DNOD: Deformable Neural Operators for Object Detection in SAR Images

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Abstract

We introduce a deep neural operator framework aimed at object detection in remotely sensed Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) images. Recent research highlights the impressive performance of the End-to-End Object Detection Transformer (DETR). Nonetheless, in domains like SAR imaging, managing challenges such as speckle noise and the detection of small objects continues to be problematic. To address SAR object detection issues, we present the Deformable Neural Operator-Based Object Detection (DNOD) framework, tailored for SAR tasks. We develop two neural operators: Multi-Scale Fourier Mixing (MSFM) for the encoder and Multi-scale, multi-input Adaptive Deformable Fourier Neural Operator (MADFNO) for the decoder. Detailed evaluations and ablation studies show that DNOD exceeds existing methods, delivering significantly better results with an improvement of **+2.23** mAP on the SARDet-100k dataset, the largest SAR object detection compilation.

1 Introduction

Neural operators, emerging from computational physics, have demonstrated significant success in solving Partial Differential Equations (Kovachki et al., 2023). Rooted in operator theory, these neural operators learn mappings between function spaces of infinite dimensions, achieving notable success in numerous applications while inherently maintaining discretization invariance. Neural operators comprise three fundamental parts: (1) a lifting module, (2) an iterative kernel integral module, and (3) a projection module. Kernel integrals are operations within the spatial domain that ascertain global interdependencies crucial for learning a PDE's solution function. Based on different forms of kernel integral computation, different neural operators such as Fourier Neural Operator (Li et al., 2020c), Graph Neural Operator (Li et al., 2020d), and Adaptive Fourier Neural Operator (Guibas et al., 2021) have been proposed. In a specific context, the attention mechanism utilized within transformers can be seen as a special case of kernel integral operations (Kovachki et al., 2023). Recently, neural operators have demonstrated superior performance in computer vision applications such as super-resolution (Wei & Zhang, 2023; Liu & Tang, 2025), Inpainting (Guibas et al., 2021). However, neural operators have not been employed for the task of object detection in Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) imagery, a gap this paper addresses.

SAR is an advanced active microwave sensing technology capable of acquiring high-resolution images regardless of weather conditions, illumination, or time of day (Tirandaz et al., 2020; Brown, 1967; Moreira et al., 2013). SAR images can provide much more useful information and be effective in military reconnaissance, marine surveillance, port management, and disaster response applications (Guan et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2022a; Chen et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2022b). As modern satellites provide increasingly accessible high-resolution, large-scale SAR images, the demand for sophisticated methods to effectively process large data volumes has increased. Consequently, the precise detection of targets from complex terrestrial environments using SAR images is of great practical importance (Sharifzadeh et al., 2019).

Numerous SAR object detection methods have been proposed, from traditional methods (Nitzberg, 2007; Migliaccio et al., 2012) to CNN-based methods (Gao et al., 2021). In recent developments, transformers have been introduced for object detection, explicitly known as DETR (Detection Transformers; (Carion et al., 2020)), and have shown superior performance compared to traditional hand-crafted feature engineering

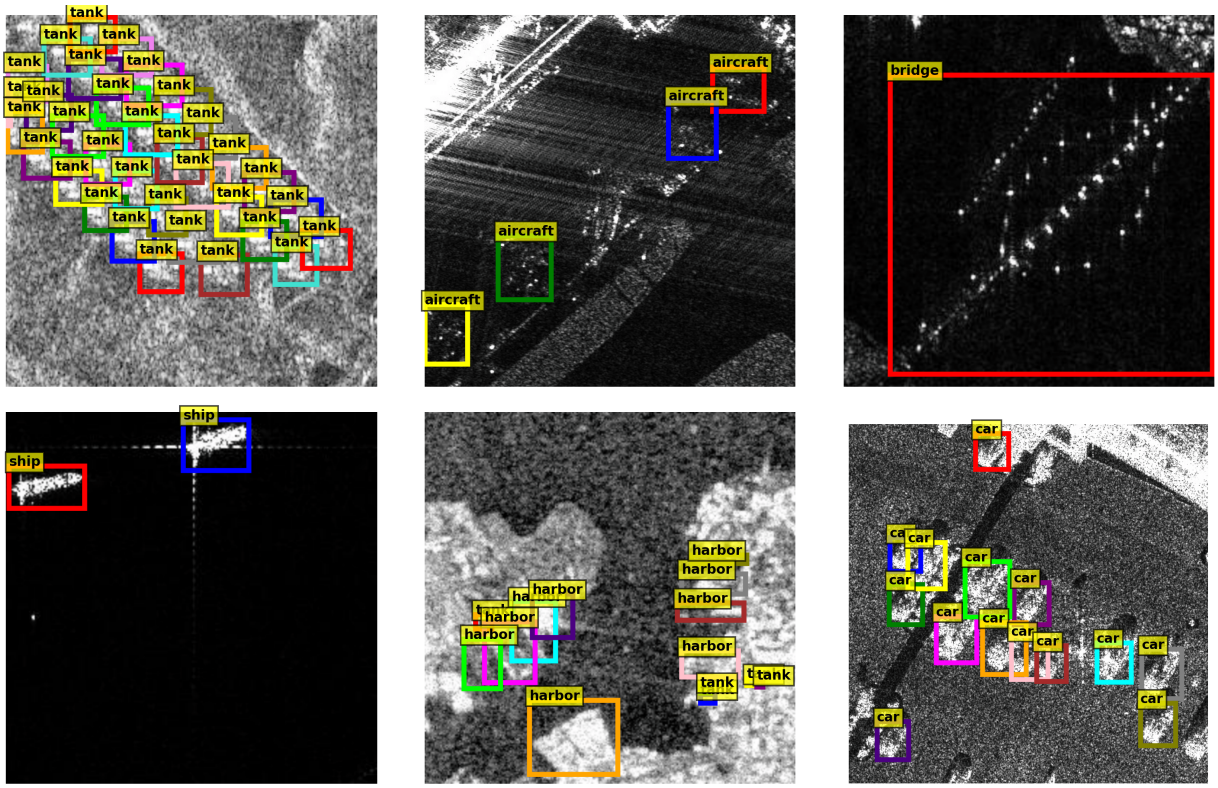


Figure 1: SAR images from the SARDET100k dataset illustrating six object classes: tank, aircraft, bridge, ship, harbor, and car. Each image highlights instances of a specific class using bounding boxes.

methods. Various iterations and modifications of DETR, such as Deformable DETR and DAB DETR, have exhibited outstanding results in the field of object detection, further enhancing their effectiveness and application (Zhu et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022a; Zhao et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2023a; Lin et al., 2023b; Meng et al., 2021). Even with the advent and introduction of multiple variants of the DETR model, its effectiveness in SAR images has been less than satisfactory (Dai et al., 2024). There have been different challenges associated with SAR images, specifically *(i)* speckle noise interference (Yue et al., 2020); and *(ii)* small target challenges (Wan et al., 2021). Given the DETR framework's notable success in object detection, attributed to its foundation on the transformer architecture, it is feasible to integrate neural operator architecture into the DETR framework specifically for executing SAR object detection tasks.

This paper presents the Deformable Neural Operator for object Detection (DNOD) in SAR images. DNOD is trained and evaluated on the COCO-level large-scale multi-class SAR object detection dataset, SARDet-100k (Li et al., 2024b). For an illustrative example of the diversity of the dataset, refer to Figure 1. Our methodology employs neural operator architecture within the framework of End-to-End Object Detection using transformers (DETR). We introduce two architectural components drawn from neural operator concepts: *(i)* The Multi-Scale Fourier Mixing (MSFM) Encoder and *(ii)* The Multi-Scale Adaptive Deformable Fourier Neural Operator (MADFNO) Decoder. There are two main advantages of using neural operators for SAR object detection: *(i)* Fourier component in the neural operator will reduce the effect of speckle noise in SAR images; and *(ii)* the discretization invariance property of the neural operator will reduce challenges related to small targets.

In summary, our main contributions are as follows.

1. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work to introduce neural operators for object detection applications.

2. We develop two novel architectural components, MSFM and MADFNO, specifically designed to enhance object detection performance in SAR imagery.

3. We integrate our proposed neural operators within the DETR framework to achieve effective SAR object detection.

4. Through comprehensive empirical evaluation, we demonstrate that our method achieves SoTA performance for SAR object detection compared to existing object detection techniques.

2 Related Work

CNN-based methods: Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) have become particularly successful in computer vision tasks. R-CNN is the breakthrough method that effectively integrated CNNs with region proposals for object detection (Girshick et al., 2014). Advancements include Fast R-CNN (Girshick, 2015), which employs single-stage training with a multi-task loss, and Faster R-CNN (Ren et al., 2015), which integrates the region proposal network for a streamlined end-to-end approach. RetinaNet (Lin et al., 2017) introduced focal loss for effective dense object detection, while (Tian et al., 2019) advanced these approaches using anchor- and proposal-free strategies within a per-pixel framework. Further studies have suggested new training techniques and objectives to improve object detection (Li et al., 2020a; Zhang et al., 2020b; 2021a; Zhu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020b). An alternative line of investigation, as demonstrated by YOLO (Redmon et al., 2016), approaches object detection through a one-step process for the prediction of bounding boxes. Its popularity was driven by its efficiency in real-time applications. Various developments, such as (Chen et al., 2021a) and (Ge et al., 2021), have been built on the YOLO framework.

DETRs: With the recent success of transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017) in language modeling, a new paradigm has emerged in object detection, namely DETRs (Carion et al., 2020), which opened new possibilities for integrating encoder-decoder frameworks into object detection tasks. Although this work was not state-of-the-art at the time and suffered from slower convergence problems, it established a new pathway for the field. Subsequently, several works have improved the DETR framework for improved performance and efficiency. Conditional DETR (Meng et al., 2021) introduced a conditional spatial query technique for the decoder, which addressed the convergence problem in DETR. Inspired by deformable convolutions (Dai et al., 2017) in computer vision, Deformable DETR introduced multi-scale deformable attention-based encoders and decoders for improved convergence and spatial resolution. DAB-DETR (Liu et al., 2022a) employed a different query formulation using dynamic anchor boxes. DINO (Zhang et al., 2023a) combined approaches from Zhu et al. (2021) and Liu et al. (2022a), further incorporating denoising queries with a contrastive denoising strategy, achieving superior performance compared to previous models. Various research initiatives, such as Zhao et al. (2024); Lin et al. (2023b); Zang et al. (2022); Li et al. (2023a); Chen et al. (2023); Dai et al. (2021), among others, have proposed several modifications to the initial DETR model.

SAR Object detection: In the literature, SAR object detectors are predominantly developed by adapting current state-of-the-art object detection frameworks. Specifically, two-stage approaches, such as Kang et al. (2017), implement modified R-CNN architectures for object detection in SAR imagery. A variety of faster R-CNN adaptations have been presented (Li et al., 2017; 2020b), alongside methodologies derived from RetinaNet (Miao et al., 2022). The Dense Attention Pyramid Networks utilized by DAPN (Cui et al., 2019) facilitated the detection of objects at multiple scales. The LMSD-YOLO framework (Guo et al., 2022) was enhanced with depthwise separable convolutions, batch normalization, and ACON activation functions. YOLO-FA (Zhang et al., 2023b) introduced frequency-adaptive learning components into the YOLO architecture. In line with the advances of DETR in general computer vision, numerous variants of DETR tailored for object detection have emerged in SAR images (Zhang et al., 2024; Feng et al., 2023).

Another direction of research has introduced novel methodologies specifically tailored for object detection in SAR images. Li et al. (2024a) proposed space-frequency selection convolution layers specifically designed for SAR object detection. Li et al. (2024b) developed a Multi-Stage with Filter Augmentation (MSFA) pretraining framework for SAR object detection that adapted existing state-of-the-art methods for SAR applications. DenoDet (Dai et al., 2024) employed a dynamic frequency domain attention module that

performs soft thresholding operations in a transformed domain to enhance object detection performance under high speckle noise conditions.

Neural Operators: Neural operators (Kovachki et al., 2023) differ from conventional neural networks by learning mappings from functions to functions. Initially proposed for PDE solutions, they have subsequently been applied in computer vision tasks. Super Resolution Neural Operator (SRNO) (Wei & Zhang, 2023) introduces a neural operator for computer vision tasks. Later, (Guibas et al., 2021) proposed efficient token mixing for transformers to improve vision transformers. Very recently DiffFNO (Liu & Tang, 2025) integrated diffusion models with neural operators and achieved SoTA results in super resolution.

Inspired by recent success of neural operators in computer vision, we introduce a new methodology for object detection in the DETR framework, utilizing a neural operator approach for SAR object detection with SoTA performance, as well as promising future prospects and potential.

3 Preliminaries

In this section, we discuss the background of End-to-End Object Detection Transformers (DETRs) and Neural Operators necessary to understand the development of our new DNOD model for SAR images.

3.1 DETRs

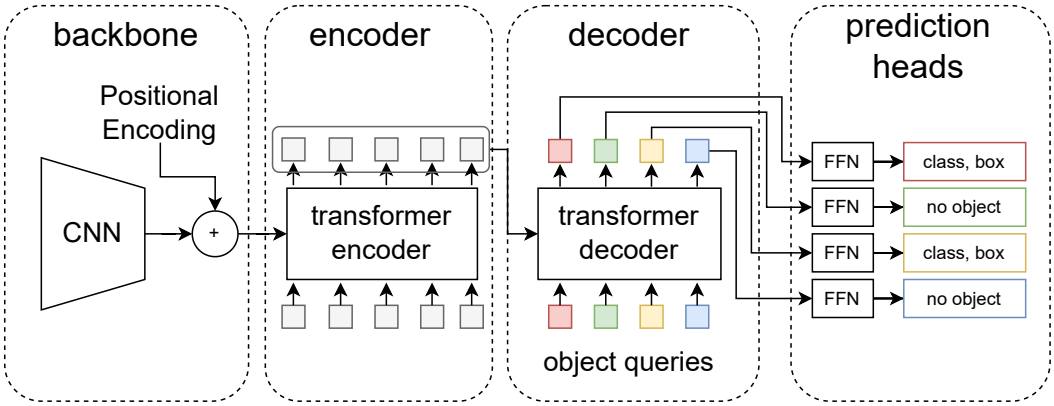


Figure 2: **Overview of the DETR framework:** DETR integrates a CNN backbone with a transformer encoder-decoder to perform object detection. The decoder's attention is directed by position-encoded features from encoder and object queries toward relevant image regions. The final class labels and bounding boxes are obtained through feed-forward networks.

DETRs, as initially introduced in (Carion et al., 2020), comprise a CNN backbone for feature extraction, followed by a transformer encoder and decoder (Figure 2). The backbone is typically ResNet-50 (He et al., 2016) pre-trained on ImageNet (Deng et al., 2009). The backbone takes an image I as input and outputs feature representations $F = \text{backbone}(I)$. Positional embeddings are added to these backbone features, and a 1×1 convolution layer reduces the channel dimension d before feeding into the encoder. The spatial dimensions H and W are flattened to create a $d \times HW$ feature map, where HW serves as the sequence length and d as the feature dimension for token mixing in the encoder layer. The encoder outputs refined features $X = \text{encoder}(F+\text{positional embedding})$, which serve as keys and values for the cross-attention mechanism in the decoder.

The decoder receives two inputs: (1) object queries Q_{init} that serve as queries, and (2) content from the encoder X that provides keys and values. Each decoder layer queries objects within the encoder content to produce final object queries $Q_{\text{final}} = \text{decoder}(X, Q_{\text{init}})$. These object queries are then passed to prediction heads—two fully connected networks (FFNs)—that output class probabilities C and bounding boxes B, respectively. The entire framework is trained end-to-end using a bipartite matching loss.

3.2 Neural Operator

Consider an operator $\mathcal{G}\colon \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{U}$ that acts between the function spaces $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{U}$. Neural operators are the parametric map $\mathcal{G}_\phi\colon \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{U}$ that approximates $\mathcal{G}$ and is learned from empirical data or physical principles. Formally, the parametrized neural operator can be expressed as

$$\mathcal{G}_\phi := \mathcal{Q} \circ \sigma(\mathcal{W}_T + \mathcal{K}_T + b_T) \circ \cdots \circ \sigma(\mathcal{W}_1 + \mathcal{K}_1 + b_1) \circ \mathcal{P}\,, \tag{1}$$

where, $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{Q}$ serve as the lifting and projection operators. The lifting operator raises the codomain to a higher-dimensional representation space, while the projection operator reduces the codomain to the output dimension. These operators are typically parameterized as multilayer perceptrons and act point-wise on functions. The function σ represents pointwise nonlinearity. Each layer $t = 1, ..., T$ includes a local operator $\mathcal{W}_t$ (usually parameterized by a point-wise neural network), a kernel integral operator $\mathcal{K}_t$, and a bias function b_t. Given an intermediate functional representation v_t with domain D in the t-th hidden layer, a kernel integral operator $\mathcal{K}_\phi$ is defined as

$$(\mathcal{K}_\phi v_t)(x) := \int_D \kappa_\phi(x, y, v_t(x), v_t(y)) v_t(y)\, \mathrm{dy}\,, \tag{2}$$

where the kernel κ_ϕ is a learnable neural network with parameter ϕ. Different neural operators (Equation 1) are defined on the basis of their kernel integrals (Equation 2). Each of these operator layers is expressed as $\{v_t\colon D_t \to \mathbb{R}^{d_{v_t}}\} \mapsto \{v_{t+1}\colon D_{t+1} \to \mathbb{R}^{d_{v_{t+1}}}\}$ using

$$v_{t+1}(x) = \sigma_{t+1}\left(W_t v_t(x) + \int_{D_t} \left(\kappa^{(t)}(x, y) v_t(y)\right)\, dv_t(y) + b_t(x)\right)\ \forall\, x \in D_{t+1}\,. \tag{3}$$

4 Methodology

Building on top of the DETR framework (Figure 2), we develop our DNOD model (Figure 3) by introducing two new neural operator architectural components: *(i)* The Multi-Scale Fourier Mixing (MSFM) Encoder (Sect. 4.1) and *(ii)* The Multi-Scale Adaptive Deformable Fourier Neural Operator (MADFNO) Decoder (Sect. 4.2). Our proposed neural operator modules are specifically designed to learn multi-scale feature maps that have been shown to benefit modern object detection frameworks (Liu et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2021).

4.1 Multi-Scale Fourier Mixing (MSFM Encoder)

Within the DETR framework, multiple encoders such as Vision Transformer (Carion et al., 2020) and Deformable Transformer (Zhu et al., 2021) are utilized. However, the coherent speckle noise in SAR images intermixed with features is difficult to segregate in the original image domain (Dai et al., 2024). Removal of noise before detection can result in missing crucial details for subsequent tasks, rendering it an ill-posed problem (Sun et al., 2022), thus necessitating an architecture adept at handling noisy features. We introduce a neural operator framework, named Multi-Scale Fourier Mixing (MSFM), adept at effectively handling multi-scale features and speckle denoising in the frequency domain (Figure 4). Our MSFM is motivated by the success of the spectral convolutions used in the Fourier Neural Operator (FNO) (Li et al., 2020c) and the efficient token mixer introduced in the Adaptive Fourier Neural Operator (AFNO) (Guibas et al., 2021). These operators employ the convolution theorem to transform convolutions in the spatial realm to element-wise multiplications with block diagonal structure in the Fourier domain. The main distinction between AFNO and our MSFM is that MSFM is specifically designed to manage multi-scale features in the Fourier domain, essential for tasks like denoising and object detection.

The MSFM kernel integral for a continuous multi-scale variable $X \in D$ with a kernel function κ at a specific token s can be expressed as

$$\mathcal{K}(X)(s) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\left(\mathcal{F}(\kappa) \cdot \mathcal{F}(X)\right)(s) \quad \forall s \in D, \tag{4}$$

where $\cdot$ denotes matrix multiplication, and $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}^{-1}$ denotes the continuous Fourier transform and its inverse.

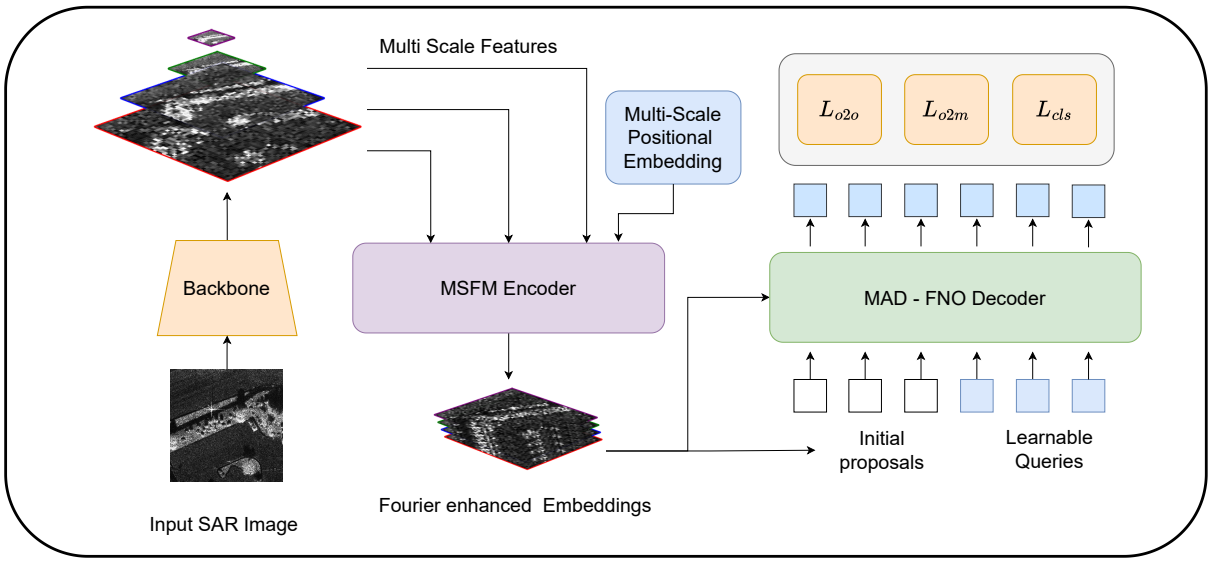


Figure 3: **Overview of the DNOD framework:** DNOD architecture processes input SAR images using a backbone and MSFM encoder to extract multi-scale, Fourier-enhanced embeddings. These features are passed to the MADFNO decoder along with initial proposals and learnable queries. The decoder outputs are supervised by three loss functions (i) classification (ii) one to one matching loss and (iii) one to many matching, to guide robust SAR image detection.

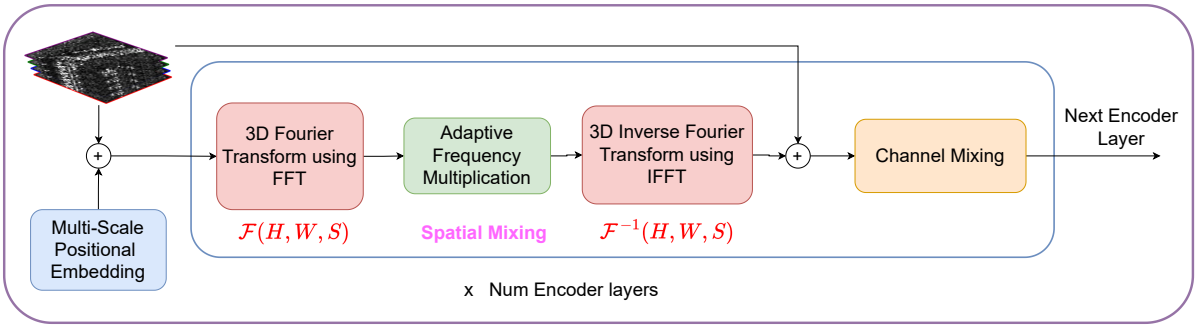


Figure 4: **MSFM Encoder:** Multi-scale features combined with positional embedding are fed into the encoder. Initially, a Fourier transform is executed across scale, height, and width. This is succeeded by spatial mixing and then an inverse transform. Subsequently, channel mixing is applied, and the resulting output is passed on to the succeeding encoder layer. This entire sequence is repeated for the specified number of encoder layers, ultimately yielding Fourier-enhanced embeddings.

In practice, each MSFM encoder block begins with spatial mixing across multiple scales via the Fourier transform ($z_{m,n}$ where (m,n) is the index per token), which is followed by channel mixing ($\tilde{z}^{(l)}_{m,n}$) with a block diagonal structure and the inverse Fourier transform ($y_{m,n}$). The final Fourier-enhanced embeddings (Figure 3) are obtained after multiple encoder blocks. Mathematically, each encoder block can be expressed as

$$z_{m,n} = [FFT(X)]_{m,n}, \quad \tilde{z}^{(l)}_{m,n} = W^{(l)}_{m,n} z^{(l)}_{m,n}, \quad l = 1, \ldots, p, \quad y_{m,n} = [IFFT(SoftShrink(\tilde{z}_{m,n})] \,. \tag{5}$$

The above formulation improves efficiency, generalization, and speckle noise removal through block-diagonal channel mixing, shared MLP weights, and soft-thresholding. The pseudo code for the MSFM encoder is provided in Appendix A.2.

4.2 Multi-Scale Adaptive Deformable Fourier Neural Operator (MADFNO Decoder)

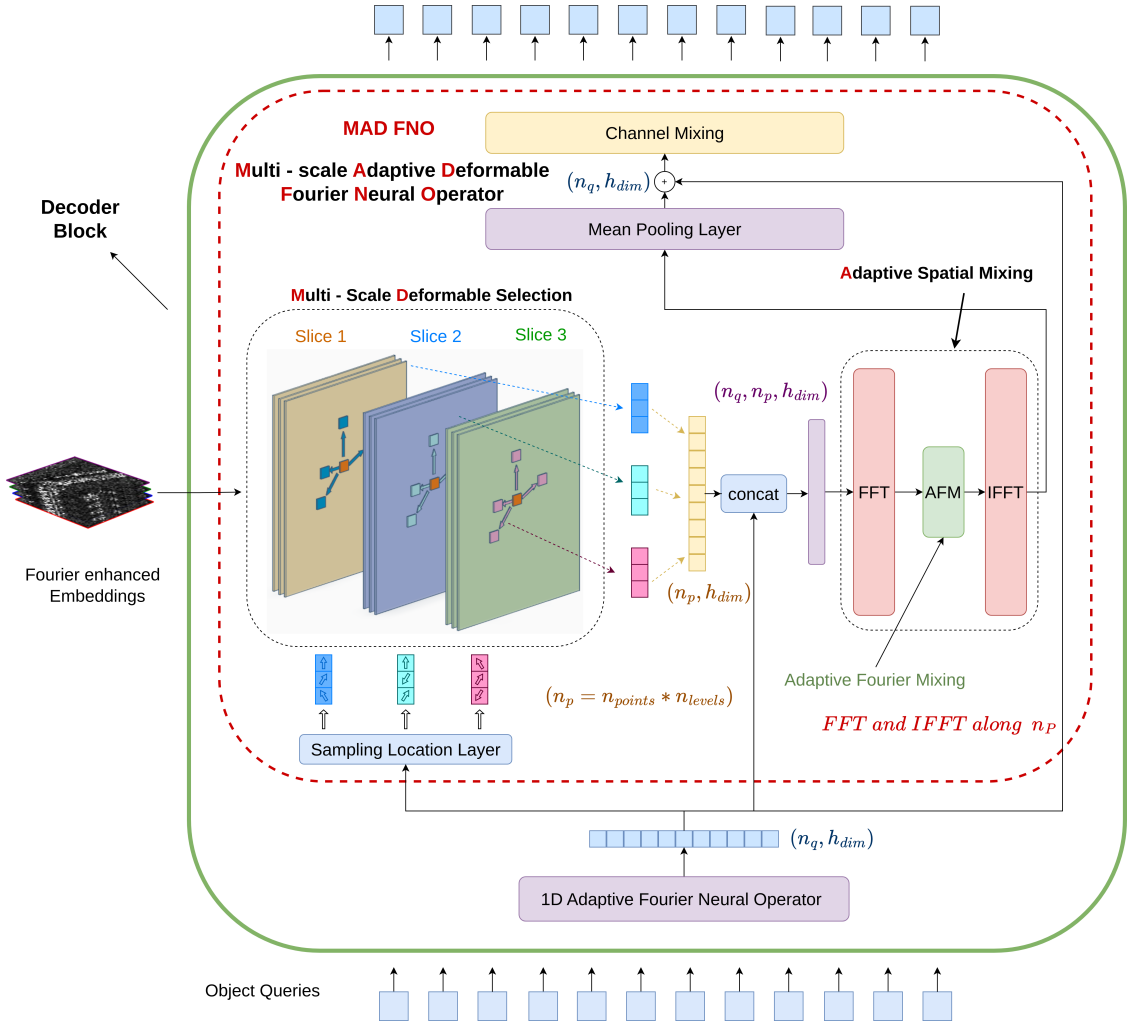


Figure 5: **MADFNO Decoder:** Object queries along with Fourier-enhanced encoder embeddings serve as input to the decoder. The deformable operator extracts features from the encoder embeddings through sampling locations determined by the object queries. These extracted features are subsequently subjected to Fourier mixing, resulting in the final object queries for the subsequent decoder layer.

DETRs face challenges in settings with limited feature resolution, resulting in below-average performance in detecting objects across varying scales. This constraint impairs the model's ability to detect smaller objects prevalent in SAR imagery. Furthermore, employing a transformer decoder hinders the convergence speed. To mitigate these issues, deformable attention modules (Zhu et al., 2021) have been implemented in generic object detection. However, as mentioned earlier (Section 4.1), successful SAR object detection demands addressing both speckle noise and multi-scale features, calling for a neural operator. Moreover, in DETRs, the decoder's task is to query objects based on the features produced by the encoder. This requires a neural operator that can handle multiple inputs. Recent studies (Jiang et al., 2024; Lehmann et al., 2025) have explored multi-input neural operators; however, none incorporate deformable methods that are essential for multi-scale feature extraction.

Thus, we introduce the MADFNO (Figure 5), a novel neural operator designed for handling multiple inputs, multi-scale scenarios, and incorporating deformable technique with Fourier mixing.

MADFNO takes object queries (Q) as input along with features of the encoder (E_o). First, object queries undergo self-Fourier mixing ($\mathcal{M}$), defined as

$$\mathcal{M}(Q)(s) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\left(\mathcal{F}(m) \cdot \mathcal{F}(Q)\right)(s) \quad \forall s \in D\,. \tag{6}$$

Subsequently, these object queries are combined with encoder embeddings (E_o) through the deformable operator (D) to obtain the refined object queries, $D(\mathcal{M}(Q), E_o)$, evaluated as

$$D(Z, E_o)(s) = [B(T_k, E_{ok}), \cdots B(T_1, E_{o1})]; \text{where} \quad Z = \mathcal{M}(Q)\,. \tag{7}$$

Deformable operator (D): Rather than selecting features directly from the encoder output, we partition the encoder embeddings (E_o) into k different slices such that $E_o = \cup_{i=1}^{k} E_{oi}$ and $\cap_{i=1}^{k} E_{oi} = \phi$, which implies that $E_o = [E_{o1}, E_{o2}, \cdots, E_{ok}]$, where [,] denotes the concatenation operator. This sliced sampling facilitates feature selection by concentrating each slice on distinct relations within E_o, similar to the multi-head attention mechanism in traditional transformer models. Note that each slice contains multi-scale features as encoder embeddings.

The sampling locations (T) necessary for the deformable operator are obtained from the initial reference points (R_p), which are in turn obtained from encoder embeddings (E_o) and sampling residuals (r), such that $T = R_p + r$ where r is learnable and R_p is estimated from E_o. The sampling residuals are learned via the sampling location layer (SL), that is,

$$r_1, r_2, \cdots r_k(s) = SL(Z)(s) \quad where \quad Z = \mathcal{M}(Q)\,, \tag{8}$$

where r_j represents the sampling residuals for the j^{th} slice. To sample features from each slice, a sampling location layer takes object queries $M(Q)$ as input and outputs sampling residuals per slice, which are further added to reference points per slice R_{pj} to obtain final sampling locations per slice T_j, i.e., $T_j = R_{pj} + r_j$.

The final sampling locations derived are continuous; consequently, bilinear interpolation is used to extract features from the encoder embeddings, denoted as $B(T_j, E_{oj})$ for the j^{th} slice. All these slices are then concatenated into a single slice of sampled encoder embeddings with dimensions (n_p, h_{dim}), where $n_p = n_{points} * n_{scale}$, with n_{points} as a hyperparameter denoting the required number of sampling points per feature scale. These embeddings are then concatenated with object queries to form combined embeddings per object query with dimensions (n_q, n_p, h_{dim}). Next, a Fourier transform is performed across these sampled features (n_p), followed by spatial mixing and an inverse Fourier transform leading to Fourier mixing of queries with sampled encoder embeddings. This process is followed by a mean pooling operation along the selected features and subsequent channel mixing to produce the final refined object queries. Overall, the kernel integral of the multi-input neural operator MADFNO can be expressed as

$$\mathcal{K}(Q, E_o)(s) = \mathcal{M} \circ F^{-1}\left(F(\kappa) \cdot F([Z, D(Z, E_o)])\right)(s) \quad \forall s \in D\,, \quad Z = \mathcal{M}(Q)\,. \tag{9}$$

5 Experiments

We first present the datasets used for our experimental analysis and the implementation procedure. We then proceed to evaluate the performance of DNOD in comparison to baseline models. Finally, we performed an ablation study to illustrate the significance of each component and its impact on overall effectiveness.

5.1 Experimental Setup

5.1.1 Datasets

The SARDet-100k dataset is used in our experiments focused on object detection. This dataset comprises 116,598 images and 245,653 instances classified into six categories: Aircraft, Ship, Car, Bridge, Tank and Harbor. As the first extensive SAR object detection dataset, SARDet-100K is similar in scale to the widely recognized COCO dataset (118K images) (Lin et al., 2014), a benchmark for general object detection. SARDet-100k is constructed by integrating nine different datasets focused on SAR object detection. These data sets exhibit varied polarities and encompass a wide range of resolutions, ranging from 0.1 to 25 meters.

The data is collected by utilizing six different satellites, each operating within four diverse frequency bands. The extensive scope and diversity of the SARDet-100K dataset, as outlined in Table 1, accurately represent the real-world obstacles encountered in deploying SAR object detection models across different data sources.

Table 1: Source datasets in SARDet-100K (Li et al., 2024b). Target categories S: ship, A: aircraft, C: car, B: bridge, H: harbour, T: tank.

Datasets	Target	Res. (m)	Band	Polarization	Satellites	License
AIR_SARShip (Xian et al., 2019)	S	1.3m	C	VV	GF-3	-
HRSID (Wei et al., 2020)	S	0.5∼3m	C/X	HH, HV, VH, VV	S-1B, TerraSAR-X, TanDEM-X	GNU General Public
MSAR (Xia et al., 2022)	A, T, B, S	$\leq$ 1m	C	HH, HV, VH, VV	HISEA-1	CC BY-NC 4.0
SADD (Zhang et al., 2022c)	S	0.5∼3m	X	HH	TerraSAR-X	-
SAR-AIRcraft (Zhirui et al., 2023)	A	1m	C	Uni-polar	GF-3	CC BY-NC 4.0
ShipDataset (Wang et al., 2019)	S	3∼25m	C	HH, VV, VH, HV	S-1, GF-3	-
SSDD (Zhang et al., 2021b)	S	1∼15m	C/X	HH, VV, VH, HV	S-1, RadarSat-2, TerraSAR-X	Apache 2.0
OGSOD (Wang et al., 2023)	B, H, T	3m	C	VV/VH	GF-3	-
SIVED (Lin et al., 2023a)	C	0.1, 0.3m	Ka, Ku, X	VV/HH	Airborne SAR synthetic slice	-

5.1.2 Implementation Details

In our experiments and all our baselines are employed with ResNet-50 backbone for fair comparison of object detection models, all of which have been pre-trained on the ImageNet-1K dataset. DNOD contains MSFM encoder and MADFNO decoder each having 3 layers, utilizing a hidden feature dimension of 256. With 1200 decoder object queries, training is accomplished through both one-to-one (Zhang et al., 2023a) and one-to-many matching (Zhao et al., 2024) losses. Based on (Zhang et al., 2023a), we use L1 and GIoU losses for the regression of the bounding box and adopt focal loss with $\alpha = 0.25$ and $\gamma = 2$ for classification. Additionally, techniques like Look Forward Twice and Mixed Query Selection are integrated, as inspired by the same source. Following the DETR framework, auxiliary losses are introduced after each decoder layer. The model underwent 56 epochs of training on 2 Nvidia RTX A6000 GPUs, with a cumulative batch size of 16. Initially, the learning rate was configured at 1×10^{-4}, which was reduced by a factor of 0.1 after 52 epochs. We utilized the AdamW optimizer, with a weight decay rate of 1×10^{-4}. For more information on the implementation details, refer to Appendix A.3.

5.2 Results

To assess the effectiveness of our model, we conducted a comparative analysis with 28 baseline methods (more details are given in Appendix A.1), encompassing a variety of categories, including one-stage, two-stage and end-to-end approaches. This selection includes convolution-based models, transformer-based models, and single-shot detectors such as YOLO. We believe that this comparison ensures a robust evaluation of our proposed model. The baseline results were obtained from DenoDet (Dai et al., 2024). We report the evaluation metric average precision (AP) calculated using standard COCO (Lin et al., 2014) evaluation metrics. We report AP at different IOU thresholds and on different object scales, small (AP_S), medium (AP_M) and large (AP_L). We report our primary metric, COCO mAP, which calculates the mean of AP scores on 10 IoU thresholds from 0.50 to 0.95 with a step size of 0.05.

5.2.1 Quantitative Results

Table 2 shows the comparison of our model DNOD with 28 diverse baselines. Our DNOD achieved SoTA performance across all metrics at different IoU thresholds and on all object scales: small, medium, and large. DNOD uses 3 scales with 32 x 32 resolution scale derived from backbone as the primary feature map. Compared to the previous SoTA model (DenoDet 4 Scale (Dai et al., 2024)) on SARDet-100k, our model demonstrated a **+1.08** mAP improvement, with a **45.7%** reduction in parameters and **23.4%** fewer GFLOPs. This computational efficiency is only due to the neural operator based encoder and decoder we introduced. We also developed a larger version of our model called 'DNOD Large' to further enhance the performance on SAR object detection. In this design, we utilized four scales with a 64 x 64 resolution scale

derived from the backbone as primary feature maps. This enhancement led to an increase in mAP to **58.11**, marking an improvement of **+2.23** over the previous SoTA.

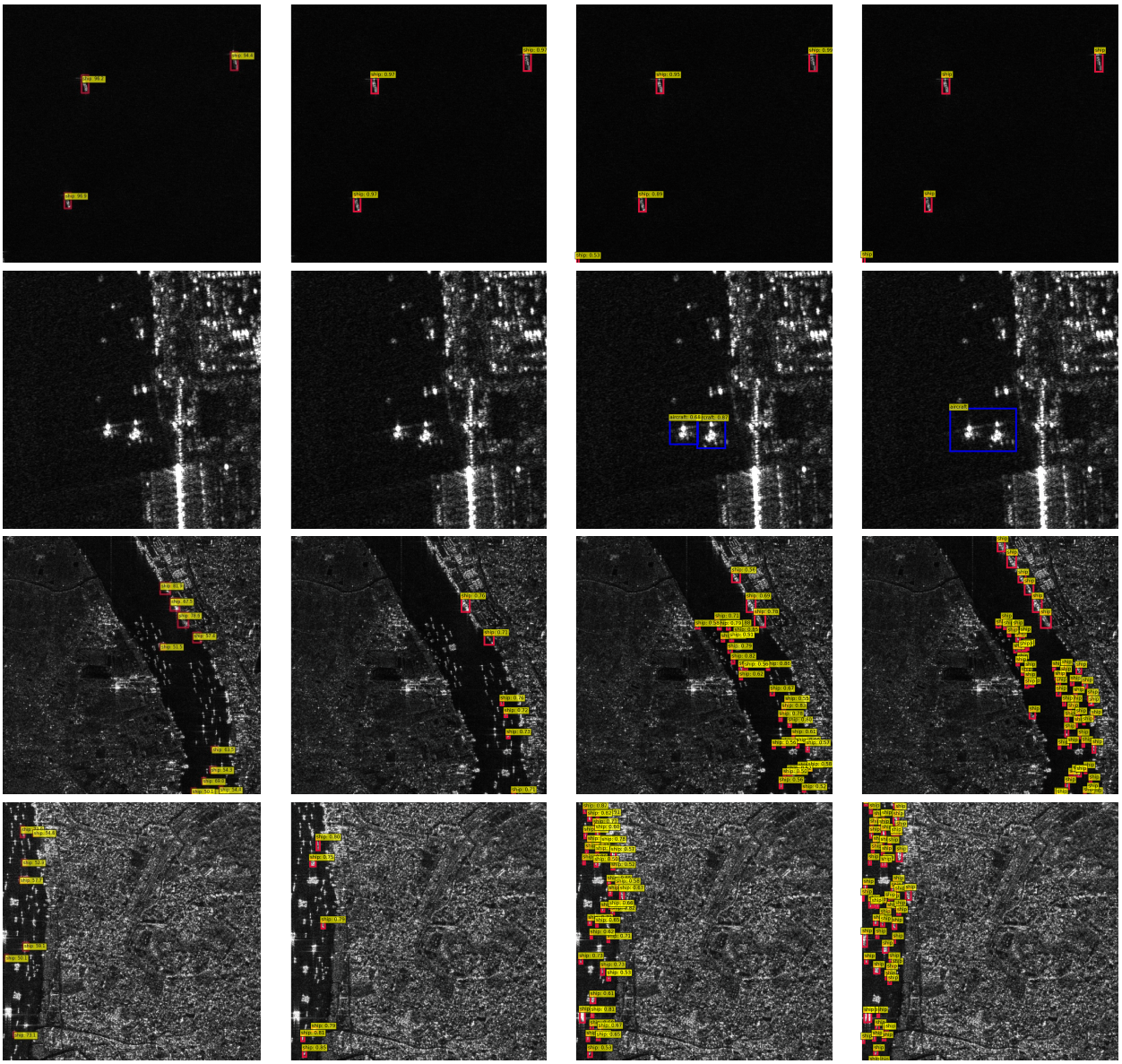
Table 2: Comparison of SAR Object detection methods on the **SARDET-100k** dataset. Bold indicates it is better than all models, and an underline is the second best. All the models used a Resnet-50 backbone pretrained (Pre.) on ImageNet.

Method	Pre.	FLOPs	#Params	**mAP**	AP@50	AP@75	AP_S	AP_M	AP_L
One-stage									
FCOS	IN	51.57G	32.13M	52.52	85.82	54.93	47.01	66.13	57.82
GFL	IN	52.36G	32.27M	55.01	85.16	58.87	49.44	67.29	60.45
RepPoints	IN	48.49G	36.82M	51.66	86.43	53.99	46.66	63.26	53.78
ATSS	IN	51.57G	32.13M	54.95	87.60	58.25	49.89	67.94	58.97
CenterNet	IN	51.55G	32.12M	53.91	86.17	57.31	48.88	66.22	57.74
PAA	IN	51.57G	32.13M	52.20	85.71	54.80	46.00	63.90	57.61
PVT-T	IN	42.19G	21.43M	46.10	77.55	49.00	38.01	59.53	53.35
RetinaNet	IN	52.77G	36.43M	46.48	77.74	48.94	40.25	59.35	50.26
TOOD	IN	50.52G	30.03M	54.65	86.88	58.41	50.20	66.72	58.60
DDOD	IN	45.58G	32.21M	54.02	86.64	57.23	49.33	64.70	58.02
VFNet	IN	48.38G	32.72M	53.01	84.32	56.32	47.37	65.39	57.99
AutoAssign	IN	51.83G	36.26M	53.95	<u>89.58</u>	55.96	50.14	63.40	54.73
YOLOF	IN	26.32G	42.46M	42.83	74.95	43.18	33.73	56.19	53.57
YOLOX	IN	8.53G	8.94M	34.08	66.77	31.31	28.49	43.06	28.95
Two-stage									
Faster R-CNN	IN	63.2G	41.37M	39.22	70.04	39.87	32.55	47.23	42.02
Cascade R-CNN	IN	90.99G	69.17M	53.55	87.33	56.81	49.09	62.89	48.68
Dynamic R-CNN	IN	63.2G	41.37M	49.75	80.96	53.91	43.12	59.72	54.77
Grid R-CNN	IN	0.18T	64.47M	50.05	80.58	53.49	42.43	62.01	52.70
Libra R-CNN	IN	64.02G	41.64M	52.09	83.54	55.81	45.85	63.52	55.40
ConvNeXt	IN	63.84G	45.07M	53.15	85.52	57.28	45.67	64.55	58.61
ConvNeXtV2	IN	0.12T	0.11G	53.91	86.01	58.90	47.63	64.67	59.57
LSKNet	IN	53.73G	30.99M	52.39	85.07	56.96	45.15	63.59	59.16
End2End									
DETR	IN	24.94G	41.56M	45.73	78.57	46.87	37.01	58.16	55.58
Deformable DETR	IN	51.78G	40.10M	52.00	88.77	54.03	46.99	63.58	58.55
DAB-DETR	IN	28.94G	43.70M	43.31	78.14	43.10	34.82	56.34	52.62
Conditional DETR	IN	28.09G	43.45M	44.04	77.88	44.40	35.25	56.47	52.86
DINO	IN	81.41G	46.67M	53.40	87.82	56.15	47.05	66.19	61.98
DenoDet	IN	52.69G	65.78M	<u>55.88</u>	85.81	<u>60.16</u>	<u>50.63</u>	<u>68.47</u>	<u>60.96</u>
DNOD (ours)	**IN**	**40.36G**	**35.67M**	**56.96**	**90.36**	59.69	**52.94**	**71.22**	**65.43**
Promotion	-	-	-	**+1.08**	**+0.78**	-	**+2.31**	**+2.75**	**+4.47**
DNOD large (ours)	**IN**	78.01G	43.10M	**58.11**	**91.44**	**61.31**	**55.31**	**70.30**	**64.36**
Promotion	-	-	-	**+2.23**	**+1.86**	**+1.15**	**+4.68**	**+1.83**	**+3.40**

5.2.2 Qualitative Results

We present the qualitative analysis of DNOD compared with two leading object detection models, (1) DenoDet, which is a leading model in the SAR domain, and (2) DINO, a leading model for generic object detection. This ensures a diverse evaluation of our model against both SAR object detection and generic object detection models. Figure 6 presents 4 different scenarios, (1) Partially occluded: DNOD successfully identified a partially occluded image, a feat not accomplished by the other models. (2) Similar objects in

close proximity: DNOD precisely detected two different aircrafts that the other leading models had missed. (3) Smaller objects & (4) Crowded scenario of smaller objects: In both the third and fourth rows, DNOD was able to identify almost all of the ships which are much smaller objects compared to the image size, in contrast to the other leading counterparts. This qualitative assessment underscores the superiority of DNOD in SAR object detection compared to other leading models, attributed to the discrete invariance property of neural operators (Kovachki et al., 2023).



(a) DenoDet (b) DINO (c) DNOD (ours) (d) Ground Truth

Figure 6: Qualitative assessment of DNOD predictions in comparison with leading object detection models, specifically DenoDet (Dai et al., 2024) and DINO (Zhang et al., 2023a). Each row presents a distinct sample, showcasing results from DenoDet, DINO, DNOD, and ground truth, sequentially from left to right. In the first row, DNOD effectively identified a partially visible image, which was not achieved by the other models. In the second row, DNOD accurately detected an aircraft, which the other leading models failed to recognize. In the third and fourth rows, DNOD succeeded in detecting all ships, unlike other models. This qualitative evaluation highlights DNOD's effectiveness in SAR object detection when compared to other leading models. All predictions were assessed with a classification confidence greater than 0.5.

5.3 Ablation study

Effect of MSFM and MADFNO: To evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed architecture, we perform an ablation study comparing various encoder-decoder configurations. As shown in Table 3, replacing the conventional deformable encoder with our MSFM encoder consistently improves performance across all AP metrics. Especially mean average precession (mAP) improved by **+2.47** with our encoder on SAR imagery. Furthermore, incorporating the MADFNO decoder in place of traditional deformable decoding significantly improves detection accuracy and has shown **+3.80** improvement in mAP. The combination of the MSFM encoder and the MADFNO decoder achieves the best performance, achieving an AP of **56.96** promotion of **+4.96**, with notable improvements in AP_S(52.94) (**+5.95**) and AP_M(71.22) (**+7.64**), demonstrating the effectiveness of the two neural operators.

Table 3: Ablation comparison of (**MSFM**) encoder and (**MADFNO**) decoder

Encoder	Decoder	**mAP**	AP_{50}	AP_{75}	AP_S	AP_M	AP_L
Deformable	Deformable	52.00	88.77	54.03	46.99	63.58	58.55
MSFM	Deformable	54.47	88.58	57.47	50.73	68.94	62.04
Promotion	-	**+2.47**	-	**+3.44**	**+3.74**	**+5.36**	**+3.49**
MHSA	**MADFNO**	55.80	89.67	58.51	51.78	69.86	63.42
Promotion	-	**+3.80**	**+0.90**	**+4.48**	**+4.79**	**+6.28**	**+4.87**
MSFM	**MADFNO**	56.96	90.36	59.69	52.94	71.22	65.43
Promotion	-	**+4.96**	**+1.59**	**+5.66**	**+5.95**	**+7.64**	**+6.88**

Effect of Different Scales: We examine the effect of varying the number of feature scales in our architecture, adjusting it from 2 to 4. Table 4 reveals that increasing the feature scales consistently improves the overall detection performance. Transitioning to three scales significantly boosts the average precision (AP) to **56.97** from **55.56** at two scales, and also improves AP_{75} to **61.31** and AP_S of **55.31**, highlighting the effectiveness of rich comprehensive multi-scale representations for detecting objects of differing sizes. These findings confirm the crucial role of integrating more scales in our framework.

Table 4: Ablation comparison of number of feature scales

# Feature Scales	**mAP**	AP_{50}	AP_{75}	AP_S	AP_M	AP_L
DenoDet 4 Scale (Previous SoTA)	55.88	85.81	60.16	50.63	68.47	60.96
DNOD 2 Scale	55.56	89.75	57.66	51.36	70.63	63.49
Promotion wrt SoTA	-	**+3.94**	-	**+0.73**	**+2.16**	**+2.53**
DNOD 3 Scale	56.96	90.36	59.69	52.94	71.22	65.43
Promotion wrt SoTA	**+1.08**	**+4.55**	-	**+2.31**	**+2.75**	**+4.47**
DNOD 4 Scale	58.11	91.44	61.31	55.31	70.30	64.36
Promotion wrt SoTA	**+2.23**	**+5.63**	**+1.15**	**+4.68**	**+1.83**	**+3.40**

6 Conclusion and Future work

We developed DNOD, the first-of-its-kind neural operator-based encoder called MSFM and a decoder called MADFNO within the DETR framework for object detection, showcasing its implementation on SAR datasets. These are new multi-input, multi-scale deformable neural operators. Experimental results and ablation studies show that DNOD offers notable advances over the current leading methods in achieving SoTA performance. Although SAR object detection was the focus here, the utility of our novel architecture will have a broader implication for generic object detection and other computer vision tasks using neural operators.

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A Appendix

A.1 Baselines:

To evaluate the effectiveness of our model performance, we have conducted a comparative analysis against three distinct categories of object detection models.
(i) One-Stage Methods : These methods perform localization and classification in a single pass, i.e directly predict bounding boxes and class probabilities from image pixels. Such as, FCOS (Tian et al., 2019), GFL (Li et al., 2020a), RepPoints (Yang et al., 2019), ATSS (Zhang et al., 2020b), CenterNet (Zhou et al., 2019), PAA (Kim & Lee, 2020), PVT-T Zhou et al., 2022, RetinaNet (Lin et al., 2017), TOOD (Feng et al., 2021), DOOD (Chen et al., 2021b), VFNet (Zhang et al., 2021a), AutoAssign (Zhu et al., 2020), YOLOF (Chen et al., 2021a), YOLOX (Ge et al., 2021).
(ii) Two-Stage methods: A sequential pipeline is used in these methods, initially candidate object regions are generates using selective search or Region proposal networks. Subsequently, each region is classified and its bounding box refined for accurate object localization. While this approach typically achieves high detection accuracy, it is generally slower than single-stage methods. Such as, Faster R-CNN (Ren et al., 2015), Cascade R-CNN (Cai & Vasconcelos, 2019), Dynamic R-CNN (Zhang et al., 2020a), Grid R-CNN (Lu et al., 2019), Libra R-CNN (Pang et al., 2019), ConvNeXt (Liu et al., 2022b), ConvNeXtV2 (Woo et al., 2023), LSKNet (Li et al., 2023b),
(iii) End2End methods: These methods eliminate hand crafted components and uses direct set prediction. Such as, DETR (Carion et al., 2020), Deformable DETR(Zhu et al., 2021), DAB-DETR (Liu et al., 2022a), Conditional DETR (Meng et al., 2021), DenoDet(Dai et al., 2024). This will guarantee a fair, robust, and diverse comparison of our DNOD model for the context of SAR object detection.

A.2 Pseudocodes:

This section provides a detailed overview of the proposed operators, MSFM (as depicted in Figure 7) and MADFNO (as illustrated in Figure 8), by presenting high-level pseudocode. The pseudocode methodically describes each step involved, fundamental logic, the various inputs, and the specific computations that are carried out throughout the process.

A.2.1 MSFM

```
x = Tensor[b, d, h, w, c]
W_1, W_2 = ComplexTensor[k, c/k, c/k]
b_1, b_2 = ComplexTensor[k, c/k]

def BlockMLP(x):
    x = MatMul(x, W_1) + b_1
    x = ReLU(x)
    return MatMul(x, W_2) + b_2

def MSFM(x):
    bias = x
    x = rfftn(x, dim=(1,2,3))
    x.reshape(b, d, h, w//2 + 1, k, c/k)
    x = BlockMLP(x)
    x.reshape(b, d, h, w//2 + 1, c)
    x = SoftShrink(x)
    x = irfftn(x, dim(1,2,3))
    return x + bias
```

Figure 7: Pseudocode for MSFM with multi scale features, adaptive weight sharing and adaptive masking

```
def MADFNO(Eo, Q, Rp):
# input -> Eo = Tensor[b, n_l, H, W, c]
#          Q  = Tensor[b, n_q, c]
#          Rp = Tensor[b, n_q, n_l, 4]
# output ->Q_final = Tensor[b, n_q, c]

    bias = Q
    Q = M(Q)
    r = SL(Q)
    r = r.reshape(b, n_q, n_s, n_l, n_p, 2)
    Rp = Rp[:, :, None, :, None, :2]
    T = Rp + r
    Eo = Eo.reshape(b, n_l, H, W, n_s, c//n_s)
    EoS = GridSample(Eo, T) # Bilinear interpolation
    EoS = EoS.reshape(b, n_l*n_p, c)
    z_inp = Concat[EoS, Q, (dim=2)]
    # Shape of z_inp -> (b, n_q, n_l*n_p, c)
    z = rfftn(z_inp, dim=(2))
    z = z.reshape(b, n_q, n_l*n_p//2 + 1, k, c/k)
    z = BlockMLP(z)
    z = z.reshape(b, n_q, n_l*n_p//2 + 1, c)
    z = SoftShrink(z)
    z = irfftn(z, dim(2))
    z = z + z_inp
    Qfinal = z.mean(dim=2)
    return Qfinal + bias

W_1, W_2 = ComplexTensor[k, c/k, c/k]
b_1, b_2 = ComplexTensor[k, c/k]

def BlockMLP(x):
    x = MatMul(x, W_1) + b_1
    x = ReLU(x)
    return MatMul(x, W_2) + b_2

def M(x):
    # input -> x = Tensor[b, n_q, c]
    # output -> x = Tensor[b, n_q, c]
    bias = x
    x = rfftn(x, dim=(1))
    x.reshape(b, n_q//2 + 1, k, c/k)
    x = BlockMLP(x)
    x.reshape(b, n_q//2 + 1, c)
    x = SoftShrink(x)
    x = irfftn(x, dim(1))
    return x + bias
```

```
Eo  -> Encoder
    embeddings
Q   -> Object queries
Rp  -> Reference points
b   -> batch size
n_q -> Number of
    queries
n_l -> Number of levels
n_s -> Number of slices
H   -> Height
W   -> Width
c   -> hidden feature
    dimension
EoS -> Encoder
    embeddings Sampled
Qfinal -> Final Object
    queries
```

Figure 8: Pseudocode for MADFNO with multi-scale features and deformable attention

A.2.2 MADFNO

A.3 Hyperaparameters:

In Table 5, we present an extensive and thorough compilation of the hyperparameters alongside the training specifications utilized within the construction and application of the DNOD model, providing a comprehensive overview for reference.

Table 5: DNOD Hyperparameter

Parameter	Value
Matcher	HungarianMatcher
One to Many matcher threshold	0.4
One to Many classification loss coefficient	2
One to Many bounding box loss coefficient	5
One to Many GIoU loss coefficient	2
One to One classification loss coefficient	1
One to One bounding box loss coefficient	5
One to One GIoU loss coefficient	2
Positional Embedding type	sine
Positional embedding temperature	20
Number of blocks in Fourier mixing	8
Focal Alpha	0.25
Number of classes	7
Weight Decay	0.0001
Learning rate	0.0001
Learning rate drop	0.1
Hidden dimension	256
No of deformable decoder points	6
Non Max Suppression IOU Threshold	0.8
No of Queries	1200
Channel Mixing Dimension	2048
Optimizer	AdamW

A.4 Additional Results:

A.4.1 Quantitative

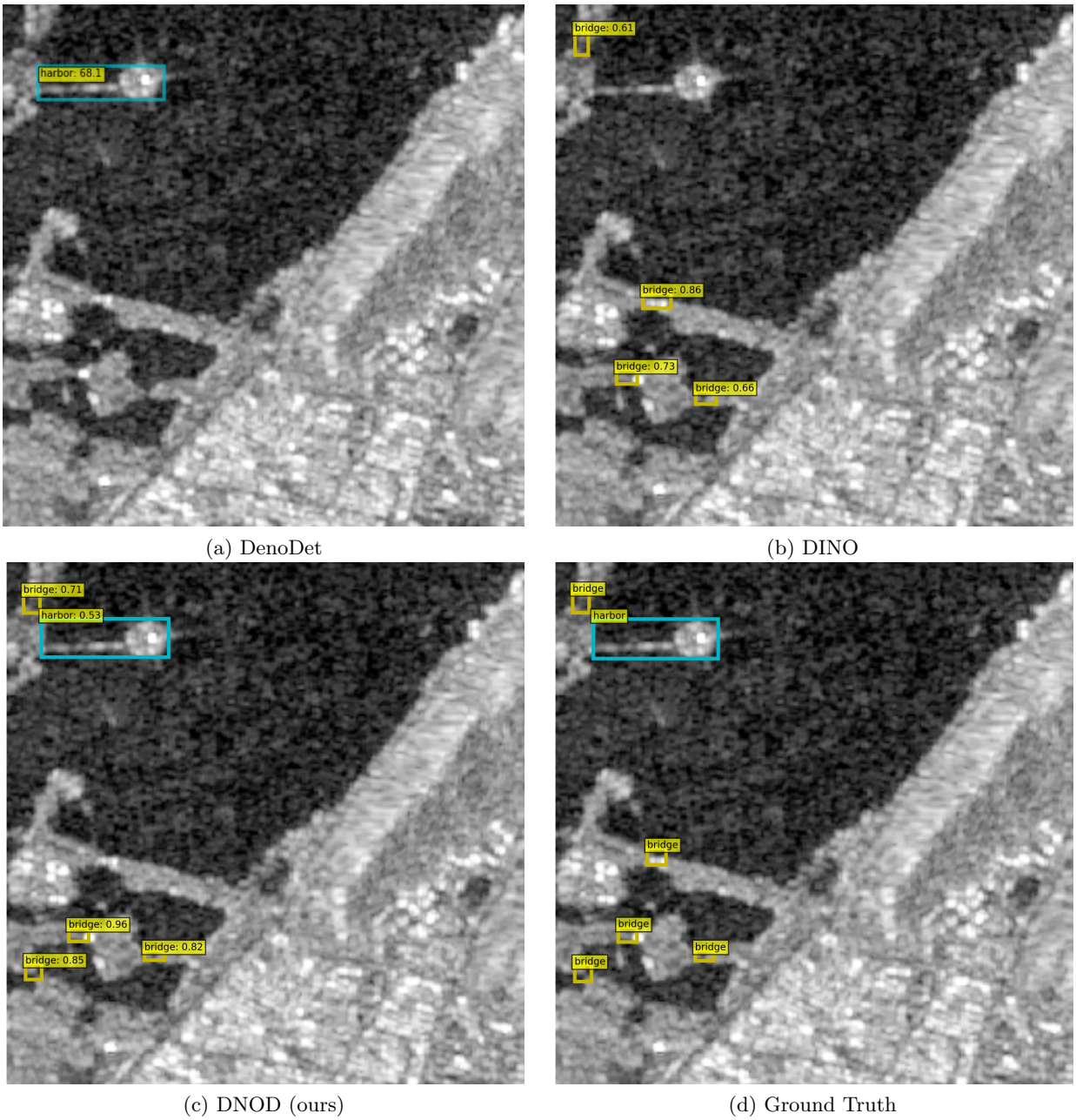
We present an evaluation of our model for each of the six distinct categories that comprise the SARDet-100k dataset, as detailed in Table 6. To determine the model that performs most proficiently across all categories, we implemented a ranking methodology. Specifically, models were individually ranked for each category, and subsequently, the mean rank for every model was calculated. Notably, our model attained the lowest mean rank when compared with all other models, highlighting its superior performance across all classes.

A.4.2 Qualitative

In order to further enhance the qualitative analysis, we incorporated additional comparative studies. Figures 9 and 10 illustrate a particular scenario involving multiple classes within a low-quality image context. These figures demonstrate that our DNOD effectively predicted both classes effectively.

Table 6: Per-class average precision comparison with SoTA methods on the SARDet-100K dataset.

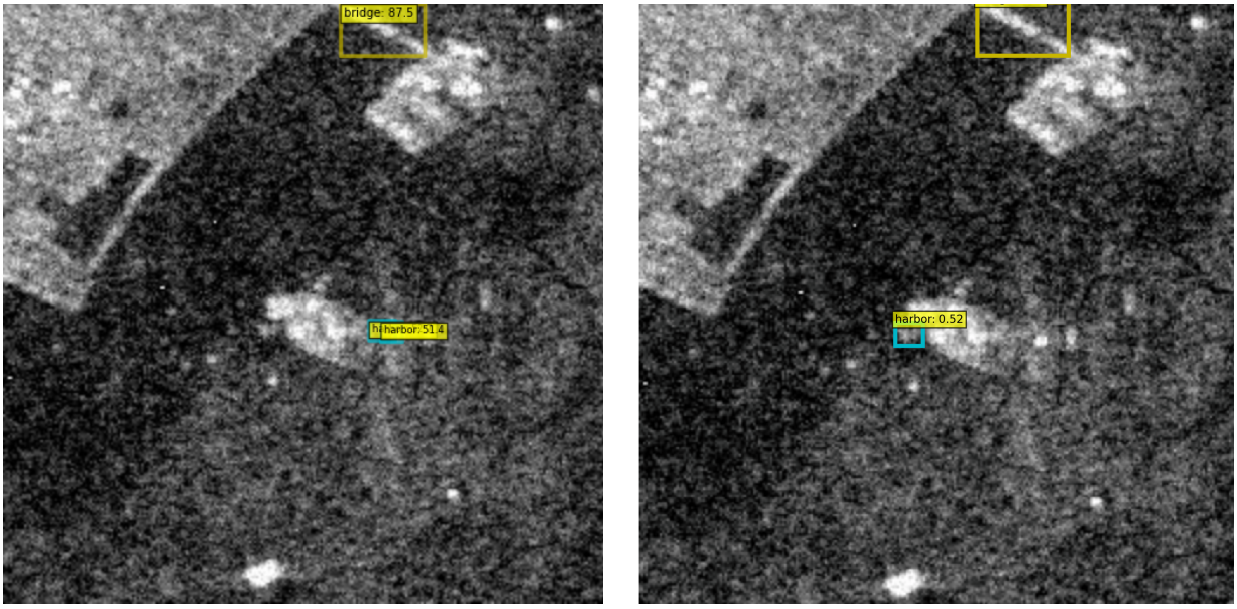
Method	Pre.	Ship	Aircraft	Car	Tank	Bridge	Harbor	Avg Rank
One-stage								
FCOS	IN	$59.79_{(21)}$	$55.44_{(19)}$	$60.75_{(21)}$	$41.78_{(11)}$	$34.17_{(20)}$	$63.44_{(10)}$	17
GFL	IN	$63.92_{(6)}$	$\mathbf{57.63_{(1)}}$	$62.29_{(9)}$	$44.80_{(7)}$	$36.41_{(9)}$	$65.04_{(6)}$	6.3
RepPoints	IN	$60.85_{(17)}$	$55.50_{(18)}$	$61.13_{(19)}$	$40.69_{(14)}$	$35.12_{(16)}$	$56.71_{(22)}$	17.6
ATSS	IN	$61.53_{(11)}$	$55.94_{(12)}$	$61.77_{(14)}$	$46.20_{(3)}$	$37.22_{(5)}$	$67.48_{(3)}$	8.0
CenterNet	IN	$61.24_{(15)}$	$56.35_{(9)}$	$61.74_{(15)}$	$45.31_{(6)}$	$35.91_{(15)}$	$63.29_{(11)}$	11.8
PAA	IN	$60.16_{(20)}$	$56.17_{(10)}$	$60.09_{(22)}$	$41.07_{(12)}$	$35.96_{(14)}$	$60.12_{(17)}$	15.8
PVT-T	IN	$53.30_{(25)}$	$52.91_{(24)}$	$59.03_{(24)}$	$30.20_{(24)}$	$22.51_{(28)}$	$59.11_{(19)}$	24.0
RetinaNet	IN	$55.36_{(23)}$	$54.00_{(22)}$	$60.88_{(20)}$	$32.72_{(23)}$	$24.81_{(26)}$	$51.12_{(28)}$	23.6
TOOD	IN	$62.28_{(8)}$	$55.61_{(16)}$	$62.53_{(7)}$	$45.96_{(4)}$	$36.64_{(8)}$	$65.24_{(5)}$	8.0
DDOD	IN	$62.39_{(7)}$	$56.08_{(11)}$	$62.48_{(8)}$	$43.98_{(9)}$	$36.34_{(11)}$	$62.87_{(12)}$	9.6
VFNet	IN	$62.14_{(9)}$	$55.84_{(13)}$	$61.97_{(12)}$	$42.08_{(10)}$	$34.11_{(21)}$	$62.28_{(13)}$	13.0
AutoAssign	IN	$62.03_{(10)}$	$55.70_{(15)}$	$61.69_{(16)}$	$\mathbf{48.55_{(1)}}$	$38.25_{(4)}$	$57.45_{(21)}$	11.6
YOLOF	IN	$52.62_{(28)}$	$52.64_{(25)}$	$52.71_{(27)}$	$22.86_{(29)}$	$23.74_{(27)}$	$52.42_{(27)}$	27.1
YOLOX	IN	$46.08_{(30)}$	$46.83_{(30)}$	$53.43_{(26)}$	$26.26_{(25)}$	$13.14_{(30)}$	$18.95_{(30)}$	28.5
Two-stage								
Faster R-CNN	IN	$50.45_{(29)}$	$50.36_{(27)}$	$57.82_{(25)}$	$24.90_{(27)}$	$18.69_{(29)}$	$33.11_{(29)}$	27.6
Cascade R-CNN	IN	$\mathbf{66.99_{(1)}}$	$56.43_{(8)}$	$63.25_{(2)}$	$44.35_{(8)}$	$36.89_{(6)}$	$53.81_{(26)}$	8.5
Dynamic R-CNN	IN	$61.32_{(13)}$	$53.86_{(23)}$	$60.00_{(23)}$	$33.68_{(22)}$	$34.40_{(19)}$	$55.25_{(23)}$	20.5
Grid R-CNN	IN	$60.43_{(19)}$	$55.61_{(16)}$	$61.94_{(13)}$	$36.03_{(21)}$	$31.16_{(23)}$	$55.13_{(24)}$	19.3
Libra R-CNN	IN	$61.32_{(13)}$	$54.03_{(21)}$	$61.56_{(17)}$	$38.12_{(18)}$	$35.97_{(12)}$	$61.50_{(14)}$	15.8
ConvNeXt	IN	$60.55_{(18)}$	$57.35_{(3)}$	$62.13_{(11)}$	$38.12_{(18)}$	$36.81_{(7)}$	$63.95_{(9)}$	11.0
ConvNeXtV2	IN	$61.48_{(12)}$	$55.83_{(14)}$	$63.23_{(3)}$	$39.65_{(16)}$	$39.16_{(3)}$	$64.09_{(8)}$	9.3
LSKNet	IN	$59.33_{(22)}$	$56.76_{(6)}$	$62.74_{(4)}$	$36.09_{(20)}$	$35.01_{(17)}$	$64.38_{(7)}$	12.6
End-to-End								
DETR	IN	$54.94_{(24)}$	$51.17_{(26)}$	$50.11_{(29)}$	$26.06_{(26)}$	$32.80_{(22)}$	$59.31_{(18)}$	24.1
Deformable DETR	IN	$60.94_{(16)}$	$54.16_{(20)}$	$61.22_{(18)}$	$39.14_{(17)}$	$36.09_{(12)}$	$60.46_{(16)}$	16.5
DAB-DETR	IN	$53.16_{(26)}$	$50.32_{(28)}$	$49.47_{(30)}$	$24.06_{(28)}$	$28.47_{(25)}$	$55.07_{(25)}$	27.0
Conditional DETR	IN	$52.77_{(27)}$	$49.58_{(29)}$	$51.00_{(28)}$	$22.73_{(30)}$	$29.98_{(24)}$	$58.16_{(20)}$	26.3
DINO 4-Scale	IN	$64.87_{(4)}$	$56.78_{(5)}$	$62.72_{(5)}$	$39.80_{(15)}$	$34.97_{(18)}$	$61.26_{(15)}$	10.3
DenoDet	IN	$64.91_{(3)}$	$57.36_{(2)}$	$\mathbf{63.66_{(1)}}$	$45.79_{(5)}$	$36.39_{(10)}$	$67.17_{(4)}$	4.1
⋆ **DNOD (Ours)**	IN	$64.65_{(5)}$	$56.48_{(7)}$	$62.60_{(6)}$	$40.73_{(13)}$	$\mathbf{43.27_{(1)}}$	$\mathbf{74.05_{(1)}}$	5.5
⋆ **DNOD large (Ours)**	IN	$66.31_{(2)}$	$57.18_{(4)}$	$62.28_{(10)}$	$48.40_{(2)}$	$43.12_{(2)}$	$71.38_{(2)}$	**3.6**



(a) DenoDet (b) DINO

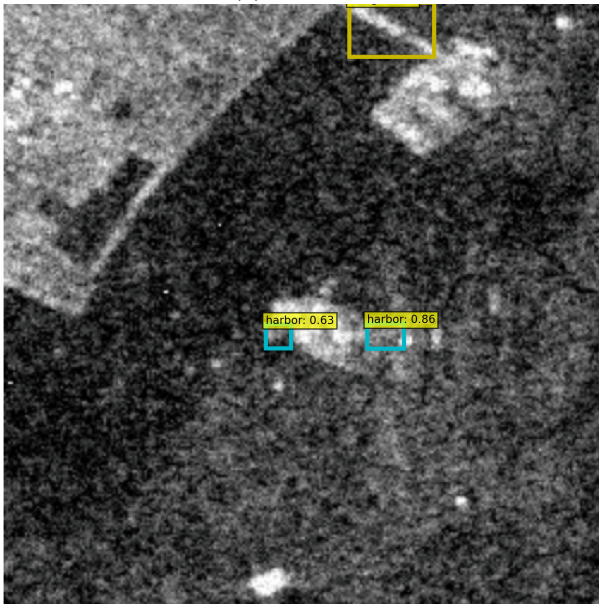
(c) DNOD (ours) (d) Ground Truth

Figure 9: Qualitative comparison of DNOD predictions with those of DenoDet (Dai et al., 2024) and DINO (Zhang et al., 2023a) shows that while DenoDet successfully identified only the harbor, and DINO managed to detect only the bridge, our model demonstrated superior performance by accurately identifying both the harbor and the bridge.

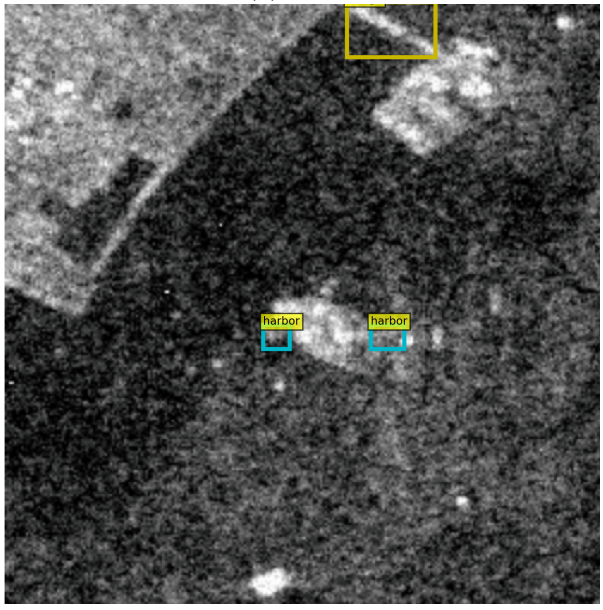


(a) DenoDet

(b) DINO



(c) DNOD (ours)



(d) Ground Truth

Figure 10: Qualitative comparison of DNOD predictions with DenoDet (Dai et al., 2024), and DINO (Zhang et al., 2023a). Both of the baselines only detected a single harbor, but our model detected both the harbors.