Towards Deep Kernel Machines

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Part I: Scientific Context

A quick zoom on multilayer neural networks

The goal is to learn a **prediction function** $f : \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$ given labeled training data $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)_{i=1,...,n}$ with \mathbf{x}_i in \mathbb{R}^p , and y_i in \mathbb{R} :

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \underbrace{\lambda \Omega(f)}_{\text{regularization}}.$$



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What is specific to multilayer neural networks?

ullet The "neural network" space ${\mathcal F}$ is explicitly parametrized by:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma_k(\mathbf{A}_k \sigma_{k-1}(\mathbf{A}_{k-1} \dots \sigma_2(\mathbf{A}_2 \sigma_1(\mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{x})) \dots)).$$

• Finding the optimal $A_1, A_2, ..., A_k$ yields a non-convex optimization problem in huge dimension.



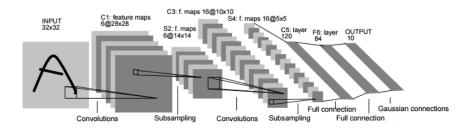


Figure: Picture from LeCun et al. [1998]

- CNNs perform "simple" operations such as convolutions, pointwise non-linearities and subsampling.
- for most successful applications of CNNs, training is supervised.

What are the main features of CNNs?

- they capture compositional and multiscale structures in images;
- they provide some invariance;
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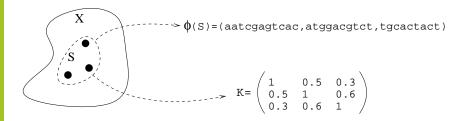
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- very little theoretical understanding;
- they require large amounts of labeled data;
- they require manual design and parameter tuning;

Nonetheless...

- they are the focus of a huge academic and industrial effort;
- there is efficient and well-documented open-source software.



Idea: representation by pairwise comparisons

- Define a "comparison function": $K : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$.
- Represent a set of n data points $S = \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$ by the $n \times n$ matrix:

$$\mathbf{K}_{ij} := K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j).$$

[Shawe-Taylor and Cristianini, 2004, Schölkopf and Smola, 2002].



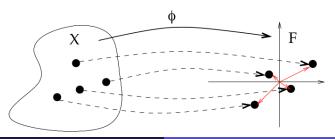
Theorem (Aronszajn, 1950)

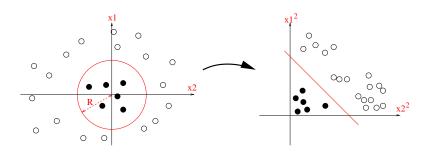
 $K: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a positive definite kernel if and only if there exists a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} and a mapping

$$\varphi: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{H},$$

such that, for any \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{x} in \mathcal{X} ,

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \varphi(\mathbf{x}), \varphi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}.$$





The classical challenge of kernel methods

Find a kernel K such that

- ullet the data in the feature space ${\cal H}$ has **nice properties**, e.g., linear separability, cluster structure.
- K is fast to compute and mathematically valid (p.d.).



Context of kernel methods (supervised learning)

The goal is to learn a **prediction function** $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ given labeled training data $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)_{i=1,...,n}$ with \mathbf{x}_i in \mathcal{X} , and y_i in \mathbb{R} :

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \underbrace{\lambda \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2}_{\text{regularization}}.$$

What is specific here to kernel methods?

- ullet The "kernel method" space ${\cal H}$ is possibly infinite-dimensional.
- Optimization over f is done implicitely by (often) minimizing a convex function.
- ullet $\mathcal X$ does not need to be a vector space.

What are the main features of kernel methods?

- decoupling of data representation and learning algorithm;
- a huge number of unsupervised and supervised algorithms;
- typically, convex optimization problems in a supervised context;
- versatility: applies to vectors, sequences, graphs, sets,...;
- natural regularization function to control the learning capacity;
- well studied theoretical framework.

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But...

- poor scalability in n, at least $O(n^2)$;
- decoupling of data representation and learning may not be a good thing, according to recent supervised deep learning success.

Challenges

Scaling-up kernel methods with approximate feature maps;

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') \approx \langle \psi(\mathbf{x}), \psi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle.$$

[Williams and Seeger, 2001, Rahimi and Recht, 2007, Vedaldi and Zisserman, 2012, Le et al., 2013]...

- Design data-adaptive and task-adaptive kernels;
- Build kernel hierarchies to capture compositional structures.
- Introduce **supervision** in the kernel design.

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We need deep kernel machines!



Some more motivation

Longer term objectives

- build a kernel for images (abstract object), for which we can precisely quantify the invariance, stability to perturbations, recovery, and complexity properties.
- build deep networks which can be easily regularized.
- build deep networks for structured objects (graph, sequences)...
- add more **geometric interpretation** to deep networks.

. . . .

Part II: Basic Principles of Deep Kernel Machines

Composition of feature spaces

Consider a p.d. kernel $K_1: \mathcal{X}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ and its RKHS \mathcal{H}_1 with mapping $\varphi_1: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{H}_1$. Consider also a p.d. kernel $K_2: \mathcal{H}_1^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ and its RKHS \mathcal{H}_2 with mapping $\varphi_2: \mathcal{H}_1 \to \mathcal{H}_2$. Then, $K_3: \mathcal{X}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ below is also p.d.

$$K_3(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')=K_2(\varphi_1(\mathbf{x}),\varphi_1(\mathbf{x}')),$$

and its RKHS mapping is $\varphi_3 = \varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1$.

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Examples

$$K_3(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\varphi_1(\mathbf{x}) - \varphi_1(\mathbf{x}')\|_{\mathcal{H}_1}^2}.$$

$$K_3(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \langle \varphi_1(\mathbf{x}), \varphi_1(\mathbf{x}') \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_1}^2 = K_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')^2.$$



Remarks on the composition of feature spaces

- we can iterate the process many times.
- the idea appears early in the literature of kernel methods [see Schölkopf et al., 1998, for a multilayer variant of kernel PCA].

Is this idea sufficient to make kernel methods more powerful?

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Probably not:

- K_2 is doomed to be a simple kernel (dot-product or RBF kernel).
- it does not address any of previous challenges.
- K_3 and K_1 operate on the same type of object; it is not clear why desining K_3 is easier than designing K_1 directly.

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Nonetheless, we will see later that this idea can be used to build a hierarchies of kernels that operate on more and more complex objects.



Basic principles of deep kernel machines: infinite NN

A large class of kernels on \mathbb{R}^p may be defined as an expectation

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{w}}[s(\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x})s(\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{y})],$$

where $s : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a nonlinear function. The encoding can be seen as a one-layer neural network with infinite number of random weights.

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Examples

random Fourier features

$$\kappa(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{w} \sim q(\mathbf{w}), b \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 2\pi]} \left[\sqrt{2} \cos(\mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + b) \sqrt{2} \cos(\mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{y} + b) \right]$$

Gaussian kernel

$$e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{y}\|_2^2} \propto \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{w}}\left[e^{\frac{2}{\sigma^2}\boldsymbol{w}^\top\boldsymbol{x}}e^{\frac{2}{\sigma^2}\boldsymbol{w}^\top\boldsymbol{y}}\right] \quad \text{with} \quad \boldsymbol{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,(\sigma^2/4)\boldsymbol{I}).$$



Basic principles of deep kernel machines: infinite NN

Example, arc-cosine kernels

$$\mathcal{K}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) \propto \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{w}} \left[\max \left(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{0} \right)^{\alpha} \max \left(\boldsymbol{w}^{\top} \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{0} \right)^{\alpha} \right] \quad \text{with} \quad \boldsymbol{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{I}),$$

for \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} on the hyper-sphere \mathbb{S}^{m-1} . Interestingly, the non-linearity s are typical ones from the neural network literature.

- $s(u) = \max(0, u)$ (rectified linear units) leads to $K_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sin(\theta) + (\pi \theta)\cos(\theta)$ with $\theta = \cos^{-1}(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{y})$;
- $s(u) = \max(0, u)^2$ (squared rectified linear units) leads to $K_2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 3\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) + (\pi \theta)(1 + 2\cos^2(\theta));$

Remarks

- infinite neural nets were discovered by Neal, 1994; then revisited many times [Le Roux, 2007, Cho and Saul, 2009].
- the concept does not lead to more powerful kernel methods...

Basic principles of DKM: dot-product kernels

Another basic link between kernels and neural networks can be obtained by considering dot-product kernels.

A classical old result

Let $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$ be the unit sphere of \mathbb{R}^d . The kernel $K: \mathcal{X}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$

$$K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \kappa(\langle \mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}
angle_{\mathbb{R}^d})$$

is positive definite if and only if κ is smooth and its Taylor expansion coefficients are non-negative.

Remark

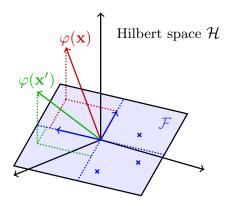
• the proposition holds if \mathcal{X} is the unit sphere of some Hilbert space and $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^d}$ is replaced by the corresponding inner-product.

Basic principles of DKM: dot-product kernels

The Nyström method consists of replacing any point $\varphi(\mathbf{x})$ in \mathcal{H} , for \mathbf{x} in \mathcal{X} by its orthogonal projection onto a finite-dimensional subspace

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathsf{span}(\varphi(\mathsf{z}_1), \ldots, \varphi(\mathsf{z}_p)),$$

for some anchor points $\mathbf{Z} = [\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_p]$ in $\mathbb{R}^{d \times p}$



Basic principles of DKM: dot-product kernels

The projection is equivalent to

$$\Pi_{\mathcal{F}}[\mathbf{x}] := \sum_{j=1}^p eta_j^\star arphi(\mathbf{z}_j) \quad ext{with} \quad eta^\star \in \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{oldsymbol{eta} \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\| arphi(\mathbf{x}) - \sum_{j=1}^p eta_j arphi(\mathbf{z}_j)
ight\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2,$$

Then, it is possible to show that with $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \kappa(\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^d})$,

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \approx \langle \Pi_{\mathcal{F}}[\mathbf{x}], \Pi_{\mathcal{F}}[\mathbf{y}] \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \langle \psi(\mathbf{x}), \psi(\mathbf{y}) \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^p},$$

with

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}) = \kappa(\mathbf{Z}^{\top}\mathbf{Z})^{-1/2}\kappa(\mathbf{Z}^{\top}\mathbf{x}),$$

where the function κ is applied pointwise to its arguments. The resulting ψ can be interpreted as a neural network performing (i) linear operation, (ii) pointwise non-linearity, (iii) linear operation.

Part III: Convolutional Kernel Networks

Convolutional kernel networks

The (happy?) marriage of kernel methods and CNNs

- a multilayer convolutional kernel for images: A hierarchy of kernels for local image neighborhoods (aka, receptive fields).
- unsupervised scheme for large-scale learning: the kernel beeing too computationally expensive, the Nyström approximation at each layer yields a new type of unsupervised deep neural network.
- **o** end-to-end learning: learning subspaces in the RKHSs can be achieved with a supervised loss function.

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First proof of concept with unsupervised learning

 J. Mairal, P. Koniusz, Z. Harchaoui and C. Schmid. Convolutional Kernel Networks. NIPS 2014.

The model of this presentation

 J. Mairal. End-to-End Kernel Learning with Supervised Convolutional Kernel Networks. NIPS 2016.

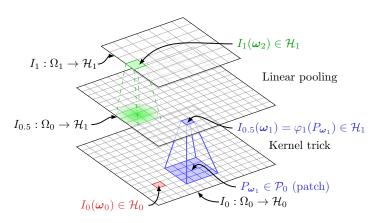
Related work

- proof of concept for combining kernels and deep learning [Cho and Saul, 2009];
- hierarchical kernel descriptors [Bo et al., 2011];
- other multilayer models [Bouvrie et al., 2009, Montavon et al., 2011, Anselmi et al., 2015];
- deep Gaussian processes [Damianou and Lawrence, 2013].
- multilayer PCA [Schölkopf et al., 1998].
- old kernels for images [Scholkopf, 1997].
- RBF networks [Broomhead and Lowe, 1988].

The multilayer convolutional kernel

Definition: image feature maps

An image feature map is a function $I: \Omega \to \mathcal{H}$, where Ω is a 2D grid representing "coordinates" in the image and \mathcal{H} is a Hilbert space.



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Motivation and examples

- Each point $I(\omega)$ carries information about an image neighborhood, which is motivated by the **local stationarity** of natural images.
- We will construct a sequence of maps I_0, \ldots, I_k . Going up in the hierarchy yields larger receptive fields with more invariance.
- I_0 may simply be the input image, where $\mathcal{H}_0 = \mathbb{R}^3$ for RGB.

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First, define a p.d. kernel on patches of l_0 !



Going from I_0 to $I_{0.5}$: kernel trick

- Patches of size $e_0 \times e_0$ can be defined as elements of the Cartesian product $\mathcal{P}_0 := \mathcal{H}_0^{e_0 \times e_0}$ endowed with its natural inner-product.
- Define a p.d. kernel on such patches: For all x, x' in \mathcal{P}_0 ,

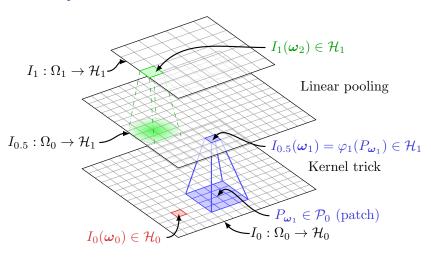
$$\mathcal{K}_1(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\mathcal{P}_0} \|\mathbf{x}'\|_{\mathcal{P}_0} \kappa_1 \bigg(\frac{\langle \mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}' \rangle_{\mathcal{P}_0}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\mathcal{P}_0} \|\mathbf{x}'\|_{\mathcal{P}_0}} \bigg) \quad \text{if } \ \mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}' \neq 0 \quad \text{and 0 otherwise}.$$

Note that for \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}' normalized, we may choose

$$\kappa_1\left(\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}' \rangle_{\mathcal{P}_0}\right) = e^{\alpha_1\left(\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}' \rangle_{\mathcal{P}_0} - 1\right)} = e^{-\frac{\alpha_1}{2}\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}'\|_{\mathcal{P}_0}^2}.$$

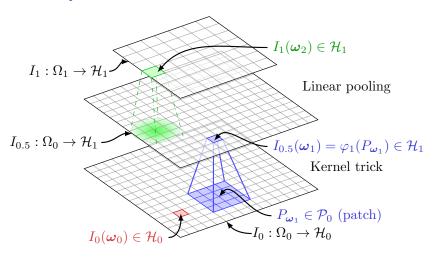
- We call \mathcal{H}_1 the RKHS and define a mapping $\varphi_1 : \mathcal{P}_0 \to \mathcal{H}_1$.
- Then, we may define the map $I_{0.5}:\Omega_0\to\mathcal{H}_1$ that carries the representations in \mathcal{H}_1 of the patches from I_0 at all locations in Ω_0 .





How do we go from $I_{0.5}:\Omega_0\to\mathcal{H}_1$ to $I_1:\Omega_1\to\mathcal{H}_1$?





How do we go from $I_{0.5}:\Omega_0\to\mathcal{H}_1$ to $I_1:\Omega_1\to\mathcal{H}_1$?

Linear pooling!



Going from $I_{0.5}$ to I_1 : linear pooling

• For all ω in Ω_1 :

$$I_1(\omega) = \sum_{\omega' \in \Omega_0} I_{0.5}(\omega') e^{-\beta_1 \|\omega' - \omega\|_2^2}.$$

- The Gaussian weight can be interpreted as an anti-aliasing filter for downsampling the map $I_{0.5}$ to a different resolution.
- Linear pooling is compatible with the kernel interpretation: linear combinations of points in the RKHS are still points in the RKHS.

Finally,

- We may now repeat the process and build I_0, I_1, \ldots, I_k .
- and obtain the multilayer convolutional kernel

$$K(I_k, I_k') = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega_k} \langle I_k(\omega), I_k'(\omega) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_k}.$$

In summary

- The multilayer convolutional kernel builds upon similar principles as a convolutional neural net (multiscale, local stationarity).
- Invariance to local translations is achieved through linear pooling in the RKHS.
- It remains a conceptual object due to its high complexity.
- Learning and modelling are still decoupled.

Let us first address the second point (scalability).

Learn linear subspaces of finite-dimensions where we project the data

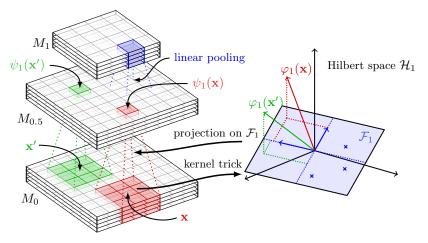


Figure: The convolutional kernel network model between layers 0 and 1.

Formally, this means using the Nyström approximation

- We now manipulate finite-dimensional maps $M_j:\Omega_j o \mathbb{R}^{p_j}$.
- Every linear subspace is parametrized by anchor points

$$\mathcal{F}_j := \mathsf{Span}\left(\varphi(\mathbf{z}_{j,1}), \ldots, \varphi(\mathbf{z}_{j,p_j}) \right),$$

where the $\mathbf{z}_{1,j}$'s are in $\mathbb{R}^{p_{j-1}e_{j-1}^2}$ for patches of size $e_{j-1} \times e_{j-1}$.

• The encoding function at layer j is

$$\psi_j(\mathbf{x}) := \|\mathbf{x}\| \kappa_j (\mathbf{Z}_j^\top \mathbf{Z}_j)^{-1/2} \kappa_1 \left(\mathbf{Z}_j^\top \frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \right) \ \text{if } \mathbf{x} \neq 0 \ \text{and} \ 0 \ \text{otherwise},$$

where $\mathbf{Z}_j = [\mathbf{z}_{j,1}, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{j,p_i}]$ and $\|.\|$ is the Euclidean norm.

• The interpretation is convolution with filters \mathbf{Z}_j , pointwise non-linearity, 1×1 convolution, contrast normalization.



• The pooling operation keeps points in the linear subspace \mathcal{F}_j , and pooling $M_{0.5}: \Omega_0 \to \mathbb{R}^{p_1}$ is equivalent to pooling $I_{0.5}: \Omega_0 \to \mathcal{H}_1$.

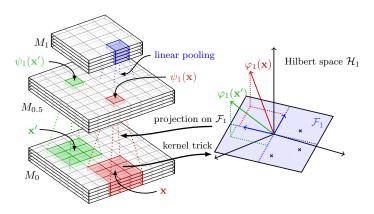


Figure: The convolutional kernel network model between layers 0 and 1.

How do we learn the filters with no supervision?

we learn one layer at a time, starting from the bottom one.

- we extract a large number—say 100 000 patches from layers j-1 computed on an image database and normalize them;
- perform a spherical K-means algorithm to learn the filters Z_j;
- compute the projection matrix $\kappa_j(\mathbf{Z}_i^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Z}_j)^{-1/2}$.

Remarks

- with kernels, we map patches in infinite dimension; with the projection, we manipulate finite-dimensional objects.
- we obtain an unsupervised convolutional net with a geometric interpretation, where we perform projections in the RKHSs.

Remark on input image pre-processing

Unsupervised CKNs are sensitive to pre-processing; we have tested

- RAW RGB input;
- local centering of every color channel;
- local whitening of each color channel;
- 2D image gradients.



(a) RAW RGB



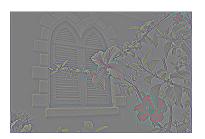
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(c) RAW RGB



(d) whitening

Remark on pre-processing with image gradients and 1×1 patches

Every pixel/patch can be represented as a two dimensional vector

$$\mathbf{x} = \rho[\cos(\theta), \sin(\theta)],$$

where $\rho = \|\mathbf{x}\|$ is the gradient intensity and θ is the orientation.

A natural choice of filters Z would be

$$\mathbf{z}_j = [\cos(\theta_j), \sin(\theta_j)]$$
 with $\theta_j = 2j\pi/p_0$.

- Then, the vector $\psi(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{x}\| \kappa_1 (\mathbf{Z}^\top \mathbf{Z})^{-1/2} \kappa_1 (\mathbf{Z}^\top \frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|})$, can be interpreted as a "soft-binning" of the gradient orientation.
- After pooling, the representation of this first layer is very close to SIFT/HOG descriptors [see Bo et al., 2011].



Convolutional kernel networks with supervised learning

How do we learn the filters with supervision?

 \bullet Given a kernel K and RKHS \mathcal{H} , the ERM objective is

$$\min_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(y_i, f(\mathbf{x}_i)) + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||f||_{\mathcal{H}}^{2} .$$
empirical risk, data fit

• here, we use the parametrized kernel

$$\mathcal{K}_{\mathcal{Z}}(I_0,I_0') = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega_k} \langle M_k(\omega), M_k'(\omega) \rangle = \langle M_k, M_k' \rangle_{\mathsf{F}},$$

• and we obtain the simple formulation

$$\min_{\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{p_k \times |\Omega_k|}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, \langle \mathbf{W}, M_k^i \rangle_{\mathsf{F}}) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{W}\|_{\mathsf{F}}^2. \tag{1}$$

Convolutional kernel networks with supervised learning

How do we learn the filters with supervision?

- we jointly optimize w.r.t. \mathcal{Z} (set of filters) and \mathbf{W} .
- we alternate between the optimization of \mathcal{Z} and of \mathbf{W} ;
- for W, the problem is strongly-convex and can be tackled with recent algorithms that are much faster than SGD;
- for Z, we derive backpropagation rules and use classical tricks for learning CNNs (SGD+momentum);

The only tricky part is to differentiate $\kappa_j(\mathbf{Z}_j^{\top}\mathbf{Z}_j)^{-1/2}$ w.r.t \mathbf{Z}_j , which is a non-standard operation in classical CNNs.

Convolutional kernel networks

In summary

- a multilayer kernel for images, which builds upon similar principles as a convolutional neural net (multiscale, local stationarity).
- A new type of convolutional neural network with a geometric interpretation: orthogonal projections in RKHS.
- Learning may be unsupervised: align subspaces with data.
- Learning may be supervised: subspace learning in RKHSs.

Part IV: Applications

Image classification

Experiments were conducted on classical "deep learning" datasets, on CPUs with no model averaging and no data augmentation.

Dataset	# classes	im. size	n _{train}	n _{test}
CIFAR-10	10	32×32	50 000	10 000
SVHN	10	32 × 32	604 388	26 032

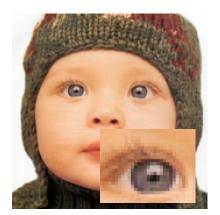
	Stoch P. [29]	MaxOut [9]	NiN [17]	DSN [15]	Gen P. [14]	SCKN (Ours)
CIFAR-10	15.13	11.68	10.41	9.69	7.62	10.20
SVHN	2.80	2.47	2.35	1.92	1.69	2.04

Figure: Figure from the NIPS'16 paper. Error rates in percents.

Remarks on CIFAR-10

- 10% is the standard "good" result for single model with no data augmentation.
- the best unsupervised architecture has two layers, is wide (1024-16384 filters), and achieves 14.2%;

The task is to predict a high-resolution \mathbf{y} image from low-resolution one \mathbf{x} . This may be formulated as a multivariate regression problem.

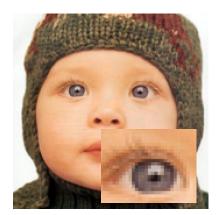


(a) Low-resolution y



(b) High-resolution x

The task is to predict a high-resolution \mathbf{y} image from low-resolution one \mathbf{x} . This may be formulated as a multivariate regression problem.



(c) Low-resolution y



(d) Bicubic interpolation

Fact.	Dataset	Bicubic	SC	CNN	CSCN	SCKN
x2	Set5	33.66	35.78	36.66	36.93	37.07
	Set14	30.23	31.80	32.45	32.56	32.76
	Kodim	30.84	32.19	32.80	32.94	33.21
хЗ	Set5	30.39	31.90	32.75	33.10	33.08
	Set14	27.54	28.67	29.29	29.41	29.50
	Kodim	28.43	29.21	29.64	29.76	29.88

Table: Reconstruction accuracy for super-resolution in PSNR (the higher, the better). All CNN approaches are without data augmentation at test time.

Remarks

- CNN is a "vanilla CNN" [Dong et al., 2016];
- Very recent work does better with very deep CNNs and residual learning [Kim et al., 2016];
- CSCN combines ideas from sparse coding and CNNs;

[Zeyde et al., 2010, Dong et al., 2016, Wang et al., 2015, Kim et al., 2016].



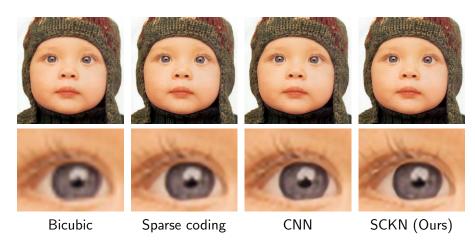


Figure: Results for x3 upscaling.



Figure: Bicubic



Figure: SCKN

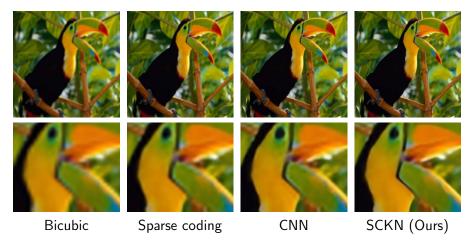


Figure: Results for x3 upscaling.

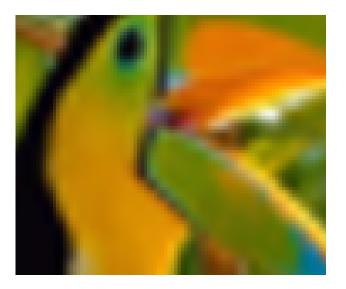


Figure: Bicubic



Figure: SCKN

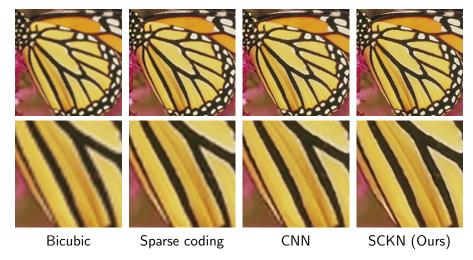


Figure: Results for x3 upscaling.

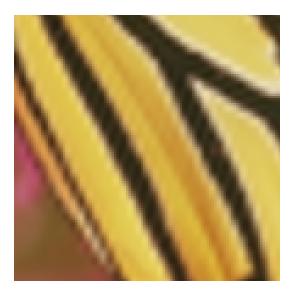


Figure: Bicubic

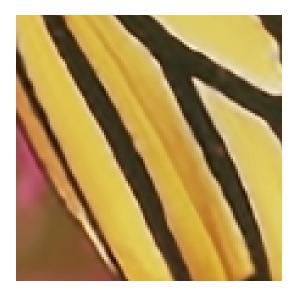


Figure: SCKN



Figure: Results for x3 upscaling.



Figure: Bicubic



Figure: SCKN

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