Analyzing the Dependency of ConvNets on Spatial Information

Yue Fan Yongqin Xian Max Maria Losch Bernt Schiele
Max Planck Institute for Informatics
Saarland Informatics Campus
yfan@mpi-inf.mpg.de yxian@mpi-inf.mpg.de mlosch@mpi-inf.mpg.de schiele@mpi-inf.mpg.de

Abstract

Intuitively, image classification should profit from using spatial information. Recent work, however, suggests that this might be overrated in standard CNNs. In this paper, we are pushing the envelope and aim to further investigate the reliance on spatial information. We propose spatial shuffling and GAP+FC to destroy spatial information during both training and testing phases. Interestingly, we observe that spatial information can be deleted from later layers with small performance drops, which indicates spatial information at later layers is not necessary for good performance. For example, test accuracy of VGG-16 only drops by 0.03% and 2.66% with spatial information completely removed from the last 30% and 53% layers on CIFAR100, respectively. Evaluation on several object recognition datasets (CIFAR100, Small-ImageNet, ImageNet) with a wide range of CNN architectures (VGG16, ResNet50, ResNet152) shows an overall consistent pattern.

1. Introduction

Despite the impressive performances of convolutional neural networks (CNNs) on computer vision tasks [19, 10, 17, 11, 26], their inner workings remain mostly obfuscated to us and analyzing them often results in surprising observations [29, 21, 2, 9, 16, 1].

Generally, the majority of modern CNNs for image classification learn spatial information across all the convolutional layers: every layer in AlexNet, VGG, Inception, and ResNet applies $3 \times 3$ or larger filters. Such design choices are based on the assumption that spatial information remains important at every convolutional layer to consecutively increase the access to a larger spatial context. This is based on the observations that single local features can be ambiguous and should be related to other features in the same scene to make accurate predictions [27, 13].

However, recent works on restricting the receptive field of CNN architectures for scrambled inputs [2] or using wavelet feature networks of shallow depth [22], have all found it to be possible to acquire competitive performances on the respective tasks. This raises doubts on the necessity of spatial information for classification and whether the model is still able to maintain the performance if the spatial information is completely removed from the training process.

We add to the list of surprising findings surrounding the inner workings of CNNs and present a rigorous investigation on the necessity of spatial information in standard CNNs by avoiding learning spatial information at multiple layers. Spatial information refers to the spatial ordering on the feature map.

To this end, we propose channel-wise shuffle to eliminate channel information, and spatial shuffle, patch-wise spatial shuffle and GAP+FC to eliminate spatial information. Surprisingly, we find that the modified CNNs i.e. without accessing any spatial information at later layers, can still achieve competitive results on several object recognition datasets. For example, Fig. 1 shows training processes of a standard VGG-16 and a shuffled VGG-16 where feature maps in the last 54% layers are randomly and spatially shuffled at both training and testing phases. The final test accuracy only drops 2.66% (from 74.10% to 71.44%) and the training curves are very similar, which implies that spatial information maybe not necessary for a good classification accuracy.

Figure 1. Training processes of a standard VGG-16 and a shuffled VGG-16 where feature maps in the last 54% layers are randomly and spatially shuffled at both training and testing phases. The final test accuracy only drops 2.66% (from 74.10% to 71.44%) and the training curves are very similar, which implies that spatial information maybe not necessary for a good classification accuracy.
ture maps spatially from the last 54% layers at each training step. Interestingly, the test accuracy only drops 2.66% and the training process is nearly identical to the standard VGG-16. This observation generalizes to various CNN architectures: removing spatial information from the last 30% layers gives a surprisingly little performance decrease within 1% across architectures and datasets, and the performance decrease is still within 7% even if the last 50% layers are manipulated. This indicates that spatial information is overrated for standard CNNs and not necessary to reach competitive performances. Finally, our investigation on the detection task shows that although the unavailability of spatial information at later layers does harm the localization of the model, the impact is not as fatal as expected; at the same time, the classification ability of the model is not affected.

In our experiments, we find that spatial information at later layers is not really necessary for a good classification performance and that even though the depth of the network plays an important role, the later layers do not necessarily have to be convolutions. As a side effect, GAP+FC leads to a smaller model with less parameters with small performance drops.

2. Related Work

Training models for the task of object recognition, our intuitive understanding would be that global image context is beneficial for making accurate predictions. For that reason extensive efforts have been made to enhance the aggregation of spatial information in the decision-making progress of CNNs. [5, 34] have made attempts to generalize the strict spatial sampling of convolutional kernels to allow for globally spread out sampling and [33] have spurred a range of follow-up work on embedding global context layers with the help of spatial down-sampling.

While all of these works have improved on a related classification metric in some way, it is not entirely evident whether the architectural changes alone can be credited, as there is an increasing number of work on questioning the importance of the extent of spatial information for common CNNs. One of the most recent observations by [2] for example indicates that the VGG-16 architecture trained on ImageNet is invariant to scrambled images to a large extent, e.g. they reported only a drop of slightly over 10% points top-5 accuracy for a pre-trained VGG-16. Furthermore, they construct a modified ResNet architecture with a limited receptive field as small as 33 × 33 and reach competitive results on ImageNet, similar to the style of the traditional Bag-of-Visual-Words. The latter is also explicitly incorporated into the training of CNNs in the works by [20, 8, 3], the effect of neglecting global spatial information by design has surprisingly little effect on performance values. In contrast to their work, we make a clear distinction between first and last layers, and we show empirically spatial information at last layers are not necessary for good performance.

[24] assumes that current CNNs don’t respect the spatial information due to the pooling operation; CNNs look for features in the image without paying attention to their pose during prediction. This limitation motivates the work of [24] where they make use of dynamic routing among capsules to encode the spatial information.

Global average pooling is used to substitute the final fully connected layer in many recent works [18, 11], which also hints that removing spatial information at the last layer does not affect the performance since the model is normally deep enough to obtain a sufficiently large receptive field.

On a related note, [9] indicates that models trained solely on ImageNet do not learn shape sensitive representations with constructing object-texture mismatched images, which would be expected to require global spatial information. Instead, the models are mostly sensitive to local texture features.

Our work is motivated to push the envelope further to investigate the necessity of spatial information in the processing pipeline of CNNs. While the related work has put the attention mainly on altering the input and does not differentiate between last and first layers, we are interested in taking measures that remove the spatial information at different intermediate layers to shed light on how CNNs process spatial information, evaluating its importance and providing insights for architectural design choices.

3. Methods and Experimental Setup

In this section, we develop methods to test how information is represented throughout the network’s layers and apply these to well established architectures. Section 3.1 elaborates details on our approaches and the experimental setup is discussed in section 3.2.

3.1. Approaches to Constrain Information

We propose 4 different methods, namely channel-wise shuffle, spatial shuffle, patch-wise spatial shuffle and GAP+FC, to remove either spatial or channel information from the training. Spatial information here refers to the awareness of the relative spatial position between activations on the feature map, and channel information stands for the dependency across feature maps. Fig. 2 middle illustrates an example of VGG-16 with its last 2 layers modified by any of the 3 shuffle method, and Fig. 2 right demonstrates the same modification by GAP+FC.

Spatial Shuffle extends the ordinary convolution operation by prepending a random spatial shuffle operation to permute the input to the convolution. As illustrated in Fig. 3 top: Given an input tensor of size $c \times h \times w$ with $c$ being the number of feature maps for a convolutional layer, we first take one feature map from the input tensor and flatten it into a 1-d vector with $h \times w$ elements, whose ordering
Therefore it can be embedded into the model directly for end-to-end training. As the indices are recomputed within each forward pass, the shuffled output is also independent across training and testing steps.

Images within the same batch are shuffled in the same way for the sake of simplicity since we find empirically that it does not make a difference whether the images inside the same batch are shuffled in different ways.

**Patch-wise Spatial Shuffle** is a variant of spatial shuffle which is performed at a global scale in the sense that the activation can end up with an arbitrary location on the feature map. Patch-wise spatial shuffle first divides the feature map into grids and shuffles activations within each grid independently. Afterwards, an ordinary convolution is performed as usual. Note that the two operations are equivalent when the patch size is the same as the feature map size. Fig. 3 middle demonstrates an example of patch-wise spatial shuffle with a $2 \times 2$ patch size, where the random permutation of pixel locations is restricted within each patch.

**Channel-wise Shuffle** keeps the spatial ordering of activations and randomly permutes the ordering of feature maps to prevent the model from utilizing channel information, which is considered essential [28, 31, 32]. It is used to make comparison of the model robustness against the loss of spatial information and channel information. An illustration can be seen in Fig. 3, channel-wise shuffle is also performed independently across training and testing steps.

**GAP+FC** denotes Global Average Pooling and Fully Connected Layers. Spatial Shuffle is an intuitive way of destroying spatial information but it also makes it hard to learn correlations across channels for a particular spatial location. Furthermore, shuffling introduces undesirable randomness into the model so that during evaluation multiple forward passes are needed to acquire an estimate of the mean of the output. A simple deterministic alternative achieving a similar goal is to deploy Global Average Pooling (GAP) after an intermediate layer, and all the subsequent ones are substituted by fully connected layers. Compared to Spatial Shuffle that introduces an extra computational burden at each forward pass, it is a much more efficient way to avoid learning spatial information at intermediate layers because it shrinks the spatial size of all subsequent feature maps to one, therefore, the number of FLOPs and parameters are also less.

### 3.2. Experimental Setup

We test different architectures on 4 datasets: CIFAR100, Small-ImageNet-32x32 [4], ImageNet and Pascal VOC 2007 + 2012. Small-ImageNet-32x32 is a down-sampled version of the original ImageNet (from $256 \times 256$ to $32 \times 32$). We report the top-1 accuracy and mAP [7, 6] in classification and detection experiments, respectively. We will take an existing model and apply the modification to differ-
ent layers. The rest of the setup and hyper-parameters for modified models remain the same as the baseline models.

Classification: For the VGG architecture, the modification is only performed on the convolutional layers as illustrated in Fig. 2. For the ResNet architecture, one bottleneck sub-module is considered as a single piece and the modification is applied onto the $3 \times 3$ convolutions within since they are the only operation with spatial extent. Features that go through the skip connection branch are also shuffled in the shuffle experiments to prevent the model from learning to ignore the information from the convolution branch. The rest of the configuration remains the same as in the baseline model (see supplemental material for an example of modified ResNet-50 architecture).

For CIFAR100 and Small-ImageNet-32x32 experiments, the original ResNet architecture down-samples the input image by a factor of 32 and gives $1 \times 1$ feature maps at last layers, therefore shuffling is noneffective. To make shuffling non-trivial, we set the first convolution in ResNet to $3 \times 3$ with stride 1 and the first max pooling layer is removed so that the final feature map size is $4 \times 4$.

In our experiments, we always first reproduce the original result on the benchmark as our baseline, and then the same training scheme [11] is directly used to train the modified models. All models in the same set of experiments are trained with the same setup from scratch and they share the same initialization from the same random seed. During testing, we make sure to use a different random seed than during training.

Detection: We use training set and validation set of VOC 2012+2007 as the training data and report mAP on VOC 2007 test set. We shuffle the layer in the backbone model to test the robustness of localization against the absence of spatial information.

4. Results

We first compare the performance of VGG-16 on CIFAR100 with spatial or channel information missing from different number of later layers in section 4.1. An in-depth study of our main observations on CIFAR100, Small-ImageNet-32x32 and ImageNet for VGG-16, ResNet-50 and ResNet-152 is conducted in section 4.2. In section 4.3, we test whether the model performance suffers more from spatial shuffle at consecutive layers than at a single layer. In section 4.4, we investigate the model robustness against the loss of spatial information in various degree by controlling the amount of spatial information that can be passed through the network. Finally, we present the result of detection on VOC datasets in section 4.5.

4.1. Spatial and Channel-wise Shuffle on VGG-16

In this section, we first investigate the invariance of pre-trained models to the absence of the spatial or channel information at test time, then we impose this invariance at training time with methods in section 3.1.

Shuffle the Last 30% Layers Channel-wise: A VGG-16 trained on CIFAR100 that achieves 74.10% test accuracy is used as our baseline. We first test its robustness against the absence of the channel information at test time by substituting the last 30% convolutional layers with convolution with channel-wise shuffle. As is expected, the test accuracy drops to 1.04% (table 1) which is the same as random guess on CIFAR100. Following the same training scheme of the baseline, we then train another VGG-16 with channel-wise shuffle added to its last 30% convolutional layers at training time. This model is able to reach around 67% test accuracy no matter whether channel-wise shuffle is applied at test time. However, it performs significantly worse than the baseline performance, which means the expressiveness of the model is much limited without utilizing the ordering of feature maps even though the spatial information is preserved.

Shuffle the Last 30% Layers Spatially: As a comparison to channel information, we repeat the same experiment on spatial shuffle and the result is presented in the second half of the table 1. No shuffle $\rightarrow$ spatial shuffle of the pre-trained VGG-16 gives 23.40% test accuracy, which is similar to the performance of a one-hidden-layer perceptron (with 512 hidden units and ReLU activation) on CIFAR100 (25.61%), when evaluated with random spatial shuffle. However, if the spatial shuffle is infused into the model at training time, then the baseline performance can be retained no matter whether random spatial shuffle appears at test time (74.07% for spatial shuffle $\rightarrow$ spatial shuffle and 73.74% for spatial shuffle $\rightarrow$ no shuffle).

Shuffle Other Layers: To systematically study the impact of spatial and channel information, we gradually increase the number of modified layers from the last in VGG-16...
16 and report the corresponding test accuracy in Fig. 4. All models are trained with the same setup and shuffling is performed both at training and test time; the x-axis is the percentage of modified layers counting from the last layer on with 0 referring the baseline.

Besides an overall decreasing trend for both shuffling with the increase of the percent of modified layers, the test accuracy of spatial shuffle drops unexpectedly slow, e.g merely 2.66% test accuracy drop when up to 54% of layers from the last are shuffled spatially. Likewise, when spatial information is removed from the last 77% layers it still has a reasonable performance (57.05%), where as the performance drop in channel-wise shuffle happens when the last layer is modified.

Discussion: This indicates that although a standard model makes use of both spatial dimension and channel dimension to encode information, the spatial information plays a surprisingly less pivotal role than the channel information. The model is even able to adapt to the complete absence of spatial information at later layers if spatial information is removed explicitly at training time, which strengthens the claims from [2, 24] that CNNs intrinsically possess invariance to spatial relationship among features to some extent. And the unsuccessful adaptation to channel-wise shuffle implies that the large model capacity may mainly come from the channel order, shuffling which causes unrecoverable damage to the model.

4.2. Spatial Information at Later Layers are Not Necessary

In this section, we design more experiments to study the reliance of different layers on spatial information: we modify the last convolutional or bottleneck layers of VGG-16 or ResNet-50 by Spatial Shuffle (both at training and test time) and GAP+FC such that the spatial information is removed in different ways. Our modification on the baseline model always starts from the last layer and is consecutively extended to the first layer. The modified networks are then trained on the training set with the same setup and evaluated on the hold-out validation set.

Results on CIFAR100 and Small-ImageNet-32x32: Results of VGG-16 and ResNet-50 on CIFAR100 and Small-ImageNet-32x32 are shown in Fig. 5. The x-axis is the percent of modified later layers and 0 is the baseline model performance without modifying any layer.

As we can see, Spatial Shuffle and GAP+FC have an overall similar behavior consistently across architectures and datasets: the baseline performance is retained for a long time before it starts to decrease with the increase of the percent of modified layers. When the last 30% layers are modified by GAP+FC or spatial shuffle, there are no or little performance decrease across experiments (0.17% for ResNet-50 on CIFAR100 and 1.44% for VGG-16 on Small-ImageNet with spatial shuffle). And the performance decrease is still in a reasonable range (2.48% with spatial shuffle on CIFAR100 and 6.92% for GAP+FC on Small-ImageNet-32x32 for ResNet-50) even with around half of the last layers modified. At 77% to 81% of the modified later layers, the performance just starts to show a big difference to the baseline in the range of 8.58% (ResNet-50 with spatial shuffle on CIFAR100) to 20.21% (VGG-16 with GAP+FC on Small-ImageNet-32x32).

Our experiments here clearly show that spatial information can be neglected from a significant number of later layers with no or small performance drop if the invariance is imposed at training, which suggests that spatial information at last layers is not necessary for a good performance. We should however notice that it does not indicate that models whose prediction is based on spatial information can not generalize well. Besides, unlike the common design manner that layers at different depth inside the network are normally treated equally, e.g. the same module is always used throughout the architecture [14, 25, 15], our observation implies it is beneficial to have different designs for different layers since there is no necessity to encode spatial information in the later layers. As a side effect, GAP+FC can reduce the number of model parameters with little performance drop. For example, GAP+FC achieves nearly identical results (46.05%) to the VGG-16 baseline (46.59%), while reducing the number of parameters from 37.70M to 29.31M on Small-ImageNet-32x32.

Results on ImageNet: We further verify our observation on the full ImageNet, where we first reproduce baselines as in the original papers and then apply the same training scheme [26, 11] directly to train our models. Results are summarized in table 2. We observe that spatial information
4.3. Single Layer and Multiple Layers Shuffle

Previous experiments apply random spatial shuffle from one specific layer to the last layer in a network in order to prevent the model from “memorizing” encountered permutations. Memorization of random patterns is something that deep networks have been shown to be powerful at [30]. We show here the difference between shuffling a single layer and shuffling multiple layers at a time as a sanity check to see whether the model is able to recover the damage to the spatial information done by the random shuffle.

The result of VGG-16 on CIFAR100 is summarized in Fig. 6 where the x-axis is the layer index (VGG-16 has 13 convolutional layers) for single layer shuffling and the number of consecutively shuffled layers for multiple layers shuffling. Highly overlapped curves indicate a similar effect of multiple layer shuffling and single layer shuffle. We therefore have enough evidence to believe that the model is...
not able to recover the damage caused by shuffling an early layer. So in the following experiments, we will be using the single layer shuffle due to the computational burden imposed by shuffling multiple layers.

4.4. Patch-wise Spatial Shuffle

In this section, we study the relation between the model performance and the amount of spatial information that can be propagated throughout a network. The latter is controlled by patch-wise spatial shuffle with different patch sizes. The larger the patch size is, the less the spatial information is preserved. Patch-wise spatial shuffle reduces to spatial shuffle when the patch size is the same as the feature map size, in which case no spatial information remains. Our experiments are conducted on CIFAR100 for VGG-16 and ResNet-50 and we only shuffle a single layer at a time based on the result in 4.3.

The results of patch-wise spatial shuffling of different patch sizes is shown in Fig. 7. We can see that the patch size does not make much difference in terms of the test accuracy at later layers, e.g. patch size 2, 4 and 8 for ResNet-50 at 8-14 layers are similar. However, the performance has a rapid decrease with the increase of the patch size at first layers, indicating a relatively important role of spatial information at first layers. Nevertheless, this role might not be as much important as what is commonly believed as the ResNet-50 can somehow tolerate a patch-size-4 shuffling on the input image with a small performance drop (4.0% accuracy difference to the baseline), which is quite impressive given the small size (32×32) of the input image of CIFAR100 dataset.

4.5. Detection Results on VOC Datasets

Object detection should intuitively suffer more from spatial shuffling than classification since the spatial information should help localizing objects. In this section, we show some initial results on Pascal VOC [7, 6].

We design an analogue to YOLO [23] as our detection model. The architecture consists of a backbone and a detection head; the backbone is a ResNet-50 without the classifier and the detection head has 3 bottlenecks and a 5×3 convolutional layer whose outputs is in the same format as [23]. Different to [23], we deploy a 3×3 convolution instead of a fully connected layer in the end to output the final detection results. The latter gives the model potential access to the object feature which may be exploited by the model to predict its location. In order to prevent the undesirable shortcut, we use a 3×3 convolution so that the prediction of a bounding box at a certain location does not depend on all activation on the feature map.

By using a pre-trained ResNet-50 on ImageNet, we are able to reach 66% mAP on VOC2007 test set after finetuning, which is the same as the number in [23]. To avoid pretraining a spatially shuffled model on ImageNet, we compare a spatially shuffled model and a non spatially shuffled model, both trained from scratch on VOC. Our models are trained for 500 epochs with exponentially decaying learning rate starting from 0.001. Our baseline model achieves 50% mAP on VOC2007 test set without using an ImageNet pre-trained backbone. The result of the shuffled model, where we apply random shuffle to the last layer of the backbone, is 34%. While this sounds like a large drop it turns out that the classification performance is essentially preserved and only the localization performance is suffering.

To analyze this effect in detail, we use the method and tools proposed in [12]. The diagnosis tool classifies each prediction from the model as either correct prediction or a type of error based on its class label and IoU with the ground truth. More details about the diagnosis method can be found in [12].

The result in Fig. 9 shows that the mis-classification to
Figure 8. Qualitative detection results on the VOC 2007 test set. Examples are the first 11 images in the test set. The left result is from the baseline, and the right result is from the shuffled model. We can see that the shuffled model is not good at small objects, e.g. it missed the people on the ad board in the bottom middle image and it drew too many bbox for the small train and cars. However, its performance on large object seems better than the baseline: it predicted the horse, the dining table and the puppet correctly and precisely.

Figure 9. Detection error analysis of our baseline and the shuffled model shows a doubled localization error in the shuffled model and the rest types of error are in the same level with the baseline.

Diagnosing the Baseline

| Correct | Loc. Error | Wrong Class | Background |
|---------|------------|-------------|------------|
| 59.1%   | 14.2%      | 14.2%       | 14.2%      |

Diagnosing the Shuffled Model

| Correct | Loc. Error | Wrong Class | Background |
|---------|------------|-------------|------------|
| 45.3%   | 28.4%      | 14.6%       | 11.7%      |

the wrong class and background are of similar percents for both models, and the localization error is doubled for the shuffled model (increase from 14.2% to 28.4%). Though random shuffling indeed affects the model’s localization ability, it is unexpected that the effect is not fatal given that it is highly likely the model trained with spatial shuffle has to predict the correct bounding box for one object based on some other features since random shuffling switches features. We should also notice that a prediction is counted as a localization error if it has the correct class label and the IoU to the ground truth is less than 0.5. Therefore, classification-wise speaking, the shuffled model got 73.7% (45.3% + 28.4%) of its predictions correct, which is even slightly higher than for the baseline (73.3% = 59.1% + 14.2%).

Qualitative Results: Fig. 8 shows some qualitative results from both models. Those examples are the first 11 images in the VOC2007 test set. We can see that the localization error actually mainly comes from small objects for which the shuffled model tends to predict several bounding boxes on one object, and the bounding box of the relatively big object is not really off, e.g. the shuffled model managed to localize the dining table in the middle right image and the horse in the middle left image while the baseline can not.

5. Conclusion

To conclude, we empirically show that a significant number of later layers of CNNs are robust to the absence of the spatial information, which is commonly assumed to be important for object recognition tasks. Modern CNNs are able to tolerate the loss of spatial information from the last 30% of layers at around 1% accuracy drop; and the test accuracy only decreases by less than 7% when spatial information is removed from the last half of layers on CIFAR100 and Small-ImageNet-32x32. Though depth of the network is essential for good performance, the later layers do not necessarily have to be convolutions.
References

[1] Yoshua Bengio and Yann LeCun, editors. 2nd International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2014, Banff, AB, Canada, April 14-16, 2014, Conference Track Proceedings, 2014. 1

[2] Wieland Brendel and Matthias Bethge. Approximating CNNs with bag-of-local-features models works surprisingly well on imagenet. In International Conference on Learning Representations, 2019. 1, 2, 5

[3] Jiewei Cao, Zi Huang, and Heng Tao Shen. Local deep descriptors in bag-of-words for image retrieval. In Proceedings of the on Thematic Workshops of ACM Multimedia 2017, pages 52–58. ACM, 2017. 2

[4] Patrik Chrabaszcz, Ilya Loshchilov, and Frank Hutter. A downsampled variant of imagenet as an alternative to the cifar datasets. arXiv preprint arXiv:1707.08819, 2017. 3

[5] Jifeng Dai, Haozhi Qi, Yuwen Xiong, Yi Li, Guodong Zhang, Han Hu, and Yichen Wei. Deformable convolutional networks. In Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision, pages 764–773, 2017. 2

[6] M. Everingham, L. Van Gool, C. K. I. Williams, J. Winn, and A. Zisserman. The PASCAL Visual Object Classes Challenge 2007 (VOC2007) Results. http://www.pascal-network.org/challenges/VOC/voc2007/workshop/index.html. 3, 7

[7] M. Everingham, L. Van Gool, C. K. I. Williams, J. Winn, and A. Zisserman. The PASCAL Visual Object Classes Challenge 2012 (VOC2012) Results. http://www.pascal-network.org/challenges/VOC/voc2012/workshop/index.html. 3, 7

[8] Jiangfan Feng, Yuyuan Liu, and Lin Wu. Bag of visual words model with deep spatial features for geographical scene classification. Computational intelligence and neuroscience, 2017, 2017. 2

[9] Robert Geirhos, Patricia Rubisch, Claudio Michaelis, Matthias Bethge, Felix A. Wichmann, and Wieland Brendel. Imagenet-trained CNNs are biased towards texture; increasing shape bias improves accuracy and robustness. In International Conference on Learning Representations, 2019. 1

[10] Ross Girshick, Jeff Donahue, Trevor Darrell, and Jitendra Malik. Rich feature hierarchies for accurate object detection and semantic segmentation. In Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, pages 580–587, 2014. 1

[11] Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In CVPR, 2016. 1, 2, 4, 5

[12] Derek Hoiem, Yodsawalai Chodpathumwan, and Qieyun Dai. Diagnosing error in object detectors. In Andrew Fitzgibbon, Svetlana Lazebnik, Pietro Perona, Yoichi Sato, and Cordelia Schmid, editors, Computer Vision – ECCV 2012, pages 340–353, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2012. Springer Berlin Heidelberg. 7

[13] Derek Hoiem, Alexei A Efros, and Martial Hebert. Putting objects in perspective. International Journal of Computer Vision, 80(1):3–15, 2008. 1

[14] Andrew G. Howard, Menglong Zhu, Bo Chen, Dmitry Kalenichenko, Weijun Wang, Tobias Weyand, Marco Andreetto, and Hartwig Adam. Mobilenets: Efficient convolutional neural networks for mobile vision applications. arXiv e-prints, page arXiv:1704.04861, Apr 2017. 5

[15] Forrest N. Iandola, Matthew W. Moskewicz, Khalid Ashraf, Song Han, William J. Dally, and Kurt Keutzer. SqueezeNet: Alexnet-level accuracy with 50x fewer parameters and 1mb model size. ArXiv, abs/1602.07360, 2017. 5

[16] Andrew Ilyas, Shibani Santurkar, Dimitris Tsipras, Logan Engstrom, Brandon Tran, and Aleksander Madry. Adversarial examples are not bugs, they are features. arXiv preprint arXiv:1905.02175, 2019. 1

[17] Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, and Geoffrey E. Hinton. Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. In Proceedings of the 25th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems - Volume 1, NIPS’12, pages 1097–1105, USA, 2012. Curran Associates Inc. 1

[18] Min Lin, Qiang Chen, and Shuicheng Yan. Network in network. CoRR, abs/1312.4400, 2013. 2

[19] Jonathan Long, Evan Shelhamer, and Trevor Darrell. Fully convolutional networks for semantic segmentation. In Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, pages 3431–3440, 2015. 1

[20] Eva Mohedano, Kevin McGuinness, Noel E O’Connor, Amaia Salvador, Ferran Marques, and Xavier Giro-i Nieto. Bags of local convolutional features for scalable instance search. In Proceedings of the 2016 ACM on International Conference on Multimedia Retrieval, pages 327–331. ACM, 2016. 2

[21] Ari S. Morcos, David G.T. Barrett, Neil C. Rabinowitz, and Matthew Botvinick. On the importance of single directions for generalization. In International Conference on Learning Representations, 2018. 1

[22] Edouard Oyallon, Eugene Belilovsky, and Sergey Zagoruyko. Scaling the scattering transform: Deep hybrid networks. In Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision, pages 5618–5627, 2017. 1

[23] Joseph Redmon, Santosh Divvala, Ross Girshick, and Ali Farhadi. You only look once: Unified, real-time object detection. In Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, pages 779–788, 2016. 7

[24] Sara Sabour, Nicholas Frosst, and Geoffrey E Hinton. Dynamic routing between capsules. In I. Guyon, U. V. Luxburg, S. Bengio, H. Wallach, R. Fergus, S. Vishwanathan, and R. Garnett, editors, Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 30, pages 3856–3866. Curran Associates, Inc., 2017. 2, 5

[25] Mark Sandler, Andrew Howard, Menglong Zhu, Andrey Zhmoginov, and Liang-Chieh Chen. Mobilenetsv2: Inverted residuals and linear bottlenecks. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, pages 4510–4520, 2018. 5

[26] Karen Simonyan and Andrew Zisserman. Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition. arXiv preprint arXiv:1409.1556, 2014. 1, 5
[27] Antonio Torralba, Kevin P Murphy, William T Freeman, and Mark A Rubin. Context-based vision system for place and object recognition. 2003. 1

[28] Saining Xie, Ross Girshick, Piotr Dollár, Zhuowen Tu, and Kaiming He. Aggregated residual transformations for deep neural networks. In Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, pages 1492–1500, 2017. 3

[29] Chiyuan Zhang, Samy Bengio, Moritz Hardt, Benjamin Recht, and Oriol Vinyals. Understanding deep learning requires rethinking generalization. In 5th International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2017, Toulon, France, April 24-26, 2017, Conference Track Proceedings, 2017. 1

[30] Chiyuan Zhang, Samy Bengio, Moritz Hardt, Benjamin Recht, and Oriol Vinyals. Understanding deep learning requires rethinking generalization. In International Conference on Learning Representations, 2017. 6

[31] Ting Zhang, Guo-Jun Qi, Bin Xiao, and Jingdong Wang. Interleaved group convolutions. In Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision, pages 4373–4382, 2017. 3

[32] Xiangyu Zhang, Xinyu Zhou, Mengxiao Lin, and Jian Sun. Shufflenet: An extremely efficient convolutional neural network for mobile devices. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, pages 6848–6856, 2018. 3

[33] Hengshuang Zhao, Jianping Shi, Xiaojuan Qi, Xiaogang Wang, and Jiaya Jia. Pyramid scene parsing network. In Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, pages 2881–2890, 2017. 2

[34] Xizhou Zhu, Han Hu, Stephen Lin, and Jifeng Dai. Deformable convnets v2: More deformable, better results. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, pages 9308–9316, 2019. 2