# Comparison Between Some Matrix Methods with Applications in Pattern Recognition

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### The Problem

### Problem:

Given an image z (the picture of a person/digit), we want to find the closest image from our database  $\{v_1, \ldots, v_M\}$ .

### Solution:

The simplest method (intuitive): is to compare z with every  $v_i$ . We have to find out an index  $i_0 \in \{1, \ldots, M\}$  such that

$$||z - v_{i_0}|| = \min_{1 \le i \le M} ||z - v_i||.$$

### The database

- the pictures have the same resolution  $N \times N$ ;
- every single image is transformed into a vector.



### Experiments (The simplest method)

- the faces database contains the pictures of 11 persons with 10 pictures for each person;
- the digit database contains the pictures of all 10 digits with 10 pictures for each digit.

### Results for faces (consistent case).





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### Results for digits (consistent case).



Results for faces (inconsistent case).



### Results for digits (inconsistent case).



### Eigenfaces Algorithm - 1

In Eigenfaces algorithm (proposed by [Turk and Pentland, 1991]) we have to pursue the following steps:

- 1. The database composed by the images  $I_1, I_2, \ldots, I_M$  (all images having the same resolution  $N \times N$ ).
- 2. Set every single image  $I_i$  as a vector  $\Gamma_i$ :  $N^2 \times 1$ .
- 3. Compute the average face vector  $\Psi$ :

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} \Gamma_i.$$

4. Subtract the average face vector from all vectors.

$$\Phi_i = \Gamma_i - \Psi_i$$

5. Compute the covariance matrix C:

$$C = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^{M} \Phi_n \Phi_n^T = A A^T \left( N^2 \times N^2 \right).$$

where  $A = [\Phi_1 \ \Phi_2 \ \dots \ \Phi_M] \ (N^2 \times M).$ 

6. Compute the eigenvectors  $q_i$  of  $C = AA^T$ .

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### Remarks:

C = AA<sup>T</sup> ⇒ ∃Q orthogonal such that Q<sup>T</sup>CQ =diag(σ<sub>1</sub>,..., σ<sub>N<sup>2</sup></sub>) = D, σ<sub>i</sub> ≥ 0, σ<sub>1</sub> ≥ ... ≥ σ<sub>r</sub> > 0;
Q =col[q<sub>1</sub>,..., q<sub>N<sup>2</sup></sub>];
Cq<sub>i</sub> = σ<sub>i</sub>q<sub>i</sub> şi {q<sub>1</sub>,..., q<sub>N<sup>2</sup></sub>} forms an orthonormal basis in ℝ<sup>N<sup>2</sup></sup> ⇒ ∀x ∈ ℝ<sup>N<sup>2</sup></sup>, x = ∑<sub>i=1</sub><sup>N<sup>2</sup></sup> < x, q<sub>i</sub> > q<sub>i</sub>.

**Note**: Similar considerations can be made for  $\hat{C} = A^T A$ .

But  $C: N^2 \times N^2$ ,  $N^2$  =resolution  $\Rightarrow$  "big"!  $\Rightarrow$  the diagonalization  $Q^T C Q$  =diag $(\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{N^2})$  can be very expensive. Solution: From all  $N^2$  eigenvectors  $q_1, \ldots, q_{N^2}$  we keep only the first K, corresponding to the K largest eigenvalues  $\sigma_1 \geq \ldots \geq \sigma_K > 0$ . We have

$$Cx = \sum_{j=1}^{N^2} x_j Cq_j = \sum_{j=1}^{N^2} \sigma_j x_j q_j$$

and

$$Cx = \sum_{j=1}^{N^2} \langle x, \Phi_j \rangle \Phi_j.$$

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So we obtain 
$$Cx = \sum_{j=1}^{N^2} \langle x, \Phi_j \rangle \Phi_j \approx \sum_{j=1}^K \sigma_j x_j q_j$$

### Eigenfaces Algorithm - 4

We represent  $\Phi_i$  in the basis  $\{q_1, \ldots, q_{N^2}\}$ 

$$\Phi_i = \Gamma_i - \Psi = \sum_{j=1}^{N^2} < \Phi_i, q_j > q_j.$$

We approximate  $\hat{\Phi}_i \approx \Phi_i$  by

$$\hat{\Phi}_i = \sum_{j=1}^K \langle \Phi_i, q_j \rangle q_j = \sum_{j=1}^K w_j^i q_j.$$
 (\*)

The vector  $\hat{\Phi}_i$  is represented by the Fourier coefficients vector from (\*), i.e.

$$w^{i} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{1}^{i} \\ w_{2}^{i} \\ \vdots \\ w_{K}^{i} \end{bmatrix}, \in I\!\!R^{K} \ i = 1, 2, \dots, M.$$

Given a image,  $\Gamma$ , with the same resolution as  $\Gamma_i$ , then we follow the steps:

- 1. Normalize  $\Gamma: \Phi = \Gamma \Psi$ .
- 2. Project on the eigenvectors space

$$\hat{\Phi} = \sum_{j=1}^{K} \langle \Phi, q_j \rangle q_j = \sum_{j=1}^{K} w_j q_j.$$
3. Represent  $\hat{\Phi}$  as:  $w = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_K \end{bmatrix}$ .  
4. Find  $i_0 \in \{1, \dots, M\}$  satisfying  $\|w - w^{i_0}\| = \min_{1 \le i \le M} \|w - w^i\|.$ 

Note. The algorithm works also for images with  $N \times N_1$  resolution. In this case we obtain a vector  $\Gamma$  of dimension  $NN_1 \times 1$ .

- We have
  - a database with 110 persons  $(92 \times 112)^2$
  - a database with 100 digits (92×112)
- We considered K = 20

 $<sup>^2 \</sup>mathrm{We}$  also tested on 100×100 and 105×120.

Results for faces (consistent case).





### Results for digits (consistent case).





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Results for faces (inconsistent case).



### Results for digits (inconsistent case).





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### HOSVD (Higher Order SVD)

The tensor  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m \times n}$  can be written as

$$A = S \times_1 U^{(1)} \times_2 U^{(2)} \times_3 U^{(3)}$$

where  $U^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l}$ ,  $U^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ ,  $U^{(3)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  are orthogonal matrices. S is a tensor of the same dimensions as A and has the property that any two slices of S are orthogonal.  $U^{(i)}$  result from  $A_{(i)} = U^{(i)} \Sigma^{(i)} (V^{(i)})^T$ ,  $A_{(i)} = unfold_i(A)$ .



Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m \times n}$ ,  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{l_0 \times l}$ , and  $A \times_1 U$  is a tensor of dimension  $l_0 \times m \times n$  defined by

$$(A \times_1 U)(j, i_2, i_3) = \sum_{k=1}^l u_{j,k} a_{k,i_2,i_3}.$$

Similary we have the 2-mode and 3-mode multiplications of a tensor with a matrix:

$$(A \times_2 U) (i_1, j, i_3) = \sum_{k=1}^m u_{j,k} a_{i_1,k,i_3},$$
  
$$(A \times_3 U) (i_1, i_2, j) = \sum_{k=1}^n u_{j,k} a_{i_1,i_2,k}.$$

< □ ▶ < □ ▶ < ■ ▶ < ■ ▶ < ■ ▶ = うへで 21/57 We have  $A_{(i)} = unfold_i(A)$ , where

$$unfold_{1}(A) = A_{(1)} = (A(:,1,:) \ A(:,2,:) \ \dots \ A(:,m,:)),$$
  
$$unfold_{2}(A) = A_{(2)} = \left(A(:,:,1)^{T} \ A(:,:,2)^{T} \ \dots \ A(:,:,n)^{T}\right),$$
  
$$unfold_{3}(A) = A_{(3)} = \left(A(1,:,:)^{T} \ A(2,:,:)^{T} \ \dots \ A(l,:,:)^{T}\right).$$

Using these unfoldings we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} A \times_1 U &= fold_1 (Uunfold_1 (A)), \\ A \times_2 U &= fold_2 (Uunfold_2 (A)), \\ A \times_3 U &= fold_3 (Uunfold_3 (A)). \end{aligned}$$



unfolding 1



unfolding 2



unfolding 3

For our problem, we use the following form of the HOSVD of tensor A

$$A = C \times_p H$$
, where  $C = S \times_i F \times_e G$ .

For a particular expression e we have

$$A\left(:,e,:\right) = C\left(:,e,:\right) \times_{p} H,$$

 $A\left(:,e,:\right)=A_{e}$  and  $C\left(:,e,:\right)=C_{e}$  are matrices. Hence we obtain

$$A_e = C_e H^T, \ e = 1, 2, \dots, n_e$$

The same orthogonal matrix H appears in all  $n_e$  relations. If  $H^T = (h_1 \dots h_{n_p})$  we get

$$a_p^{(e)} = C_e h_p.$$

Let  $z \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i}$  be the picture of an unknown person, in an unknown expression. The coordinates of z in the e expression basis can be obtained resolving the least squares problem

$$\min_{\alpha_e} \|C_e \alpha_e - z\|_2.$$

The algorithm (see [Elden, 2007]) is Algorithm A1

for 
$$e = 1, 2, ..., n_e$$
  
solve  $\min_{\alpha_e} ||C_e \alpha_e - z||_2$   
for  $p = 1, 2, ..., n_p$   
if  $||\alpha_e - h_p||_2 < tol$ , then is person  $p$  and STOP  
end  
end

For each image z we have to solve  $n_e$  least square problems with  $C_e \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i \times n_p} \Rightarrow \text{lot of time to compute.}$ 

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From  $C = S \times_i F \times_e G$  we obtain

$$C_e = FB_e,$$

where  $B_e \in \mathbb{R}^{n_e n_p \times n_p}$ ,  $B_e = (S \times_e G)(:, e, :)$ .  $F \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i \times n_e n_p}$  and  $\hat{F} = (FF^{\perp})$ . We insert  $\hat{F}^T$  inside the norm and we can solve the least squares problems by solving

$$\min_{\alpha_e} \left\| B_e \alpha_e - F^T z \right\|_2, \ e = 1, 2, \dots, n_e.$$

The algorithm is the following (see [Elden, 2007]).

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## Clasification Algorithms - 3

### Algorithm A2

Compute the QR decomposition of all matrices  $B_e$ ,  $B_e = Q_e R$ , with  $e = 1, 2, ..., n_e$ . Compute  $\hat{z} = F^T z$ . for  $e = 1, 2, ..., n_e$ solve  $R_e \alpha_e = Q_e^T \hat{z}$  for  $\alpha_e$ for  $p = 1, 2, ..., n_p$ if  $\|\alpha_e - h_p\|_2 < tol$ , then is person p and STOP end end

Tensors and matrices have large dimensions  $\Rightarrow$  we can truncate them in such way that the truncated HOSVD can still approximate the tensor A.  $F_k = F(:, 1:k)$ , with  $n_p < k \ll n_i$  and apply the algorithm A2 for the obtained truncated matrices and tensors.

## Experiments with HOSVD - 1







Figure: Consistent case

## Experiments with HOSVD - 2



### Figure: Inconsistent case

In the previous case, that number k had to be chosen such that is much smaller than  $n_i$ , but larger than  $n_p$ . We shall make use of the following result (see [Golub and Van Loan, 1996]) in order to compute k from algorithm A2, instead of just choosing a proper k.

### Theorem

Let the SVD of  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$  be given by  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ . If k < r = rank(A) and

$$A_k = \sum_{i=1}^{\kappa} \sigma_i u_i v_i^T, \tag{1}$$

then  $\min_{rank(B)=k} ||A - B||_2 = ||A - A_k||_2 = \sigma_{k+1}.$ 

The above theorem tells us, that for a given tolerance  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \ldots \ge \sigma_k > \epsilon \ge \sigma_{k+1} \ge \ldots \ge \sigma_p \ge 0$ ,  $p = \min(m, n)$  the matrix  $A_k$  given by (1) has the property

$$\|A - A_k\|_2 \le \epsilon,$$

i.e.  $A_k = \operatorname{argmin}_{B \in R(k)} ||A - B||_2$ , where  $R(k) = \left\{ P \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}, \operatorname{rank}(P) = k \right\}$ .

## Experiments - 1



Figure: Consistent case

## Experiments - 2



### Figure: Inconsistent case

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Matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  is our face/digit database,  $a_j$  (column j) is a face/ digit. **NMF** aims to find two matrices  $W \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$  and  $H \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times m}$  such that

$$A \approx WH.$$
 (2)

After **NMF** we obtain  $a_j \approx Wh_j$ . We can consider the lines of matrix W as basis images and the vector  $h_j$  as the corresponding weight vectors.

One of the algorithms initially proposed for finding the matrices W and H used the following metric:

$$D_N(A||WH) = \sum_{i,j} \left( a_{ij} \ln \left( \frac{a_{ij}}{\sum_l w_{il} h_{lj}} \right) + \sum_k w_{ik} h_{kj} - a_{ij} \right)$$
(3)

as the measure of the cost for factoring A into WH. The **NMF** factorization is the outcome of optimization:

$$\min_{W,H} D_N(A||WH) \tag{4}$$

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subject to  $w_{ik} \ge 0$ ,  $h_{kj} \ge 0$ ,  $\sum_i w_{ij} = 1$ ,  $\forall j$ .

The update rules for the *t*-th iteration are given by:

$$h_{kj}^{(t)} = h_{kj}^{(t-1)} \frac{\sum_{i} w_{ik}^{(t-1)} \frac{a_{ij}}{\sum_{l} w_{il}^{(t-1)} h_{lj}^{(t-1)}}}{\sum_{i} w_{ik}^{(t-1)}}$$
(5)

and

$$w_{ik}^{(t)} = w_{ik}^{(t-1)} \frac{\sum h_{kj}^{(t)} \frac{a_{ij}}{\sum l w_{il}^{(t-1)} h_{lj}^{(t)}}}{\sum l h_{kj}^{(t)}}.$$
(6)

- All **NMF** algorithms are iterative and they are sensitive to the initialization of *W* and *H*.
- In all cases, a good initialization can improve the speed accuracy of the algorithms, as it can produce faster convergence to an improved local minimum.

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• Nearly all **NMF** algorithms use simple random initialization.

Results of **NMF** reconstruction for faces and digits with (5)-(6) and the initialization:  $w_{ij} = \frac{1}{n}$  and H=random(k,m).



Results of **NMF** for faces and digits with (5)-(6) and the initialization:  $w_{ij} = \frac{1}{n}$  and  $h_j = W^+ a_j$ .



### Multiplicative update algorithms for NMF

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Algorithm A3 (see [Berry et al, 2007])

```
 \begin{split} & \textbf{W}{=} \textbf{random}(\textbf{n},\textbf{k}) \\ & \textbf{H}{=} \textbf{random}(\textbf{k},\textbf{m}) \\ & \text{for i}{=}1{:} \textbf{maxiter} \\ & H = H.*(W^TA)./(W^TWH + 10^{-9}) \\ & W = W.*(AH^T)./(WHH^T + 10^{-9}) \\ & \text{end} \end{split}
```

Results of multiplicative update algorithms for NMF for faces and digits



### Constraint NMF (CNMF)

Algorithm A4 (see [Berry et al, 2007])

```
 \begin{split} & \textbf{W}{=} \textbf{random}(\textbf{n},\textbf{k}) \\ & \textbf{H}{=}\textbf{random}(\textbf{k},\textbf{m}) \\ & \text{for i}{=}1{:}\text{maxiter} \\ & H = H.*(W^TA)./(W^TWH + \beta*H + 10^{-9}) \\ & W = W.*(AH^T)./(WHH^T + \alpha*W + 10^{-9}) \\ & \text{end} \end{split}
```

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## $\overline{\text{NMF}}$ - $\overline{10}$

Results of  $\mathbf{CNMF}$  for faces and digits



The **NMF** problem can be written as

$$\min \|A - WH\|_F^2$$
, where  $W \ge 0, \ H \ge 0.$  (7)

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At each alternating step in **ACLS** (Alternating Constrained Least Squares) we must solve

$$\min_{h_j} \|a_j - Wh_j\|_2^2 + \lambda_H \|h_j\|_2^2, \text{ where } \lambda_H \ge 0, \ h_j \ge 0.$$
 (8)

The **ACLS** algorithm is the following.

### ACLS algorithm

Algorithm A5 (see [Langville et al, 2006])

```
input \lambda_W, \lambda_H
W=random(n,k)
for i=1:maxiter
Solve for H in matrix equation (W^TW + \lambda_H I)H = W^TA.
Set all negative elements in H to 0.
Solve for W in matrix equation (HH^T + \lambda_W I)W^T = HA^T.
Set all negative elements in W to 0.
end
```

Results of **ACLS** reconstruction for faces and digits



### Neural Networks - 1

"A neural network is an *interconnected* assembly of simple processing elements, *units or nodes*, whose functionality is loosely based on the animal neuron. The processing ability of the network is stored in the inter-unit connection strengths, or *weights*, obtained by a process of adaptation to, or *learning* from, a set of training patterns."



Humans can recognize faces very easily and we want computers to do too  $\Rightarrow$  the idea of a computer which recognizes faces as human brain. NN have been widely used in pattern recognition applications and it has performed satisfactory in face recognition

### Neural Networks - 2



Components of a simple neuron

where  $a = f(w_1p_1 + w_2p_2 + \ldots + w_Rp_R + b)$ .

### Neural Networks - 2

- Given a specific task to solve, and a class of functions F, *learning* means using a set of observations to find  $f^* \in F$  which solves the task in some optimal sense.
- A neural network can be *trained* to produce a correct target vector when presented with corresponding input vector.
- Each traverse through all the training vectors is called an *epoch*.

## Examples with NN - 1

### Results for faces (consistent case).





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## Examples with NN - 2

### Results for digits (consistent case).





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## Examples with $\overline{NN} - 3$

Results for faces, the inconsistent case.



### Conclusions

#### $\mathbf{SVD}$

- an optimality property; the truncated SVD produces the best rank-k approximation
- speedy and robust computation
- unique factorization; initialization does not affect SVD algorithms orthogonality; resulting basis vectors are orthogonal and allow conceptualization of original data as vectors in space

#### NMF

- sparsity and nonnegativity; the factorization maintains these properties of the original matrix
- reduction in storage; the factors are sparse, which also results in easier application to new data
- interpretability; the basis vectors naturally correspond to conceptual properties of the data

#### $\mathbf{N}\mathbf{N}$

- NN imitates the human brain
- most important is choosing the architecture of neural network (sequence of transfer functions)

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using artificial neurons in order to train the classifier

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# Thank you!

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