we 181 need to maintain a consistent vertex-to-vertex order between them. Unlike the bit-mask modeling scheme in which the labels in the ground-truth mask are pixel-wise and dense, and the pixel-to-pixel 182 alignment is already determined once the resolution is aligned. For two K-vertex polygons, the 183 vertex-to-vertex assignment/correspondence is not fixed and subject to the design in learning. For simplicity, we keep a consistent order of the re-sampled K vertices as illustrated in Fig. 2: The 185 first and last vertices are the same, i.e., the intersection point between the polygon and the x-axis, 186 and then a counter-clockwise order is adopted. With this setting, it is still non-trival to induce the 187 same order for vertices of predicted polygons, e.g., based on their natural output entry order in 188 the computation. To address this issue, we propose the affine transformation decoupled polygon 189 parameterization method (elaborated below), which eliminates the need of introducing a certain 190 sophisticated dynamic vertex matching component in learning in the prior art.

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192 Advantages of Our Proposed PolygonAlign. Our PolygonAlign via CLF-based vertex sampling 193 enables expressing complex polygons including those with concave and non-star-convex shapes, and 194 even self-intersected ones, since we directly focus on polygon edges. Those types of polygons can not 195 be accurately captured by star-convex structures used in PolarMask (Xie et al., 2020; 2021). Based on 196 the vertex sampling and sorting, we resolve the vertex correspondence between predicted polygons 197 and target ground-truth ones, which are consistent across all instances and throughout the learning, facilitating more stable optimization in training and better overall performance. This correspondence 198 is often not utilized in the deep learning variants of active contour models. Instead, they usually need 199 sophisticated designs in finding the correspondence for vertices of a predicted polygon on the fly 200 as done in (Zhang et al., 2022). Unlike our PolygonAlign, DeepSnake's extreme point alignment 201 scheme (Peng et al., 2020) creates an order that is highly discontinuous with respect to the contour 202 of the polygon. Even small alterations to the contour can drastically change the alignment of the 203 extreme points. The extreme point alignment method either down-samples or up-samples the polygon 204 vertices without guaranteeing uniform distribution along the entire contour. For example, if the 205 polygon already has the desired number of vertices, it will not be resampled, potentially leading to 206 non-uniform spacing. If the ground truth polygon has too many vertices, vertices from the longest 207 edges will just be removed. When adding new vertices, they are distributed evenly across their target 208 edge, but this does not mean uniformity across the whole polygon. This also does not provide any instruction for alignment as our CLF does. 209

PolygonAlign Enables Simple Vertex ℓ_2 Loss. With the proposed PolygonAlign, denote by $V_{K\times 2}$ a predicted polygon, and by $V_{K\times 2}^*$ the target re-sampled ground-truth polygon, with their vertex-tovertex correspondences being the natural row indices. In learning, we use the simple mean squared error (i.e., l-2 norm) as the loss function,

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$$\ell(\mathbf{V}_{K\times 2}, \mathbf{V}_{K\times 2}^*) = \frac{1}{K} \|\mathbf{V}_{K\times 2} - \mathbf{V}_{K\times 2}^*\|_2.$$
(1)

To sum up, the proposed PolygonAlign method enables a simple formulation for end-to-end polygon based instance segmentation, playing a role similar in spirit to the RoIAlign method used in the Mask
 R-CNN for bit-mask based instance segmentation.

2.2 THE PROPOSED DIFFERENTIABLE POLYGON-BASED INSTANCE SEGMENTATION

The proposed method is a variant of the classic active contour or snake model (Kass et al., 1988) consisting of a learnable initializer and an one-step refiner, as illustrated in Fig. 3.

2.2.1 PARAMETERIZING POLYGONS VIA AFFINE TRANSFORMATION DECOUPLED VERTEX DISPLACEMENT REGRESSION

Without loss of generality, let $\mathbf{F}_C \in \mathbb{R}^C$ be the *C*-dim feature vector extracted from a feature backbone based on an object detection bounding box or an object detection center point. Our goal is to predict a *K*-vertex polygon (as the initialization) from \mathbf{F}_C using a regression formulation,

$$\mathbf{V}_{K\times 2} = f(\mathbf{F}_C; \theta),\tag{2}$$

where θ collects the model parameters.

A straightforward method is to directly regress the vertex relative positions (i.e., offset vectors as shown by the center-vertex line segments in red in the right of Fig. 2) with respect to the position where \mathbf{F}_C is computed. Due to the vertex correspondences assumption used in our PolygonAlign (Sec. 2.1), the direct regression method can not handle well the large variations of object pose, scale, and viewpoints, etc. in two-fold as follows.

238 Affine Transformation Decoupled Vertex Offset Regression. Consider a standing upright person 239 and a laying-down person in an image, the PolygonAligh re-sampled and ordered vertices of their 240 annotated polygons are actually not geometrically aligned. This "misalignment" is not known to 241 the segmentation method which presumably uses the defined vertex correspondences. A simple 242 solution is to allow the predicted vertices to learn to rotate to counter the "misalignment" on the fly. 243 Furthermore, the anchor position of \mathbf{F}_{C} can not be guaranteed to be sufficiently close to the true 244 polygon center due to the fact that the object detection performance itself is bounded. This scenario is 245 especially true in the early stages of the end-to-end training. So, we have the "misdisplacement" issue 246 which is shared by all vertices and unknown to the segmentation method. A simple compensation is to allow the segmentation method to learn to re-place the anchor on the fly. 247

So, to address the above two issues, we present *an affine transformation decoupled vertex offset regression method*, as illustrated in Fig. 3. From the input \mathbf{F}_C , we learn,

- Rotation: $\mathbb{R}_{2\times 2} = f_{\mathbb{R}}(\mathbf{F}_C; \theta_{\mathbb{R}}),$ (3)
- Translation: $\mathbb{T}_{1\times 2} = f_{\mathbb{T}}(\mathbf{F}_C; \theta_{\mathbb{T}}),$ (4)

Vertex Offset:
$$\mathbb{L}_{K \times 2} = f_{\mathbb{L}}(\mathbf{F}_C; \theta_{\mathbb{L}}),$$
 (5)

where $f_{\mathbb{R}}(), f_{\mathbb{T}}$ and $f_{\mathbb{L}}()$ are implemented using Multi-Layer Perceptrons (MLPs) for simplicity, and $\theta = (\theta_{\mathbb{R}}, \theta_{\mathbb{T}}, \theta_{\mathbb{L}})$ the model parameters of those MLPs. Then we predict the vertex positions (i.e., the initialization of the polygon) by,

$$\mathcal{V}_{K\times 2} = \mathbb{L}_{K\times 2} \cdot \mathbb{R}_{2\times 2} + \mathbb{T}_{1\times 2},\tag{6}$$

where the translation vector is broadcasted to all vertices in the addition.

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2.2.2 REFINING POLYGON PREDICTION VIA ONE-STEP VERTEX-GUIDED DEFORMATION

The above polygon initializer (Eqn. 6) focuses on all vertices, trying to do the best for predicting all of them at once by sharing the same input feature \mathbf{F}_C (which itself is a holistic description, e.g., based on RoIAlign), the affine transformation, and the hidden layers in the vertex offset MLP. However, not all the vertices have the same difficulty in prediction. The initializer may over-shoot or under-shoot some vertices. A refinement module is entailed.

From the theory of the active contour model (Kass et al., 1988), we know that iterative updating / evolving with respect to some energy / loss functions plays an important role in finalizing the polygon prediction. On the other hand, we can learn from the success of bit-mask modeling in



Figure 4: Examples of direct polygon fitting: ground truth polygons are shown in red and predicted polygons are in blue.

which pixel-wise (location sensitive) loss functions are used, and coarse mask guided point-based refinement has also found useful such as the PointRend method (Sitzmann et al., 2020). *The proposed polygon initializer can thus be improved in two aspects: using vertex-specific features and inducing interactions (or message passing) between vertices.* Our goal is to minimize the refining steps using one-step vertex-aware deformation to maintain the simplicity of the proposed polygon-based instance segmentation model.

Based on the initialized vertices $\mathbb{V}_{K\times 2}$, we extract features for each vertex from the feature backbone via the grid sample method, denoted by $\mathbb{F}_{K\times D}$. We then utilize the 1D circular convolution (Peng et al., 2020) to enforce interactions between vertices in learning the offsets. We have,

$$\Delta \mathbb{V}_{K \times 2} = f_{refine}(\mathbb{F}_{K \times D}; \theta_{refine}). \tag{7}$$

The final predicted polygon is computed by,

$$\mathbf{V}_{K\times 2} = \mathbb{V}_{K\times 2} + \Delta \mathbb{V}_{K\times 2},\tag{8}$$

which is used in the loss computation (Eqn. 1).

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3 EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we first design direct polygon fitting experiments to show the empirical upper bound performance of the proposed method, which sheds light on a few very interesting directions and encourages further research on differentiable polygon modeling. We then show results on the MS-COCO 2017 benchmark (Lin et al., 2014) and compare with the prior art of contour-based instance segmentation. Our method obtains state-of-the-art performance. We also show ablations studies on several aspects of the proposed method. Our PyTorch source code will be publicly available.

309 3.1 Empirical Upper Bound Performance

We aim to study the empirical upper bound performance of our proposed polygon parameterization, i.e., the initializer itself. We ask the question: Is there a latent feature space of \mathbf{F}_C (Eqns. 3,4,5) for our proposed polygon model to reach very high performance, and how high could it be? Our direct fitting experiments show that the proposed polygon parameterization method can reach very high performance, indicating its underlying effectiveness.

Experiment I: Direct Polygon Fitting by Jointly Optimizing the Input \mathbf{F}_C and the Polygon Model. We use a set of 5000 polygons randomly sampled from the MS-COCO train set. We jointly train the input feature vectors representing each polygon $\mathbf{F}_C \in \mathbb{R}^{5000 \times C}$ (C = 256, as model parameters) and the polygon initializer for 300 iterations using the full batch based optimization. We performed the AP evaluation on the same set of 5000 polygons used in training since this experiment involves optimizing a sample-specific polygon query directly.

For the models with the number of vertices K = 50, 120, 250, their APs are: 83.2%, 82.5% and 81.9%, respectively. These results clearly show the learnability and modeling capability of the proposed polygon parameterization. Fig. 4 shows some examples.

324 Experiment II: Fitting Polygons in an Alternative Polygon Latent Feature Space. In Experiment 325 I, the latent feature space \mathbf{F}_C is directly optimized without any explicit constraints, which may be 326 too difficult to be transported from the raw image space. In this experiment, we define an alternative 327 polygon latent space that is learned from input bit-masks of polygons using an encoder network. We 328 jointly train the encoder network and the polygon model. We use the same set of 5000 polygons as in Experiment I. We use the mini-batch size of 32 and train 300 epochs.

330 To evaluate this experiment, we used a validation set of 5000 polygons, all randomly selected from 331 the MS-COCO val set and unseen during training. For the models with the number of vertices 332 K = 50, 120, 250, their APs are: 81.9%, 82.7% and 83.8%, respectively.

333 Although the inputs to this experiment are ground-truth bit-mask representation of a shape, converting 334 them to a polygon representation remains a nontrivial task, this experiment verifies that there is 335 a constrained polygon latent feature space, alternative to the directly optimized one, which also 336 supports high-performing polygon based instance segmentation using our parameterization.

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3.2 INSTANCE SEGMENTATION IN MS-COCO

340 Data and Metrics. The MS-COCO instance segmentation benchmark (Lin et al., 2014) is one of the 341 challenging and large-scale datasets aiming for instance segmentation in the wild. It contains 115k 342 training, 5k validation, and 20k testing images with 80 object categories. We use the MS-COCO provided evaluation protocol in the evaluation. We train our models end-to-end on the train set. 343 We compare with the prior art on the test-dev 2017 set. We do ablation studies using the val 344 2017 set. 345

346 Settings. We choose the Sparse R-CNN pipeline in our experiments, which is one state-of-the-art 347 fully end-to-end object detection pipelines. Following the DETR framework (Carion et al., 2020), Sparse R-CNN (Sun et al., 2021b) also exploits a query-based design for end-to-end object detection 348 with a set prediction formulation. We use implement our model using the mmdetection (Chen et al., 349 2019) PyTorch package which provides an off-the-shelf implementation for the Sparse R-CNN (Sun 350 et al., 2021a). 351

352 For the polygon initializer (Fig. 3): D = 256, h = w = 14, so the RoI features are in $\mathbb{R}^{256 \times 14 \times 14}$ 353 (see Fig. 1). We set C = 64, so the input feature vector $\mathbf{F}_C \in \mathbb{R}^{64}$.

• The polygon initializer first reduces the RoI feature dimension from 256 to 8 and then flattens the RoI, resulting in features in \mathbb{R}^{2048} (2048 = 14 × 14 × 8).

- It then applies a MLP consisting of 4 hidden layers of dimensions (1024, 1024, 512, 512) using the ELU activation function, and the output layer of dimension C = 64. The vertex offset MLP 358 (Eqn. 5) consists of 3 hidden layers of dimensions (2C, 3C, 4C) using the ELU activiton function, 359 and the output layer of dimension (K - 1) * 2 (where K is the number of vertices).
- The affine transformation MLP (Eqns. 3, 4) consists of 3 hidden layers of dimensions 361 (256, 256, 256) using the ELU activiton function, and the output layer of dimension 6. For the 362 refiner (Eqn. 7), the input $\mathbb{F}_{K \times D}$ is extracted from the feature backbone using grid sample based on the predicted initial polygon. The refiner consists of 4 layers of circular 1D convolution using 364 the kernel size 3 and the GELU activation function, with dimensions (512, 512, 256, 256), and the 365 output layer computes the updated vertex offset. 366
- 367 We use two backbones, ResNet-50 and ResNet-101 (He et al., 2016), both of them are pretrained on 368 ImageNet (Deng et al., 2009). We use 100 queries in the Sparse R-CNN and its vanilla object detection 369 average precision (AP) on MS-COCO val set is 37.9 in the mmdetection, which is improved after the integration of our polygon model (see Sec. 3.3). We utilize the AdamW optimizer with the initial 370 learning rate 0.001 and weight decay 0.001. The learning rate for the pretrained feature backbones 371 is decreased by a multiplier 0.1. We use the basic data augmentation (resizing to (1333, 800) by 372 keeping the aspect ratio and random left-right flipping). We train our model with both 12 epochs (i.e., 373 the 1x schedule) and 24 epochs (i.e., the 2x schedule). 374
- 375 **Results.** Table 1 shows the performance comparison on the MS-COCO test-dev set. Our method obtains the best instance segmentation performance compared to the prior art of contour-376 based modeling. With the same feature backbone and training epochs, our method outperforms 377 PolarMask++ (Xie et al., 2021) by 1.4%. Compared with E2EC (Zhang et al., 2022) which utilizes a

378	Table 1: Performance comparison with the prior art of contour-based instance segmentation on the
379	MS-COCO test-dev set. "+MS" in PolySnake represents the multi-scale contour refinement
380	module.

Method	Venue	Backbone	Epochs	AP	AP_{50}	AP_{75}
PolarMask (Xie et al., 2020)	CVPR'20	Res-101	24	32.1	53.7	33.1
PolarMask++ (Xie et al., 2021)	TPAMI'21	Res-101	24	33.8	57.5	34.6
DeepSnake (Peng et al., 2020)	CVPR'20	DLA-34	160	30.3	-	-
E2EC (Zhang et al., 2022)	CVPR'22	DLA34	140	33.8	52.9	35.9
PolySnake (Feng et al., 2023) / +MS	arXiv'23	DLA34	250	34.5 / 34.9	-	-
		Res-50	12	32.1	54.2	33.1
Ours		Res-50	24	33.3	55.7	34.4
Ours	-	Res-101	12	33.2	55.9	34.3
		Res-101	24	35.2	58.4	36.7



Figure 5: Qualitative comparison of contour-based instance segmentation on the MS-COCO *val* set
between our method, PolarMask++ (Xie et al., 2021) and E2EC (Zhang et al., 2022). The results of
PolarMask++ and E2EC are visualized using their released model checkpoints and codes. Compared
to E2EC in the 1st row, our method shows smoother boundaries. In the 2nd row, the legs of the
baseball player segmented by our method exhibit better refinement and representation compared to
PolarMask++.

learnable initializer and a more sophisticated global and local deformation updating strategy, and is
 trained with much longer epochs (140 vs 24), our method increases the AP by 1.4% too. Compared
 with a most recent preprint work on arXiv, PolySnake (Feng et al., 2023) which uses an even more

sophisticated design of the updating (which may lead to the even longer training epochs, 250 vs 24),
including a multi-scale refinement module, our method also obtains better performance. Fig. 5 shows
qualitative comparison between different method. Overall, our method shows more faithful polygon
predictions compared with PolarMask++ (e.g., the person in the 2nd row), and smoother polygon
predictions than E2EC2 (e.g., the Teddy bear in the 1st row).

438 3.3 ABLATION STUDIES

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We conduct two ablation studies on the MS-COO val set using the Res-50 backbone and the 12-epoch schedule.

442 The effect of learning the affine transformation in our

polygon parameterization. As discussed in Sec. 2.2.1,
we propose to decouple the affine transformation from the
vertex displacement regression to help the network to better cooperate with our proposed PolygonAlign resampling.
Table 2 shows the comparison. The affine transformation
shows positive effects albeit not very significant.

Table 2: Ablation study on the affine transformation.

#Vert., K	Affine Trans.	AP _{Det}	AP	AP ₅₀	AP ₇₅
250	X	40.5	31.5	53.3	32.2
250	1	40.6	31.8	53.6	32.7

The number of vertices in PolygonAlign. We keep the number of vertices sufficiently large (K = 250) in our main experiments to ensure the expressivity based on our intuitive thoughts.

Table 3 shows the comparison.

452 Although the model with K =453 250 obtains the best instance seg-454 mentation performance, we see 455 that the model with K = 50 is 456 better than the model with K =457 120. We first hypothesize that it

Table 3: Ablation study on the number of vertices.

#Vert., K	Aux.	Affine Trans.	AP_{Det}	AP	AP ₅₀	AP ₇₅	Vert. Resampling Quality
50	1	1	40.7	31.6	53.5	32.5	96.50
120	1	1	40.3	31.4	52.9	32.2	96.81
250	1	1	40.6	31.8	53.6	32.7	96.82

may be caused by a caveat in our uniform CLF-based vertex re-sampling (Fig. 2): Its uniformity 458 can not guarantee to cover all the original annotated vertices very faithfully in the re-sampling when 459 the number of re-sampling vertices is not sufficient large. But it turns out that this not the case. We 460 compute the AP between the re-sampled polygons and the original annotated polygons as the vertex 461 re-sampling quality. The last column in Table 3 shows that there is no obvious differences. Then it 462 might be related to the difficulty of the optimization, e.g., a 120-vertex polygon predictor might just 463 be unlucky and get stuck in the wrong optimization path purely due to the change in optimization 464 landscape between different vertices. We note that this also could be simply caused by the common 465 performance variations due to different training noises since we compare them using just one round 466 of experiments. We leave a more comprehensive ablation study for the future work.

3.4 LIMITATIONS

One main limitation lies in the performance gap between the empirical upper bound and the performance evaluated in the MS-COCO test benchmark, which means there are a lot room for improvement in terms of integration designs and optimization strategies. Both experiments in Sec. 3.1 indicate that pushing the performance boundary of polygon / contour based instance segmentation entails careful rethinking on the design of feature backbones which have been mostly studied under the hood of bit-mask based modeling. One potential solution is to leverage powerful pretrained backbones such as the Segment Anything Model (SAM) (Kirillov et al., 2023) together with parameter-efficient fine-tuning methods such as Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA) (Hu et al., 2022).

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4 RELATED WORK

In this section, we briefly summarize the related work on instance segmentation (please see (Sharma et al., 2022) and (Minaee et al., 2021) for recent comprehensive surveys).

Bit-Mask Modeling for Instance Segmentation. The bit-mask (region-based) modeling scheme is the current state-of-the-art method in object instance segmentation, with tremendous progress achieved. Popular methods include two-stage detect-then-segment pipelines such as the Mask R-CNN (He et al., 2017), the Path Aggregation Networks (PANets) (Liu et al., 2018), the PointRend (Kir-

486 illov et al., 2020), and the more recent query-based designs, e.g., the Query2Instance (Fang 487 et al., 2021), and single-stage anchor-free mask-prototype-assembling pipelines such as the 488 YOLACT (Bolya et al., 2019) and the BlendMask (Chen et al., 2020), to just name a few. Our 489 motivation in this paper is how to exploit the simplicity of designing differential loss functions with 490 bit-mask based models into polygon-based modeling pipelines. To that end, we realize two aspects: i) The alignment are straightforward between predicted bit-masks and target ground-truth ones, which 491 enables using dense pixel-wise differentiable loss functions. The alignment needs to be carefully 492 handled between predicted and target polygons. ii) The predicted bit-masks are of the same 2D spatial 493 structures as the ground-truth ones. The predicted polygon is essentially a chain of vertices without 494 an embedded order of vertices that are aware of geometric variations of ground-truth polygons. We 495 address the two aspects by proposing simple solutions. 496

Contour Modeling for Instance Segmentation. In general, comparing two polygons of different 497 topologies remains an open problem. For example, to calculate the typical metric to gauge how 498 similar two polygons A and B are using the Intersection-over-Union (IoU), we would first have to 499 generate two new polygons from them, the union $A \cup B$ and the intersection $A \cap B$. The calculation 500 of $A \cup B$ and $A \cap B$ itself is non-trivial. To calculate $A \cup B$ one would have to resort to "polygon" 501 clipping" algorithms such as the Sutherland-Hodgman algorithm (Sutherland & Hodgman, 1974). 502 Since these algorithms are typically non-differentiable or inefficient for the purposes of training a 503 model, a surrogate loss has to be created to be able to create an efficient differentiable metric in 504 traning. To this end, methods such as differentiable rendering (Kato et al., 2018; Loper & Black, 2014) 505 are used to create a pixel-wise mask from a polygon in a differentiable manner, once a pixel-wise 506 mask is created a typical loss such as the DICE loss (Pan et al., 2019) or binary cross-entropy can 507 be used and backpropagated to the polygon parameters through the differentiable rendering step as done in (Gur et al., 2019) which integrates the Active Contour or Snake Model (Kass et al., 1988) 508 and differentiable rendering. Those methods have mainly been studied for building segmentation and 509 in medical imaging, where polygons to be segmented are of relatively simple structures. 510

511 To eliminate the need of differentiable rendering. Other work focus on developing loss functions that 512 do not rely on polygon-to-pixel-wise-mask conversions by designing alternative parameterization 513 for polygons. In PolarMasks (Xie et al., 2020; 2021) and LSNets (Duan et al., 2021) a polygon is re-represented as polar coordinates at discrete and fixed sampling angles using a star-convex structure. 514 In implementation, they use center-offset based regression, directly regressing the positions of vertices 515 based on the features extracted at the center. To further leverage vertex-specific features for better 516 vertex position regression, different variants of the active contour model (Kass et al., 1988) have been 517 proposed (Ling et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022; 518 Feng et al., 2023) with different methods used for contour initialization and iterative updating. The 519 contour initialization are heuristic in (Ling et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2020; Liu et al., 520 2021), and learnable in (Zhang et al., 2022; Feng et al., 2023). In the iterative updating, predefined 521 and fixed vertex correspondences between predicted polygons and target ground-truth ones are used 522 in (Ling et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021). Dynamic matching based on 523 the Douglas-Peucker algorithm (Douglas & Peucker, 1973) is used in (Zhang et al., 2022). In (Feng 524 et al., 2023), multi-scale refinement is used with multi-stage training and many different loss terms in a sophisticated design. Compared with the prior art, both the proposed PolygonAlign method and the 525 affine transformation decoupled polygon parameterization are novel, and much simpler. 526

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5 CONCLUSION

530 This paper proposes a method of differentiable polygon modeling for object instance segmentation 531 under the active contour / snake modeling framework. It addresses two modeling problems. It presents 532 the PolygonAlign that utilizes a contour-length-fraction (CLF) based vertex re-sampling strategy for 533 aligning always-K-vertex predicted polygons and varying-L-vertex target ground-truth polygon using 534 a simple l-2 norm in learning. It also presents the affine transformation decoupled vertex displacement regression method for polygon parameterization that cooperates with the PolygonAlign. The proposed 536 method is tested in MS-COCO instance segmentation benchmark with state-of-the-art performance 537 obtained compared with the prior art of contour-based instance segmentation. Different aspects of the proposed method are analyzed. The empirical upper bound performance of the proposed method is 538 investigated using to direct polygon fitting experiments, from which some interesting observations are made, encouraging further research on differentiable polygon modeling.

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