Supplementary Material:
X3D: Expanding Architectures for Efficient Video Recognition

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Appendix

This document provides supplementary material as referenced in the main paper: Sec. A contains additional implementation details for: AVA Action Detection (§A.1), Charades Action Classification (§A.2), and Kinetics Action Classification (§A.3). Sec. B contains further results and ablations on Kinetics-400.

A. Additional Implementation Details

A.1. Details: AVA Action Detection

Detection architecture. We exactly follow the detection architecture in [3] to allow direct comparison of X3D with SlowFast networks as a backbone. The detector is similar to Faster R-CNN [22] with minimal modifications adapted for video. Since our paper focuses on efficiency, by default, we do not increase the spatial resolution of res5 by $2 \times$ [3].

Region-of-interest (RoI) features [4] are extracted at the last feature map of res5 by extending a 2D proposal at a frame into a 3D RoI by replicating it along the temporal axis, similar as done in previous work [7, 16, 24], followed by application of frame-wise RoIAlign [8] and temporal global average pooling. The RoI features are then max-pooled and fed to a per-class, sigmoid classifier for prediction.

Training. For direct comparison, the training procedure and hyper-parameters for AVA follow [3] without modification. The network weights are initialized from the Kinetics models and we use step-wise learning rate decay, that is reduced by $10 \times$ when validation error saturates. We train for 14k iterations (68 epochs for $\sim$211k data), with linear warm-up [6] for the first 1k iterations and use a weight decay of $10^{-7}$, as in [3]. All other hyper-parameters are the same as in the Kinetics experiments. Ground-truth boxes, and proposals overlapping with ground-truth boxes by IoU > 0.9, are used as the samples for training. The inputs are instantiation-specific clips of size $\gamma_t \times 112 \gamma_s \times 112 \gamma_s$ with time stride $\gamma_t$.

The region proposal extraction also follows [3] and is summarized here for completeness. We follow previous works that use pre-computed proposals [7, 16, 24]. Our region proposals are computed by an off-the-shelf person detector, i.e., that is not jointly trained with the action detection models. We adopt a person-detection model trained with Detectron [5]. It is a Faster R-CNN with a ResNeXt-101-FPN [18, 29] backbone. It is pre-trained on ImageNet and the COCO human keypoint images [19]. We fine-tune this detector on AVA for person (actor) detection. The person detector produces 93.9 AP@50 on the AVA validation set. Then, the region proposals for action detection are detected person boxes with a confidence of $> 0.8$, which has a recall of 91.1% and a precision of 90.7% for the person class.

A.2. Details: Charades Action Classification

For Charades, we fine-tune the Kinetics models. All settings are the same as those of Kinetics, except the following. A per-class sigmoid output is used to account for the multi-class nature. We train on a single machine for 24k iterations using a batch size of 16 and a base learning rate of 0.02 with $10 \times$ step-wise decay if the validation error saturates. We use weight decay of $10^{-5}$. We also increase the model temporal stride by $\times 2$ as this dataset benefits from longer clips. For inference, we temporally max-pool prediction scores [3].

A.3. Details: Kinetics Action Classification

Training details. We use the initialization in [9]. We adopt synchronized SGD training on 128 GPUs following the recipe in [6]. The mini-batch size is 8 clips per GPU (so the total mini-batch size is 1024). We train with Batch Normalization (BN) [15], and the BN statistics are computed within each 8 clips, unless noted otherwise. We adopt a half-period cosine schedule [20] of learning rate decaying: the learning rate at the $n$-th iteration is $\eta \cdot 0.5 \cos(\frac{n}{n_{\text{max}}} \pi) + 1$, where $n_{\text{max}}$ is the maximum training iterations and the base learning rate $\eta$ is set as 1.6. We also use a linear warm-up strategy [6] in the first 8k iterations. Unless specified, we train for 256 epochs (60k iterations with a total mini-batch size of 1024, in $\sim$240k Kinetics videos). We use momentum of 0.9, weight decay of $5 \times 10^{-5}$ and dropout [10] of 0.5 is used before the final classifier.

For Kinetics-600, we extend the training epochs (and schedule) of above by $2 \times$. All other hyper-parameters are exactly as for Kinetics-400.
Implementation details. Non-Local (NL) blocks [28] are not used for X3D. For SlowFast results, we use exactly the same implementation details as in [3]. Specifically, for SlowFast models involving NL, we initialize them with the counterparts that are trained without NL, to facilitate convergence. We only use NL on the (fused) Slow features of res4 (instead of res3+res4 [28]). For X3D and EfficientNet3D, we follow previous work on 2D mobile architectures [11, 25, 26], using SE blocks [13] (also found beneficial for efficient video classification in [30]) and swish non-linearity [21]. To conserve memory, we use SE with original reduction ratio of 1/16 only in every other residual block after the 3×3 2d conv; swish is only used before and after these layers and all other weight layers are followed by ReLU non-linearity [17]. We do not employ the “linear-bottleneck” design used in mobile image networks [11, 23, 25, 26], as we found it to sometimes cause instability in distributed training.

Expansion details. To expand the model specified in Table 1 of the main paper, we set all initial expansion factors, $\gamma_X$, to one i.e., $\gamma_t=\gamma_s=\gamma_w=\gamma_b=\gamma_d=1$; A temporal sampling rate $\gamma_t$ is not defined for the X2D base model as it does not have multiple frames. The smallest possible common expansion for this model is defined by increasing the number of frames from 1 to two; therefore we set the expansion-rate $\hat{c}$ to match the cost of increasing the temporal input length of the model by a factor of two (the smallest possible common increase in the first expansion step), which roughly doubles the cost of the model, $\hat{c} = 2$.

Then, in every step of our expansion we train a models, one for expanding each axis, such that its complexity doubles ($\hat{c} = 2$). For the individual axes this roughly\(^1\) equals to the following operations:

- **X-Fast**: $\gamma_t \leftarrow 0.5\gamma_t$, reduces the sampling stride to double frame-rate while sampling the same input duration, this doubles the temporal size $\gamma_t \leftarrow 2\gamma_t$.
- **X-Temporal**: Increases frame-rate by $\gamma_t \leftarrow 0.75\gamma_t$, and input duration to double the input size $\gamma_t \leftarrow 2\gamma_t$ (i.e. 1.5× higher frame-rate and 1.5× longer input duration).
- **X-Spatial**: Expands the spatial resolution proportionally $\gamma_s \leftarrow \sqrt{2}\gamma_s$.
- **X-Depth**: Expands the depth of the network by around $\gamma_d \leftarrow 2\gamma_d$.
- **X-Width**: Expands the global width for all layers by $\gamma_w \leftarrow 2\gamma_w$.
- **X-Bottleneck**: Expands the bottleneck width by roughly $\gamma_b \leftarrow 2.25\gamma_b$.

\(^1\)The exact expansion factors slightly vary across steps to match the complexity increase, $\hat{c}$ (which is observable in Fig. 2 of the main paper).

The exact scaling factors slightly differ from one expansion step to the other due to rounding effects in network geometry (layers stride, activation size etc.).

Since the stepwise expansion also allows to elegantly integrate regularization (which is typically increased for larger models), we perform a regularization expansion if the training error of the previous expansion step starts to deviate from the validation error. Specifically, we start the expansion with double the batch-size and half learning schedule than described above, then the BN statistics are computed within each 16 clips which lowers regularization and improves performance on small models. The batch-size is then decreased by 2× at the 8th step of expansion which increases generalization. We perform another regularization expansion at the 11th step by using drop-connect with rate 0.1 [14].

B. Additional Results

Fig. A.1 shows a series of extra plots on Kinetics-400, analyzed next (this extends Sec. 4 of the main paper):

**Inference cost.** Here we aim to provide further ablations for the effect of using fewer testing clips for efficient video-level inference. In Fig. A.1 we show the trade-off for the full inference of a video, when varying the number of temporal clips used. The vertical axis shows the top-1 accuracy on K400-val and the horizontal axis the overall inference cost in FLOPs for different models.

First, for comparison, the plot on top-left is the same as the one shown in Fig. 3 of the main paper. The plot on top-right shows this same plot with a logarithmic scale applied to the FLOPs axis. Using this scaling it is clearer to observe that smaller models (X3D-S and X3D-M) can provide up to 20× reduction in terms of multiply-add operations used during inference.

For example, 3-clip X3D-S produces 71.4% top-1 at 5.9 GFLOPs, whereas 10-clip CSN-50 [27] produces 70.8 top-1 at 119 GFLOPs (20.2× higher cost), or 10-clip X3D-S 72.9% top-1 at 19.6 GFLOPs, and 10-clip CSN-101 [27] 71.8% top-1 at 159 GFLOPs (8.1× higher cost).

The lower two plots in Fig. A.1 show the identical results on the test set of Kinetics-400 (which has been publicly released with Kinetics-600 [2]). Note that the test set is more challenging which leads to overall lower accuracy for all approaches [1]. We observe consistent results on the test set, illustrating good generalization of the models.

**Mobile components.** Finally, we ablate the effect of mobile components employed in X3D and EfficientNet3D. Since the components can have different effects of models from the small and large computation regime, we ablate the effects on a small (X3D-S) and a large model (X3D-XL).

First, we ablate channel-wise separable convolution [12], a key component in mobile ConvNets. We ablate two versions: (i) A version that reduces the bottleneck ratio ($\gamma_b$).
accordingly, such that the overall architecture preserves the multiple-add operations (FLOPs), and (ii) a version that keeps the originally, expanded bottleneck ratio.

Table A.1 shows the results. For case (i) we see that performance drops significantly by 4% top-1 accuracy for X3D-S and by 2.4% for X3D-XL. For case (ii), we see that the performance of the baselines increases by 0.3% and 0.8% top-1 accuracy for X3D-S and X3D-XL, respectively. This shows that separable convolution is important for small-computation budgets, however, for best-performance a non-separable convolution can provide gains (at high cost).

Second, we ablate swish non-linearities [21] (that are only implemented before and after the “bottleneck” convolution, to conserve memory). We observe that removing swish has a smaller performance decrease of 0.9% for X3D-S and 0.4% for X3D-XL, and therefore could be changed to ReLU (which can be implemented in-place) if memory is priority.

Third, we ablate SE blocks [13] (that are only used in every other residual block, to conserve memory). We observe that removing SE has a larger effect on performance, decreasing accuracy by 1.6% for X3D-S and 1.3% for for X3D-XL. These are similar effects on performance as have been shown Non-local (NL) attention blocks [28], and are also in line with [30], where SE attention blocks have been found beneficial for efficient video classification.

References

[1] ActivityNet-Challenge. http://activity-net.org/challenges/2017/evaluation.html, 2017. 2
[2] Joao Carreira, Eric Noland, Andras Banki-Horvath, Chloe Hillier, and Andrew Zisserman. A short note about Kinetics-600. arXiv:1808.01340, 2018. 2
[3] Christoph Feichtenhofer, Haoqi Fan, Jitendra Malik, and Kaiming He. SlowFast networks for video recognition. In Proc. ICCV, 2019. 1, 2
[4] Ross Girshick. Fast R-CNN. In Proc. ICCV, 2015. 1
| model    | top-1  | top-5  | FLOPs (G) | Param (M) |
|----------|--------|--------|-----------|-----------|
| X3D-S    |        |        |           |           |
| − CW conv $\gamma_b = 0.6$ | 68.9  | 93.4  | 1.96      | 3.76      |
| − CW conv | 73.2  | 90.4  | 17.6      | 22.1      |
| − swish  | 72.0  | 90.4  | 1.96      | 3.76      |
| − SE     | 71.3  | 89.9  | 1.96      | 3.60      |
| (a) Ablating mobile components on a Small model. |

| X3D-XL   |        |        |           |           |
| − CW conv $\gamma_b = 0.56$ | 76.0  | 92.6  | 1.95      | 3.64      |
| − CW conv | 79.2  | 93.5  | 1.95      | 3.65      |
| − swish  | 78.0  | 93.4  | 1.95      | 3.64      |
| − SE     | 77.1  | 93.0  | 1.95      | 3.60      |
| (b) Ablating mobile components on an X-Large model. |

Table A.1. Ablations of mobile components for video classification on K400-val. We show top-1 and top-5 classification accuracy (%), parameters, and computational complexity measured in GFLOPs (floating-point operations, in # of multiply-adds $\times 10^3$) for a single clip input of size $\gamma_t \times 112 \times \gamma_s \times 112 \times \gamma_a$. Inference-time computational cost is reported GFLOPs $\times 10$, as a fixed number of 10-Center views is used. The results show that removing channel-wise separable convolution (CW conv) with unchanged bottleneck expansion ratio, $\gamma_b$, drastically increases multiply-adds and parameters at slightly higher accuracy, while swish has a smaller effect on performance than SE.