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# Mask-Based IoU for Bounding Box Regression Using Medical Images

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Abstract. Bounding box regression plays a pivotal role in the majority of object detection algorithms, significantly influencing the accuracy of object positioning and the regression speed of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN). In object detection benchmarks, Intersection over Union (IoU) remains the widely adopted metric for evaluation. Traditional IoU-based loss functions often suffer from poor training outcomes and slow convergence, and they fail to account for situations where the predicted bounding box does not entirely capture the object's mask. This study introduces the Mask-based Intersection over Union (MbIoU) metric for improving bounding box regression in object detection using medical images. The proposed MbIoU metric incorporates the object mask into the bounding box regression process, offering a more precise evaluation of how well the predicted bounding box encapsulates the object. The developed MbIoU metric was tested on the MNIST: HAM10000 dermoscopic skin images dataset, COVID-19 CT dataset, and Brain Tumor dataset and compared to traditional IoU metrics. The results show that MbIoU enhances the prediction by better capturing the object's contained mask.

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# 1. Introduction

Object detection continues to be a significant subject in the realm of computer vision, playing a crucial part in diverse applications such as autonomous vehicles, surveillance, and image comprehension. It has garnered extensive attention over the past few decades. The object detection task involves determining the location and classifying objects in an image. Region-based methods such as Region Based CNN (R-CNN) [\[20\]](#page-7-0), Fast Region Based CNN (Fast R-CNN) [\[7\]](#page-6-0), Faster Region-Based CNN (Faster R-CNN) [\[26\]](#page-7-1), Single Shot Multibox Detector (SSD) [\[17\]](#page-6-1), You Only Look Once (YOLO) [\[25\]](#page-7-2) and RetinaNet [\[16\]](#page-6-2) are used for object detection. Strategies can be developed to enhance the efficiency of applications using deep neural networks, such as using a better architectural backbone, developing a more

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effective strategy for extracting reliable local features, or using a metric based on IoU rather than the  $\ell_1$  and  $\ell_2$  norms of regression losses [\[27\]](#page-7-3).

Achieving high performance in object detection tasks demands a robust loss function that effectively captures both localization accuracy and classification precision. Mean Squared Error (MSE) is a traditional regression loss function commonly used in object detection. It penalizes the squared differences between ground truth and predicted bounding box coordinates. In recent years, most metrics used to evaluate segmentation, object detection, and tracking are based on the IoU metric [\[27\]](#page-7-3). The field of IoU-based bounding box regression has seen significant advancements, including the introduction of novel methods, loss functions, and refinement techniques to enhance the effectiveness and precision of object detection in computer vision. Nevertheless, the IoU-based loss functions that have been developed still encounter issues like suboptimal training outcomes and sluggish convergence speeds.

In addition, problems have been encountered, such as the IoU value not being zero when the predicted box does not contain the object mask that is in the ground truth box. Even though the predicted box covers very little of the object mask, the IoU value may be high, or even if the predicted box covers a large part of the object mask, the IoU value may be low. For these reasons, the MbIoU metric that considers the object mask was developed in this study. The developed MbIoU metric was tested on the MNIST:HAM10000 dermoscopic skin images dataset [\[31\]](#page-7-4), COVID-19 CT lung and infection segmentation dataset [\[4\]](#page-6-3), and Brain Tumor dataset [\[1\]](#page-6-4).

# 2. Related Works

Object detection remains a central concern within the realm of computer vision, drawing extensive interest over the past few decades. The traditional approaches utilize manually designed feature descriptors, including Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG) [\[6\]](#page-6-5), Local Binary Patterns (LBP) [\[21\]](#page-7-5), and Scale-Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT) [\[19\]](#page-7-6) for extracting image features. Subsequently, a machine learning-driven classifier is employed to systematically the complete image using a sliding window approach, aiming to identify and localize regions resembling objects.

The Deformable Part Model (DPM) [\[9\]](#page-6-6) and its adaptations have been the primary techniques for object recognition from images over an extended period. Due to CNN's outstanding performance in large-scale object recognition [\[15\]](#page-6-7), many CNN-based techniques have been developed [\[7,](#page-6-0) [8,](#page-6-8) [11\]](#page-6-9), and [\[12\]](#page-6-10), significantly improving object detection performance. Object identification techniques are built on R-CNN frameworks, which use bounding boxes to accurately propose the region that is considered to be the ground truth. Two-stage methods that combine a region proposal predictor with region-wise classifiers include Spatial Pyramid Pooling (SPP)-Net [\[11\]](#page-6-9), Fast R-CNN [\[7\]](#page-6-0), Faster R-CNN [\[12\]](#page-6-10), R-FCN [\[5\]](#page-6-11), FPN [\[10\]](#page-6-12), Cascade R-CNN [\[5\]](#page-6-11), and others. However, single-forward CNNs are used by one-stage methods like SSD [\[17\]](#page-6-1), YOLO [\[13\]](#page-6-13), and RetinaNet [\[16\]](#page-6-2) to predict classes and localize the objects.

Recently, one-stage procedures gained popularity due to their computational efficiency, whereas two-stage approaches have become renowned for their superior performance. Proposed extensions seek to overcome the limitations that arise in certain complex cases. A rotation-invariant and Fisher discriminative CNN should be integrated, according to Cheng et al. [\[3\]](#page-6-14), to enhance feature representation in R-CNN models. A search strategy based on Bayesian optimization was developed by Zhang et al. [\[36\]](#page-7-7) with the goal of increasing the efficiency of region suggestions. R-CNN was trained using this method to improve object bounding box localization. Cai et al. [\[2\]](#page-6-15) suggested training a set of three Faster R-CNNs with various IoU thresholds (0.5, 0.6, and 0.7) in order to improve performance in object identification and enrich the learning process.

In recent works, bounding box regression often relies on the utilization of IoU [\[24\]](#page-7-8) and its improved versions. Generalized Intersection over Union (GIoU) loss [\[27\]](#page-7-3) is a metric and loss function that improves the localization accuracy of predicted bounding boxes. IoU focuses on the overlap, but it doesn't take into account factors like the size, position, and aspect ratio of the bounding boxes. The GIoU loss was designed to solve these limitations with a more comprehensive measure of the accuracy of predicted bounding boxes. Distance Intersection over Union (DIoU) loss [\[38\]](#page-7-9) also aims to be an improvement over the traditional IoU and GIoU metrics. DIoU aims to further refine the evaluation and training of object detection models by taking into account the distance between box centers and the aspect ratio of the bounding boxes. While GIoU and DIoU introduce improvements over traditional IoU, they can be computationally expensive due to their additional terms. Complete Intersection over Union (CIoU) [\[33\]](#page-7-10) aims to strike a balance between effectiveness and computational efficiency. ICIoU proposes an improved penalty function over CIoU for better localization accuracy. N-IoU [\[30\]](#page-7-11) loss incorporates the Dice coefficient into the computation of regression loss, presenting a novel metric that surpasses and can serve as a substitute for the IoU.

Also, Efficient-IOU (EIoU), Rotated-IoU (RIoU), Focal-RIoU (FRIoU), Gaussian-IoU (GsIoU), Manhattan-distance-IOU (MIoU), the combination of smooth ℓ1-norm loss and IoU (LIoU), Valid-IoU (VIoU) metrics have also been improved for enhanced performance in object detection tasks [\[18,](#page-7-12) [23,](#page-7-13) [29,](#page-7-14) [32,](#page-7-15) [35,](#page-7-16) [37\]](#page-7-17). Although performance seems to increase with these methods, they are based on the proximity of the boxes to each other. These metrics do not take into account the object mask. Designing an effective bounding box regression loss function is crucial. The choice of loss function must balance the precision of object localization and the stability of the training process.

# 3. IoU-Based Bounding Box Regression

<span id="page-2-1"></span>Object detection tasks typically contain Bounding Box Regression Loss and Classification Loss. The n-norm loss functions are commonly used in bounding box regression. However, they are sensitive to scale variations. IoU loss is also employed since Unitbox is scale-invariant [\[34\]](#page-7-18). Commonly used IoU-based bounding box regression loss functions are explained below. The area of union between the predicted bounding box *B* and the ground truth bounding box  $B_{gt}$  is measured by the IoU (also known as the Jaccard index) (Eq. [\(3.1\)](#page-2-0)) and is shown in Figure [1.](#page-2-1)



FIGURE 1. Intersection Over Union (IoU) [\[14\]](#page-6-16)

<span id="page-2-0"></span>
$$
J\left(B, B_{gt}\right) = IoU = \frac{area\left(B \cap B_{gt}\right)}{area\left(B \cup B_{gt}\right)}.
$$
\n(3.1)

We can identify a detection as accurate or inaccurate by comparing the IoU to a defined threshold, *t*. If IoU  $\geq t$ , the detection is deemed to be accurate. If  $IoU < t$ , the detection is deemed inaccurate [\[28,](#page-7-19) [34\]](#page-7-18). The formulation of  $IoU$ loss [\[22\]](#page-7-20) is as follows:

$$
L_{IoU} = 1 - IoU.
$$

 $L_{IoU} = 1 - IoU$ .<br>IoU loss, on the other hand, only functions in situations when the bounding boxes overlap; in non-overlapping scenarios, it would not produce a moving gradient. Next, by including a penalty word, GIoU loss [\[27\]](#page-7-3) is suggested.

$$
L_{GIoU} = 1 - IoU + \frac{\left|C - \left(B \cup B_{gt}\right)\right|}{|C|},
$$

where the smallest box that covers *B* and  $B_{gt}$  is *C*. In non-overlapping circumstances, the prediction box will converge to the big truth box as a result of the penalty term's inclusion.

Since IoU loss does not introduce any motion gradient when the candidate frame and the actual frame do not overlap (LIoU is always 1), GIoU loss introduces a penalty term. Due to the introduction of penalty time, the prediction box will move towards the ground truth box if there is no overlap. In the DIoU metric [\[22\]](#page-7-20), the central point distance between two boxes is also taken into account, along with the overlap area in the suppression criterion. DIoU loss introduces a penalty term based on IoU loss, defined as follows:

$$
L_{DIoU} = 1 - IoU + \frac{p^2 (c_i, c_j)}{d_e^2},
$$

where  $c_i$  and  $c_j$  are the center points of *B* and  $B_{gt}$ , respectively,  $p(\cdot, \cdot)$  is the Euclidean distance between two locations, and *d<sup>e</sup>* is the length of *C*'s diagonal.

CIoU loss [\[22\]](#page-7-20) introduces a penalty term taking into account the box aspect ratio and is defined as follows:

$$
L_{CIoU} = 1 - IoU + \frac{p^2(c_i, c_j)}{d_e^2} + \mu v,
$$
  

$$
v = \frac{4}{\pi^2} \left( \arctan \frac{w_i}{h_i} - \arctan \frac{w_j}{h_j} \right)^2,
$$
  

$$
\mu = \frac{v}{(1 - IoU + v)},
$$

where  $w_i$  and  $h_i$  ( $w_j$  and  $h_j$ ) stand for the height and width of *B* ( $B_{gt}$ ), respectively, and  $\mu$  represents the weight of  $v$ . Additionally,  $\nu$  indicates the deviation of the aspect ratio.

## 4. Proposed Method

4.1. Mask-Based IoU (MbIoU). Despite being widely used, IoU has a specific limitation: It relies solely on the areas of the anchor box and the ground truth box, neglecting the actual shape of the object, such as that defined by a segmentation mask. This can lead to unfavorable assignments, as the IoU scores may paradoxically be lower or higher, disregarding the expected correlation with object overlap. For example, when the predicted bounding box does not contain the object mask, the IoU value does not include information in this context, as in some cases (Figure 3 (H), Figure 4 (L)). Even though the predicted box covers very little of the object mask, the IoU value may be high (Figure 3 (D), (E), Figure 4 (C), (G)), or even if the predicted box covers a large part of the object mask, the IoU value may be low (Figure 3 (A), (G), Figure 4 (B), (E), (F), (J)). For these reasons, the MbIoU metric was developed in this study as shown in Figure 2 and Equation 4.1. The MbIoU metric takes both bounding box areas and the object mask areas into account.

The MbIoU metric was tested on the MNIST:HAM10000 [\[31\]](#page-7-4), COVID-19 CT [\[4\]](#page-6-3), and Brain Tumor [\[1\]](#page-6-4) datasets. MNIST:HAM10000 dataset contains 10015 dermoscopic skin images and seven different classes. These classes are Actinic Keratoses (akiec), Basal cell carcinoma (bcc), Benign keratosis (bkl), Dermatofibroma (df), Melanoma (mel), Melanocytic nevi (nv) and Vascular (vasc), respectively. COVID-19 CT dataset consists of three separate COVID-19 datasets and contains 2729 images. The Brain Tumor dataset contains 305 brain MRI images for brain tumor detection.

Figure 2 shows how the MbIoU metric is calculated on a sample image. The green area (*GA*) is the lesion mask, the blue area (*BA*) is the subtraction of the green area from the area of the ground truth bounding box, the red area (*RA*) is the lesion mask in the predicted bounding box, and the yellow area (*YA*) is the subtraction of the red area from the area of the predicted bounding box.

*RA*

<span id="page-3-0"></span>
$$
MbloU = \frac{\frac{KA}{RA+YA+GA+BA+(GA-RA)+|YA-BA|}}{\frac{GA}{RA+YA+GA+BA}}
$$
(4.1)



FIGURE 2. (A) The green area is the lesion mask, and the blue area is the subtraction of the green area from the area of the ground truth bounding box. (B) The red area is the lesion mask in the predicted bounding box, and the yellow area is the subtraction of the red area from the area of the predicted bounding box.



Figure 3. Results of MbIoU and other IoU metrics on nv image in different situations. Green boxes are ground truth and red boxes are predicted bounding boxes.

MbIoU  $\in$  [0, 1]. According to Equation [\(4.1\)](#page-3-0), as the *RA/GA* ratio increases, the MbIoU value increases, and as (*GA*-*RA*) and |*YA* − *BA*| values increase, the MbIoU value decreases. When the bounding boxes overlap, the MbIoU value becomes 1. Thus, the more the predicted bounding box covers the object mask, the higher the MbIoU. The penalty rate increases as the predicted bounding box cannot cover the object mask.

4.2. Experimental Results. The MbIoU metric has been tested on images selected from three databases for several different situations and compared with other commonly used IoU metrics, as shown in Figures 3 and 4. As seen in Figure 3 (A), (G), and Figure 4 (B), (E), (F), (J), the MbIoU metric result is higher than other metrics results when the predicted bounding box contains most of the object mask. In Figure 3 (D), (E), and Figure 4 (C), (G) the predicted box contained a very small part of the object mask, and thus the MbIoU metric result was lower than other metrics results. In Figure 3 (H), and Figure 4 (L), the predicted box does not contain the object mask at all. In this case, although the other metric results were non-zero, the MbIoU metric result was zero. Thus, more consistent loss values, eliminated unnecessary anchors, shortened training time, and faster convergence can be obtained with the MbIoU metric.



IoU:0.1971 GIoU:0.01997 IoU:0.3710 GIoU:0.3710 IoU:0.2660 GIoU:0.2660 DIoU:0.1073 CIoU:0.1073 DIoU:0.2867 CIoU:0.2867 DIoU:0.1675 CIoU:0.1414 DIoU:0.7954 CIoU:0.7954 MbIoU:0.2262





MbIoU:0.1226

IoU:0.7954 GIoU:0.7954 MbIoU:0.8992



(e) MbIoU:0.8312 (f)

(h)

IoU:0.6601 GIoU:0.6601 IoU:0.3827 GIoU:0.2875 IoU:0.3269 GIoU:0.3269 IoU:0.2713 GIoU:0.1852 DIoU:0.6601 CIoU:0.6601 DIoU:0.3526 CIoU:0.3523 DIoU:0.3257 CIoU:0.3153 DIoU:0.2157 CIoU:0.2156 MbIoU:0.2985



(g)

IoU:0.6651 GIoU:0.6651 IoU:0.5987 GIoU:0.5987 IoU:0.1012 GIoU:0.1012 IoU:0.1048 GIoU:-0.1467 DIoU:0.6566 CIoU:0.6566 DIoU:0.5987 CIoU:0.5987 DIoU:0.0761 CIoU:0.0705 DIoU:-0.0252 CIoU:-0.0252 MbIoU:0.8339 MbIoU:0.6237 MbIoU:0.1654 MbIoU:0

Figure 4. Results of MbIoU and other IoU metrics on mel image (A, B, C, D), Brain Tumor image (E, F, G, H) and COVID-19 CT image (I, J, K, L) in different situations. Green boxes are ground truth and red boxes are predicted bounding boxes.

# 5. Conclusion

In this research, we introduced the MbIoU metric, which takes into account both the object mask and the proximity between the ground truth bounding box and the predicted bounding box. In this approach, when the predicted bounding box better encompasses the object mask, the MbIoU value increases. Additionally, the MbIoU value decreases when the diversity bounding box covers a small portion of the object mask. Thus, improved training outcomes and faster convergence can be achieved by eliminating the predicted boxes where the object mask is not covered or only slightly covered. The proposed metric underwent testing using the HAM10000, COVID-19 CT, and Brain Tumor datasets and was presented in the figures. As evident from the figures, in some cases, the MbIoU metric results differ from other common IoU metrics. In future studies, training and testing operations will be carried out with the loss function calculated using the MbIoU metric we created, and the results will be compared. Moreover, investigating the effectiveness of the MbIoU metric in real-time object detection systems could further validate its utility in practical applications.

#### CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this article.

### AUTHORS CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT

S. C. Kaman: Creation of the idea, organizing the execution of the study, literature research, contribution to article writing and study. M. Kotan: Data processing, organizing the execution of the study, contribution to article writing and study. C. Oz: Creation of the idea, organizing the execution of the study, contribution to article writing and study. A. F. Sönmez: Data collection, literature research, contribution to article writing and study. F. Selamet: Literature research, contribution to article writing and study. I. Delibasoğlu: Literature research, contribution to article writing and study.

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