Deep Learning

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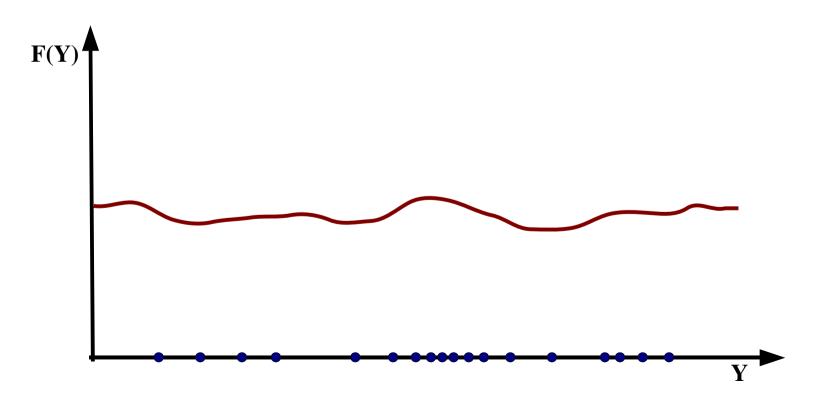


■ GOAL: make F(Y;W) lower around areas of high data density



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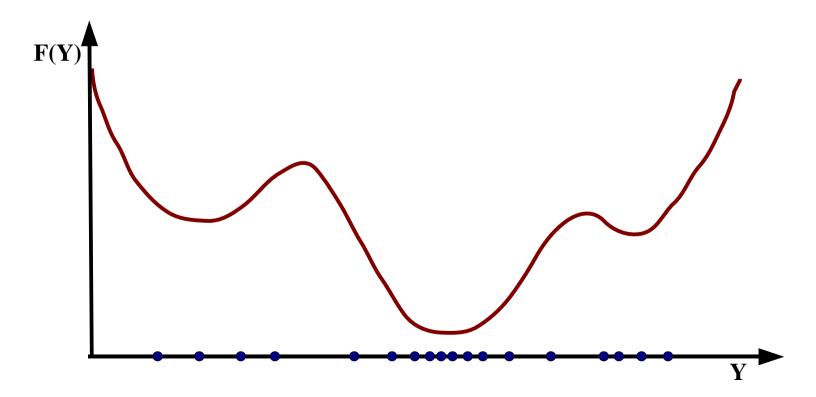
ENERGY BEFORE TRAINING





GOAL: make F(Y;W) lower around areas of high data density

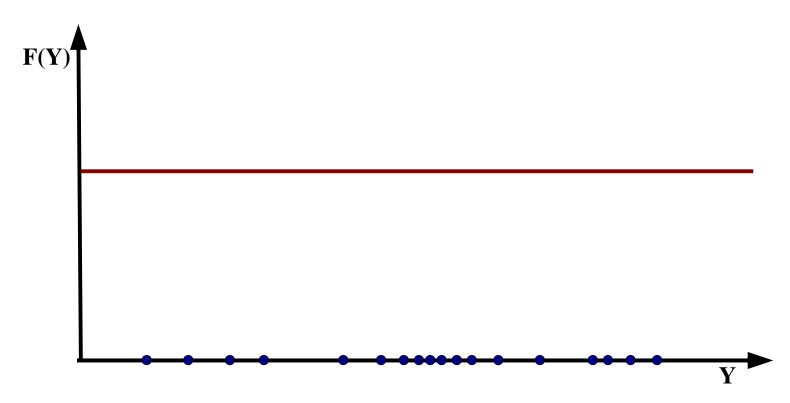
ENERGY AFTER TRAINING





GOAL: make F(Y;W) lower around areas of high data density

WANT TO AVOID FLAT ENERGY





- GOAL: make F(Y;W) lower around areas of high data density
- Train the parameters of the model by minimizing a loss

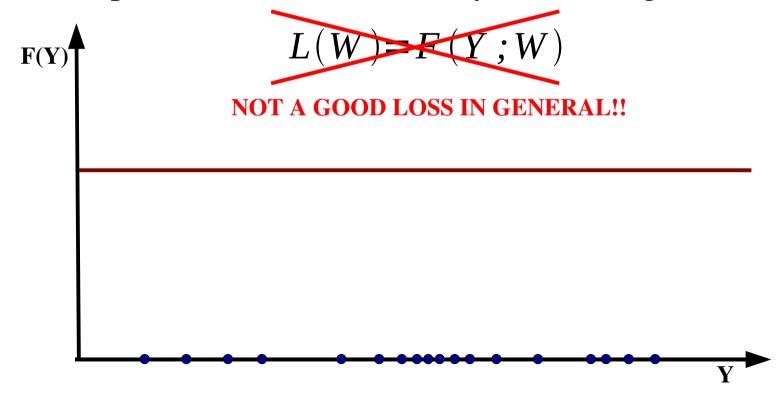


- GOAL: make F(Y;W) lower around areas of high data density
- Train the parameters of the model by minimizing a loss

$$L(W)=F(Y;W)$$



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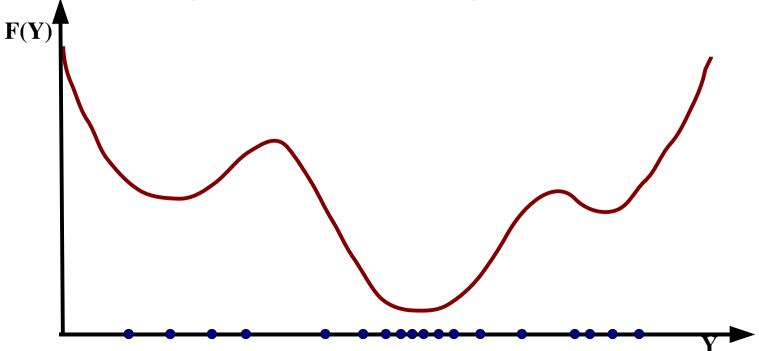


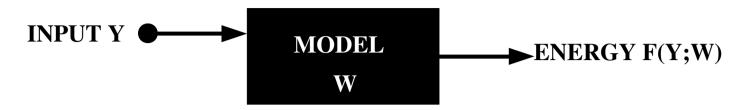


Use contrastive loss

$$L(W) = L(F(Y; W), F(\overline{Y}; W))$$

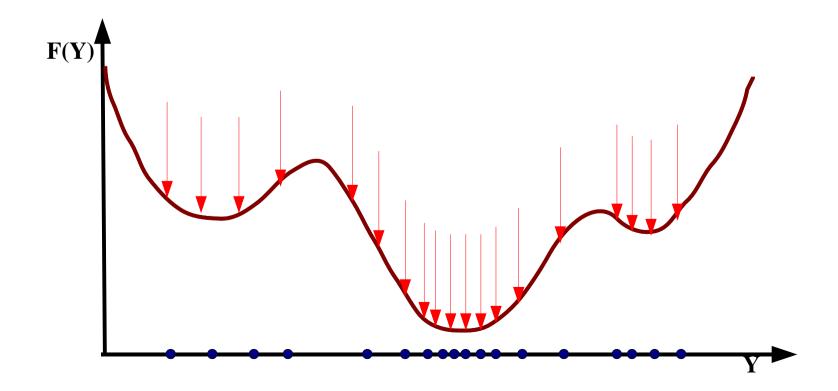
L(a,b): increasing fn of a, decreaasing fn of b





Use contrastive loss

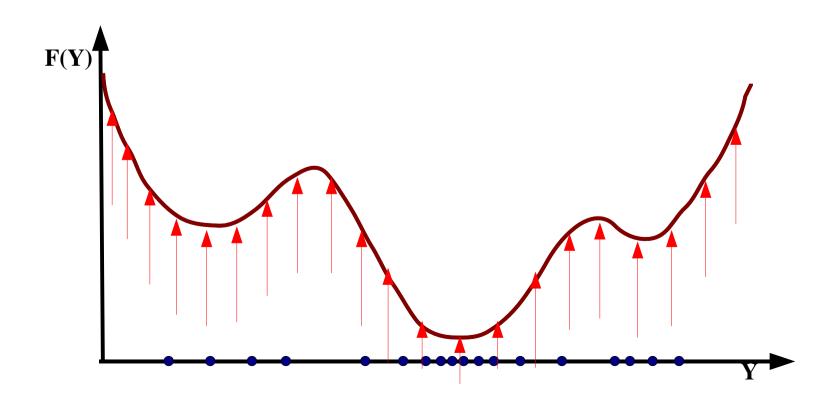
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Use contrastive loss

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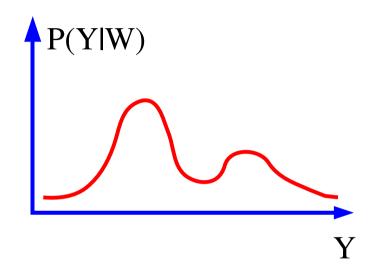
Each Stage is Trained as an Estimator of the Input Density

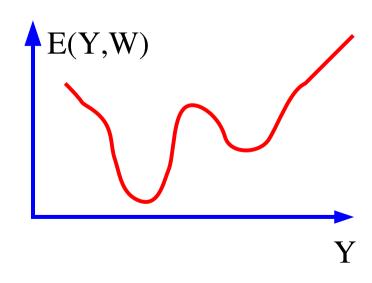
Probabilistic View:

- Produce a probability density function that:
- has high value in regions of high sample density
- has low value everywhere else (integral = 1).

Energy-Based View:

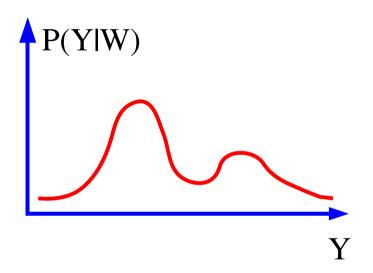
- produce an energy function E(Y,W) that:
- has low value in regions of high sample density
- has high(er) value everywhere else



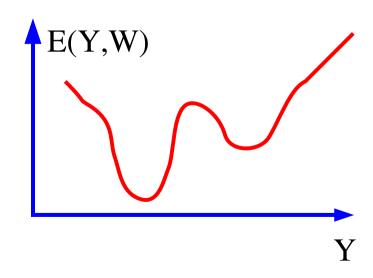


Energy <-> Probability

$$P(Y|W) = \frac{e^{-\beta E(Y,W)}}{\int_{y} e^{-\beta E(y,W)}}$$



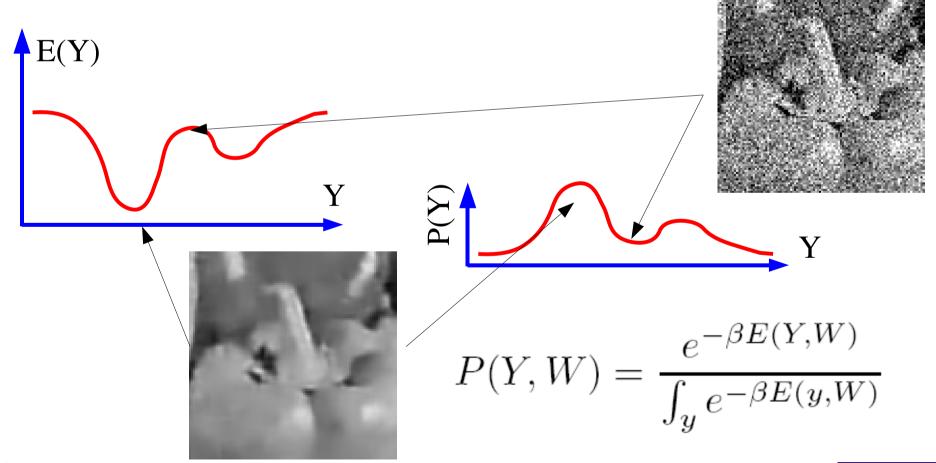
$$E(Y, W) \propto -\log P(Y|W)$$



The Intractable Normalization Problem

- **Example: Image Patches**
- Learning:
 - Make the energy of every "natural image" patch low

Make the energy of everything else high!

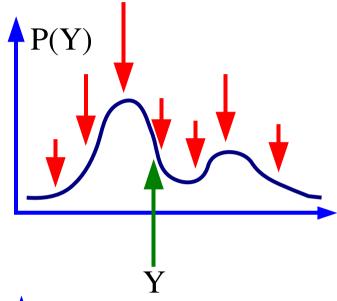


Training an Energy-Based Model to Approximate a Density

Maximizing P(Y|W) on training samples

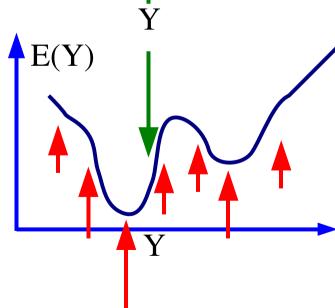
make this big

$$P(Y|W) = \frac{e^{-\beta E(Y,W)}}{\int_{y} e^{-\beta E(y,W)}}$$
 make this small



Minimizing -log P(Y,W) on training samples

$$L(Y,W) = E(Y,W) + \frac{1}{\beta}\log\int_y e^{-\beta E(y,W)}$$
 make this small make this big



Training an Energy-Based Model with Gradient Descent

Gradient of the negative log-likelihood loss for one sample Y:

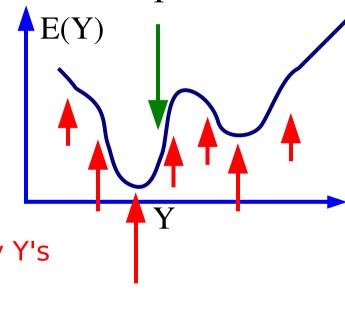
$$\frac{\partial L(Y,W)}{\partial W} = \frac{\partial E(Y,W)}{\partial W} - \int_{y} P(y|W) \frac{\partial E(y,W)}{\partial W}$$

Gradient descent:

$$W \leftarrow W - \eta \frac{\partial L(Y,W)}{\partial W}$$

Pushes down on the energy of the samples

Pulls up on the energy of low-energy Y's



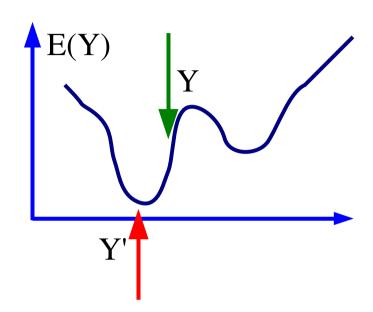
$$W \leftarrow W - \eta \frac{\partial E(Y, W)}{\partial W} + \eta \int_{\mathcal{U}} P(y|W) \frac{\partial E(y, W)}{\partial W}$$

Solving The Intractable Normalization problem

- Probabilistic unsupervised learning is hard
 - Pushing up on the energy of every points in regions of low data density is often impractical.
- Solution 1: contrastive divergence [Hinton 2000]
 - Only push up on points that are not to far from the training samples, and only on those points that have low energy. These points are obtained from the training samples through MCMC.
 - This makes a "groove" in the energy surface around the data manifold.
- Solution 2: MAIN INSIGHT! [Ranzato, ..., LeCun AI-Stat 2007]
 - Restrict the information content of the code (features) Z
 - ▶ If the code Z can only take a few different configurations, only a correspondingly small number of Ys can be perfectly reconstructed
 - ▶ Idea: impose a sparsity prior on Z
 - ▶ This is reminiscent of sparse coding [Olshausen & Field 1997]

Contrastive Divergence Trick [Hinton 2000]

- push down on the energy of the training sample Y
- Pick a sample of low energy Y' near the training sample, and pull up its energy
 - this digs a trench in the energy surface around the training samples



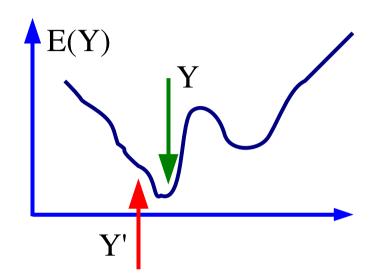
$$W \leftarrow W - \eta \frac{\partial E(Y, W)}{\partial W} + \eta \frac{\partial E(Y', W)}{\partial W}$$

Pushes down on the energy of the training sample Y

Pulls up on the energy Y'

Contrastive Divergence Trick [Hinton 2000]

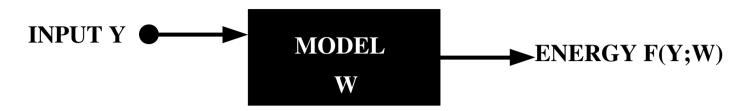
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Pulls up on the energy Y'

$$W \leftarrow W - \eta \frac{\partial E(Y, W)}{\partial W} + \eta \frac{\partial E(Y', W)}{\partial W}$$

Pushes down on the energy of the training sample Y



- Use contrastive loss
 - e.g. maximum likelihood learning
 - generally intractable and expensive in high dimensions

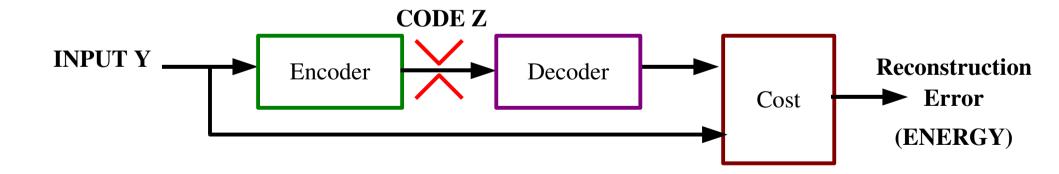
$$L(W) = L(F(Y; W), F(\overline{Y}; W))$$



- Restrict information content of internal representation
 - assume that input is reconstructed from code
 - inference determines the value of Z and F(Y;W)

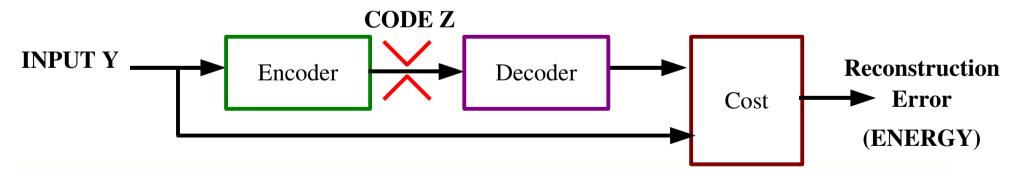


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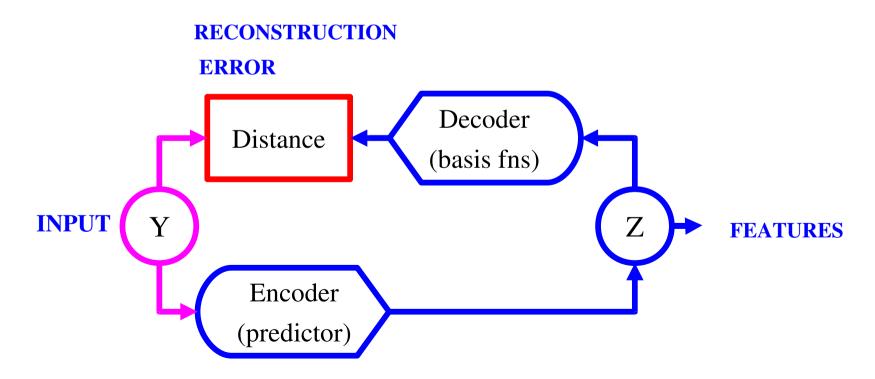


If Z is constrained, we can simply train by minimizing the energy loss over the training set:

$$L(W) = F(Y; W)$$

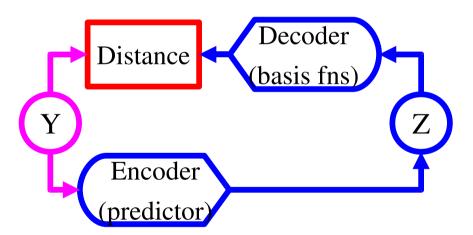
The Encoder/Decoder Architecture

- Each stage is composed of [Hinton 05, Bengio 06, LeCun 06, Ng 07]
 - an encoder that produces a feature vector from the input
 - a decoder that reconstruct the input from the feature vector
 - PCA is a special case (linear encoder and decoder)



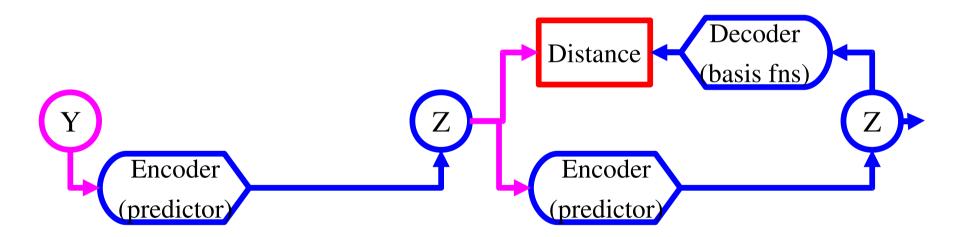
Deep Learning: Stack of Encoder/Decoders

- Train each stage one after the other
- 1. Train the first stage



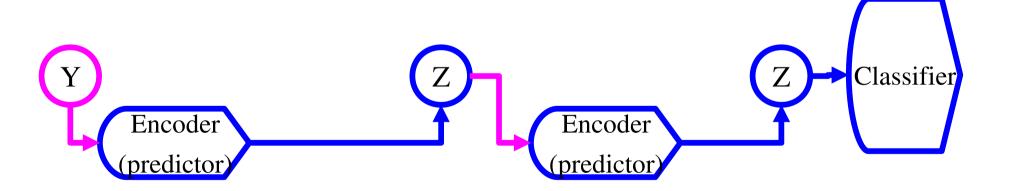
Deep Learning: Stack of Encoder/Decoders

- Train each stage one after the other
- 2. Remove the decoder, and train the second Stage



Deep Learning: Stack of Encoder/Decoders

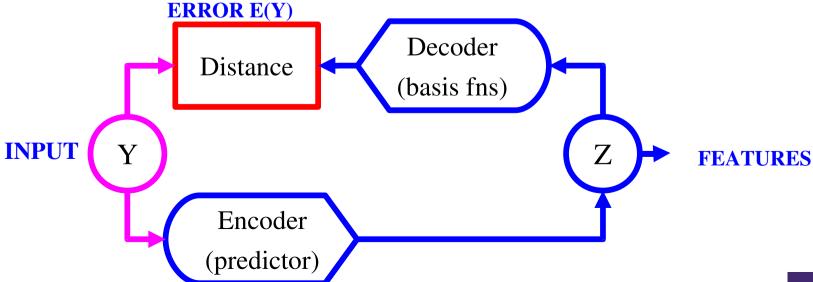
- Train each stage one after the other
- 3. Remove the 2nd stage decoder, and train a supervised classifier on top
- 4. Refine the entire system with supervised learning
 - e.g. using gradient descent / backprop



Training an Encoder/Decoder Module

- Define the Energy F(Y) as the reconstruction error
 - Example: F(Y) = || Y Decoder(Encoder(Y)) ||²
- Probabilistic Training, given a training set (Y1, Y2......)
 - Interpret the energy F(Y) as a -log P(Y) (unnormalized)
 - Train the encoder/decoder to maximize the prob of the data
- Train the encoder/decoder so that:
 - F(Y) is small in regions of high data density (good reconstruction)
 - F(Y) is large in regions of low data density (bad reconstruction)

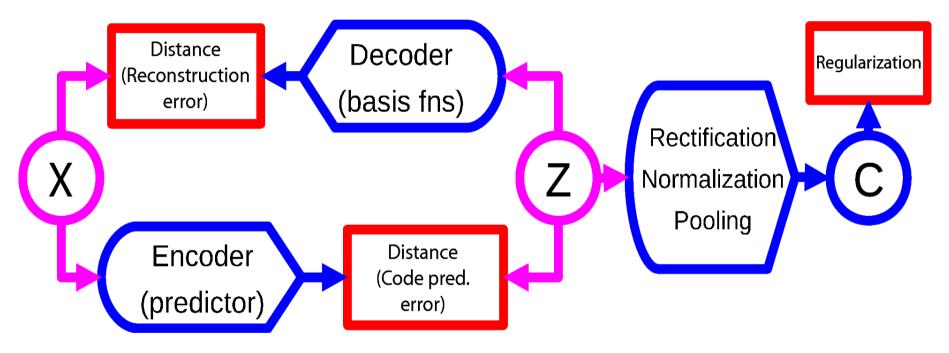
RECONSTRUCTION



General Encoder-Decoder

$$E(X,Z) = Dist[X,Dec(Z)] + Dist[Z,Enc(X)] + Reg(Z)$$

$$F(X) = MIN_z E(X,Z)$$
 or $F(X) = -log SUM_z exp(-E(X,z))$



RBM is a special case:

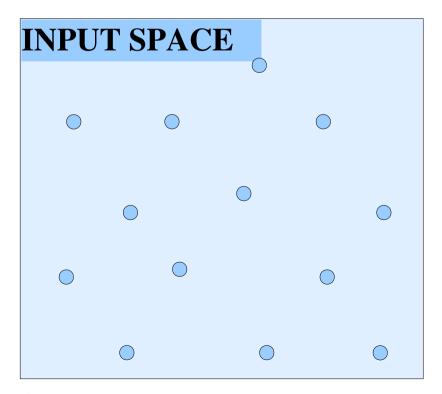
$$Enc(X) = W.X$$
, $Dist(Z,W.X) = Z'W.X$

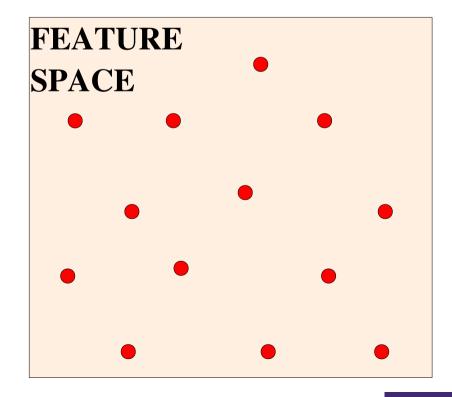
$$Dec(Z) = W'Z$$
, $Dist(X,W'X) = X'W.Z$

The Main Insight [Ranzato et al. 2007]

- If the information content of the feature vector is limited (e.g. by imposing sparsity constraints), the energy MUST be large in most of the space.
 - pulling down on the energy of the training samples will necessarily make a groove
- **■** The volume of the space over which the energy is low is limited by the entropy of the feature vector
 - Input vectors are reconstructed from feature vectors.
 - ▶ If few feature configurations are possible, few input vectors can be reconstructed properly

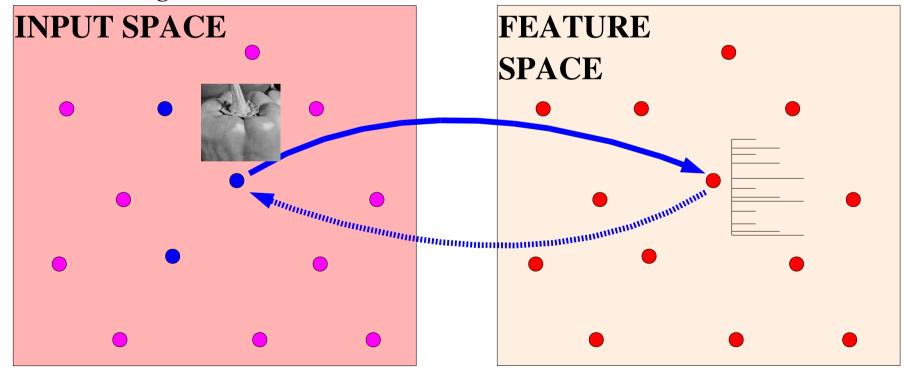
- Training sample
- Input vector which is NOT a training sample
- Feature vector





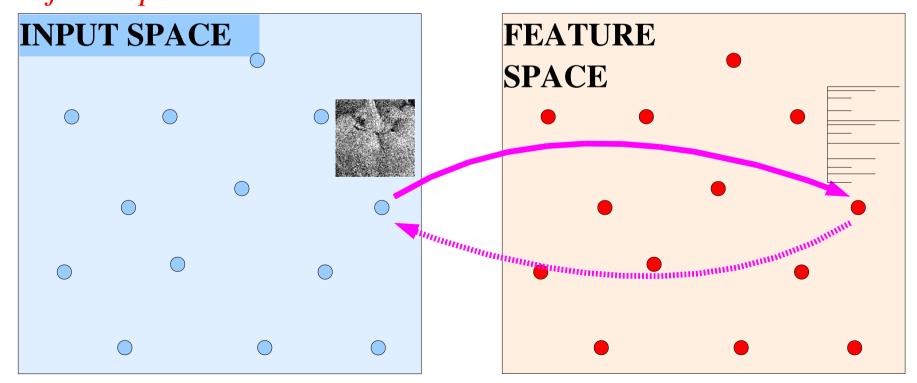
- Training sample
- Input vector which is NOT a training sample
- Feature vector

Training based on minimizing the reconstruction error over the training set



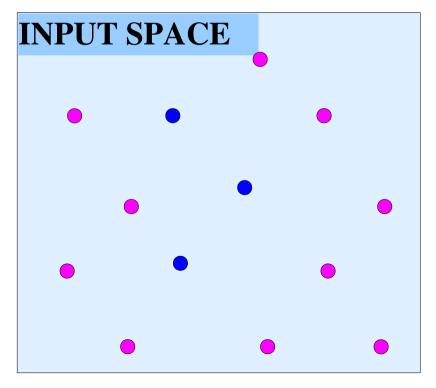
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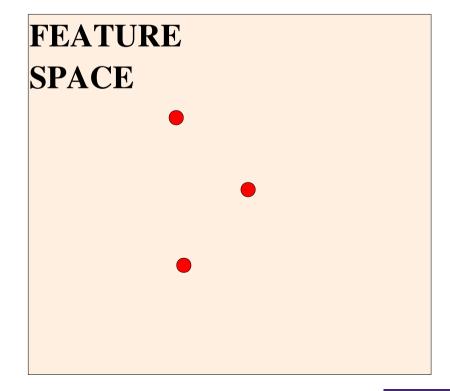
BAD: machine does not learn structure from training data!! It just copies the data.



- Training sample
- Input vector which is NOT a training sample
- Feature vector

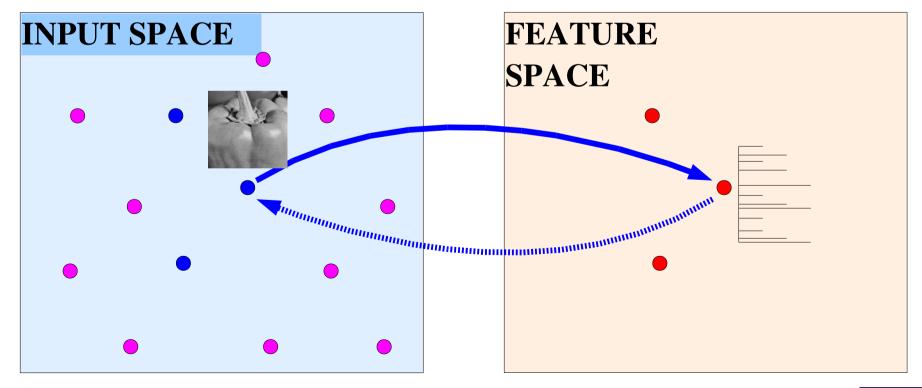
IDEA: reduce number of available codes.





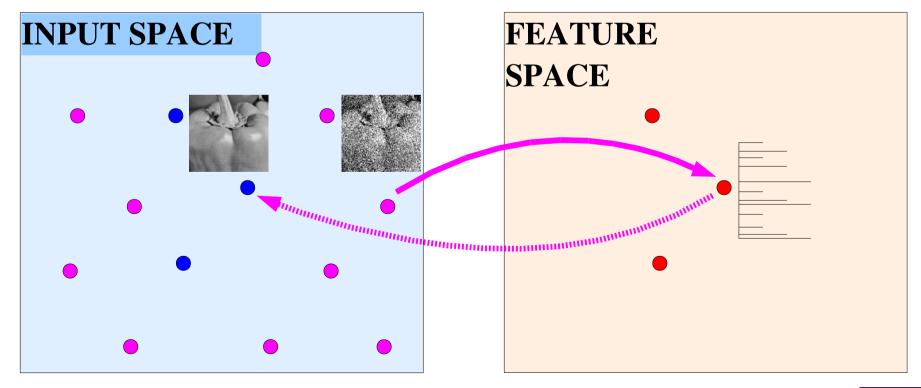
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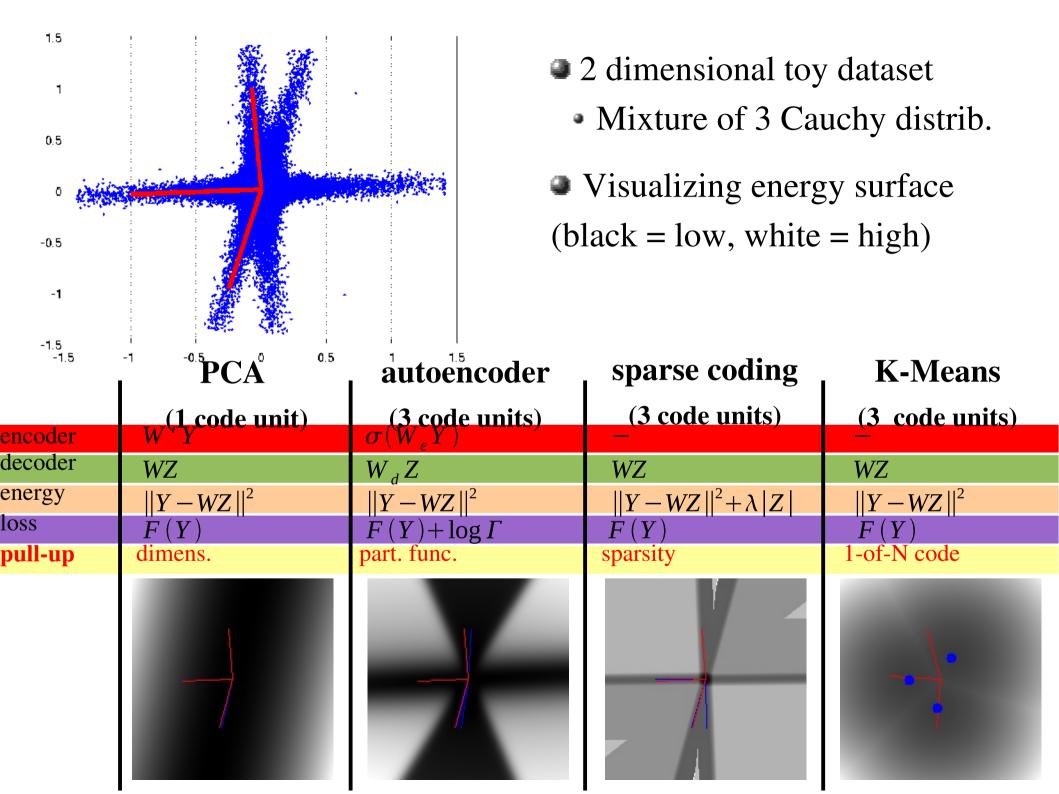
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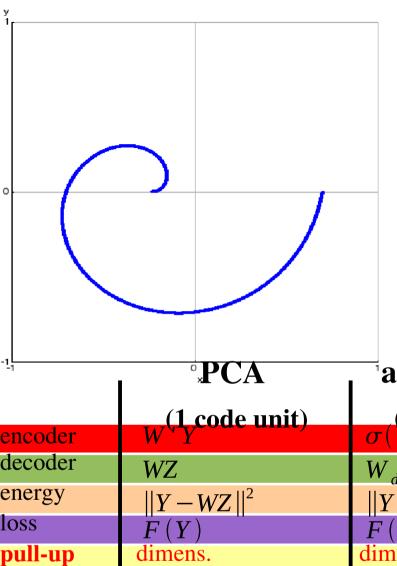


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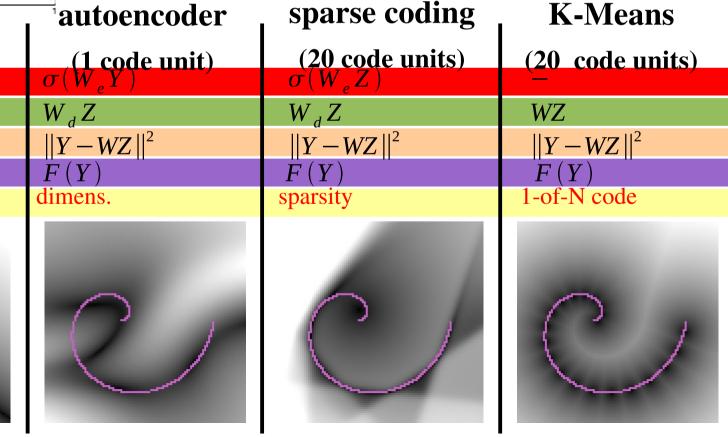
IDEA: reduce number of available codes.







- 2 dimensional toy dataset
 - spiral
- Visualizing energy surface(black = low, white = high)



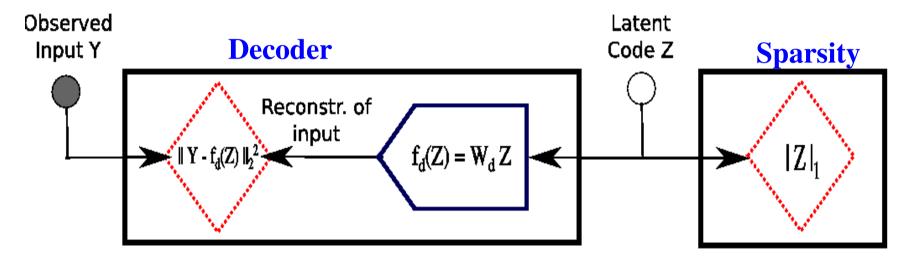
Sparsity Penalty to Restrict the Code

- We are going to impose a sparsity penalty on the code to restrict its information content.
- We will allow the code to have higher dimension than the input
- Categories are more easily separable in high-dim sparse feature spaces
 - ▶ This is a trick that SVM use: they have one dimension per sample
- Sparse features are optimal when an active feature costs more than an inactive one (zero).
 - e.g. neurons that spike consume more energy
 - ▶ The brain is about 2% active on average.

Sparse Decomposition with Linear Reconstruction

[Olshausen and Field 1997]

- **Energy**(Input,Code) = $\|$ Input $\frac{Decoder}{Code}\|^2 + \frac{Sparsity}{Code}$
- Energy(Input) = Min_over_Code[Energy(Input,Code)]



Energy: minimize to infer Z

$$E(Y^{i}, Z^{i}; W) = ||Y^{i} - W_{d}Z^{i}||^{2} + \lambda \sum_{j} |z_{j}^{i}|$$

$$F(Y^{i}; W) = min_{z} E(Y^{i}, z; W)$$

▶ Loss: minimize to learn W (the columns of W are constrained to have norm 1)

$$L(W) = \sum_{i} F(Y^{i}; W) = \sum_{i} (min_{Z^{i}} E(Y^{i}, Z^{i}; W))$$

Yann LeCun

Problem with Sparse Decomposition: It's slow

Inference: Optimal_Code = Arg_Min_over_Code[Energy(Input,Code)]

$$E(Y^{i}, Z^{i}; W) = ||Y^{i} - W_{d}Z^{i}||^{2} + \lambda \sum_{j} |z_{j}^{i}|$$

$$F(Y^{i}; W) = min_{z} E(Y^{i}, z; W)$$

$$Z^{i} = argmin_{z} E(Y^{i}, z; W)$$

- ► For each new Y, an optimization algorithm must be run to find the corresponding optimal Z
- ► This would be very slow for large scale vision tasks
- ► Also, the optimal Z are very unstable:
 - A small change in Y can cause a large change in the optimal Z

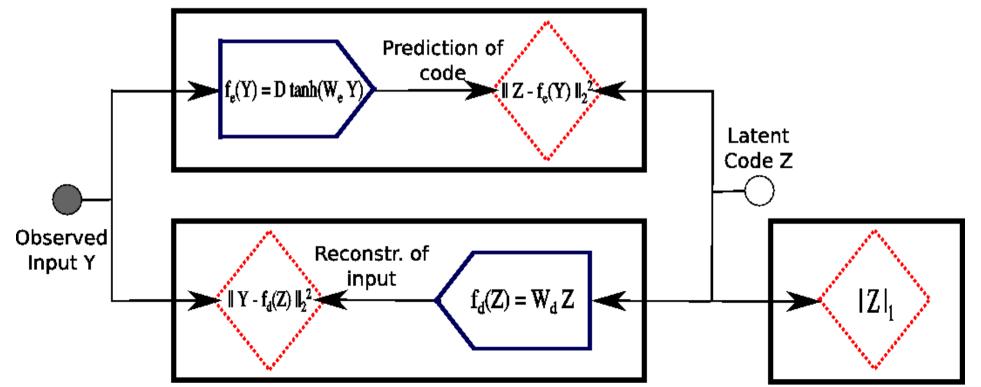
Solution: Predictive Sparse Decomposition (PSD)

[Kavukcuoglu, Ranzato, LeCun, 2009]

- Prediction the optimal code with a trained encoder
- Energy = reconstruction_error + code_prediction_error + code_sparsity

$$E(Y^{i}, Z^{i}; W) = ||Y^{i} - W_{d}Z^{i}||^{2} + ||Z^{i} - f_{e}(Y^{i})||^{2} + \lambda \sum_{j} |z_{j}^{i}|$$

$$f_{e}(Y^{i}) = D \tanh(W_{e}Y)$$

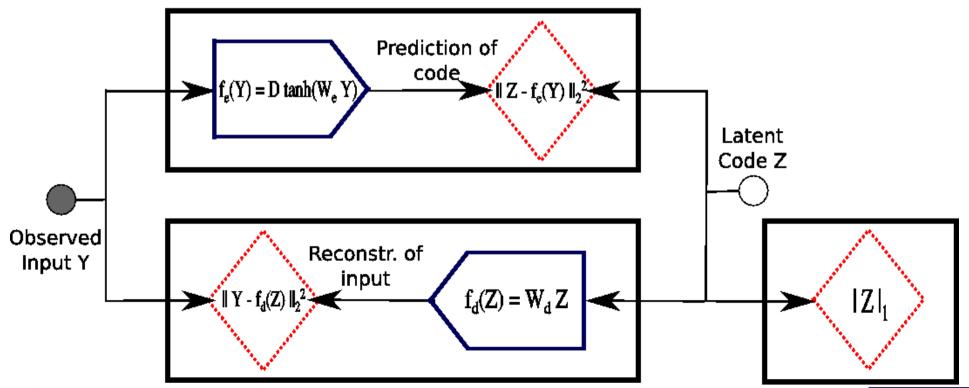


PSD: Inference

Inference by gradient descent starting from the encoder output

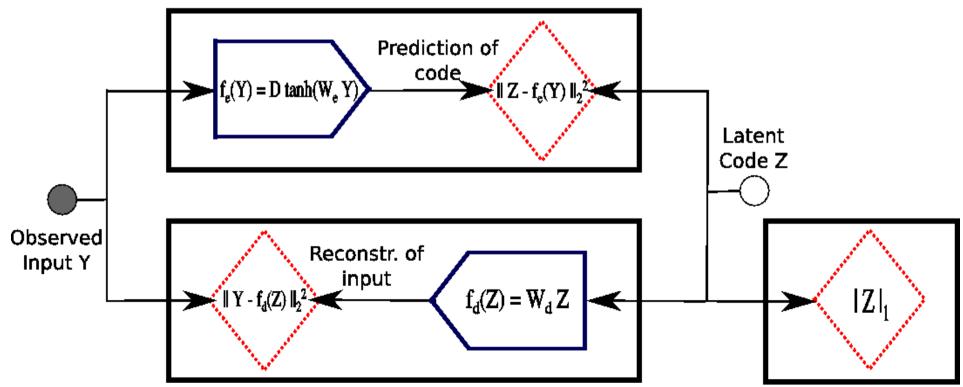
$$E(Y^{i}, Z^{i}; W) = ||Y^{i} - W_{d}Z^{i}||^{2} + ||Z^{i} - f_{e}(Y^{i})||^{2} + \lambda \sum_{j} |z_{j}^{i}|$$

$$Z^{i} = argmin_{z}E(Y^{i}, z; W)$$

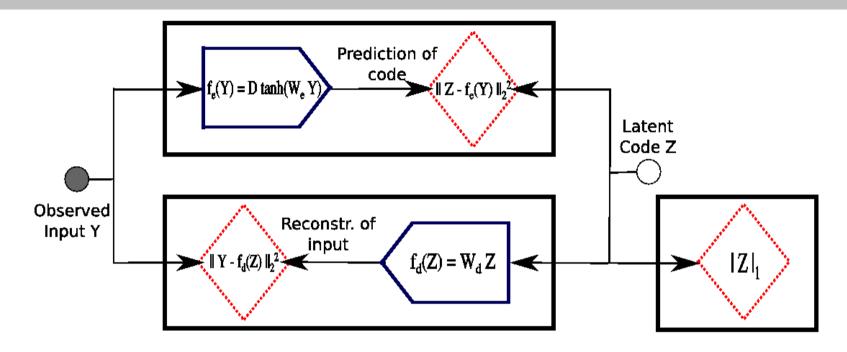


PSD: Learning [Kavukcuoglu et al. 2009]

- **■** Learning by minimizing the average energy of the training data with respect to Wd and We.
- Loss function: $L(W) = \sum_{i} F(Y^{i}; W)$ $F(Y^{i}; W) = min_{z} E(Y^{i}, z; W)$



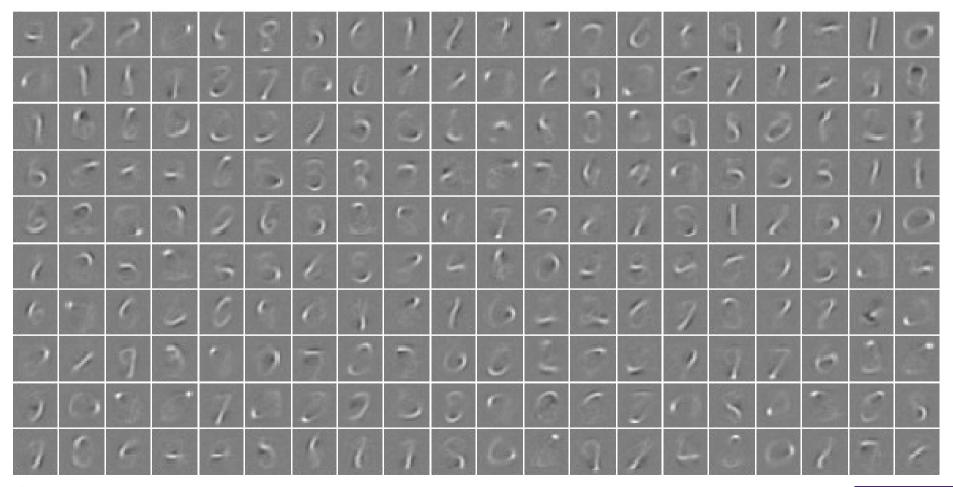
PSD: Learning Algorithm



- **1. Initialize Z = Encoder(Y)**
- 2. Find Z that minimizes the energy function
- 3. Update the Decoder basis functions to reduce reconstruction error
- 4. Update Encoder parameters to reduce prediction error
- Repeat with next training sample

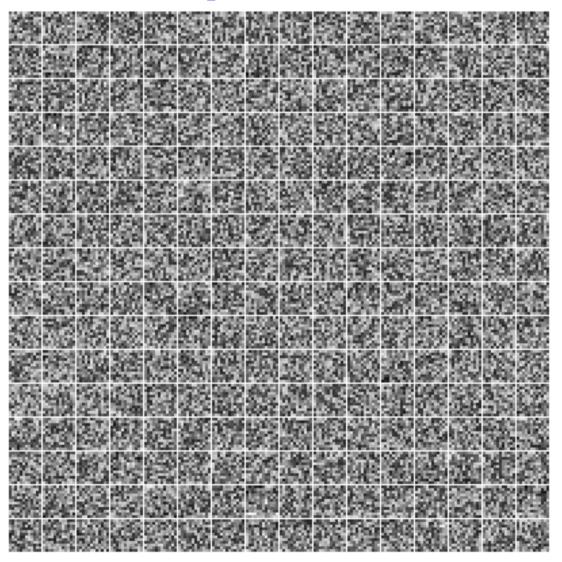
Decoder Basis Functions on MNIST

- ▶ PSD trained on handwritten digits: decoder filters are "parts" (strokes).
 - Any digit can be reconstructed as a linear combination of a small number of these "parts".



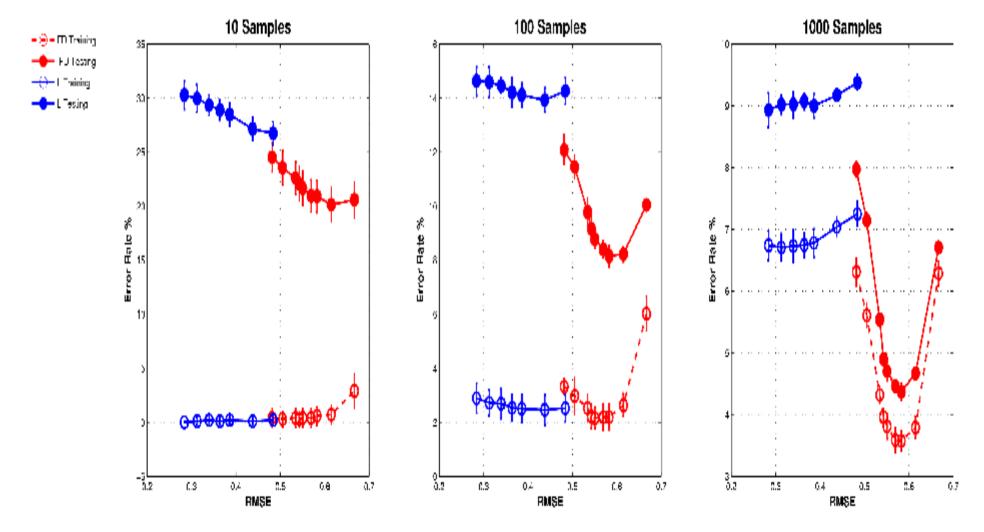
PSD Training on Natural Image Patches

- Basis functions are like Gabor filters (like receptive fields in V1 neurons)
- 256 filters of size 12x12
- Trained on natural image patches from the Berkeley dataset
- Encoder is linear-tanhdiagonal



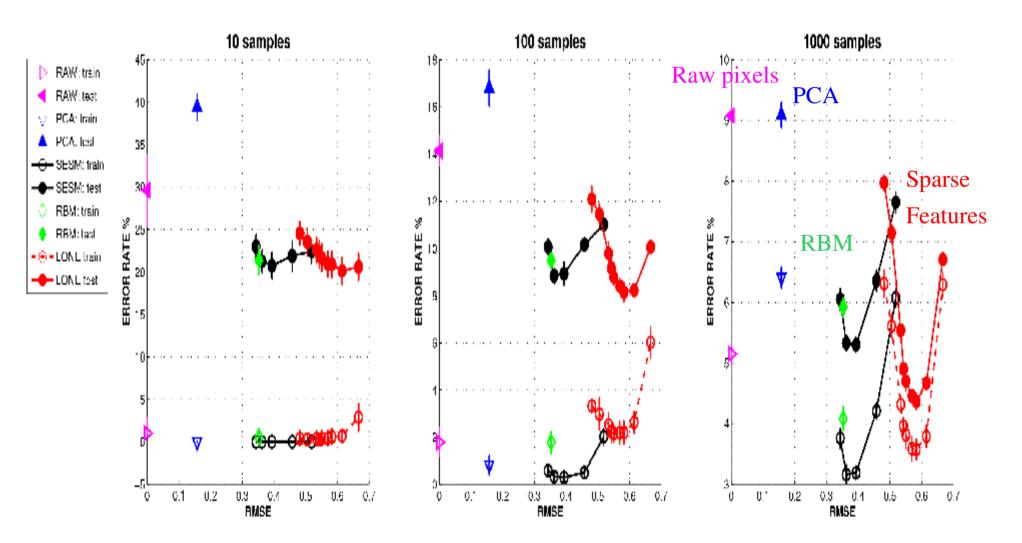
Classification Error Rate on MNIST

- Supervised Linear Classifier trained on 200 trained sparse features
 - ▶ Red: linear-tanh-diagonal encoder; Blue: linear encoder

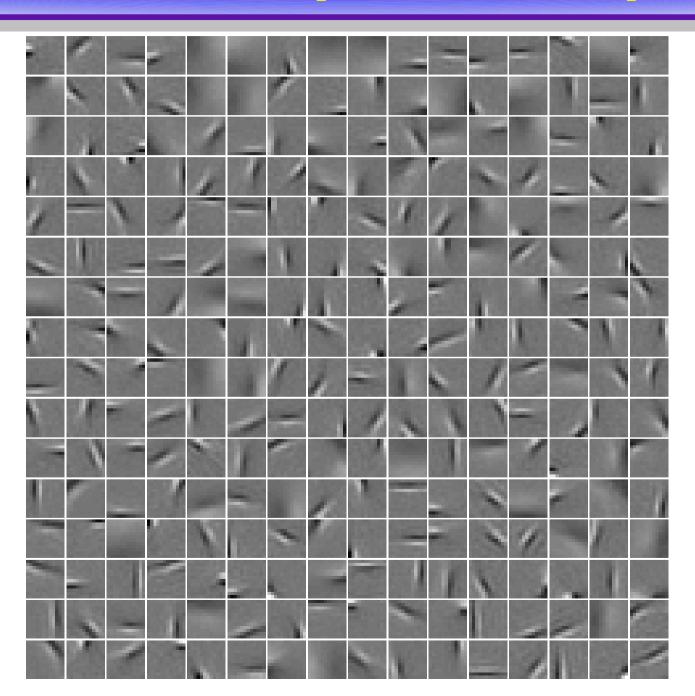


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Supervised Linear Classifier trained on 200 trained sparse features



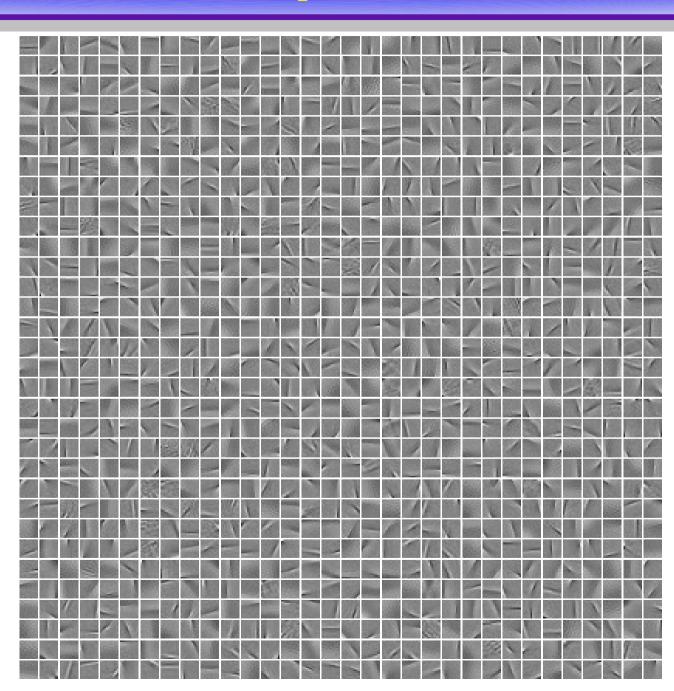
Learned Features on natural patches: V1-like receptive fields



Learned Features: V1-like receptive fields

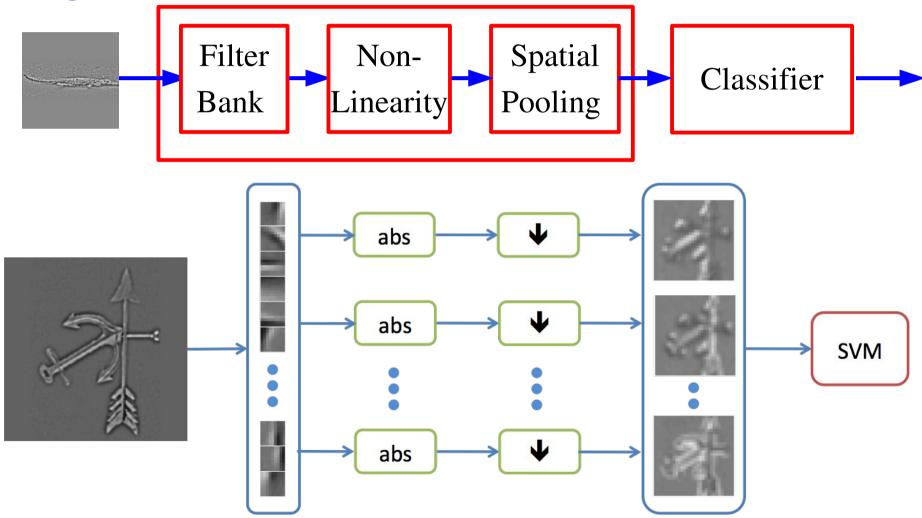
12x12 filters

1024 filters



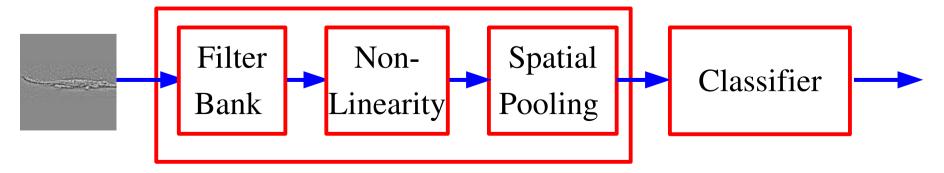
How well do PSD features work on Caltech-101?

Recognition Architecture



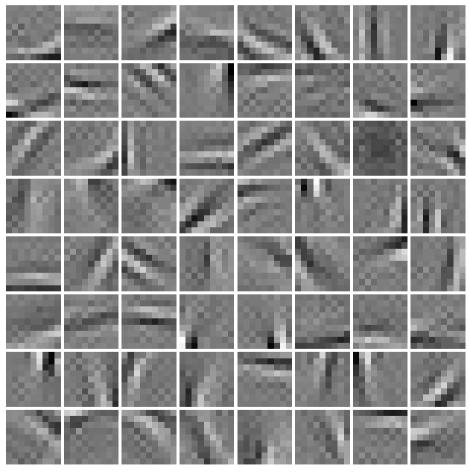
Procedure for a single-stage system

- 1. Pre-process images
 - remove mean, high-pass filter, normalize contrast
- **2.** Train encoder-decoder on 9x9 image patches
- 3. use the filters in a recognition architecture
 - Apply the filters to the whole image
 - Apply the tanh and D scaling
 - Add more non-linearities (rectification, normalization)
 - Add a spatial pooling layer
- 4. Train a supervised classifier on top
 - Multinomial Logistic Regression or Pyramid Match Kernel SVM



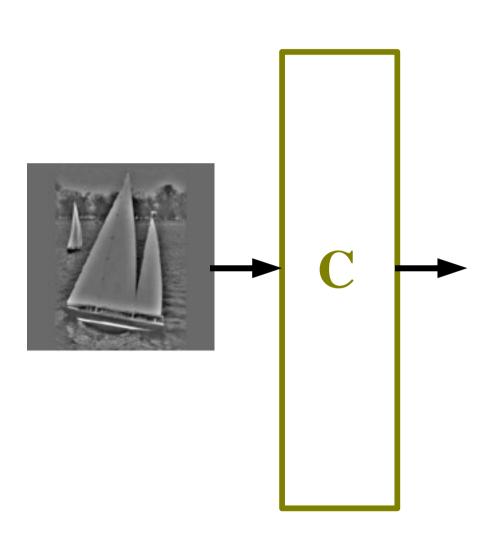
Using PSD Features for Recognition

- 64 filters on 9x9 patches trained with PSD
 - with Linear-Sigmoid-Diagonal Encoder

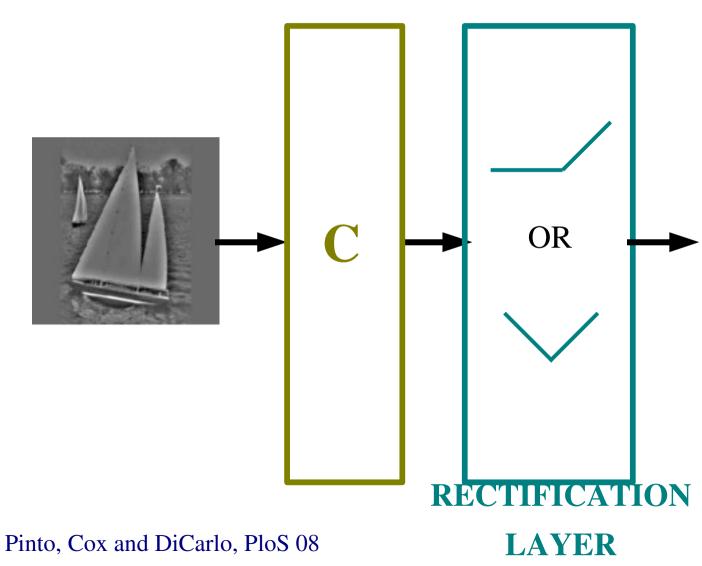


weights :-0.2828 - 0.3043

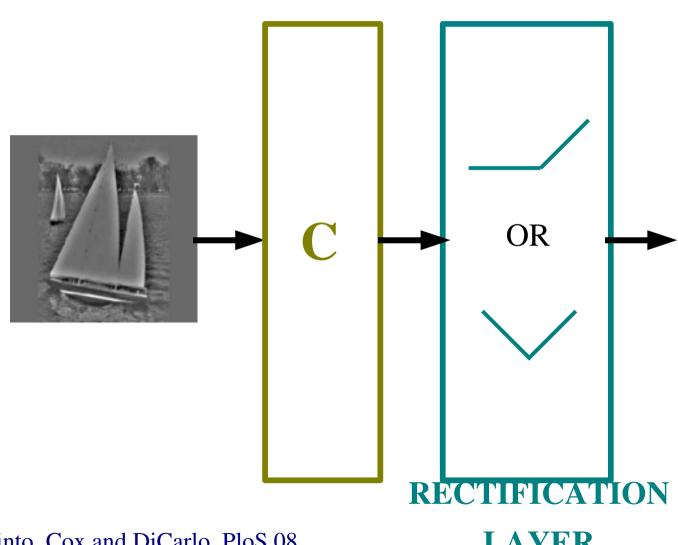
C Convolution/sigmoid layer: filter bank? Learning, fixed Gabors?



Convolution/sigmoid layer: filter bank? Learning, fixed Gabors?



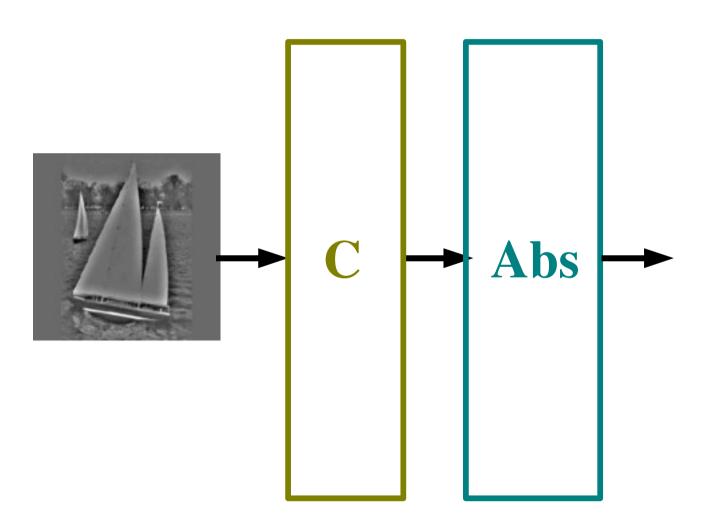
- Convolution/sigmoid layer: filter bank? Learning, fixed Gabors?
- **♦ Abs** Rectification layer: needed?



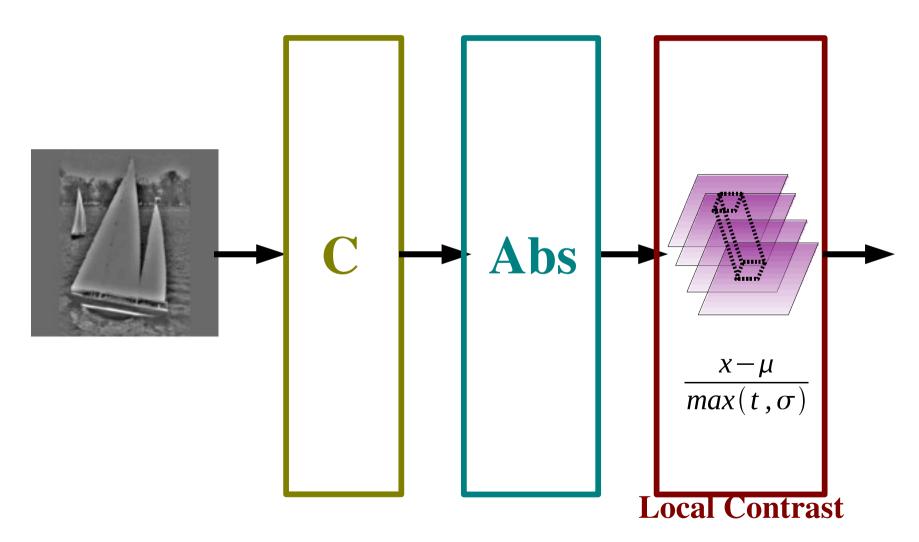
Pinto, Cox and DiCarlo, PloS 08

LAYER

- C Convolution/sigmoid layer: filter bank? Learning, fixed Gabors?
- **♦ Abs** Rectification layer: needed?

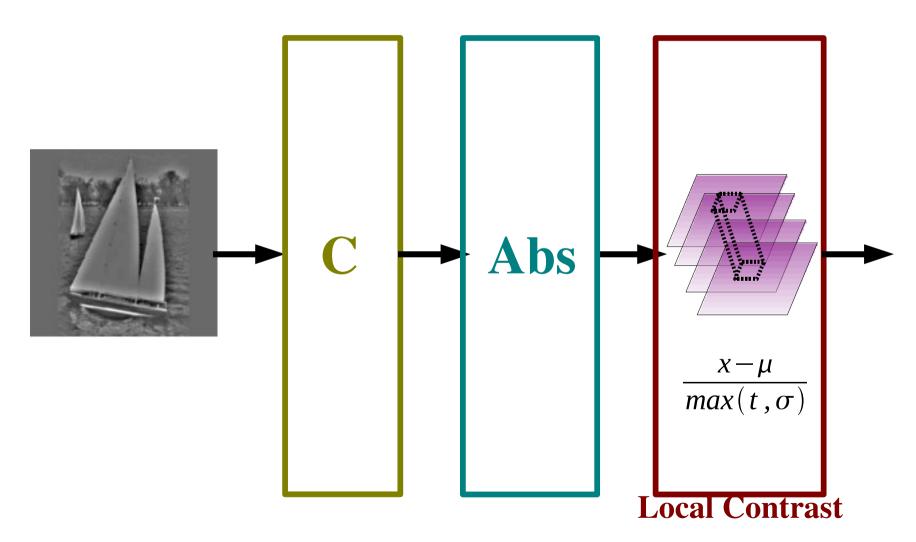


- C Convolution/sigmoid layer: filter bank? Learning, fixed Gabors?
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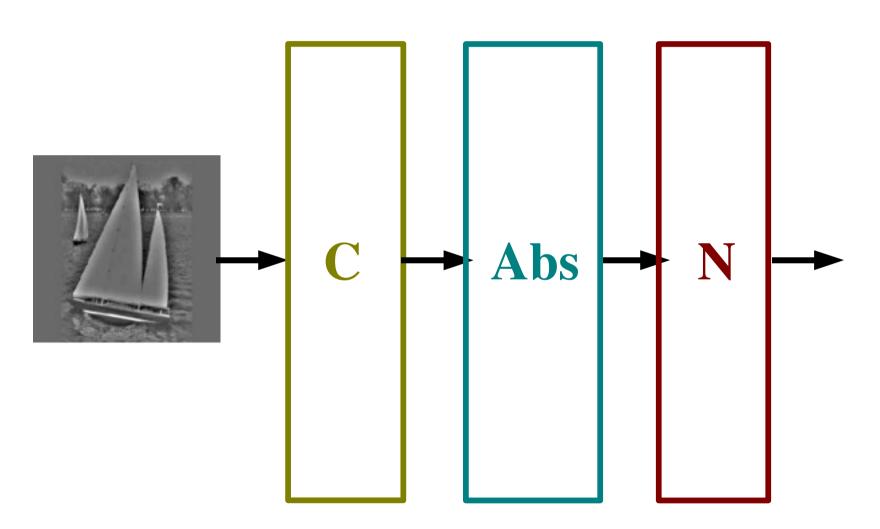
Normalization Layer

- C Convolution/sigmoid layer: filter bank? Learning, fixed Gabors?
- **♦ Abs** Rectification layer: needed?
- **♦ N** Normalization layer: needed?

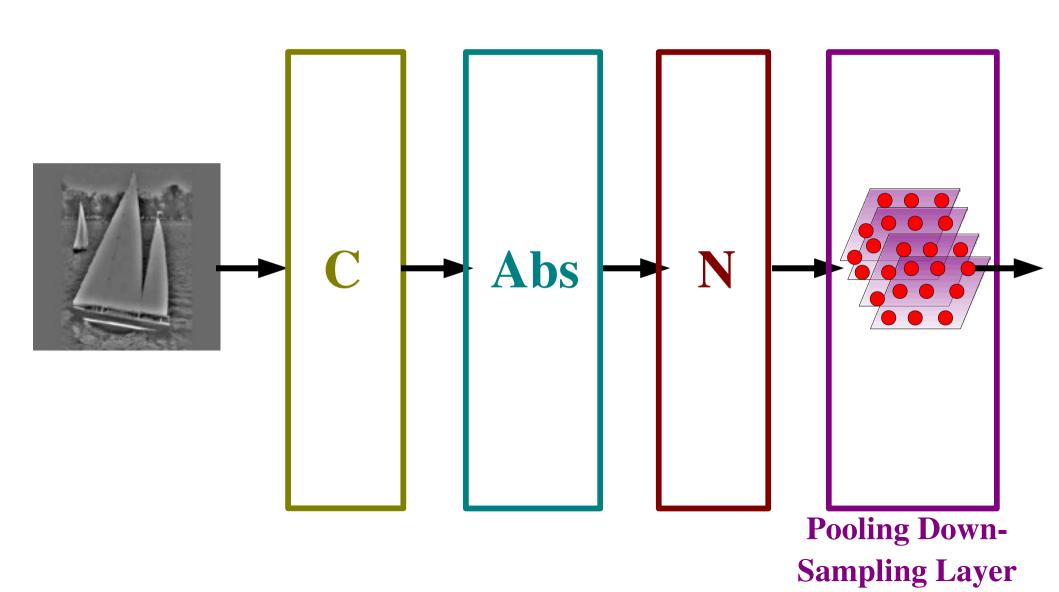


Normalization Layer

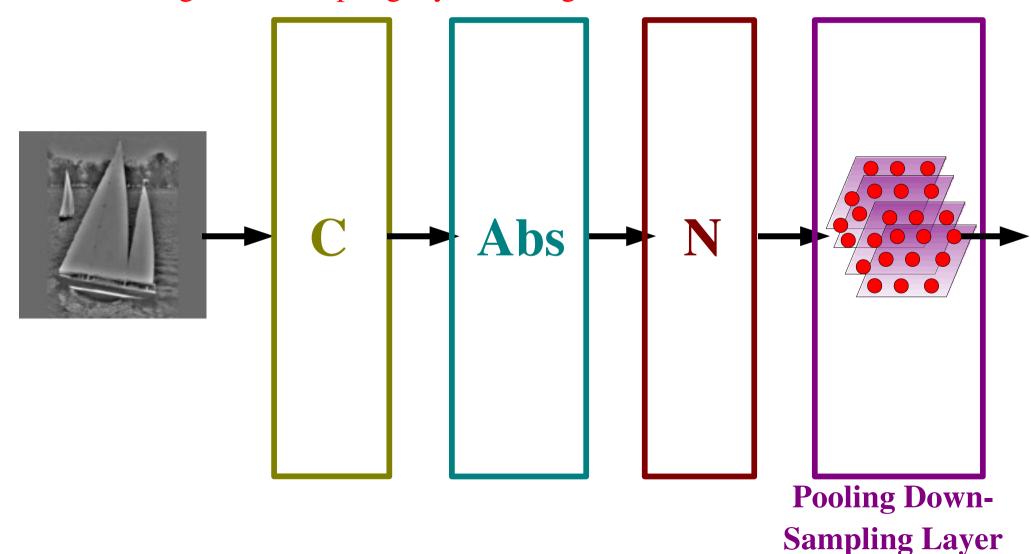
- C Convolution/sigmoid layer: filter bank? Learning, fixed Gabors?
- **♦ Abs** Rectification layer: needed?
- **♦ N** Normalization layer: needed?



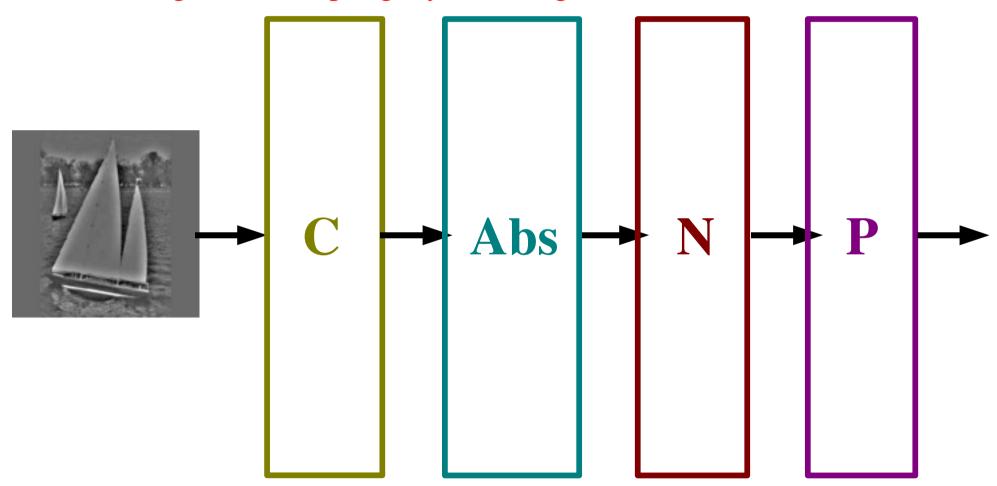
- C Convolution/sigmoid layer: filter bank? Learning, fixed Gabors?
- **♦ Abs** Rectification layer: needed?
- **♦** N Normalization layer: needed?



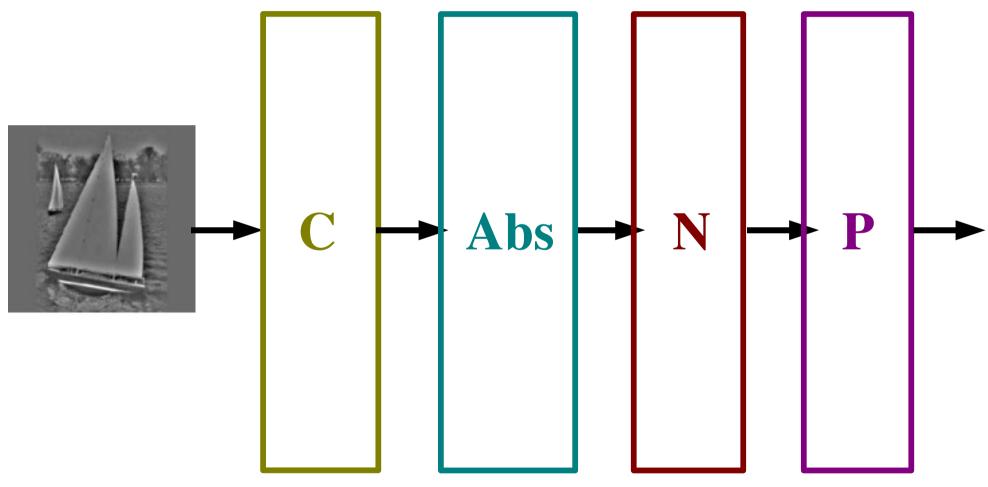
- C Convolution/sigmoid layer: filter bank? Learning, fixed Gabors?
- **♦ Abs** Rectification layer: needed?
- **♦ N** Normalization layer: needed?
- **♦ P** Pooling down-sampling layer: average or max?



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- C Convolution/sigmoid layer: filter bank? Learning, fixed Gabors?
- **♦ Abs** Rectification layer: needed?
- **♦** N Normalization layer: needed?
- **♦ P** Pooling down-sampling layer: average or max?



THIS IS ONE STAGE OF FEATURE EXTRACTION

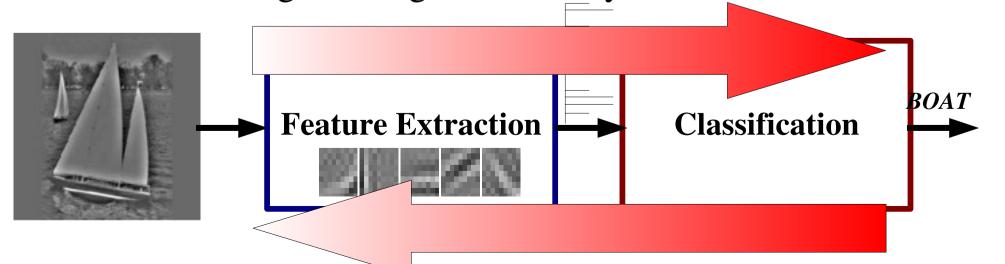
Training Protocol

Training

- Logistic Regression on Random Features:
 R
- Logistic Regression on PSD features:
- ullet Refinement of whole net from random with backprop: R^+
- lacktriangle Refinement of whole net starting from PSD filters: U^+

Classifier

Multinomial Logistic Regression or Pyramid Match Kernel SVM



Using PSD Features for Recognition

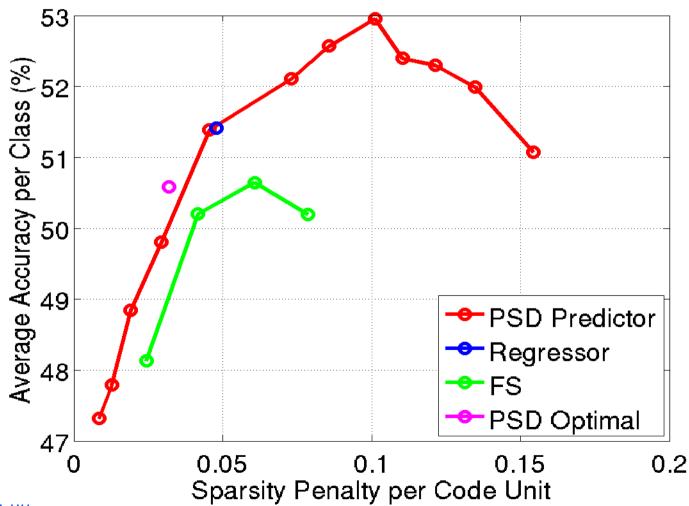
$[\mathbf{64.F^{9 imes9}_{CSG}} - \mathbf{R/N/P^{5 imes5}}]$ - $\mathbf{log_reg}$					
R/N/P	$ m R_{abs}-N-P_A$	$ m R_{abs}-P_{A}$	$\mathbf{N} - \mathbf{P_M}$	$\mathbf{N} - \mathbf{P_A}$	P_{A}
\mathbf{U}^+	54.2%	50.0%	44.3%	18.5%	14.5%
\mathbb{R}^+	54.8%	47.0%	38.0%	16.3%	14.3%
\mathbf{U}	52.2%	$43.3(\pm 1.6)\%$	44.0%	17.2%	13.4%
R	53.3%	31.7%	32.1%	15.3%	$12.1(\pm 2.2)\%$
$[\mathbf{64.F_{CSG}^{9 imes9}-R/N/P^{5 imes5}}]$ - PMK					
U	65.0%				
$[96.\mathrm{F}_{\mathbf{CSG}}^{9\times9}-\mathrm{R/N/P^{5\times5}}]\text{ - PCA - lin_svm}$					
U	58.0%				
96.Gabors - PCA - lin_svm (Pinto and DiCarlo 2006)					
Gabors	59.0%				
SIFT - PMK (Lazebnik et al. CVPR 2006)					
Gabors	64.6%				

Using PSD Features for Recognition

- Rectification makes a huge difference:
 - ▶ 14.5% -> 50.0%, without normalization
 - ▶ 44.3% -> 54.2% with normalization
- Normalization makes a difference:
 - **>** 50.0 → 54.2
- Unsupervised pretraining makes small difference
- PSD works just as well as SIFT
- Random filters work as well as anything!
 - If rectification/normalization is present
- PMK_SVM classifier works a lot better than multinomial log_reg on low-level features
 - **>** 52.2% → 65.0%

Comparing Optimal Codes Predicted Codes on Caltech 101

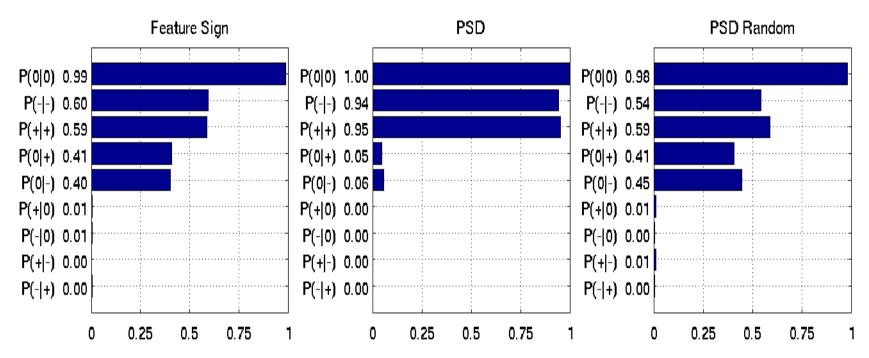
- Approximated Sparse Features Predicted by PSD give better recognition results than Optimal Sparse Features computed with Feature Sign!
 - PSD features are more stable.



Feature Sign (FS) is an optimization methods for computing sparse codes [Lee...Ng 2006]

PSD Features are more stable

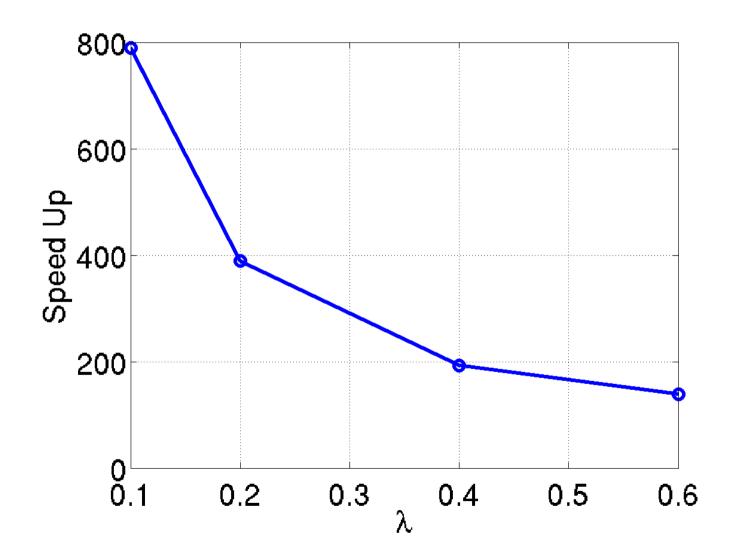
- Approximated Sparse Features Predicted by PSD give better recognition results than Optimal Sparse Features computed with Feature Sign!
- Because PSD features are more stable. Feature obtained through sparse optimization can change a lot with small changes of the input.



How many features change sign in patches from successive video frames (a,b), versus patches from random frame pairs (c)

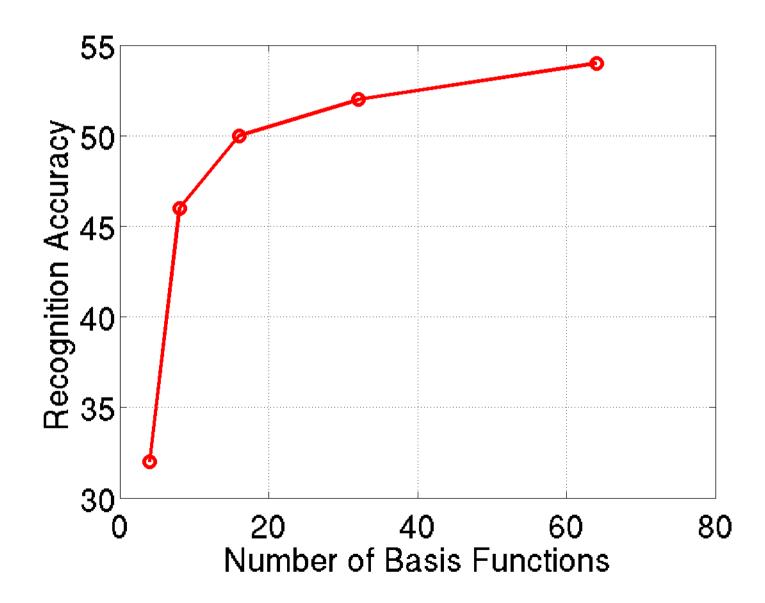
PSD features are much cheaper to compute

Computing PSD features is hundreds of times cheaper than Feature Sign.

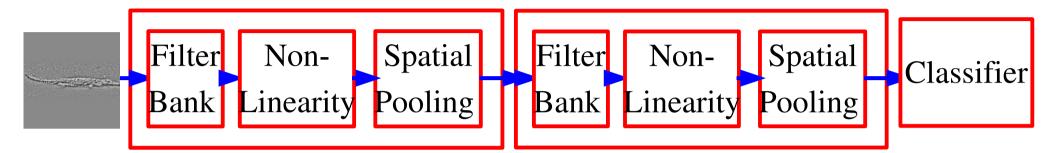


How Many 9x9 PSD features do we need?

Accuracy increases slowly past 64 filters.

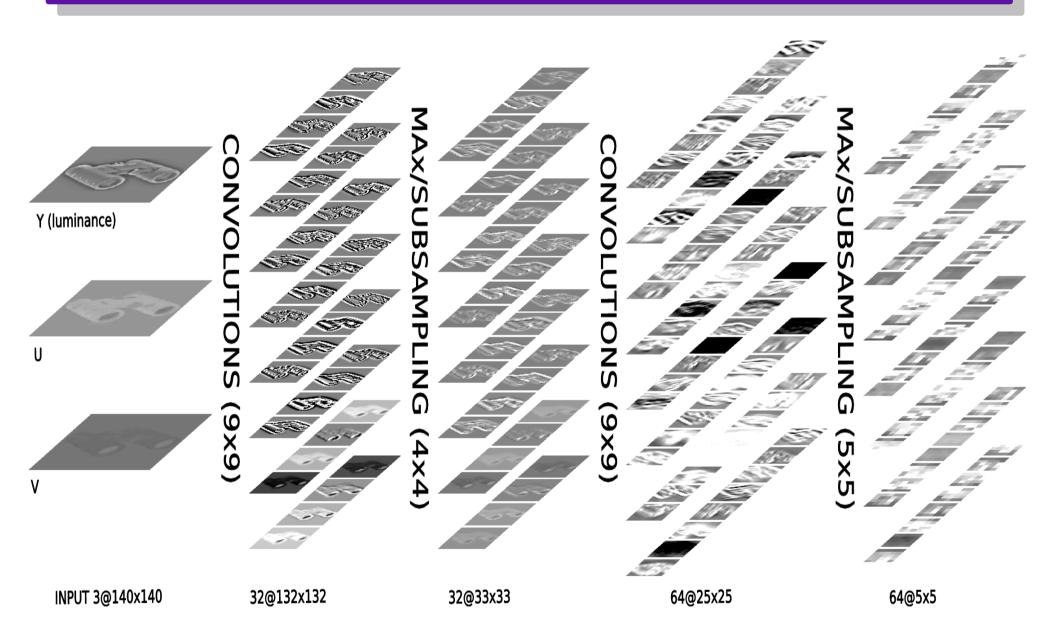


Training a Multi-Stage Hubel-Wiesel Architecture with PSD



- 1. Train stage-1 filters with PSD on patches from natural images
- 2. Compute stage-1 features on training set
- 3. Train state-2 filters with PSD on stage-1 feature patches
- 4. Compute stage-2 features on training set
- 5. Train linear classifier on stage-2 features
- 6. Refine entire network with supervised gradient descent
- What are the effects of the non-linearities and unsupervised pretraining?

Multistage Hubel-Wiesel Architecture on Caltech-101



Multistage Hubel-Wiesel Architecture

Image Preprocessing:

High-pass filter, local contrast normalization (divisive)

First Stage:

- Filters: 64 9x9 kernels producing 64 feature maps
- Pooling: 10x10 averaging with 5x5 subsampling

Second Stage:

- Filters: 4096 9x9 kernels producing 256 feature maps
- Pooling: 6x6 averaging with 3x3 subsampling
- ▶ Features: 256 feature maps of size 4x4 (4096 features)

Classifier Stage:

Multinomial logistic regression

Number of parameters:

Roughly 750,000

Multistage Hubel-Wiesel Architecture on Caltech-101

$[64.{ m F}_{ m CSG}^{9 imes9}-{ m R/N/P}^{5 imes5}]-[256.{ m F}_{ m CSG}^{9 imes9}-{ m R/N/P}^{4 imes4}]$ - ${ m log_reg}$						
R/N/P	$ R_{abs} - N - P_A $	$R_{abs} - P_{A} \\$	$N-P_{M}$	$N-P_A$	P_{A}	
U^+U^+	65.5%	60.5%	61.0%	34.0%	32.0%	
R^+R^+	64.7%	59.5%	60.0%	31.0%	29.7%	
UU	63.7%	46.7%	56.0%	23.1%	9.1%	
RR	62.9%	$33.7(\pm 1.5)\%$	$37.6(\pm 1.9)\%$	19.6%	8.8%	
GT	X					
$[64.{ m F}_{ m CSG}^{9 imes9}-{ m R/N/P}^{5 imes5}]-[256.{ m F}_{ m CSG}^{9 imes9}-{ m R/N}]$ - PMK						
UU	52.8%					
$\overline{\text{HMAX: [Gabors-}R/P_M]\text{-[Templates-}R/P_M]\text{-lin_svm (Serre 2005)(Mutch-Lowe 2006)}}$						
GT			56.0%			

Two-Stage Result Analysis

- Second Stage + logistic regression = PMK_SVM
- Unsupervised pre-training doesn't help much :-(
- Random filters work amazingly well with normalization
- Supervised global refirnement helps a bit
- The best system is really cheap
- Either use rectification and average pooling or no rectification and max pooling.

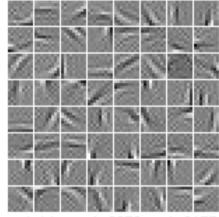
Multistage Hubel-Wiesel Architecture: Filters

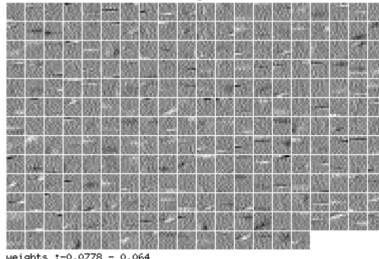
After PSD

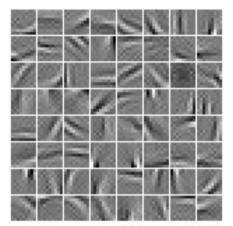
After supervised refinement

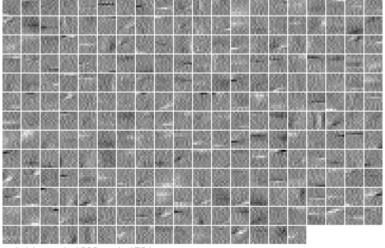
Stage 1

Stage2

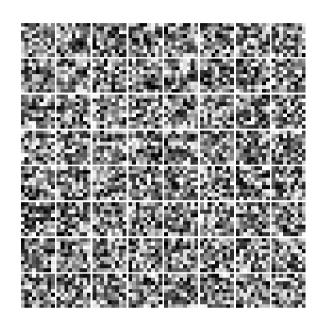


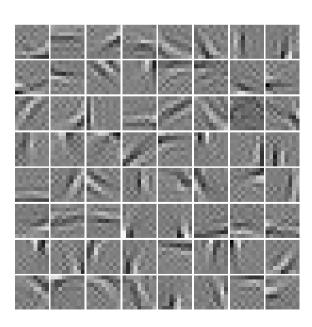


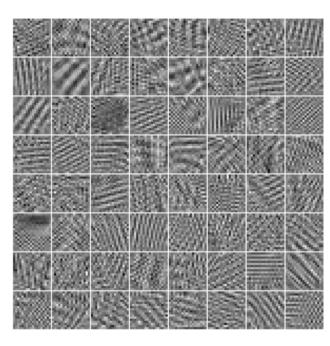


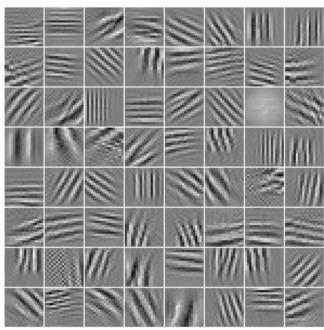


Why Random Filters Work?









Small NORB dataset

5 classes and up to 24,300 training samples per class











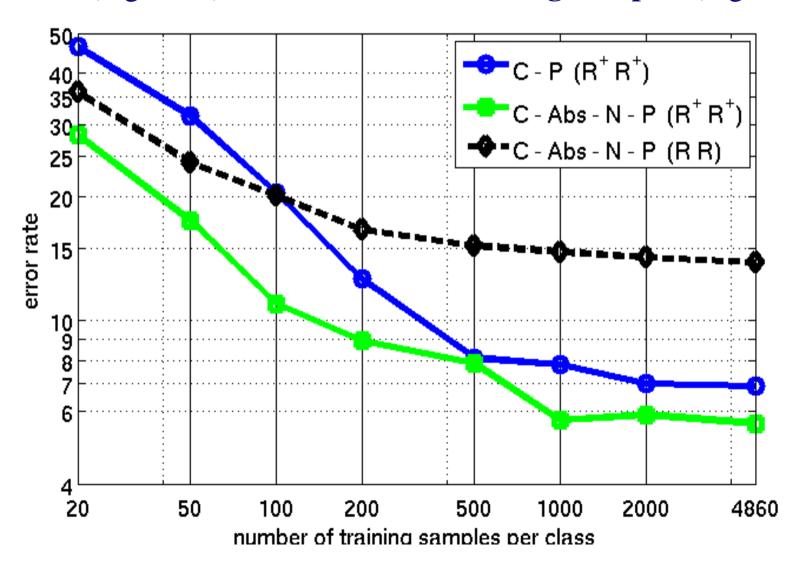


Small NORB dataset

Architecture

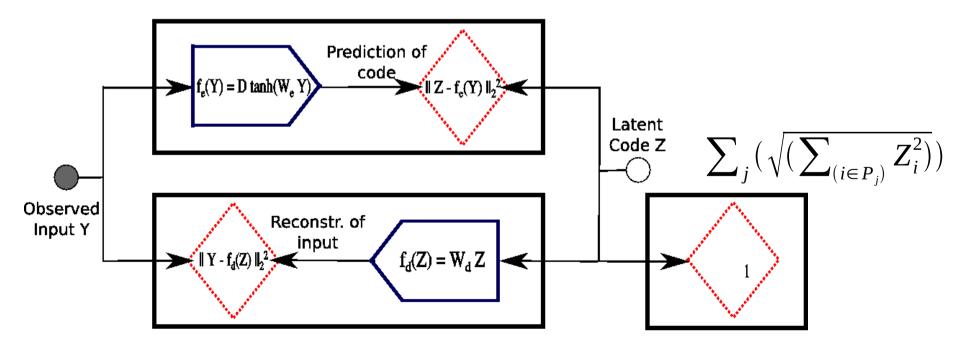
Two Stages

Error Rate (log scale) VS. Number Training Samples (log scale)



Learning Invariant Features [Kavukcuoglu et al. CVPR 2009]

- Unsupervised PSD ignores the spatial pooling step.
- Could we devise a similar method that learns the pooling layer as well?
- **Idea [Hyvarinen & Hoyer 2001]: sparsity on pools of features**
 - Minimum number of pools must be non-zero
 - Number of features that are on within a pool doesn't matter
 - Polls tend to regroup similar features

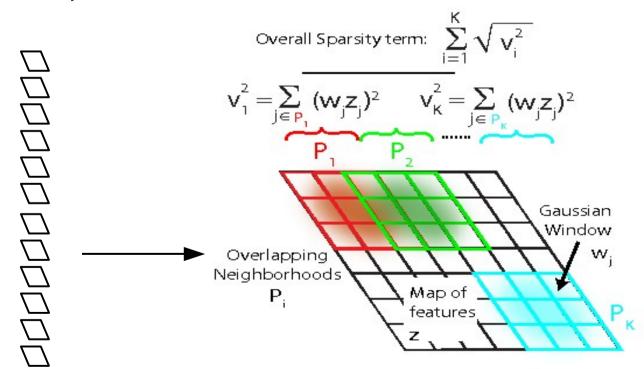


Learning the filters and the pools

- Using an idea from Hyvarinen: topographic square pooling (subspace ICA)
 - ▶ 1. Apply filters on a patch (with suitable non-linearity)
 - ▶ 2. Arrange filter outputs on a 2D plane
 - 3. square filter outputs

Yann LeCun

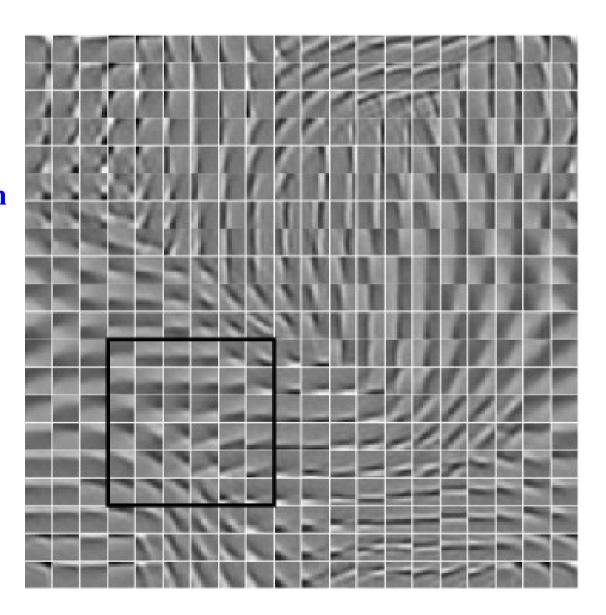
4. minimize sqrt of sum of blocks of squared filter outputs



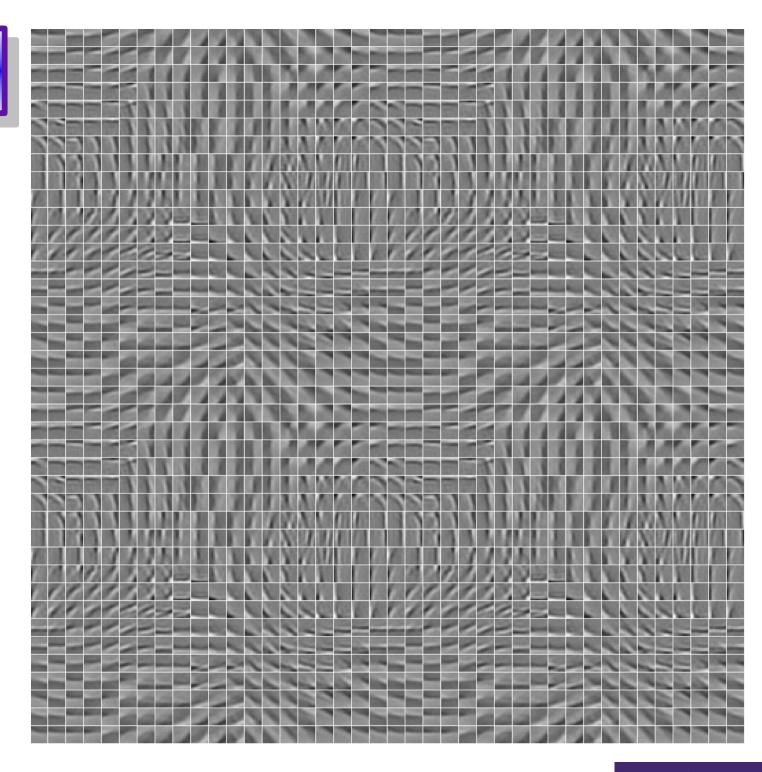
Units in the code Z Define pools and enforce sparsity across pools

Learning the filters and the pools

- The filters arrange themselves spontaneously so that similar filters enter the same pool.
- The pooling units can be seen as complex cells
- They are invariant to local transformations of the input
 - For some it's translations, for others rotations, or other transformations.

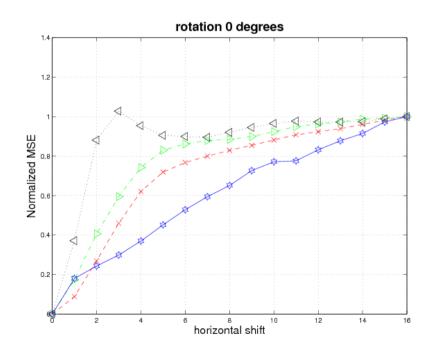


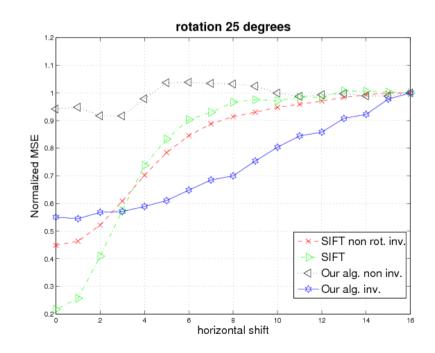
Pinwheels?



Invariance Properties Compared to SIFT

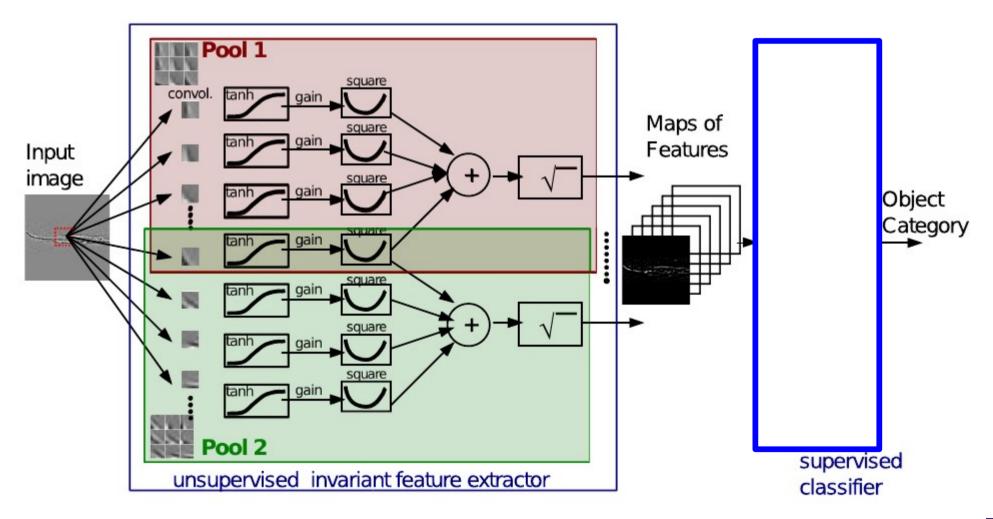
- Measure distance between feature vectors (128 dimensions) of 16x16 patches from natural images
 - Left: normalized distance as a function of translation
 - Right: normalized distance as a function of translation when one patch is rotated 25 degrees.
- Topographic PSD features are more invariant than SIFT





Learning Invariant Features

- Recognition Architecture
 - ->HPF/LCN->filters->tanh->sqr->pooling->sqrt->Classifier
 - Block pooling plays the same role as rectification



Recognition Accuracy on Caltech 101

- A/B Comparison with SIFT (128x34x34 descriptors)
- 32x16 topographic map with 16x16 filters
- Pooling performed over 6x6 with 2x2 subsampling
- ▶ 128 dimensional feature vector per 16x16 patch
- Feature vector computed every 4x4 pixels (128x34x34 feature maps)
- Resulting feature maps are spatially smoothed

Method	Av. Accuracy/Class (%)				
$\boxed{ local \ norm_{5\times5} + boxcar_{5\times5} + PCA_{3060} + linear \ SVM }$					
IPSD (24x24)	50.9				
SIFT (24x24) (non rot. inv.)	51.2				
SIFT (24x24) (rot. inv.)	45.2				
Serre et al. features [25]	47.1				
local norm _{9×9} + Spatial Pyramid Match Kernel SVM					
SIFT [11]	64.6				
IPSD (34x34)	59.6				
IPSD (56x56)	62.6				
IPSD (120x120)	65.5				