Do Image Classifiers Generalize Across Time?

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Abstract

Vision models notoriously flicker when applied to videos: they correctly recognize objects in some frames, but fail on perceptually similar, nearby frames. In this work, we systematically analyze the robustness of image classifiers to such temporal perturbations in videos. To do so, we construct two new datasets, ImageNet-Vid-Robust and YTBB-Robust, containing a total of 57,897 images grouped into 3,139 sets of perceptually similar images. Our datasets were derived from ImageNet-Vid and Youtube-BB, respectively, and thoroughly re-annotated by human experts for image similarity. We evaluate a diverse array of classifiers pre-trained on ImageNet and show a median classification accuracy drop of 16 and 10 points, respectively, on our two datasets. Additionally, we evaluate three detection models and show that natural perturbations induce both classification as well as localization errors, leading to a median drop in detection mAP of 14 points. Our analysis demonstrates that perturbations occurring naturally in videos pose a substantial and realistic challenge to deploying convolutional neural networks in environments that require both reliable and low-latency predictions.

1. Introduction

Applying state-of-the-art image recognition systems to videos reveals a troubling phenomenon: models correctly recognize objects in one frame, but fail to do so in the very next frame (Figure 1). In practice, this flickering of predictions is treated as an unfortunate but unavoidable property of image-based models. This issue can be mitigated in offline settings by smoothing predictions over time. However, online smoothing isn’t nearly as effective and incurs a delay, resulting in catastrophic mistakes in downstream applications: e.g., flickering object classifications have reportedly led to fatal autonomous vehicle collisions [3].

At its root, prediction flicker is a manifestation of a broader issue: current models lack robustness to small input perturbations. In the machine learning community, model robustness has typically been analyzed on images perturbed by an adversary [11, 2], or by hand-designed strategies, such as rotations or blurs [7, 6, 14, 13]. However, these benchmarks rely on synthetically modifying the input image, serving at best as proxies for evaluating robustness to natural perturbations, which are common in videos.

In this work, we systematically analyze the prevalence of flicker across vision models. Taking inspiration from the
robustness literature, we evaluate models on perceptually similar images, which we sample from nearby video frames. However, nearby frames can still exhibit drastic changes (e.g., significant occlusions), which may cause even robust models to fail. We discard such frame pairs by employing human expert labelers to evaluate model robustness only on perceptually similar images, unlike prior work [12]. As a cornerstone of our investigation, we introduce two test sets for evaluating model robustness: ImageNet-Vid-Robust and YTBB-Robust, carefully curated from the ImageNet-Vid and Youtube-BB datasets [27, 24]. To the best of our knowledge these are the first datasets of their kind, containing tens of thousands of images that are human reviewed and grouped into thousands of perceptually similar sets. In total, our datasets contain 3,139 sets of temporally adjacent and visually similar images (57,897 images total).

We use these datasets to measure the robustness of current models to small, naturally occurring perturbations. Although we use videos to sample these images, our datasets allow evaluating the robustness of standard, image-based computer vision models, such as those trained on ImageNet. Our testbed contains over 47 different models, varying model types (CNNs, transformers), architectures (e.g., AlexNet, ResNet) and training methods (e.g., adversarial training, augmentation). To systematically characterize flicker, we also introduce a stringent robustness metric.

Our experiments show that all models in our testbed degrade significantly in the presence of small, natural perturbations in video frames. Under our metric, we find such perturbations in ImageNet-Vid-Robust and YTBB-Robust induce median accuracy drops of 16% and 10% respectively for classification, and a median 14 point AP drop for detection\(^1\). Even for the best-performing classification models trained on public datasets, we observe an accuracy drop of 14% for ImageNet-Vid-Robust and 8% for YTBB-Robust. Recently introduced, contrastive models trained on weakly supervised web images [23] can reduce this gap, but require over 400 million images, and still exhibit noticeable gaps of 6.1% and 6.7%, respectively.

Our results show that robustness to natural perturbations in videos is problematic for a wide variety of models. Practical deployment of models, especially in safety-critical environments like autonomous driving, requires predictions that are not only accurate, but also robust over time. Our analysis indicates that ensuring reliable predictions on every frame of a video is an important direction for future work.

2. Related work

Adversarial examples. While various forms of adversarial examples have been studied, the majority of research focuses on \(\ell_p\) robustness [11, 2, 32]. However, it is unclear whether adversarial examples pose a problem for robustness outside of a truly worst case context. It is an open question whether perfect robustness against a \(\ell_p\) adversary will induce robustness to realistic image distortions such as those studied in this paper. Recent work has proposed less adversarial image modifications such as small rotations & translations [6, 1, 7, 17], hue and color changes [14], image stylization [9] and synthetic image corruptions such as Gaussian blur and JPEG compression [13, 10]. Even though the above examples are more realistic than the \(\ell_p\) model, they still synthetically modify the input images to generate perturbed versions. In contrast, our work performs no synthetic modification and instead uses unmodified video frames.

Studying robustness in videos. In recent work, [12] exploit the temporal structure in videos to study robustness. However, their experiments suggest a substantially smaller drop in accuracy. The primary reason for this is a less stringent metric used in [12]. By contrast, our PM-k metric is inspired by the “worst-of-k” metric used in prior work [6], highlighting the sensitivity of models to natural perturbations. In the appendix, we study the differences between the two metrics in more detail. Furthermore, the lack of human review and the high label error-rate we discovered in Youtube-BB (Table 1) presents a potentially troubling confounding factor that we resolve in our work.

Distribution shift. Small, benign changes in the test distribution are often referred to as distribution shift. [25] explore this phenomenon by constructing new test sets for CIFAR-10 and ImageNet and observe substantial performance drops for a large suite of models on the newly constructed test sets. Similar to our Figure 3, the relationship between their original and new test set accuracies is also approximately linear. However, the images in their test set bear little visual similarity to images in the original test set, while all of our failure cases are on perceptually similar images. In a similar vein of study, [29] studies distribution shift across different computer vision data sets such as Caltech-101, PASCAL, and ImageNet.

Temporal consistency in computer vision. Authors of [16] explicitly identify flickering failures and use a technique reminiscent of adversarially robust training to improve image-based models. A similar line of work focuses on improving object detection in videos as objects become occluded or move quickly [18, 8, 33, 30]. The focus in this work has generally been on improving object detection when objects transform in a way that makes recognition difficult from a single frame, such as fast motion or occlusion. In this work, we document a broader set of failure cases for image-based classifiers and detectors and show that failures occur when the neighboring frames are imperceptibly different.

\(^1\)We only evaluated detection on ImageNet-Vid-Robust as bounding-box labels in Youtube-BB are not temporally dense enough for our evaluation.
### 3. Evaluating temporal robustness

ImageNet-Vid-Robust and YTBB-Robust are sourced from videos in the ImageNet-Vid and Youtube-BB datasets [27, 24]. All but one \(^2\) of the object classes in ImageNet-Vid and Youtube-BB are from the WordNet hierarchy [21] and direct ancestors of ILSVRC-2012 classes. Using the WordNet hierarchy, we construct a canonical mapping from ILSVRC-2012 classes to ImageNet-Vid and Youtube-BB classes, which allows us to evaluate off-the-shelf ILSVRC-2012 models on ImageNet-Vid-Robust and YTBB-Robust. We provide more background on the source datasets in the appendix.

#### 3.1. Dataset construction

Next, we describe how we extracted sets of naturally perturbed frames from ImageNet-Vid and Youtube-BB to create ImageNet-Vid-Robust and YTBB-Robust. A straightforward approach would be to select a set of anchor frames and use temporally adjacent frames in the video with the assumption that such frames contain only small perturbations from the anchor. However, as Figure 2 illustrates, this assumption is frequently violated, especially due to fast camera or object motion.

Instead, we first collect preliminary datasets of natural perturbations following the same approach, and then manually review each of the frame sets. For each video, we randomly sample an anchor frame and take \(k = 10\) frames before and after the anchor frame as candidate perturbation images\(^3\). This results in two datasets containing one anchor frame each from 3,139 videos, with approximately 20 candidate perturbation per anchor frame\(^4\).

Next, we curate the dataset with the help of four expert human annotators. The goal of the curation step is to ensure that each anchor frame and its nearby frames are correctly labeled with the same ground truth class, and that the anchor frame and the nearby frames are visually similar.

**Denser labels for Youtube-BB.** As Youtube-BB contains only a single category label per frame at 1 frame per second, annotators first inspected each anchor frame individually and added any missing labels. In total, annotators corrected the labels for 834 frames, adding an average of 0.5 labels per anchor frame. These labels are then propagated to nearby, unlabeled frames at the native frame rate and verified in the next step. ImageNet-Vid densely labels all classes per frame, so we skipped this step for this dataset.

**Frame pairs review.** Next, for each pair of anchor and nearby frames, a human annotates (i) whether the pair is correctly labeled in the dataset, and (ii) whether the pair is similar. We took several steps to mitigate the subjectivity of this task and ensure high annotation quality. First, we trained reviewers to mark frames as dissimilar if the scene undergoes any of the following transformations: significant motion, significant background change, or significant blur change. We asked reviewers to mark each dissimilar frame with one of these transformations, or “other”, and to mark a pair of images as dissimilar if a distinctive feature of the object is only visible in one of the two frames (such as the face of a dog). If an annotator was unsure about the correct label, she could mark the pair as “unsure”. Second, we present only a single pair of frames at a time to reviewers because presenting videos or groups of frames could cause them to miss large changes due to the phenomenon of change blindness [22].

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\(^2\)the class “skateboard” in Youtube-BB is not present in ILSVRC-2012

\(^3\)For YTBB-Robust we use a subset of the anchor frames used by [12].

\(^4\)Anchor frames near the start or end of the video may have less than 20 candidate frames.
Verification. In the previous stage, all annotators were given identical labeling instructions and individually reviewed a total of 71,660 image pairs. To increase consistency in annotation, annotators jointly reviewed all frames marked as dissimilar, incorrectly labeled, or “unsure”. A frame was only considered similar to its anchor if a strict majority of the annotators marked the pair as such.

After the reviewing was complete, we discarded all anchor frames and candidate perturbations that annotators marked as dissimilar or incorrectly labeled. The final datasets contain a combined total of 3,139 anchor frames with a median of 20 similar frames each.

3.2. The pm-k evaluation metric

Given the datasets introduced above, we propose a metric to measure a model’s robustness to natural perturbations. In particular, let \( A = \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\} \) be the set of valid anchor frames in our dataset. Let \( Y = \{y_1, \ldots, y_n\} \) be the set of labels for \( A \). We let \( N_k(a_i) \) be the set of frames marked as similar to anchor frame \( a_i \). In our setting, \( N_k \) is a subset of the 2\( k \) temporally adjacent frames (plus/minus \( k \) frames from the anchor).

Classification. The standard classification accuracy on the anchor frame is \( \text{acc}_{\text{orig}} = 1 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}_{0/1}(f(a_i), y_i) \), where \( \mathcal{L}_{0/1} \) is the standard 0-1 loss function. We define the pm-k analog of accuracy as

\[
\text{acc}_{\text{pmk}} = 1 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \max_{b \in N_k(a_i)} \mathcal{L}_{0/1}(f(b), y_i),
\]

which corresponds to picking the worst frame from each set \( N_k(a_i) \) before computing accuracy. We note the similarity of the pm-k metric to standard \( \ell_p \)-robustness. If we let \( N_k(a_i) \) be the set of all images within an \( \ell_p \) ball of radius \( \epsilon \) around \( a_i \), then the notions of robustness are identical. For frames with multiple labels, we count a prediction as correct if the model predicts any of the correct classes for a frame for both accuracy measures.

Detection. The standard metric for detection is mean average precision (mAP) of the predictions at a fixed intersection-over-union (IoU) threshold [19]. We define the pm-k metric analogous to that for classification: We replace each anchor frame with the nearest frame that minimizes the average precision (AP, averaged over recall thresholds) of the predictions, and compute pm-k as the mAP on these worst-case neighboring frames.

4. Main results

We evaluate a testbed of 47 classification and three detection models on ImageNet-Vid-Robust and YTBB-Robust. We first discuss the various types of classification models evaluated with the pm-k classification metric. Second, we evaluate the performance of detection models on ImageNet-Vid-Robust using use the bounding box annotations inherited from ImageNet-Vid and using a variant of the pm-k metric for detection. We then analyze the errors made on the detection adversarial examples to isolate the effects of localization errors vs. classification errors. Finally, we analyze the impact of dataset review, video compression, and video frame rate on the accuracy drop.

4.1. Classification

The classification robustness metric is \( \text{acc}_{\text{pmk}} \) defined in Equation (1). In Figure 3, we plot the benign accuracy, \( \text{acc}_{\text{orig}} \), versus the robust accuracy, \( \text{acc}_{\text{pmk}} \), for all classification models in our test bed and find a consistent drop from \( \text{acc}_{\text{orig}} \) to \( \text{acc}_{\text{pmk}} \). Further, we note that the relationship between \( \text{acc}_{\text{orig}} \) and \( \text{acc}_{\text{pmk}} \) is approximately linear, indicating that while improvements in the benign accuracy do result in improvements in the worst-case accuracy, they do not suffice to resolve the accuracy drop due to natural perturbations. We provide implementation details and hyperparameters for all models in the supplementary.

Our test bed consists of six model types with increasing levels of supervision. We present results for representative models from each model type in Section 4.1.

ILSVRC Trained

The WordNet hierarchy enables us to repurpose models trained for the 1,000 class ILSVRC-2012 dataset on ImageNet-Vid-Robust and YTBB-Robust. We evaluate a wide array of ILSVRC-2012 models (available from [4]) against our natural perturbations. Since these datasets present a substantial distribution shift from the original ILSVRC-2012 validation set, we expect the benign accuracy \( \text{acc}_{\text{orig}} \) to be lower than the comparable accuracy on the ILSVRC-2012 validation set. However, our main interest here is in the difference between the original and perturbed accuracies \( \text{acc}_{\text{orig}} - \text{acc}_{\text{pmk}} \). A small drop in accuracy would indicate that the model is robust to small changes that occur naturally in videos. Instead, we find significant median drops of 15.0% and 13.2% in accuracy on our two datasets, indicating sensitivity to such changes.

Noise augmentation

One hypothesis for the accuracy drop from original to perturbed accuracy is that subtle artifacts and corruptions introduced by video compression schemes could degrade performance when evaluating on these corrupted frames. The worst-case nature of the pm-k metric could then be focusing on these corrupted frames. One model for these corruptions are the perturbations introduced in [13]. To test this hypothesis, we evaluate models augmented with a subset of the perturbations (exactly one of: Gaussian noise, Gaussian blur, shot noise, contrast change,
Figure 3: Model accuracy on original vs. perturbed images. Each data point corresponds to one model in our testbed (shown with 95% Clopper-Pearson confidence intervals). If models were robust to perturbations, we would expect them to fall on the dashed line ($y = x$). Instead, we find they all lie significantly below this ideal line, consistently exhibiting a significant accuracy drop to perturbed frames. Each perturbed frame was taken from a ten frame neighborhood (approximately 0.3 seconds) of the original frame, and reviewed by experts to confirm visual similarity to the original frame.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Type</th>
<th>Accuracy Original</th>
<th>Accuracy Perturbed</th>
<th>∆</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trained on ILSVRC</td>
<td>67.5 [64.7, 70.3]</td>
<td>52.5 [49.5, 55.5]</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ Noise Augmentation</td>
<td>68.8 [66.0, 71.5]</td>
<td>53.2 [50.2, 56.2]</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ $\ell_\infty$ robustness (ResNext-101)</td>
<td>54.3 [51.3, 57.2]</td>
<td>40.8 [39.0, 43.7]</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ FT on ImageNet-Vid</td>
<td>80.8 [78.3, 83.1]</td>
<td>65.7 [62.9, 68.5]</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ FT PM-k loss on ImageNet-Vid</td>
<td>36.2 [33.3, 39.1]</td>
<td>29.8 [27.1, 32.5]</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ FT on ImageNet-Vid (ResNet-152)</td>
<td>84.8 [82.5, 86.8]</td>
<td>70.2 [67.4, 72.8]</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ FT on ImageNet-Vid-Det</td>
<td>77.6 [75.1, 80.0]</td>
<td>65.4 [62.5, 68.1]</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLIP Zero-Shot</td>
<td>95.3 [93.8, 96.4]</td>
<td>89.2 [87.2, 91.0]</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Type</th>
<th>Accuracy Original</th>
<th>Accuracy Perturbed</th>
<th>∆</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trained on ILSVRC</td>
<td>57.0 [54.9, 59.2]</td>
<td>43.8 [41.7, 46.0]</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ Noise Augmentation</td>
<td>62.3 [60.2, 64.4]</td>
<td>45.7 [43.5, 47.9]</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ $\ell_\infty$ robustness (ResNext-101)</td>
<td>53.6 [51.4, 55.8]</td>
<td>43.2 [41.0, 45.3]</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ FT on Youtube-BB</td>
<td>91.4 [90.1, 92.6]</td>
<td>82.0 [80.3, 83.7]</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ FT on Youtube-BB (ResNet-152)</td>
<td>92.9 [91.6, 93.9]</td>
<td>84.7 [83.0, 86.2]</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLIP Zero-Shot</td>
<td>95.2 [93.9, 95.8]</td>
<td>88.5 [87.0, 89.8]</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Accuracies of six model types and the best performing model (shown with 95% Clopper-Pearson confidence intervals). ∆ denotes accuracy drop between evaluation on anchor frame (acc$_{orig}$) and worst frame in similarity set (acc$_{pmk}$). The model architecture is ResNet-50 unless noted otherwise. ‘FT’ denotes ‘fine-tuning.’ See Section 4.1 for details.

Impulse noise, or JPEG compression). We found that these augmentation schemes did not improve robustness against our perturbations substantially, and still result in a median accuracy drop of 15.6% and 16.6% on the two datasets.

$\ell_\infty$-robustness. We evaluate the model from [31], which currently performs best against $\ell_\infty$-attacks on ImageNet. We find that this model has a smaller accuracy drop than the two aforementioned model types on both datasets. However, the robust model achieves substantially lower original and perturbed accuracy than either of the two model types above, and the robustness gain is modest (3% compared to models of similar benign accuracy). In section 4.3 of [28], the authors further analyze the performance of $\ell_\infty$-robust models on
Table 3: Detection and localization mAP for Faster R-CNN and R-FCN models. Both detection and localization suffer from significant mAP drops due to perturbations. (R-FCN was trained on ILSVRC Det and VID 2015, and evaluated on the 2015 subset of ILSVRC-VID 2017, indicated by *.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>mAP Original</th>
<th>mAP Perturbed</th>
<th>mAP ∆</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Detection</td>
<td>FRCNN, ResNet 50</td>
<td>62.8</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FRCNN, ResNet 101</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R-FCN, ResNet 101 [30]*</td>
<td>79.4*</td>
<td>63.7*</td>
<td>15.7*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Localization</td>
<td>FRCNN, ResNet 50</td>
<td>76.6</td>
<td>64.2</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FRCNN, ResNet 101</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>66.3</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R-FCN, ResNet 101*</td>
<td>80.9*</td>
<td>70.3*</td>
<td>10.6*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4: Naturally perturbed examples for detection. Red boxes indicate false positives; green boxes indicate true positives; white boxes are ground truth. Classification errors are common failures, such as the fox on the left, which is classified correctly in the anchor frame, and misclassified as a sheep in a nearby frame. However, detection models also have localization errors, where the object of interest is not correctly localized in addition to being misclassified, such as the airplane (middle) and the motorcycle (right). All visualizations show predictions with confidence greater than 0.5.

Fine-tuning on video frames. To adapt to the new class vocabulary and the video domain, we fine-tune several network architectures on the ImageNet-Vid and Youtube-BB training sets. For Youtube-BB, we train on the anchor frames used for training in [12], and for ImageNet-Vid we use all frames in the training set. The resulting models significantly improve in accuracy over their ILSVRC pre-trained counterparts (e.g., 13% on ImageNet-Vid-Robust and 34% on YTBB-Robust for ResNet-50). This improvement in accuracy results in a modest improvement in robustness for YTBB-Robust, but still suffers from a substantial 9.4% drop. On ImageNet-Vid-Robust, there is almost no change in the drop from 15.0% to 15.1%.

Fine-tuning with a robust loss. Training on videos optimizes for the average accuracy on video frames. However, our goal at test-time is to improve the worst-case, PM-k accuracy. We adopt a strategy inspired by work in adversarial robustness [20], which uses the PM-k metric as the training loss. Specifically, for each frame $x_t$, let the standard training loss be for a model $f$ be $L(x_t, y_t; f)$. We instead train the model using

$$\hat{L}(f(x_t), y_t) = \max_{\hat{x} \in \mathcal{N}_k(x_t)} L(f(\hat{x}), y_t),$$

where $\mathcal{N}_k(x_t)$ contains all images within $k$ frames of $x_t$ with labels that match $y_t$. Unfortunately, this results in a drastic drop in both the original and perturbed accuracies by 31.3% and 22.7% respectively. However, the strategy does reduce the robustness gap from 15.1% to 6.4%, suggesting this loss may be a promising avenue for future improvements in robustness. We provide implementation details and further
We find that the zero shot variant while still suffering from a
While there is a slight reduction in the accuracy drop caused
We find that this transformation reduces accuracy compared
where the last linear layer was fine-tuned on ILSVRC-2012.
with the most confident bounding box as label to the image.
400 million images, text pairs and a "linear-probe" variant
the standard computer vision task of correctly classifying
tasks: object localization and detection. Object detection is
subject advancements in large scale contrastive learning has
incredibly these models are
to the sheer amount of training data and the size of the model,
6% accuracy drop is significantly more robust and accurate
than any of the other models in our test bed. We note that due
to the sheer amount of training data and the size of the model,
these models are incredibly expensive to train and are out
of reach to the computational resources of most researchers.
Thus we leave further investigation of the robustness of these
models to future work.

4.2. Detection

We further study the impact of natural perturbations on object
detection. Specifically, we report results for two related
tasks: object localization and detection. Object detection is
the standard computer vision task of correctly classifying an
object and finding the coordinates of a tight bounding
box containing the object. “Object localization”, meanwhile,
refers to only the subtask of finding the bounding box, without attempting to correctly classify the object.

We provide our results on ImageNet-Vid-Robust, which contains dense bounding box labels unlike Youtube-BB, which only labels boxes at 1 frame per second. We use the popular Faster R-CNN [26] and R-FCN [5, 30] architectures for object detection and localization and report results in Table 3. For the R-FCN architecture, we use the model from [30]. We first note the significant drop in mAP of 12 to 15 points for object detection due to perturbed frames for both the Faster R-CNN and R-FCN architectures. Next, we show that localization is indeed easier than detection, as the mAP is higher for localization than for detection (e.g., 76.6 vs 62.8 for Faster R-CNN with a ResNet-50 backbone). Perhaps surprisingly, however, switching to the localization task does not improve the drop between original and perturbed frames, indicating that natural perturbations induce both classification and localization errors. We show examples of detection failures in Figure 4.

4.3. Impact of Dataset Review

We analyze the impact of our human review, described in Section 3.1, on the classifiers in our testbed. First, we compare the original and perturbed accuracies of a representative classifier (ResNet-152 finetuned) on frames with and without review in Section 4.1. We find that before review, the gap between the two accuracies is 16.2 and 10.0 on ImageNet-Vid-Robust and YTBB-Robust respectively. Our review improves the original accuracy by 3 to 4% (by discarding mislabeled or blurry anchor frames), and improves perturbed accuracy by 5 to 6% (by discarding dissimilar frame pairs). As a result, our review reduces the accuracy drop by 1.8% on ImageNet-Vid-Robust and 1.1% on YTBB-Robust. These results indicate that the changes in model predictions are indeed due to a lack of robustness, rather than due to significant differences between adjacent frames.

Table 4: Impact of human review on ImageNet-Vid-Robust and YTBB-Robust on original and perturbed accuracy, using ResNet-152 fine-tuned on ImageNet-Vid and Youtube-BB, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reviewed</th>
<th>Original</th>
<th>Perturbed</th>
<th>Δ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ImageNet-Vid-Robust</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>80.3</td>
<td>64.1</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>84.8</td>
<td>70.2</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YTBB-Robust</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>88.1</td>
<td>78.1</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>92.9</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5The underlying model was a large visual transformer evaluated on 336 x 336 images (ViT-L/14@336px)

9667
Table 5: Analyzing results based on compressed frame type (See Section 4.4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accuracy</th>
<th>Original</th>
<th>Perturbed</th>
<th>Δ</th>
<th># anchors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All frames</td>
<td>84.8</td>
<td>70.2</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>1109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w/o ‘i-frames’</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>70.3</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>1104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w/o ‘p-frames’</td>
<td>83.9</td>
<td>73.7</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w/o ‘b-frames’</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>699</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5: We plot how often each frame offset resulted in error, across all models, before and after review. Frames further away more frequently cause errors. Our review reduces errors by removing dissimilar frames, especially ones further away.

4.4. Video compression analysis

One concern with analyzing performance on video frames is the impact of video compression on model robustness. In particular, the ‘mp4’ videos in ImageNet-Vid-Robust contain 3 frame types: ‘i-’, ‘p-’, and ‘b-’ frames. ‘p-frames’ are compressed by referencing pixel content from previous frames, while ‘b-frames’ are compressed via references to previous and future frames. ‘i-frames’ are stored without references to other frames.

We compute the original and perturbed accuracies, as well as the accuracy drop for a subset without each frame type in Table 5. While there are modest differences in accuracy due to compression, our analysis suggests that the sensitivity of models is not significantly due to the differences in quality of frames due to video compression.

5. Conclusion

We analyze and quantify a common phenomenon in image models: flicker in predictions over time, which is caused by a lack of model robustness to natural perturbations. We show this results in significant accuracy drops for a wide range of classification and detection models. We highlight two key avenues for future research:

**Building more robust models.** Our benchmarks provide a standard robustness measure for classification and detection models. In Section 4.1, we found that several models suffer from substantial accuracy drops due to natural perturbations. Further, improvements with respect to artificial perturbations (like image corruptions or $\ell_\infty$ adversaries) induce only modest robustness improvements. One exception to this bleak overview are recent contrastive learning approaches trained on large-scale web data [23], which confer partial robustness to natural perturbations. We hope our standardized benchmarks will enable progress in improving the robustness of such models, and in generalizing their improvements to models trained on more limited datasets.

**Further natural perturbations.** Videos provide a straightforward method for collecting natural perturbations of images, enabling the study of realistic forms of robustness. Other methods for generating such natural perturbations are likely to provide additional insights into robustness. As an example, photo sharing websites contain many near-duplicate images: image pairs of the same scene captured at different times, viewpoints, or from a different camera [25]. More generally, devising similar, domain-specific strategies to collect, verify, and measure robustness to natural perturbations in domains such as natural language processing or speech recognition is a promising direction for future work.

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