
What does an Adversarial Color look like?

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Abstract

1 The short-answer: it depends! The long-answer is that this dependence is modulated
2 by several factors including the architecture, dataset, optimizer and initialization.
3 In general, this modulation is likely due to the fact that artificial perceptual systems
4 are best suited for tasks that are aligned with their level of compositionality, so
5 when these perceptual systems are optimized to perform a global task such as
6 average color estimation instead of object recognition (which is compositional),
7 different representations emerge in the optimized networks. In this paper, we first
8 assess the novelty of our experiment and define what an adversarial example is in
9 the context of the color estimation task. We then run controlled experiments in
10 which we vary 4 variables in a highly controlled way pertaining neural network
11 hyper-parameters such as: 1) the architecture, 2) the optimizer, 3) the dataset, and 4)
12 the weight initializations. Generally, we find that a fully connected network’s attack
13 vector is more sparse than a compositional CNN’s, although the SGD optimizer
14 will modulate the attack vector to be less sparse regardless of the architecture. We
15 also discover that the attack vector of a CNN is more consistent across varying
16 datasets and confirm that the CNN is more robust to attacks of adversarial color.
17 Altogether, this paper presents a first computational exploration of the qualitative
18 assessment of the adversarial perception of color in simple neural network models,
19 re-emphasizing that studies in adversarial robustness and vulnerability should
20 extend beyond object recognition.

21 1 Introduction

22 Recent works in “*NeuroAI*” have shown the importance of task optimization for the construction of
23 robust neural networks models that try to find a perceptual alignment between biological and artificial
24 neural representations (Dwivedi & Roig, 2019; Wang et al., 2019; Schrimpf et al., 2020; Conwell
25 et al., 2021, 2022; Doerig et al., 2022). In these works, authors often test a battery of neural network
26 architectures or optimization constraints to evaluate how well such models align with human visual
27 perception. Conversely, modern research in adversarial images has focused on creating a plethora of
28 adversarial attacks & defenses for modern machine vision systems when networks are *exclusively*
29 optimized via a cross-entropy loss to encode a compositional task such as object recognition.

30 In this paper we shift gears and will focus on optimizing networks to perform average color estimation,
31 where we will mainly *not* be evaluating the robustness success via performance curves, but rather
32 qualitatively assessing how these differences look like when neural networks are optimized to estimate
33 the average color of an image across a variety of training and testing conditions (Emery & Webster,
34 2019; Shamsabadi et al., 2020; Kantipudi et al., 2020). We are primarily motivated by this framework,
35 because we would like to take a step back in adversarial image research to investigate how such
36 qualitative and quantitative differences are modulated when the object recognition task is completely
37 removed from the picture, and neural networks are optimized to estimate the average color of an
38 image instead. Perhaps convolutional neural networks become more robust? Perhaps they will not.

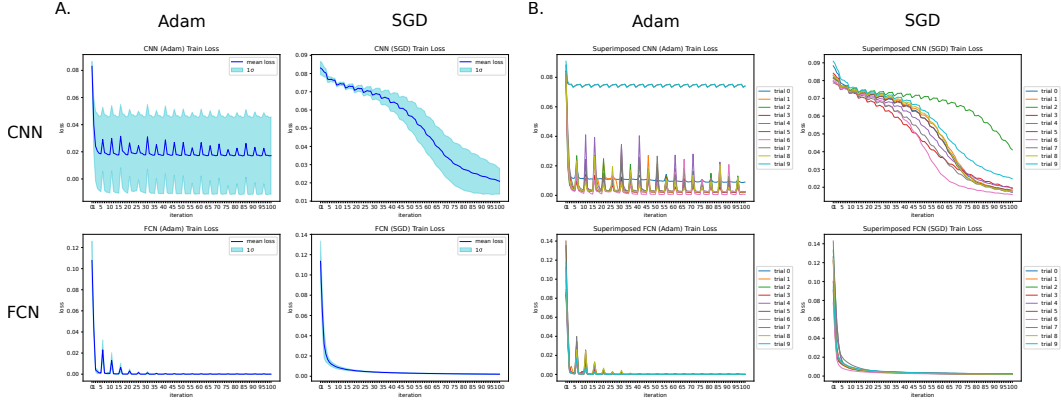


Figure 1: Visualization of the convergence of the loss function (MSE) over 20 separately trained Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) and Fully Connected Networks (FCN) optimized with either Adam (10) or SGD (10) – totalling 40 trained neural networks over which we conduct our experiments.

39 Perhaps this will depend on the neural network architecture, dataset, optimizer and initialization or a
 40 combination of all these factors. This leads us to another question: What does an adversarial color
 41 look like in machines?

42 2 Training classic Neural Networks to compute Color Estimation

43 To investigate this question we will use two equi-parametric neural network families that have
 44 different approximations induced by the computations pertaining to their architecture (See
 45 Appendix A). These are families of two *very basic* neural network types: Fully Connected Networks
 46 (*hereto FCN*) and Convolutional Neural Networks (*hereto CNN*) that are parameterized as seen in
 47 Table 1. The motivation for using these two types of architectures can be shown in Deza et al. (2020),
 48 that showed that while both CNNs and FCNs can approximate the average color of an image, FCNs
 49 easily arrive to a lower loss, given the correspondence of their architecture with the closed form
 50 expression of average color estimation (C), which can trivially be expressed as the average luminance
 51 values per channel in an image:

$$C = \frac{\sum_i^N (I_i)}{N}; \forall i \text{ pixels of image } I \quad (1)$$

52 In our experiments, both FCNs and CNNs were trained on the CIFAR-10 dataset with a Mean Square
 53 Error (MSE) loss and the last layer set to be a 3×1 vector, encoding the average RGB values of the
 54 image. In addition, each neural network was either optimized with SGD or Adam. The convergence
 55 of the training loss across all networks used in our experiments can be found in Figure 1 – as each
 56 FCN and CNN was optimized 10 times per each optimization procedure (SGD or Adam), totalling
 57 40 neural network models.

Table 1: Training & parameter details of CNNs & FCNs

	CNN		FCN	
	Adam	SGD	Adam	SGD
# Params	61411	61411	61523	61523
# Epochs trained	50	50	50	50
# Trials	10	10	10	10
Learning Rate	0.01	0.001	0.0025	0.001
Lowest Loss	6.77e-4	1.58e-2	6.07e-7	1.75e-3

58 Additional details pertaining to attacking the neural networks and representations of color can be
 59 seen in Appendix B.

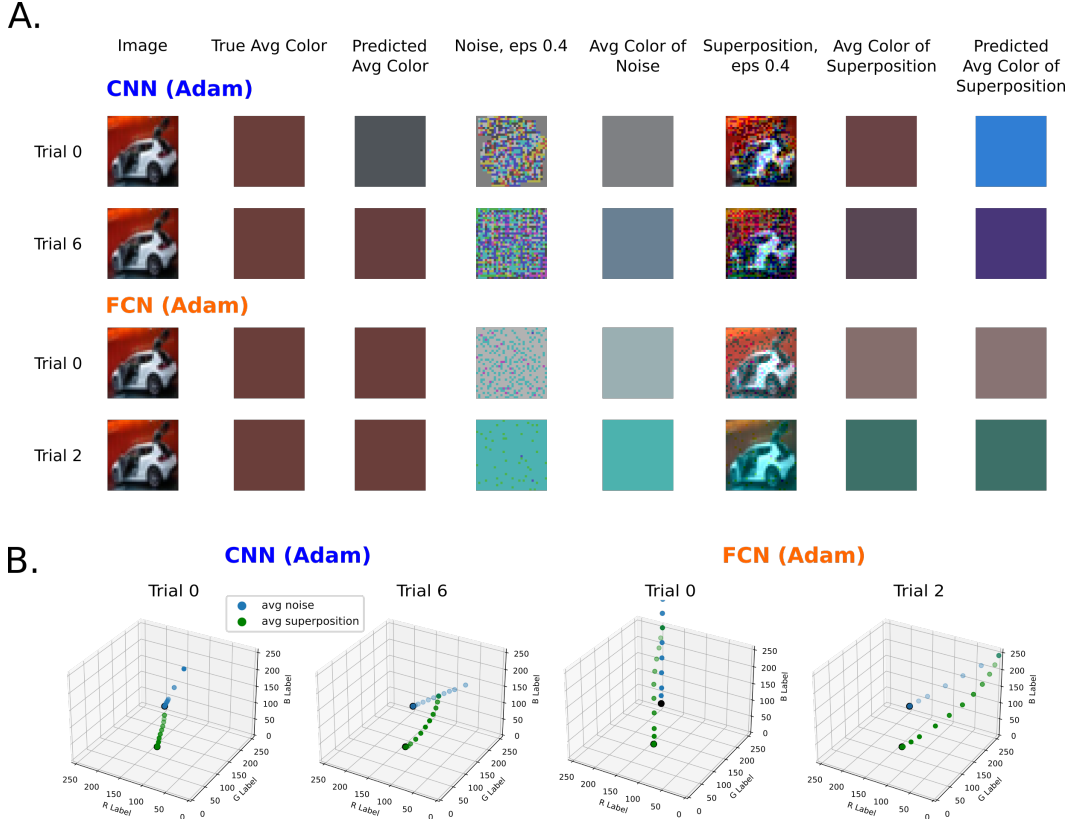


Figure 2: **A.** A diagram showing the differences and similarities of color-based adversarial attacks on the *same image* of two neural network trials across different architectures (CNN and FCN). **B.** The same image and their attacks in RGB color space demonstrating how each network is “fooled”. Notice that the average color of the superposition is curved by the average noise due to clipping (See Appendix B). All epsilon values and resulting attacked images are shown in the 3D plots (contra to inset **A.** that shows only a slide at $\epsilon = 0.4$)

60 3 Evaluation of Color Adversarial Attacks on Neural Network models

61 Thus, to shed light on the question of what an adversarial color look like, we must realize that this will
 62 be a distinctly different problem than one of the object recognition task, since there are no discrete
 63 classes by which we can determine when our network is fooled. Recall that the Fast Gradient Sign
 64 Method (FGSM) Attack can be formalized for the new adversarial image \hat{x} by Goodfellow et al.
 65 (2014):

$$\hat{x} \leftarrow x + \epsilon \text{sign}(\nabla_x(\mathcal{L}(x, t, \theta))) \quad (2)$$

66 Following this paradigm for the color estimation task, we define an adversarial example as one where
 67 the adversarial noise (*a.k.a attack*) – the gradient of the loss w.r.t the input image – is bounded by ep-
 68 silon in the set $\epsilon = [0.0, 0.0005, 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0, 1.2, 1.4, 1.6, 2, 5, 10]$
 69 *maximizing* the loss of the average color estimation. Hence, ‘fooling the network’ takes a trivial
 70 meaning in the average color estimation task as it is linked to a *regression* problem (estimates of
 71 RGB), rather than a *classification* problem (one-hot vector encoding as done in object recognition).
 72 Of course, it is thus trivial to say “the machine has confused the average RGB color of an image”,
 73 so our interest is knowing *by how much* is it confused¹, and how the adversarial attack/vector/noise
 74 looks like.

75 As previously suggested in the introduction, the adversarial color is thus modulated by several factors
 76 including: 1) the architecture, 2) the optimizer, 3) the dataset, 4) the multi-trial analysis (i.e., different

¹Notice that in the adversarial color landscape there is no notion of mis-classification accuracy, but rather difference in magnitude of MSE color estimation across color channels of the target and the prediction.

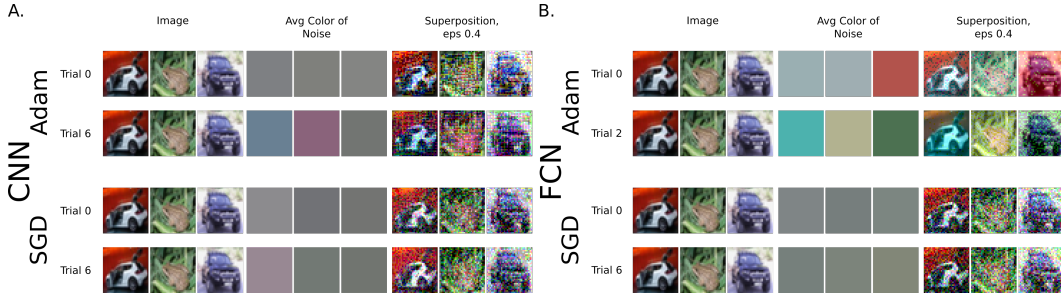


Figure 3: A small sample of the comparison of the effects of Adversarial Attacks on Average Color Estimation to both CNNs and FCNs when they are modulated by their optimizer. No clear differences emerge with the exception of an interaction between Adam + FCNs that reinforces a sparsity constraint on the Adversarial Attack. This can be observed in the Superposition, and also in Figures 6,7.

77 weight initializations of the same architecture). In the following subsections, we do our best to
 78 provide a holistic understanding of each one of these phenomena.

79 **3.1 The Architecture and Optimizer: Interactions and Divergences**

80 The effect of the optimizer does not affect our CNN models overall. The pattern of noise vectors
 81 is always dense and strangely off-set in the border with no noise (as if the CNN’s stride were to
 82 implicitly direct the CNN to ignore the borders of the image: See Figures 6,7). Further investigation
 83 is required to explain this phenomena although some have found that this naturally emerges in CNNs
 84 trained for object recognition (Alsallakh et al., 2020; Yuan et al., 2021).

85 For the FCN, we see that Adam accentuates a sparse attack vector for many of the trials in our
 86 experiments. Whether this is a feature of a bug, requires more experiments, but this comes to a
 87 surprise as FCNs could opt for a theoretically stable weight vector that computes the exact average of
 88 all luminance channels through its layers (Figures 2,3).

89 **3.2 Control Conditions: The Image Dataset & Individual Differences**

90 We further examined the effects of varying the testing dataset for the color estimation task to
 91 challenge each neural network’s robustness and learned perceptual representations. Rather than using
 92 MNIST (LeCun & Cortes, 2010), Places (Zhou et al., 2017), or ImageNet (Russakovsky et al., 2015),
 93 we first experiment with the simplest variations of color estimation from the CIFAR-10 test dataset:
 94 their vertically mirrored/inverted version, and a set of solid colors based on the original testing images.
 95 Notice that in all cases, the ground truth average color is *preserved*, but the image structure has been
 96 varied.

97 This variation is critical in testing for the color estimation task because we hypothesize that any
 98 rotational transformation should not affect the global structure of the color estimation attack for a
 99 FCN that does not have any explicit locality prior as a CNN does. Here, our initial expectations were
 100 that CNNs would also vertically flip their noise vectors (as these networks perhaps can not avoid
 101 trying to parse image identity even if it is not explicitly encoded in their loss function), while FCNs
 102 would stay invariant to such rotational shift.

103 We found that the attack vector of FCNs were not preserved during the vertical flipping (and in some
 104 cases also changed pattern; See Figures 6,7). CNNs, on the other hand, did seem to mildly preserve a
 105 structural bias when the image was flipped, but a further quantitative analysis is required to verify
 106 such a claim. More surprisingly, when we rendered solid colors that stemmed from such testing
 107 stimuli, CNNs failed to estimate color even with no adversarial attack, while FCNs did not struggle
 108 to accurately compute error. This would imply that CNNs are not learning an equipartite weighting
 109 scheme in their learned filters, as we would have initially expected².

²Although see Deza et al. (2020) that shows that CNN’s first layer filters develop random weights to compute color, rather than Gabor-like structures, as CNNs learn to ignore edge cues to estimate color.



Figure 4: Individual differences in color perception from neural networks that are randomly initialized are shown. Such variations include architecture and optimizer across several images. By seeing these color-based adversarial attacks, it suggests that each neural network has learned to compute its “own” notion of color, analogous to what has been shown in humans (Emery & Webster, 2019).

110 Finally, extending our overall analysis to multiple trials, we see an interesting pattern of results as
 111 shown in Figure 4, where all neural network models seem to “learn to compute color” in a very
 112 different way (Lafer-Sousa et al., 2015; Emery & Webster, 2019) which can be visualized through
 113 the different attack structures in color space. What is even more puzzling is that on occasion, the
 114 final output of the adversarial attack will also be modulated by the input image. There are some cases
 115 where the attack is sparse, and other cases where it is dense (see Trial 2 for FCN optimized via Adam).
 116 This is an interesting interaction that we did not expect to find before running these experiments and
 117 requires further investigation which can not be covered in the scope of this paper.

118 4 Discussion

119 Circling back to the question that initially motivated this paper – *What does an Adversarial Color*
 120 *look like?* – we realize that the answer is still complex even if our focus in the paper pertains
 121 only to oversimplified models of machine vision. We have found that CNNs on the whole produce
 122 random noise vectors while fully connected models produce sparser noise vectors contingent on their
 123 optimization procedure. CNNs also chose to ignore the borders of the image to compute colors, unlike
 124 FCNs that would use the overall image information. Critically, FCNs seem to be better estimators
 125 of the average color of an image than CNNs even if CNNs are *more robust* to adversarial color
 126 attacks which is reminiscent of an accuracy-robustness tradeoff for object recognition-trained neural
 127 networks (Tsipras et al., 2018).

128 Indeed, perhaps a more accessible question for an extended version of this paper is: how do these
 129 attacks differ when compared quantitatively and qualitatively to neural networks trained to do object
 130 classification? And most importantly, do the adversarial attack patterns that arise across the different
 131 variations of neural networks optimized to do color estimation hold any resemblance to those that also
 132 fool a human observer? What are the effects of *adversarial training* for average color estimation?
 133 Future work will explore the perturbations performed on our machine vision models on humans,
 134 where we may be able to find that under the color estimation loss, such attacks fool humans the same
 135 way (Elsayed et al., 2018; Feather et al., 2019; Harrington & Deza, 2022; Feather et al., 2022).

136 **Checklist**

137 The checklist follows the references. Please read the checklist guidelines carefully for information on
138 how to answer these questions. For each question, change the default **[TODO]** to **[Yes]**, **[No]**, or
139 **[N/A]**. You are strongly encouraged to include a **justification to your answer**, either by referencing
140 the appropriate section of your paper or providing a brief inline description. For example:

- 141 • Did you include the license to the code and datasets? **[No]** We will release the code in a
142 follow-up version of the paper, but all details are available for re-implementation.
- 143 • Did you include the license to the code and datasets? **[No]** The code and the data are
144 currently proprietary, but will be made open-source.
- 145 • Did you include the license to the code and datasets? **[N/A]**

146 Please do not modify the questions and only use the provided macros for your answers. Note that the
147 Checklist section does not count towards the page limit. In your paper, please delete this instructions
148 block and only keep the Checklist section heading above along with the questions/answers below.

149 1. For all authors...

- 150 (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper’s
151 contributions and scope? **[Yes]**
- 152 (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? **[Yes]**
- 153 (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? **[N/A]**
- 154 (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to
155 them? **[Yes]**

156 2. If you are including theoretical results...

- 157 (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? **[N/A]**
- 158 (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? **[N/A]**

159 3. If you ran experiments...

- 160 (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experi-
161 mental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? **[No]** We will upload
162 the code in a future version of the paper
- 163 (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they
164 were chosen)? **[Yes]**
- 165 (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experi-
166 ments multiple times)? **[Yes]**
- 167 (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type of
168 GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? **[Yes]** Experiments were ran on a MacBook
169 Air through a Google Colab notebook with Pytorch 1.12.1, and the computer’s CPU
170 through Visual Studio Code. No GPU’s were used.

171 4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...

- 172 (a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? **[Yes]**
- 173 (b) Did you mention the license of the assets? **[Yes]**
- 174 (c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? **[No]**
- 175 (d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you’re
176 using/curating? **[N/A]**
- 177 (e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable
178 information or offensive content? **[N/A]**

179 5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...

- 180 (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if
181 applicable? **[N/A]**
- 182 (b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review
183 Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? **[N/A]**
- 184 (c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount
185 spent on participant compensation? **[N/A]**

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243 **A Neural Network Architecture Details**

```
244 CNNNet(  
245     (conv1): Conv2d(3, 6, kernel_size=(5, 5), stride=(1, 1))  
246     (pool): MaxPool2d(kernel_size=2, stride=2, padding=0, dilation=1, ceil_mode=False)  
247     (conv2): Conv2d(6, 16, kernel_size=(5, 5), stride=(1, 1))  
248     (fc1): Linear(in_features=400, out_features=120, bias=True)  
249     (fc2): Linear(in_features=120, out_features=84, bias=True)  
250     (fc3): Linear(in_features=84, out_features=3, bias=True)  
251 )  
  
252 FCNet(  
253     (fc1): Linear(in_features=3072, out_features=20, bias=True)  
254     (relu): ReLU()  
255     (fc2): Linear(in_features=20, out_features=3, bias=True)  
256 )
```

257 **B Implementational Details of Adversarial Attacks on Color Space**

258 The implementation and visualization of the adversarial attacks for the color estimation task took
259 place in two distinctly different color spaces. For the sake of quicker convergence in training, and
260 smoother intervals of adversarial attacks, each CIFAR-10 input image was scaled down from integers
261 in the space of [0, 255] so that its pixel values fit into the normalized range of [-1, 1] as floats.

262 Visualization of the adversarial attack took place in the un-normalized (original) range of [0,255]
263 so that the images would have an appropriate meaning and rendering in the RGB color space. This
264 transformation to [0,255] range only happened within the final stages of visualization so as to not
265 interfere with the attack.

266 One consequence of visualizing images in any color space is that out-of-bounds values are not
267 renderable/visualizable. In our context, this referred to values not in the range [-1,1] (e.g. -2.3, 4).
268 Thus, whenever the neural networks models predicted average color of the adversarial image with
269 values outside of the range [-1,1] – which happened quite often with $\epsilon = 0.4$ and higher – or when
270 the adversarial image itself was created with too strong of a noise perturbation, we bounded these
271 values to stay within [-1,1]. This is why the adversarial superposition is curved in figure 2.

272 This also affected our evaluation of the average loss of the networks on adversarial datasets as it
273 capped the maximum distance between a label and prediction - bounding the regression problem.
274 Thus, the MSE loss was never unreasonably high because the color space was bounded.

275 Future work will also explore how the color space may take into account the nature of the adversarial
276 attack (RGB vs LAB or HSV).

277 **C Supplementary Experiments**

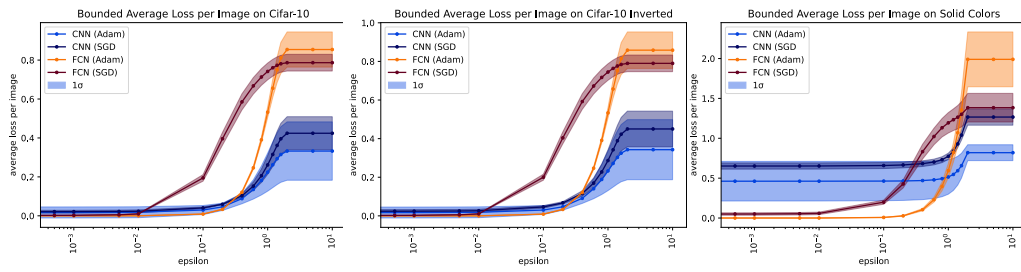
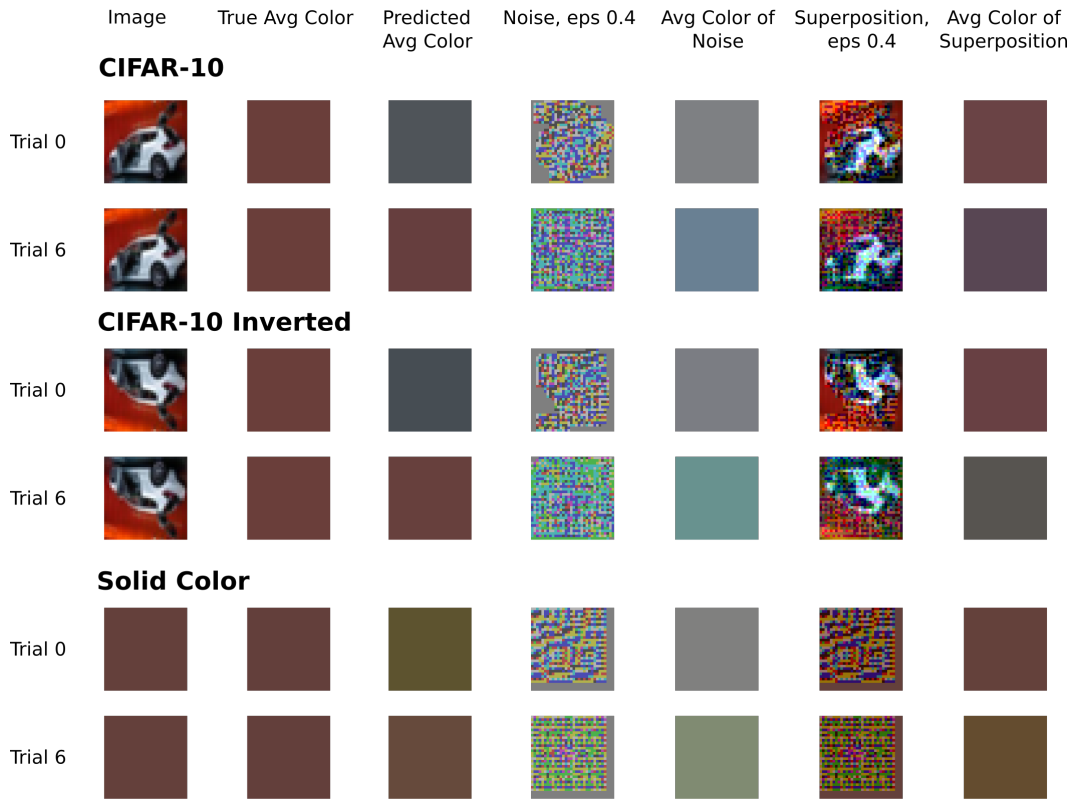


Figure 5: Visualizations of the bounded average loss of the 4 architecture types averaged over 10 trials, when tested on the adversarially attacked datasets with increasing epsilon. CNN’s appear more robust than FCN’s those approximation power of FCN’s is evident in the solid color experiments. Individual trials can be see in Figure 8,9.

CNN (Adam)



FCN (Adam)

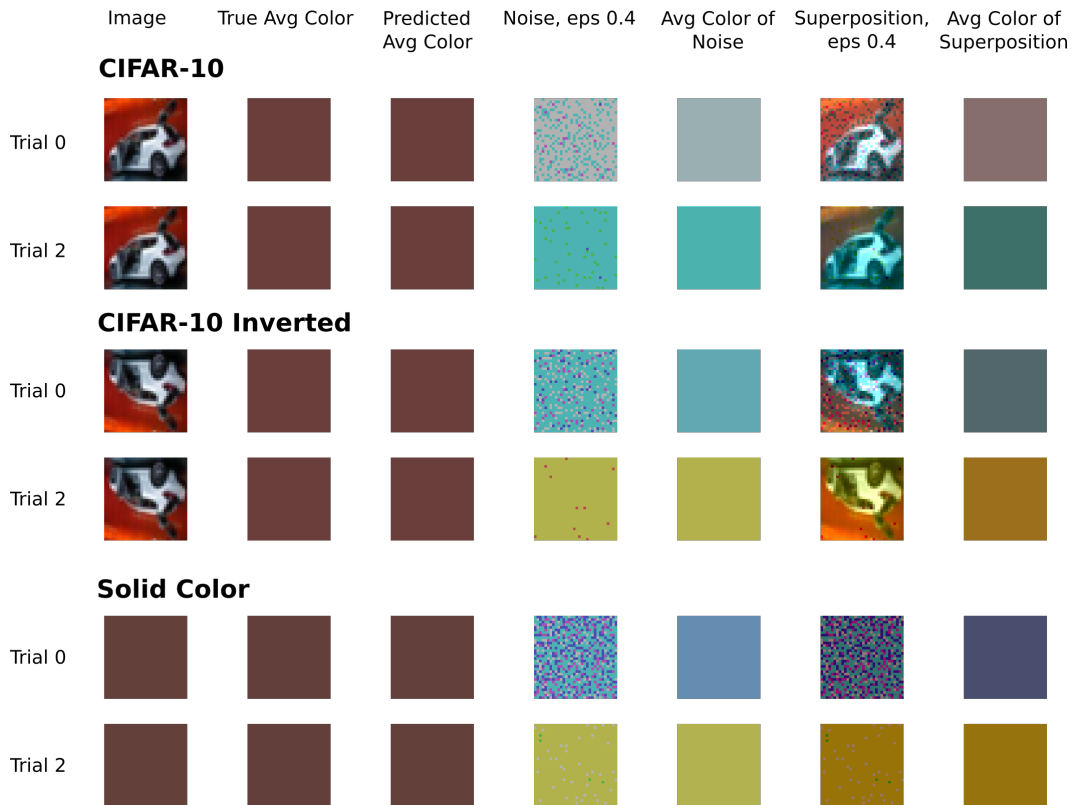
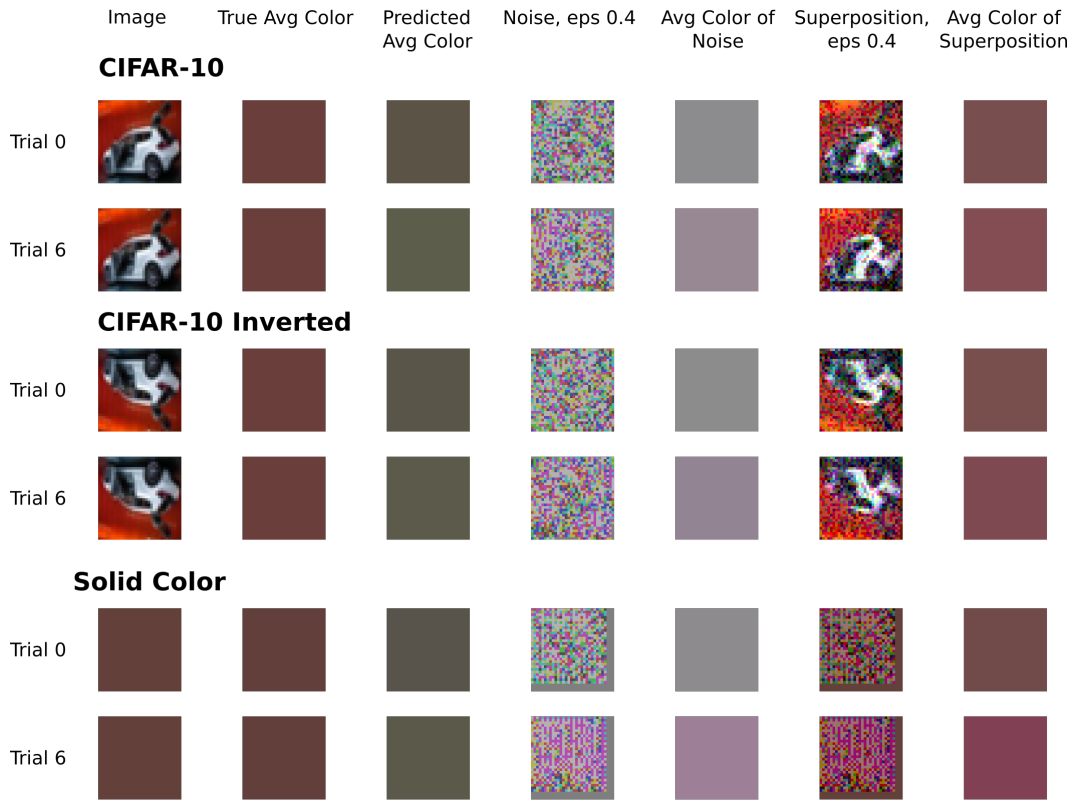


Figure 6: Full schematic visualizing the adversarial attack for Adam optimized neural networks, including ground truth, prediction and averages of different images (original, inverted and solid).

CNN (SGD)



FCN (SGD)

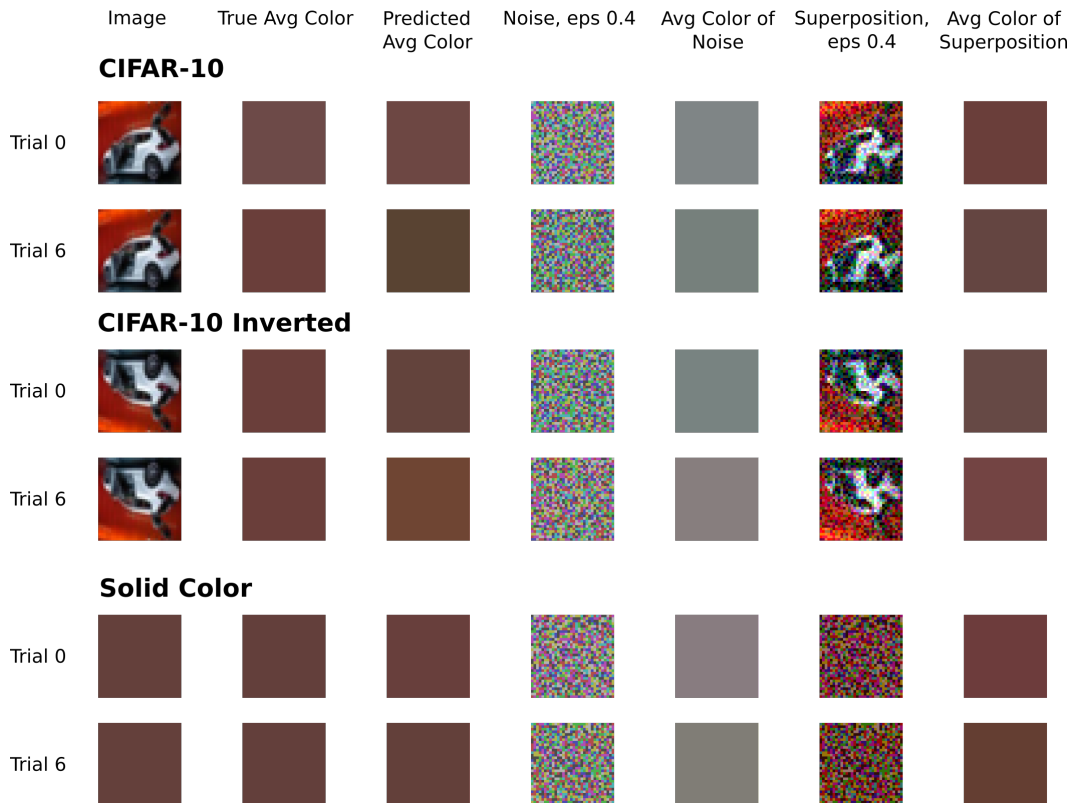


Figure 7: Full schematic visualizing the adversarial attack for SGD optimized neural networks, including ground truth, prediction and averages of different images (original, inverted and solid).

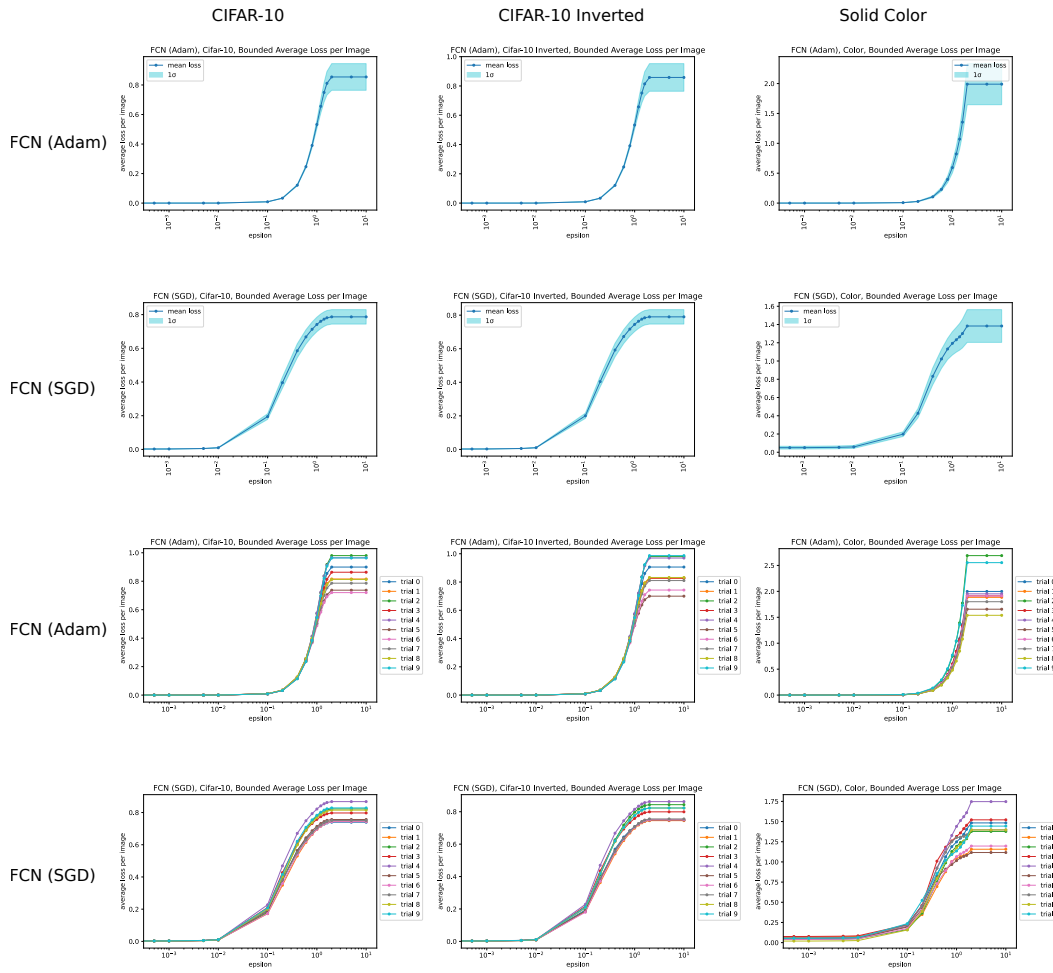


Figure 8: Quantitative estimation of the loss (computed via MSE) in normalized color space between the ground truth and the prediction for Fully Connected Neural Networks. Average Loss is visualized on the top, while the individual trial losses are visualized in the bottom. Notice that *all* FCNs compute color extremely well with near zero error.

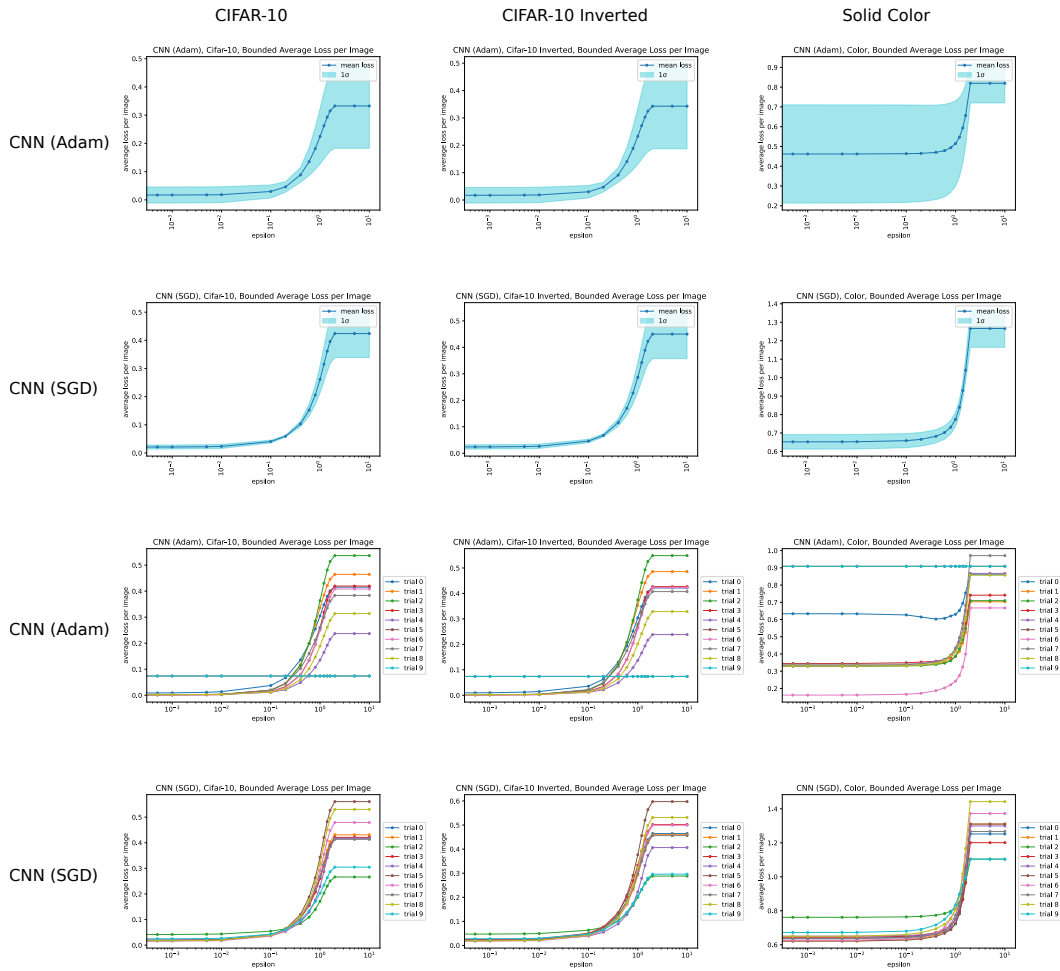


Figure 9: Quantitative estimation of the loss (computed via MSE) in normalized color space between the ground truth and the prediction for Convolutional Neural Networks. Average Loss is visualized on the top, while the individual trial losses are visualized in the bottom. Notice the variability of CNNs to compute average colors specially for solid colors.