

# Keypoints-aware Object Detection

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## Abstract

We propose a new framework for object detection that guides the model to explicitly reason about translation and rotation invariant object keypoints to boost model robustness. The model first predicts keypoints for each object in the image and then derives bounding-box predictions from the keypoints. While object classification and box regression are supervised, keypoints are learned through self-supervision by comparing keypoints predicted for each image with those for its affine transformations. Thus, the framework does not require additional annotations and can be trained on standard object detection datasets. The proposed model is designed to be anchor-free, proposal-free, and single-stage in order to avoid associated computational overhead and hyperparameter tuning. Furthermore, the generated keypoints allow for inferring close-fit rotated bounding boxes and coarse segmentation for free. Results of our model on VOC show promising results. Our findings regarding training difficulties and pitfalls pave the way for future research in this direction.

**Keywords:** Object Detection, Keypoints Prediction, Self-supervised Learning

## 1. Introduction

Object detection is formulated as the localization and classification of objects in an image, where the former is typically encoded as rectangular bounding boxes that contain object instances. Intuitively, this task is a core component of automated visual scene understanding, allowing for images to be parsed in terms of objects. As such, the field has amassed extensive interest in the last two decades (Zou et al., 2019), with large improvements in performance.

Existing detectors can be categorized into two-stage and one-stage models, where the former first generates region proposals in an image followed by precise localization, while the latter directly predicts detections across the entire image. Both model families commonly comprise a backbone network, e.g., ResNet (He et al., 2016) pretrained on ImageNet (Russakovsky et al., 2015), which generates convolutional features from the image, optionally followed by a variant of Feature Pyramid Networks (Lin et al., 2017a) for combining information from different depths of the backbone. These features are then used to predict the object classes and bounding boxes through sibling head modules. A majority of detectors employ anchor or default boxes of various sizes and shapes with bounding box predictions made in terms of adjustments to these anchors. However, methods for anchor-free detection have been proposed recently (Tian et al., 2019; Carion et al., 2020), which vastly reduce

hyperparameters related to anchors. Recent works ([Zou et al., 2019](#)) in object detection have proposed improvements to all the aforementioned components, training schemes including better losses, sampling strategies, etc., and new approaches for corner-points-based anchor-free detection.

In this work, we propose a method for improving the robustness of detectors by training them to explicitly focus on object keypoints that are invariant to affine transformations of the image and objects contained in them. Figure 1 describes the high-level approach. Specifically, we propose a framework for training one-stage anchor-free and proposal-free detectors that treats each pixel as an object center and produces corresponding object keypoints and classes at each scale of the backbone network. The conventional bounding boxes can then be derived from the keypoints through straightforward maxima and minima operations.

The object classification and bounding box regression tasks are trained in the standard supervised fashion, along with a centerness loss ([Tian et al., 2019](#)) to avoid predictions far from object centers. In contrast, to avoid dependence on ground-truth keypoint annotations, we learn their prediction in a self-supervised manner. We first predict keypoints for the original image and its affine transformation. We then transform keypoints of the transformed image to coordinates on the original image by applying the inverse transformation on them. The self-supervised loss then becomes the distance between the keypoints of the original image and those from the inverse transformation. Besides the regular bounding box localization, the proposed framework provides close-fit rotated bounding boxes and coarse segmentation masks for free, as illustrated in Figure 2. These can be achieved with simple computational geometry techniques and can benefit downstream applications.

We propose to evaluate the proposed framework on the standard PASCAL VOC ([Everingham et al., 2010](#)) and MS COCO ([Lin et al., 2014](#)) benchmark datasets. Furthermore, we propose to create new evaluation-only versions of these datasets by applying various affine transformations to their images in order to compare the robustness of our model with the state-of-the-art methods in terms of invariance to the said transformations. Finally, we propose to additionally evaluate the quality of the coarse segmentations generated from the keypoints on the MS COCO dataset in order to quantify their downstream utility.

## 2. Related Work

A number of works ([Zhou et al., 2019a; Law and Deng, 2018; Duan et al., 2019; Dong et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2019b](#)) have been proposed recently that regress bounding box corner locations and object centers directly instead of relying on anchors. Corner proposal ([Duan et al., 2020](#)) has also been employed as a replacement for region proposal in two-stage object detectors. These methods are termed as keypoint-based object detectors, where keypoints refer to the coordinates of box corners and centers. In contrast, our work generates object keypoints that lie on the spatial regions spanned by the objects instead of bounding box corners, which often lie outside object regions. Furthermore, keypoints in our method are learned in a self-supervised fashion without requiring additional annotations.

[Yang et al. \(2019\)](#) propose a detection method that aggregates information from keypoints in images through deformable convolutions. In contrast, our method predicts keypoints as model outputs for each object in the image. [Kulkarni et al. \(2019\)](#) also predict object keypoints in an unsupervised way but their method is designed for tracking objects in videos,

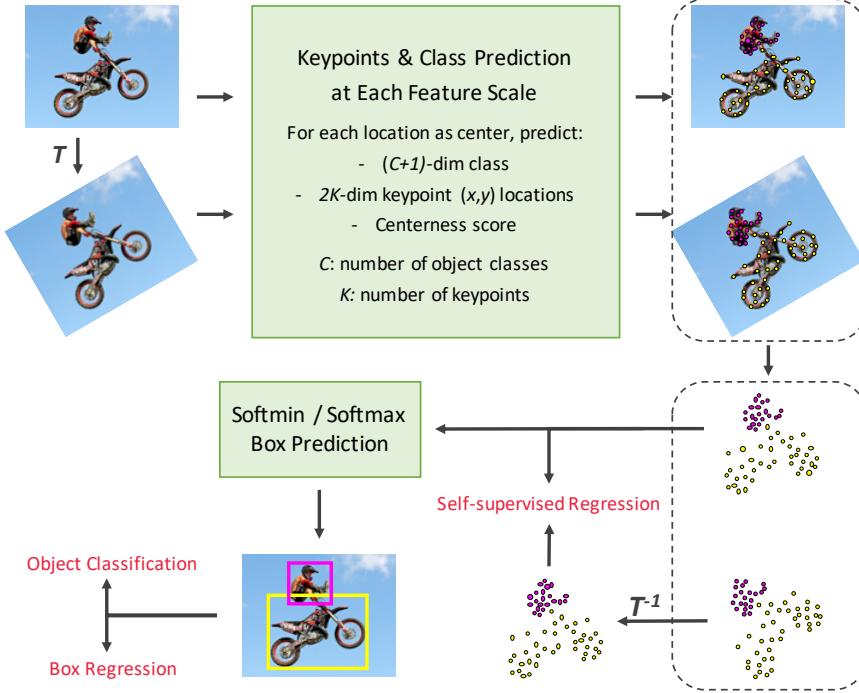


Figure 1: The proposed keypoints-aware object detection framework. The model treats each location on the image as an object center and predicts (1) object class, (2) keypoints, and (3) a centerness score. Bounding boxes are then computed through softmin and softmax operations on the keypoints. Classification, box regression, and centerness are learned in the standard supervised learning setup. Keypoints are learned through self-supervision by comparing keypoints generated for images and their affine-transformed variants. Best viewed digitally and zoomed in.

requiring pairs of frames as inputs. [Jakab et al. \(2018\)](#) predict keypoints by reconstructing a target image from a source image and keypoints extracted from the target through a bottleneck procedure. Our method, instead, explicitly predicts keypoints for each object.

Anchor-points detectors such as [\(Zhu et al., 2019\)](#) predict anchor points on the image and then bounding boxes as vertical and horizontal offsets from the anchor locations. [Wei et al. \(2020\)](#) design object-specific anchors as sets of points and make predictions relative to these point-set anchors. Our work, on the other hand, is similar in spirit to [\(Tian et al., 2019\)](#) and treats each location as a potential object center for making detection predictions. The self-supervised keypoint prediction in our work also falls under the umbrella of consistency-based learning through data augmentation [\(Xie et al., 2020\)](#).

### 3. Keypoints-aware Model for Object Detection

In the following sections, we describe (1) the complete model architecture, (2) self-supervised training for learning to predict object keypoints, and (3) computation of close-fit rotated

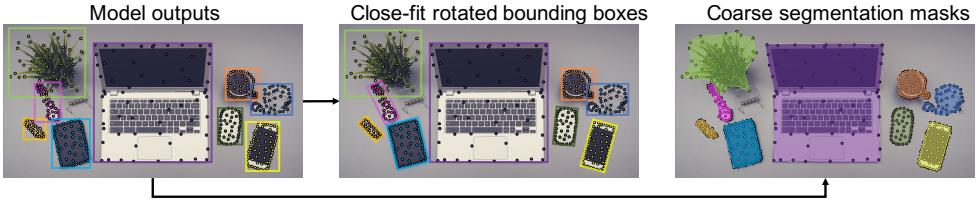


Figure 2: Auxiliary benefits of our model. The model outputs keypoints and rectangular bounding boxes along with the class labels. Keypoints can be used to derive rotated bounding boxes and coarse segmentation masks using computational geometry.

bounding boxes and coarse segmentation masks as auxiliary *post hoc* outputs. In the rest of the text, we denote the set of predicted keypoints as  $P$  and its cardinality as  $K$ .

### 3.1. Model Architecture

The proposed method is compatible with any existing detection framework, but we design it like (Tian et al., 2019) as a one-stage proposal-free and anchor-free model for validating its effectiveness. These attributes of the model significantly reduce computational overhead and sensitive hyperparameters (Tian et al., 2019). The model starts with a backbone convolutional feature extractor, for which we experiment with two commonly used alternatives (He et al., 2016) – ResNet-50 and ResNet-101, pretrained on ImageNet (Russakovsky et al., 2015). The features are then passed through a standard Feature Pyramid Network (FPN) (Lin et al., 2017a) to combine features from various depths of the backbone such that both low-level and high-level image features are utilized at each scale of prediction. Additional convolutional and upsampling operations are applied to ensure that all features have the same spatial dimensions as the original image and a fixed number of channels.

Objects of different sizes are detected at different feature levels, as standard in one-stage detectors. In this work, we follow the approach of (Tian et al., 2019) to treat each location on a feature map as an object center and make predictions relative to center locations. Hence, for each feature level, the FPN outputs are then fed to three sibling modules that make predictions for each location – (1) object-class prediction, (2) keypoints prediction as  $2 \times K$  channels representing  $(\Delta x, \Delta y)$  distances to keypoints at each location, and (3) centerness prediction, which prevents predicted detections from being far from the center location. Object bounding boxes are then derived from the keypoints as top-right and bottom-left coordinates through softmax and softmin operations, which facilitates gradient flow through all keypoints during backpropagation. The training losses for classification, box regression, and centerness are Focal loss (Lin et al., 2017b) ( $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Foc}}$ ), IoU loss (Yu et al., 2016) ( $\mathcal{L}_{\text{IoU}}$ ), and Centerness loss (Tian et al., 2019) ( $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Cen}}$ ), respectively. We generate prediction targets at different scales, limiting output ranges at each scale, and resolving overlapping ground-truth boxes by picking the one with the minimal area, following (Tian et al., 2019).

### 3.2. Self-supervised Training for Keypoint Predictions

In order to avoid dependence on ground-truth annotations for object-keypoints, we train the model to predict rotation and translation invariant keypoints in a self-supervised manner.

Specifically, given an image  $I$ , we first generate its variant  $I_T$  by applying an affine transformation  $I_T = TI$ . Next, we generate keypoints (at each location and each feature level)  $P$  and  $P_T$  for  $I$  and  $I_T$ , respectively, using the method described in Section 3.1. The keypoints  $P_T$  are then transformed back to the space of  $I$  by applying the inverse transformation  $P'_T = T^{-1}P_T$ . Intuitively,  $P$  and  $P'_T$  should match for the keypoints to be transformation invariant, and the smooth  $L_1$  loss ( $\mathcal{L}_{\text{SL}_1}$ ) between them can be used as the self-supervised loss. However,  $P$  and  $P'_T$  represent sets of keypoints with no inherent ordering. We employ Hungarian matching (Kuhn, 1955) (HM) to find the best alignment between the two sets and minimize the distances between the matched points. Furthermore,  $T$  could throw parts of the image out of frame and introduce empty space in the image frame. We mitigate corrupt losses from such locations by computing a mask  $m$  and backpropagating gradients only from valid object-center locations. Thus, the self-supervised keypoint-prediction loss (KPL)  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Key}}$  for each object-center location  $o$  and at each scale  $s$  can be written as shown in Equation (1). The complete training loss is presented in Equation (2), with  $\beta$  denoting the Lagrange multiplier for the new semi-supervised loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{key}}$ .

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{Key}}^{(o,s)} = \sum_{(P_i^{(o,s)}, (P'_T)_j^{(o,s)}) \in \text{HM}(P^{(o,s)}, (P'_T)^{(o,s)})} m^{(i)} \mathcal{L}_{\text{SL}_1} \left( P_i^{(o,s)}, (P'_T)_j^{(o,s)} \right) \quad (1)$$

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{Foc}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{IoU}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{Cen}} + \beta \mathcal{L}_{\text{Key}} \quad (2)$$

We propose to further evaluate the model’s sensitivity to  $K$  through ablation studies. We plan to determine good values of  $K$  in a data-driven manner by analyzing the number of vertices in segmentation masks in benchmark datasets and devising heuristics based on it.

### 3.3. Auxiliary Derived Outputs

The proposed framework provides close-fit rotated bounding boxes and coarse segmentation masks without explicitly training for them with supervision. In order to generate close-fit rotated bounding boxes, we employ the Rotating Calipers method (Preparata and Shamos, 2012; Toussaint, 1983) for computing the oriented minimum bounding box of a point-set, and apply it to the predicted object-keypoints. Generating segmentation masks, on the other hand, involves a simple calculation of the boundary of the predicted keypoints.

## 4. Experimental Evaluation

We evaluate the performance gains achieved from the proposed self-supervised keypoints-aware training and prediction strategy quantitatively on (1) object detection efficacy and (2) invariance to translations and rotations. Experiment (2) would additionally quantify the improvements in invariance to affine transformations of objects in images due to our keypoints-based approach. Performance is compared with the standard FCOS object detector as the baseline. Furthermore, we provide qualitative results of the auxiliary close-fit rotated bounding boxes and coarse segmentation masks. These predictions are “free of cost” and are not expected to outperform models trained with rotated box and pixel-level annotations, respectively. Finally, we perform ablation studies for evaluating gains due to the proposed Hungarian matching, and the model’s sensitivity to the number of keypoints.



Figure 3: Detection results on the VOC dataset. The first column from the left shows the results of the FCOS model whereas the second shows those for our model trained without the keypoint prediction loss (KPL). The following columns show (left to right) the standard bounding boxes, derived rotated bounding boxes, and derived coarse segmentation masks for our model trained with KPL. Detection boxes, segmentation masks, and the corresponding keypoints are color-matched for our models for ease of visualization. Each colored block shows results for a test image and its affine-transformed version. Best viewed digitally and zoomed in.

Object detection efficacy is benchmarked on the standard PASCAL VOC ([Everingham et al., 2010](#)) (training on VOC 07+12 training set; testing on VOC 07 validation set) and MS COCO ([Lin et al., 2014](#)) (training on COCO 2017 training set; testing on COCO 2017 validation set) datasets using the standard mean average precision (mAP) metrics defined for these datasets. In order to evaluate translation and rotation invariance, we generate two new datasets from both VOC and COCO test sets (total four) – one for translation and another for rotation. In case of the former, we randomly shift the image along  $X$  and  $Y$  axes,

Table 1: Results on PASCAL VOC with ResNet-50 and ResNet-101 backbones. KPL and HM indicate whether the keypoint prediction loss and Hungarian Matching were used during training, respectively. “-st”, “-rt”, and “-tr” suffices indicate results on the original, rotated, and translated versions of VOC, respectively.

Model			Backbone: ResNet-50			Backbone: ResNet-101		
	KPL	HM	mAP-st	mAP-rt	mAP-tr	mAP-st	mAP-rt	mAP-tr
FCOS	–	–	<b>0.738</b>	0.591	<b>0.733</b>	<b>0.765</b>	<b>0.627</b>	<b>0.760</b>
KAOD-16	✗	✗	0.719	0.579	0.710	0.737	0.601	0.731
	✓	✗	0.720	0.585	0.716	0.741	0.601	0.735
	✓	✓	0.729	<b>0.594</b>	0.717	0.746	0.604	0.742
KAOD-32	✗	✗	0.731	0.575	0.719	0.725	0.609	0.722
	✓	✗	0.723	0.586	0.714	0.732	0.609	0.725
	✓	✓	0.727	<b>0.594</b>	0.719	0.741	0.610	0.733
KAOD-48	✗	✗	0.718	0.586	0.711	0.730	0.557	0.729
	✓	✗	0.719	0.578	0.710	0.735	0.578	0.731
	✓	✓	0.721	0.587	0.711	0.739	0.609	0.734

Table 2: Results on MS COCO. KPL indicates whether the keypoint prediction loss was used during training. All KAOD models were trained with Hungarian Matching. “-st”, “-rt”, and “-tr” suffices indicate results on the original, rotated, and translated versions of COCO, respectively.

Model	KPL	Backbone: ResNet-50			Backbone: ResNet-101		
		mAP-st	mAP-rt	mAP-tr	mAP-st	mAP-rt	mAP-tr
FCOS	–	<b>0.357</b>	<b>0.286</b>	<b>0.344</b>	<b>0.376</b>	<b>0.305</b>	<b>0.363</b>
KAOD-8	✗	0.313	0.251	0.303	0.268	0.207	0.260
	✓	0.329	0.266	0.321	0.280	0.218	0.271
KAOD-16	✗	0.315	0.252	0.306	0.283	0.222	0.274
	✓	0.331	0.264	0.322	0.302	0.236	0.293
KAOD-32	✗	0.313	0.253	0.303	0.262	0.201	0.254
	✓	0.331	0.266	0.322	0.281	0.219	0.271

while in the latter case, we rotate each image by a random angle in the range  $[-30^\circ, 30^\circ]$ . The resulting images are cropped to remove empty-space artifacts from the transformations. mAP metrics are reported separately for each case. The goal here is to achieve high mAP scores for transformed images as indicators of robustness and invariance.

## 5. Results

Our analysis of the segmentation masks annotated in the VOC dataset showed that the median number of vertices in the segmentation masks is 17. Consequently, we trained our keypoints-aware models (KAOD) with number of keypoints  $K \in \{16, 32, 48\}$  for VOC and  $K \in \{8, 16, 32\}$  for COCO. We present results on VOC and COCO as follows.

**PASCAL VOC.** Table 1 shows results of the FCOS model and KAOD models trained with or without the self-supervised keypoint prediction loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{Key}}$  (KPL). KAOD with  $K = 48$  performs poorly. Furthermore, KAOD models trained without KPL or HM perform worse than the baseline FCOS model. Although the FCOS model performs the best overall, the full KAOD model with ResNet-50 backbone trained with KPL and HM performs better on the rotated version of the dataset than the corresponding FCOS for  $K \in \{16, 32\}$ . Qualitative results of FCOS and KAOD with  $K = 32$  and ResNet-50 backbone are presented in Figure 3, including close-fit rotated bounding boxes and coarse segmentation masks derived from the predicted keypoints, showing that KAOD trained with KPL makes the best bounding box predictions, especially on affine-transformed images.

**MS COCO.** Results on the MS COCO dataset are presented in Table 2. Our KAOD models (trained with HM based on ablations results on VOC) perform worse than FCOS. KAOD models trained without KPL perform significantly worse than those trained with KPL. Hence, although the KAOD models do not outperform FCOS, these results, in conjunction with those on PASCAL VOC, validate that KPL is necessary for training KAOD.

## 6. Findings

We find that our KAOD models are slow to train when compared to FCOS, especially when KPL is used during training. The computational bottleneck occurs at the step of rotating and translating all keypoint predictions for all locations (as object centers) on feature maps at multiple scales. Furthermore, the training time scales linearly with the number of keypoint predictions per bounding box, which translates to the training time being doubled as we increase  $K$  from 16 to 32, for example. Besides requiring more time for each training iteration, we find that KAOD models trained with KPL require up to triple the number of iterations for the training to converge when compared to FCOS. This indicates the difficulty of learning transformation-invariant keypoints. Finally, we find that most of the predicted keypoints collapse at the centers of the corresponding bounding boxes, especially when KPL is used. This corresponds to an easy solution for minimizing KPL between keypoints for original and transformed versions of images as keypoints are predicted with respect to object centers, and points near object centers have the least displacements for affine transformations.

## 7. Conclusion

We have presented a new keypoints-aware model for robust object detection invariant to affine transformations. The model predicts keypoints for each object, which are then used to compute the bounding boxes using simple minima and maxima operations. We have described the training process wherein box regression, classification and centerness are trained in a supervised manner while keypoints are learned through self-supervision by comparing

keypoints generated for images and their affine-transformed variants. Our model also provides close-fit rotated bounding boxes and coarse segmentation masks for free. Results show that our model achieves competitive results for VOC but fails in the case of COCO. Finally, we discussed our findings regarding training difficulties, providing directions for future research.

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