
You Only Look Once: Unified, Real-Time Object Detection

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Abstract

We present YOLO, a unified pipeline for object detection. Prior work on object detection repurposes classifiers to perform detection. Instead, we frame object detection as a regression problem to spatially separate bounding boxes and associated class probabilities. A single neural network predicts bounding boxes and class probabilities directly from full images in one evaluation. Since the whole detection pipeline is a single network, it can be optimized end-to-end directly on detection performance. Our unified architecture is also extremely fast; YOLO processes images in real-time at 45 frames per second, hundreds to thousands of times faster than existing detection systems. Our system uses global image context to detect and localize objects, making it less prone to background errors than top detection systems like R-CNN. By itself, YOLO detects objects at unprecedented speeds with moderate accuracy. When used in combination with state-of-the-art detectors, YOLO boosts performance by 2-3% points mAP.

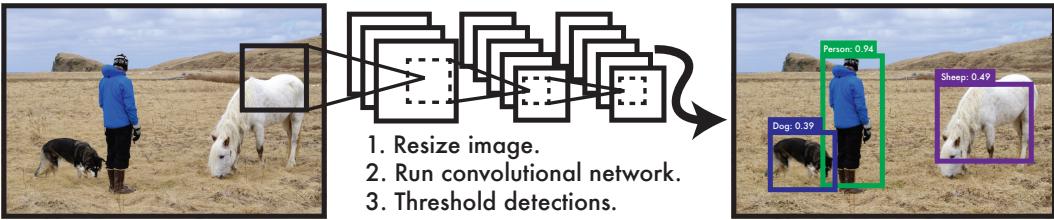
1 Introduction

Humans glance at an image and instantly know what objects are in the image, where they are, and how they interact. The human visual system is fast and accurate, allowing us to perform complex tasks like driving or grocery shopping with little conscious thought. Fast, accurate, algorithms for object detection would allow computers to drive cars in any weather without specialized sensors, enable assistive devices to convey real-time scene information to human users, and unlock the potential for general purpose, responsive robotic systems.

Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) achieve impressive performance on classification tasks at real-time speeds [13]. Yet top object detection systems like R-CNN take seconds to process individual images and hallucinate objects in background noise. We believe these shortcomings result from how these systems approach object detection.

Current detection systems repurpose classifiers to perform detection. To detect an object these systems take a classifier for that object and evaluate it at various locations and scales in a test image. Systems like deformable parts models (DPM) use a sliding window approach where the classifier is run at evenly spaced locations over the entire image [7]. More recent approaches like R-CNN use region proposal methods to first generate potential bounding boxes in an image and then run a classifier on these proposed boxes. After classification, post-processing is used to refine the bounding box, eliminate duplicate detections, and rescore the box based on other objects in the scene [9].

These region proposal techniques typically generate a few thousand potential boxes per image. Selective Search, the most common region proposal method, takes 1-2 seconds per image to generate these boxes [26]. The classifier then takes additional time to evaluate the proposals. The best performing systems require 2-40 seconds per image and even those optimized for speed do not achieve real-time performance. Additionally, even a highly accurate classifier will produce false positives



062 **Figure 1: The YOLO Detection System.** Processing images with YOLO is simple and straightforward.
063 Our system (1) resizes the input image to 448×448 , (2) runs a single convolutional network
064 on the image, and (3) thresholds the resulting detections by the model’s confidence.

067 when faced with so many proposals. When viewed out of context, small sections of background can
068 resemble actual objects, causing detection errors.
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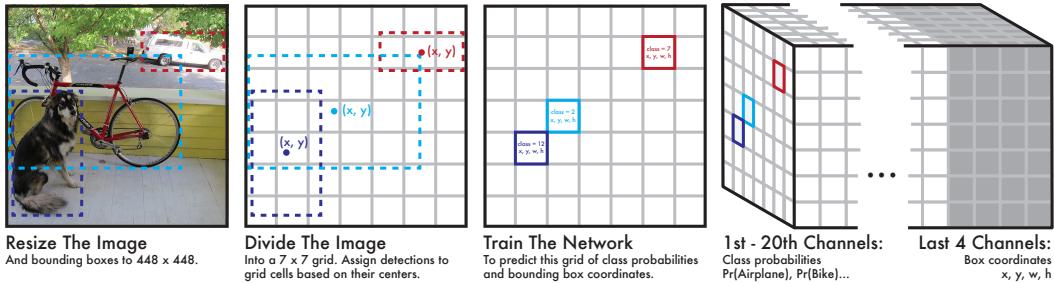
070 Finally, these detection pipelines rely on independent techniques at every stage that cannot be opti-
071 mized jointly. A typical pipeline uses Selective Search for region proposals, a convolutional network
072 for feature extraction, a collection of one-versus-all SVMs for classification, non-maximal suppres-
073 sion to reduce duplicates, and a linear model to adjust the final bounding box coordinates. Selective
074 Search tries to maximize recall while the SVMs optimize for single class accuracy and the linear
075 model learns from localization error.

076 Our system is refreshingly simple, see Figure 1. A single convolutional network simultaneously
077 predicts multiple bounding boxes and class probabilities for those boxes. We train our network on
078 full images and directly optimize detection performance. Context matters in object detection. Our
079 network uses global image features to predict detections which drastically reduces its errors from
080 background detections. At test time, a single network evalution of the full image produces detections
081 of multiple objects in multiple categories without any pre or post-processing.

082 Our training and testing code are open source and available online at [redacted]. A variety of pre-
083 trained models are also available to download.

085 2 Unified Detection

088 We unify the separate components of object detection into a single neural network. Using our
089 system, you only look once (YOLO) at an image to predict what objects are present and where they
090 are. Our network uses features from the entire image to predict each bounding box. It also predicts
091 all bounding boxes for an image simultaneously. This means our network reasons globally about
092 the full image and all the objects in the image. The YOLO design enables end-to-end training and
093 real-time speeds while maintaining high average precision.



105 **Figure 2: The Model.** Our system models detection as a regression problem to a $7 \times 7 \times 24$ tensor.
106 This tensor encodes bounding boxes and class probabilities for all objects in the image.
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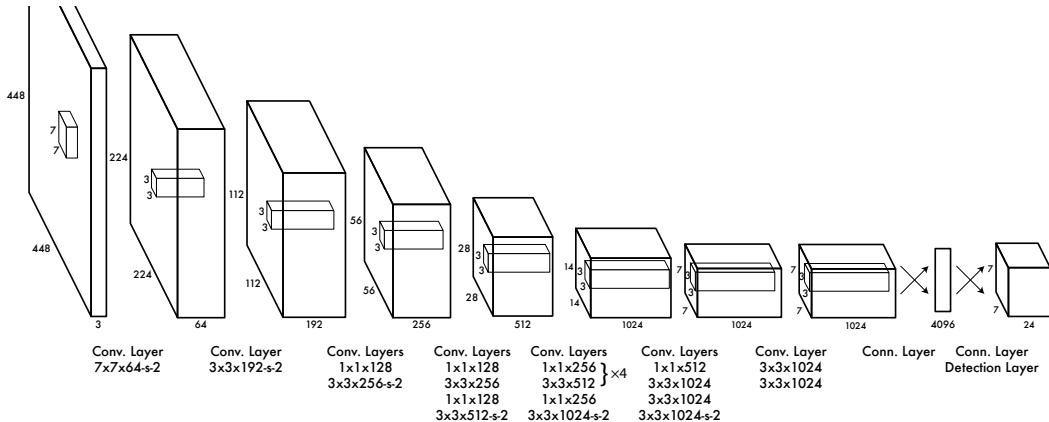
2.1 Design

110 Our system divides the input image into a 7×7 grid. If the center of an object falls into a grid cell,
111 that grid cell is responsible for detecting that object. Each grid cell predicts a bounding box and
112 class probabilities associated with that bounding box, see Figure 2.
113

114 We implement this model as a convolutional neural network and evaluate it on the PASCAL VOC
115 detection dataset [6]. The initial convolutional layers of the network extract features from the image
116 while the fully connected layers predict the output probabilities and coordinates.
117

118 Our network architecture is inspired by the GoogLeNet model for image classification [25]. Our
119 network has 24 convolutional layers followed by 2 fully connected layers. However, instead of the
120 inception modules used by GoogLeNet we simply use 1×1 reduction layers followed by 3×3
121 convolutional layers, similar to Lin et al [17]. We also replace maxpooling layers with strided
122 convolutions. The full network is shown in Figure 3.
123

124 The final output of our network is a 7×7 grid of predictions. Each grid cell predicts 20 conditional
125 class probabilities, and 4 bounding box coordinates.
126



140 **Figure 3: The Architecture.** Our detection network has 24 convolutional layers followed by 2 fully
141 connected layers. The network uses strided convolutional layers to downsample the feature space
142 instead of maxpooling layers. Alternating 1×1 convolutional layers reduce the features space from
143 preceding layers. We pretrain the convolutional layers on the ImageNet classification task at half
144 the resolution (224×224 input image) and then double the resolution for detection.
145
146
147

2.2 Training

150 We pretrain our convolutional layers on the ImageNet 1000-class competition dataset [22]. For
151 pretraining we use the first 20 convolutional layers from Figure 3 followed by a maxpooling layer
152 and two fully connected layers. We train this network for approximately a week and achieve a top-5
153 accuracy of 86% on the ImageNet 2012 validation set.
154

155 We then adapt the model to perform detection. Ren et al. show that adding both convolutional and
156 connected layers to pretrained networks can benefit performance [21]. Following their example,
157 we add four convolutional layers and two fully connected layers with randomly initialized weights.
158 Detection often requires fine-grained visual information so we increase the input resolution of the
159 network from 224×224 to 448×448 .
160

161 Our final layer predicts both class probabilities and bounding box coordinates. We normalize the
162 bounding box width and height by the image width and height so that they fall between 0 and 1. We
163 parameterize the bounding box x and y coordinates to be offsets of a particular grid cell location
164

162 so they are also bounded between 0 and 1. We use a logistic activation function to reflect these
 163 constraints on the final layer. All other layers use the following leaky rectified linear activation:
 164

$$\phi(x) = \begin{cases} 1.1x, & \text{if } x > 0 \\ .1x, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

168 We optimize for sum-squared error in the output of our model. We use sum-squared error because
 169 it is easy to optimize, however it does not perfectly align with our goal of maximizing average
 170 precision. It weights localization error equally with classification error which may not be ideal. To
 171 remedy this, we use a scaling factor λ to adjust the weight given to error from coordinate predictions
 172 versus error from class probabilities. In our final model we use the scaling factor $\lambda = 4$.

173 Sum-squared error also equally weights errors in large boxes and small boxes. Our error metric
 174 should reflect that small deviations in large boxes matter less than in small boxes. To partially
 175 address this we predict the square root of the bounding box width and height instead of the width
 176 and height directly.

177 If cell i predicts class probabilities $\hat{p}_i(\text{aeroplane}), \hat{p}_i(\text{bicycle})\dots$ and the bounding box $\hat{x}_i, \hat{y}_i, \hat{w}_i, \hat{h}_i$
 178 then our full loss function for an example is:

$$181 \sum_{i=0}^{48} \left(\lambda \mathbb{1}_i^{\text{obj}} ((x_i - \hat{x}_i)^2 + (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 + (\sqrt{w_i} - \sqrt{\hat{w}_i})^2 + (\sqrt{h_i} - \sqrt{\hat{h}_i})^2) + \sum_{c \in \text{classes}} (p_i(c) - \hat{p}_i(c))^2 \right) \quad (2)$$

185 Where $\mathbb{1}_i^{\text{obj}}$ encodes whether any object appears in cell i . Note that if there is no object in a cell we
 186 do not consider any loss from the bounding box coordinates predicted by that cell. In this case, there
 187 is no ground truth bounding box so we only penalize the associated probabilities with that region.

188 We train the network for about 120 epochs on the training and validation data sets from PASCAL
 189 VOC 2007 and 2012 as well as the test set from 2007, a total of 21k images. Throughout training
 190 we use a batch size of 64, a momentum of 0.9 and a decay of 0.0005. We use two learning rates
 191 during training: 10^{-2} and 10^{-3} . Training diverges if we use the higher learning rate, 10^{-2} , from
 192 the start. We use the lower rate, 10^{-3} , for one epoch so that the randomly initialized weights in the
 193 final layers can settle to reasonable values. Then we train with the following learning rate schedule:
 194 10^{-2} for 80 epochs, and 10^{-3} for 40 epochs.

195 To avoid overfitting we use dropout and extensive data augmentation. A dropout layer with rate = .5
 196 after the first connected layer prevents co-adaptation between layers [14]. For data augmentation we
 197 introduce random scaling and translations of up to 10% of the original image size. We also randomly
 198 adjust the exposure and saturation of the image by up to a factor of 2.

200 2.2.1 Parameterizing Class Probabilities

201 Each grid cell predicts class probabilities for that area of the image. There are 49 cells with a possible
 202 20 classes each yielding 980 predicted probabilities per image. Most of these probabilities will be
 203 zero since only a few objects appear in any given image. Left unchecked, this imbalance pushes all
 204 of the probabilities to zero, leading to divergence during training.

205 To overcome this, we add an extra variable to each grid location, the probability that any object exists
 206 in that location regardless of class. Thus instead of 20 class probabilities we have 1 “objectness”
 207 probability, $\text{Pr}(\text{Object})$, and 20 conditional probabilities: $\text{Pr}(\text{Airplane}|\text{Object})$, $\text{Pr}(\text{Bicycle}|\text{Object})$,
 208 etc.

209 To get the unconditional probability for an object class at a given location we simply multiply the
 210 “objectness” probability by the conditional class probability:

$$213 \text{Pr}(\text{Dog}) = \text{Pr}(\text{Object}) * \text{Pr}(\text{Dog}|\text{Object}) \quad (3)$$

214 We can optimize these probabilities independently or jointly using a novel “detection layer” in our
 215 convolutional network. During the initial stages of training we optimize them independently to

improve model stability. We update the “objectness” probabilities at every location however we only update the conditional probabilities at locations that actually contain an object. This means there are far fewer probabilities getting pushed towards zero.

During later stages of training we optimize the unconditioned probabilities by performing the required multiplications in the network and calculating error based on the result.

2.2.2 Predicting IOU

Like most detection systems, our network has trouble precisely localizing small objects. While it may correctly predict that an object is present in an area of the image, if it does not predict a precise enough bounding box the detection is counted as a false positive.

We want YOLO to have some notion of uncertainty in its probability predictions. Instead of predicting 1-0 probabilities we can scale the target class probabilities by the IOU of the predicted bounding box with the ground truth box for a region. When YOLO predicts good bounding boxes it is also encouraged to predict high class probabilities. For poor bounding box predictions it learns to predict lower confidence probabilities.

We do not train to predict IOU from the beginning, only during the second stage of training. It is not necessary for good performance but it does boost our mean average precision by 3-4%.

2.3 Inference

Just like in training, predicting detections for a test image only requires one network evaluation. The network predicts 49 bounding boxes per image and class probabilities for each box. YOLO is extremely fast at test time since it only requires a single network evaluation unlike classifier-based methods.

The grid design enforces spatial diversity in the bounding box predictions. Often it is clear which grid cell an object falls in to and the network only predicts one box for each object. However, some large objects or objects near the border of multiple cells can be well localized by multiple cells. Non-maximal suppression can be used to fix these multiple detections. While not critical to performance as it is for R-CNN or DPM, non-maximal suppression adds 2-3% in mAP.

2.4 Limitations of YOLO

YOLO imposes strong spatial constraints on bounding box predictions since each grid cell only predicts one box. This spatial constraint limits the number of nearby objects that our model can predict. If two objects fall into the same cell our model can only predict one of them. Our model struggles with small objects that appear in groups, such as flocks of birds.

Since our model learns to predict bounding boxes from data, it struggles to generalize to objects in new or unusual aspect ratios or configurations. Our model also uses relatively coarse features for predicting bounding boxes since our architecture has multiple downsampling layers from the input image.

Finally, while we train on a loss function that approximates detection performance, our loss function treats errors the same in small bounding boxes versus large bounding boxes. A small error in a large box is generally benign but a small error in a small box has a much greater effect on IOU. Our main source of error is incorrect localizations.

3 Comparison to Other Detection Systems

Object detection is a core problem in computer vision. Detection pipelines generally start by extracting a set of robust features from input images (Haar [19], SIFT [18], HOG [2], convolutional features [3]). Then, classifiers [27, 16, 9, 7] or localizers [1, 23] are used to identify objects in the feature space. These classifiers or localizers are run either in sliding window fashion over the whole image or on some subset of regions in the image [26, 11, 28]. We compare the YOLO detection system to several top detection frameworks, highlighting key similarities and differences.

VOC 2012 test	mAP	aero	bike	bird	boat	bottle	bus	car	cat	chair	cow	table	dog	horse	mbike	person	plant	sheep	sofa	train	tv
MR.CNN.S.CNN [8]	70.7	85.0	79.6	71.5	55.3	57.7	76.0	73.9	84.6	50.5	74.3	61.7	85.5	79.9	81.7	76.4	41.0	69.0	61.2	77.7	72.1
DEEP.LENS.COCO	70.1	84.0	79.4	71.6	51.9	51.1	74.1	72.1	88.6	48.3	73.4	57.8	86.1	80.0	80.7	70.4	46.6	69.6	68.8	75.9	71.4
Fast R-CNN + YOLO	70.0	83.0	78.4	73.4	55.7	42.5	78.2	72.7	89.5	48.2	74.0	56.4	87.2	80.8	80.7	74.4	41.1	70.0	67.1	81.2	66.0
NoC [21]	68.8	82.8	79.0	71.6	52.3	53.7	74.1	69.0	84.9	46.9	74.3	53.1	85.0	81.3	79.5	72.2	38.9	72.4	59.5	76.7	68.1
Fast R-CNN [10]	68.4	82.3	78.4	70.8	52.3	38.7	77.8	71.6	89.3	44.2	73.0	55.0	87.5	80.5	80.8	72.0	35.1	68.3	65.7	80.4	64.2
NUS.NIN.C2000 [4]	63.8	80.2	73.8	61.9	43.7	43.0	70.3	67.6	80.7	41.9	69.7	51.7	78.2	75.2	76.9	65.1	38.6	68.3	58.0	68.7	63.3
BabyLearning [4]	63.2	78.0	74.2	61.3	45.7	42.7	68.2	66.8	80.2	40.6	70.0	49.8	79.0	74.5	77.9	64.0	35.3	67.9	55.7	68.7	62.6
R-CNN VGG BB [9]	62.4	79.6	72.7	61.9	41.2	41.9	65.9	66.4	84.6	38.5	67.2	46.7	82.0	74.8	76.0	65.2	35.6	65.4	54.2	67.4	60.3
NUS.NIN	62.4	77.9	73.1	62.6	39.5	43.3	69.1	66.4	78.9	39.1	68.1	50.0	77.2	71.3	76.1	64.7	38.4	66.9	56.2	66.9	62.7
R-CNN VGG [9]	59.2	76.8	70.9	56.6	37.5	36.9	62.9	63.6	81.1	35.7	64.3	43.9	80.4	71.6	74.0	60.0	30.8	63.4	52.0	63.5	58.7
Feature Edit [24]	56.3	74.6	69.1	54.4	39.1	33.1	65.2	62.7	69.7	30.8	56.0	44.6	70.0	64.4	71.1	60.2	33.3	61.3	46.4	61.7	57.8
YOLO	53.6	71.6	62.2	55.2	35.9	23.2	62.4	53.7	78.1	34.0	52.9	38.7	72.2	67.3	66.3	62.1	25.5	50.0	46.9	67.4	46.3
R-CNN BB [9]	53.3	71.8	65.8	52.0	34.1	32.6	59.6	60.0	69.8	27.6	52.0	41.7	69.6	61.3	68.3	57.8	29.6	57.8	40.9	59.3	54.1
SDS [12]	50.7	69.7	58.4	48.5	28.3	28.8	61.3	57.5	70.8	24.1	50.7	35.9	64.9	59.1	65.8	57.1	26.0	58.8	38.6	58.9	50.7
R-CNN [9]	49.6	68.1	63.8	46.1	29.4	27.9	56.6	57.0	65.9	26.5	48.7	39.5	66.2	57.3	65.4	53.2	26.2	54.5	38.1	50.6	51.6

Table 1: PASCAL VOC 2012 Leaderboard. YOLO compared with the full comp4 (outside data allowed) public leaderboard as of June 5th, 2015. Mean average precision and per-class average precision are shown for a variety of detection methods. YOLO is the top detection method that is not based on the R-CNN detection framework. Fast R-CNN + YOLO is one of the top methods overall, with a 1.6% boost over Fast R-CNN and the highest average precision in 6 out of 20 classes.

Deformable parts models. Deformable parts models (DPM) use a sliding window approach to object detection [7]. DPM uses a disjoint pipeline to extract static features, classify regions, predict bounding boxes for high scoring regions, etc. Our system replaces all of these disparate parts with a single convolutional neural network. The network performs feature extraction, bounding box prediction, non-maximal suppression, and contextual reasoning all concurrently. Instead of static features, the network trains the features in-line and optimizes them for the detection task. Our unified architecture leads to a faster, more accurate model than DPM.

R-CNN. R-CNN and its variants use region proposals instead of sliding windows to find objects in images. These systems use region proposal methods like Selective Search [26] to generate potential bounding boxes in an image. Instead of scanning through every region in the window, now the classifier only has to score a small subset of potential regions in an image. Good region proposal methods maintain high recall despite greatly limiting the search space. This performance comes at a cost. Selective Search, even in “fast mode” takes about 2 seconds to propose regions for an image.

R-CNN shares many design aspects with DPM. After region proposal, R-CNN uses the same multi-stage pipeline of feature extraction (using CNNs instead of HOG), SVM scoring, non-maximal suppression, and bounding box prediction using a linear model [9].

YOLO shares some similarities with R-CNN. Each grid cell proposes a potential bounding box and then scores that bounding box using convolutional features. However, our system puts spatial constraints on the grid cell proposals which helps mitigate multiple detections of the same object. Our system also proposes far fewer bounding boxes, only 49 per image compared to about 2000 from Selective Search. Finally, our system combines these individual components into a single, jointly optimized model.

Deep MultiBox. Unlike R-CNN, Szegedy et al. train a convolutional neural network to predict regions of interest [5] instead of using Selective Search. MultiBox can also perform single object detection by replacing the confidence prediction with a single class prediction. However, MultiBox cannot perform general object detection and is still just a piece in a larger detection pipeline, requiring further image patch classification. Both YOLO and MultiBox use a convolutional network to predict bounding boxes in an image but YOLO is a complete detection pipeline.

OverFeat. Sermanet et al. train a convolutional neural network to perform localization and adapt that localizer to perform detection [23]. OverFeat efficiently performs sliding window detection but it is still a disjoint system. OverFeat optimizes for localization, not detection performance. Like DPM, the localizer only sees local information when making a prediction. OverFeat cannot reason about global context and thus requires significant post-processing to produce coherent detections.

Our work is most similar in design to work on grasp detection by Redmon et al [20].

324 4 Experiments

326 We present detection results for the PASCAL VOC 2012 dataset and compare our mean average
 327 precision (mAP) and runtime to other top detection methods. We also perform error analysis on the
 328 VOC 2007 dataset. We compare our results to Fast R-CNN, one of the highest performing versions
 329 of R-CNN [10]. We use publicly available runs of Fast R-CNN available on GitHub. Finally we
 330 show that a combination of our method with Fast R-CNN gives a significant performance boost.
 331

332 4.1 VOC 2012 Results

334 On the VOC 2012 test set we achieve 53.6 mAP. This is lower than the current state of the art,
 335 closer to R-CNN based methods that use AlexNet, see Table 1. Our system struggles with small ob-
 336 jects compared to its closest competitors. On categories like `bottle`, `sheep`, and `tv/monitor`
 337 YOLO scores 8-10 percentage points lower than R-CNN or Feature Edit. However, on other cate-
 338 gories like `cat` and `horse` YOLO achieves significantly higher performance. We further investi-
 339 gate the source of these performance disparities in Section 4.3.

341 4.2 Speed

343 At test time YOLO processes images at 45
 344 frames per second on an Nvidia Titan X GPU.
 345 It is considerably faster than classifier-based
 346 methods with similar mAP. Normal R-CNN us-
 347 ing AlexNet or the small VGG network take
 348 400-500x longer to process images. The re-
 349 cently proposed Fast R-CNN shares convolu-
 350 tional features between the bounding boxes but
 351 still relies on selective search for bounding box
 352 proposals which accounts for the bulk of their
 353 processing time. YOLO is still around 100x
 354 faster than Fast R-CNN. Table 2 shows a full
 355 comparison between multiple R-CNN and Fast
 356 R-CNN variants and YOLO.

357 4.3 VOC 2007 Error Analysis

359 An object detector must have high recall for ob-
 360 jects in the test set to obtain high performance.

361 Our model imposes spatial constraints on bounding box predictions which limits recall on small
 362 objects that are close together. We examine how detrimental this is in practice by calculating our
 363 highest possible recall assuming perfect coordinate prediction. Under this assumption, our model
 364 can achieve a 93.1% recall for objects in the VOC 2007 test set. This is lower than Selective Search
 365 (98.0% [26]) but still relatively high.

366 Using the methodology and tools of Hoiem et
 367 al. [15] we analyze our performance on the
 368 VOC 2007 test set. We compare YOLO to Fast
 369 R-CNN using VGG-16, one of the highest per-
 370 forming object detectors.

371 Figure 4 compares frequency of localization
 372 and background errors between Fast R-CNN
 373 and YOLO. A detection is considered a local-
 374 ization error if it overlaps a true positive in the
 375 image but by less than the required 50% IOU. A
 376 detection is a background error if the box does
 377 not overlap any objects of any class in the im-
 age.

	mAP	Time	FPS	Run Time
R-CNN (VGG-16)	66.0	48.2 hr	0.02 fps	1500x
FR-CNN (VGG-16)	66.9	3.1 hr	0.45 fps	100x
R-CNN (Small VGG)	60.2	14.4 hr	0.09 fps	500x
FR-CNN (Small VGG)	59.2	2.9 hr	0.48 fps	93x
R-CNN (Caffe)	58.5	12.2 hr	0.11 fps	409x
FR-CNN (Caffe)	57.1	2.8 hr	0.48 fps	93x
YOLO	58.8	110 sec	45 fps	-

Table 2: Prediction Timing. mAP and timing in-
 formation for R-CNN, Fast R-CNN, and YOLO
 on the VOC 2007 test set. Timing information
 is given both as frames per second and the time
 each method takes to process the full 4952 image
 set. The final column shows the relative speed of
 YOLO compared to that method.

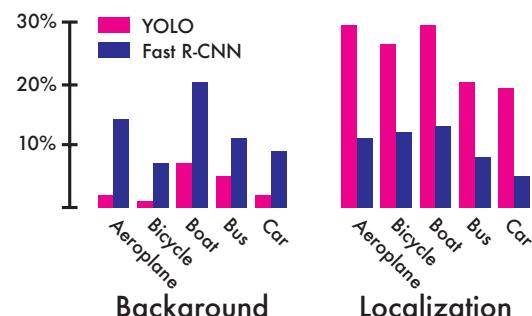


Figure 4: Error Analysis: Fast R-CNN vs.
YOLO These charts show the percentage of lo-
 calization and background errors in the top N de-
 tections for various categories (N = # objects in
 that category).

378 Fast R-CNN makes around the same number of
 379 localization errors and background errors. Over
 380 all 20 classes in the top N detections 13.6% are
 381 localization errors and 8.6% are background er-
 382 rors.
 383 YOLO makes far more localization errors but
 384 relatively few background errors. Averaged across all classes, of its top N detections 24.7% are
 385 localization errors and a mere 4.3% are background errors. This is about twice the number of
 386 localization errors but half the number of background detections.
 387 YOLO uses global context to evaluate detections while R-CNN only sees small portions of the
 388 image. Many of the background detections made by R-CNN are obviously not objects when shown
 389 in context. YOLO and R-CNN are good at different parts of object detection. Since their main
 390 sources of error are orthogonal, combining them should produce a model that is better across the
 391 board.

4.4 Combining Fast R-CNN and YOLO

395 YOLO makes far fewer background mistakes
 396 than Fast R-CNN. By using YOLO to elimi-
 397 nate background detections from Fast R-CNN
 398 we get a significant boost in performance. For
 399 every bounding box that R-CNN predicts we
 400 check to see if YOLO predicts a similar box.
 401 If it does, we give that prediction a boost based
 402 on the probability predicted by YOLO and the
 403 overlap between the two boxes. This reorders
 404 the detections to favor those predicted by both
 405 systems. Since we still use Fast R-CNN's
 406 bounding box predictions we do not introduce
 407 any localization error. Thus we take advantage
 408 of the best aspects of both systems.

409 The best Fast R-CNN model achieves a mAP of
 410 71.8% on the VOC 2007 test set. When com-
 411 bined with YOLO, its mAP increases by 2.9%
 412 to 74.7%. We also tried combining the top Fast
 413 R-CNN model with several other versions of Fast R-CNN. Those ensembles produced small in-
 414 creases in mAP between .3 and .6%, see Table 3 for details. Thus, the benefit from combining Fast
 415 R-CNN with YOLO is unique, not a general property of combining models in this way.

416 Using this combination strategy we achieve a significant boost on the VOC 2012 and 2010 test sets
 417 as well, around 2%. The combined Fast R-CNN + YOLO model performs on par with the best
 418 models on the VOC 2012 leaderboard.

5 Conclusion

422 We introduce YOLO, a unified pipeline for object detection. Our model is simple to construct and
 423 can be trained directly on full images. Unlike classifier-based approaches, YOLO is trained on a
 424 loss function that directly corresponds to detection performance and every piece of the pipeline can
 425 be trained jointly.

426 The network reasons about the entire image during inference which makes it less likely to predict
 427 background false positives than sliding window or proposal region detectors. Moreover, it predicts
 428 detections with only a single network evaluation, making it extremely fast.

429 YOLO achieves impressive performance on standard benchmarks considering it is 2-3 orders of
 430 magnitude faster than existing detection methods. It can also be used to rescore the bounding boxes
 431 produced by state-of-the-art methods like R-CNN for a significant boost in performance.

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