

# An Introduction to Geometric Data Analysis and its Possible Applications

JEN-MEI CHANG

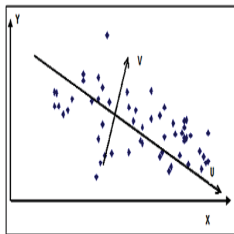
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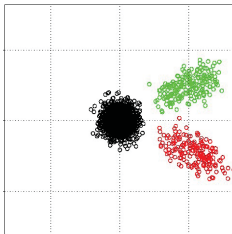
# Outline

- 1 Introduction
  - Analysis
  - Synthesis
- 2 Backgrounds
  - Linear Algebra
  - Geometry
  - Image Processing
- 3 Applications
  - Image Compression
  - Digit/Face Recognition with Tangent Distance
  - Face Recognition on  $G(k, n)$
  - Missing Data
  - Noisy Data
  - Others

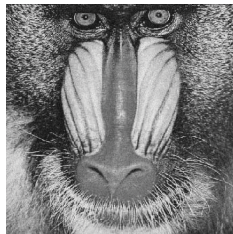
# Why analysis?



Representation

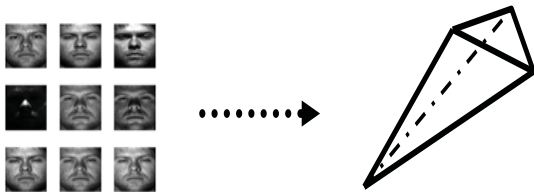


Visualization

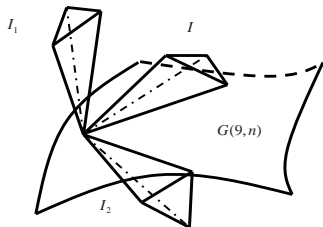


Applications

# Why synthesis?



Model building



Prediction and classification

# Full SVD

## Definition

**(Full SVD)** Any  $m \times n$  real matrix  $A$ , with  $m \geq n$ , can be factorized into

$$A = U \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} V^T,$$

where  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  and  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  are orthogonal, and  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is diagonal with

$$\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n), \sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0.$$

# Thin SVD

## Definition

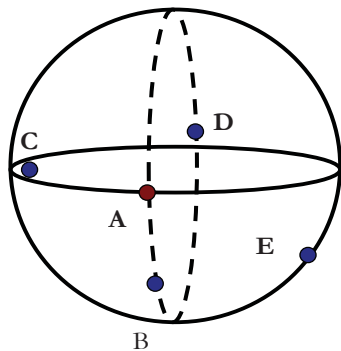
**(Thin SVD)** With the partitioning  $U = (U_1, U_2)$ , where  $U_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , we get the *thin SVD*

$$A = U_1 \Sigma V^T,$$

## Structural Illustration:

$$A = U_1 \Sigma V^T = (u_1 \ u_2 \ \cdots \ u_n) \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \sigma_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \sigma_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1^T \\ v_2^T \\ \vdots \\ v_n^T \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i u_i v_i^T.$$

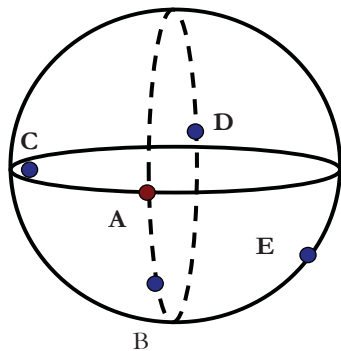
# Distance



What is A closest to?

- No geometry: D
- With geometry: B

# Distance



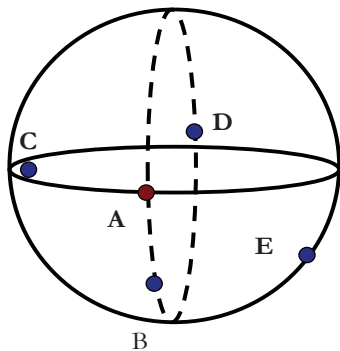
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● No geometry: D

● With geometry: B



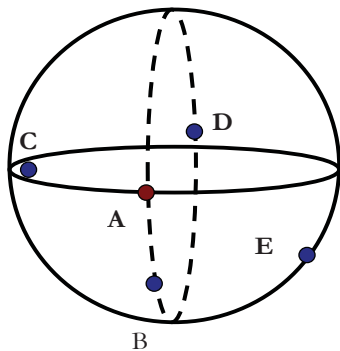
# Distance



What is A closest to?

- No geometry: D
- With geometry: B

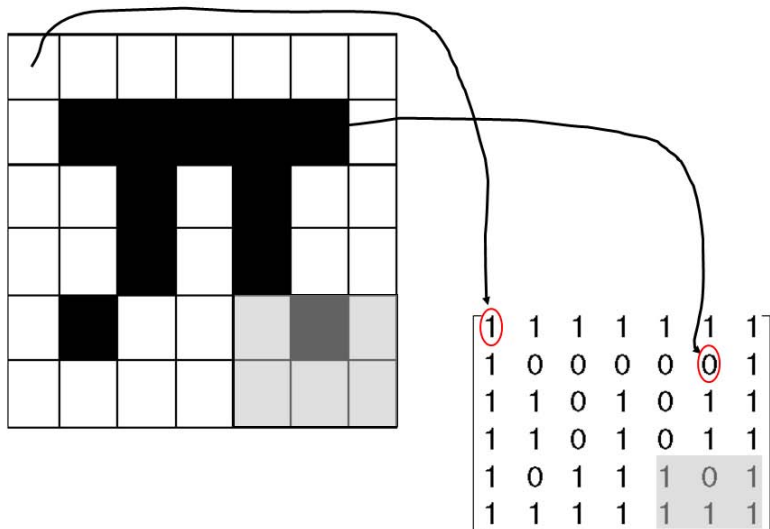
# Distance



What is A closest to?

- No geometry: D
- With geometry: B

# Data matrix



# Data vector

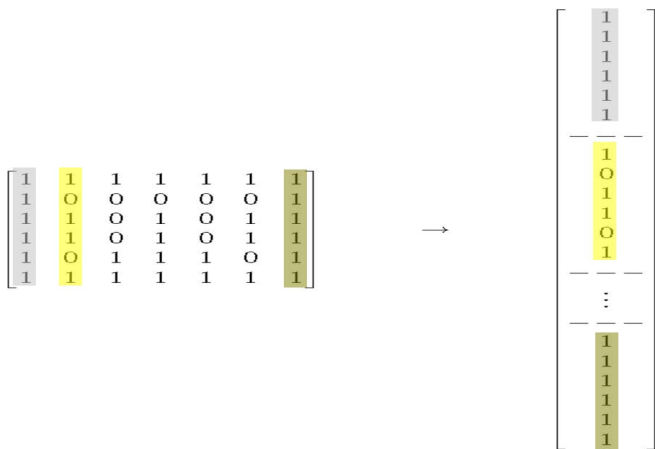


IMAGE  $\rightarrow$  MATRIX  $\rightarrow$  VECTOR

# Approximation theorem

If we know the correct rank of  $A$ , e.g., by inspecting the singular values, then we can **remove the noise and compress the data** by approximating  $A$  by a matrix of the correct rank. One way to do this is to truncate the singular value expansion:

## Theorem

If

$$A_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \sigma_i u_i v_i^T \quad (1 \leq k \leq r)$$

then

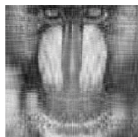
$$A_k = \min_{\text{rank}(B)=k} \|A - B\|_2 \quad \text{and} \quad A_k = \min_{\text{rank}(B)=k} \|A - B\|_F.$$

## An example

The error term of rank  $k$  approximation is given by the  $(k + 1)^{\text{th}}$  singular value  $\sigma_{k+1}$ .



(a) full rank (rank 480)



(b) rank 10, rel. err. = 0.0551

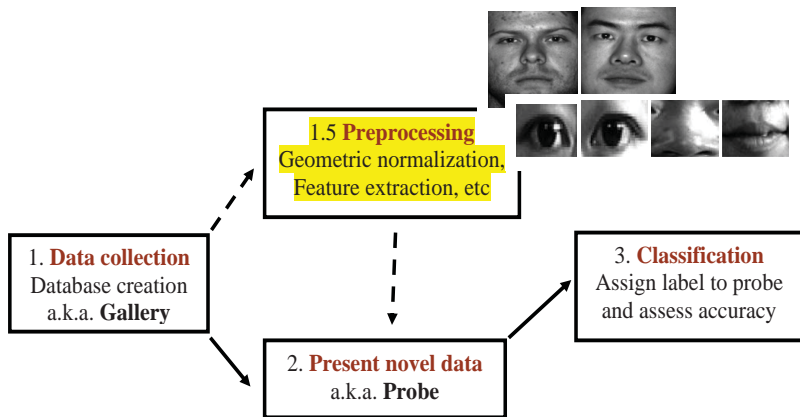


(c) rank 50, rel. err. = 0.0305



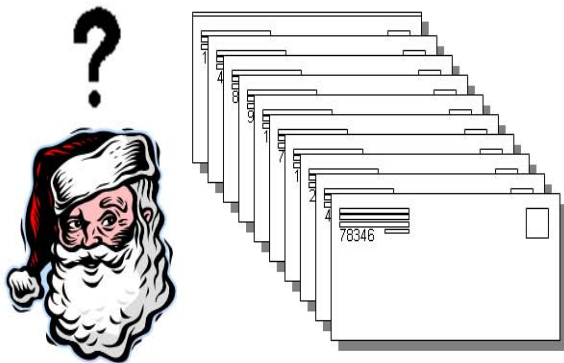
(d) rank 170, rel. err. = 0.0126

# General classification paradigm



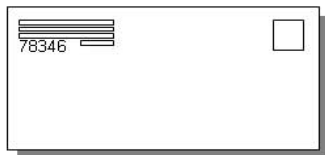
## Problem definition - globally

Santa thought to himself, “only if these mails can go to the right place according to their zip code”.





# Handwritten digit classification



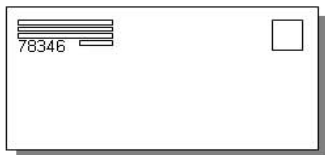
**Problem.** (Human) handwritten digits are sometimes very hard to recognize, even by human operators.

**Importance.** Accurate identification of the digits ensures a reliable delivery system.

**Beneficiaries.** Postal services (mail sorting), seaports (cargo registration), etc.

*Even Santa Clause can benefit from an efficient digit classification algorithm.*

# Handwritten digit classification



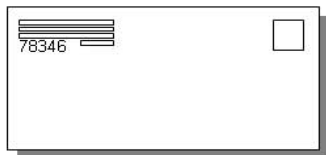
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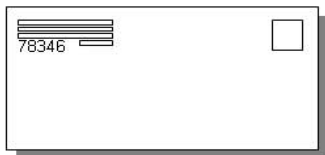
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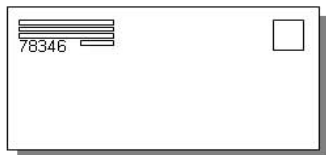
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# Handwritten digit classification



**Problem.** (Human) handwritten digits are sometimes very hard to recognize, even by human operators.

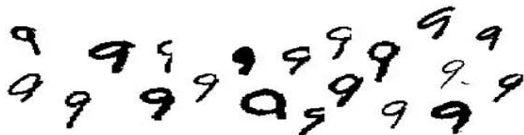
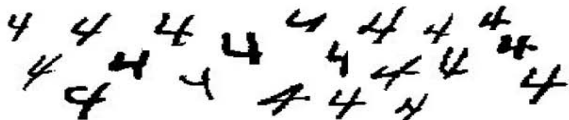
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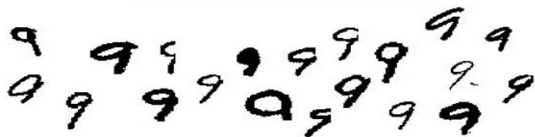
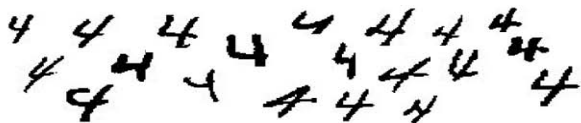
## Problem definition - locally

How do we tell a bunch of 4's from a bunch of 9's?



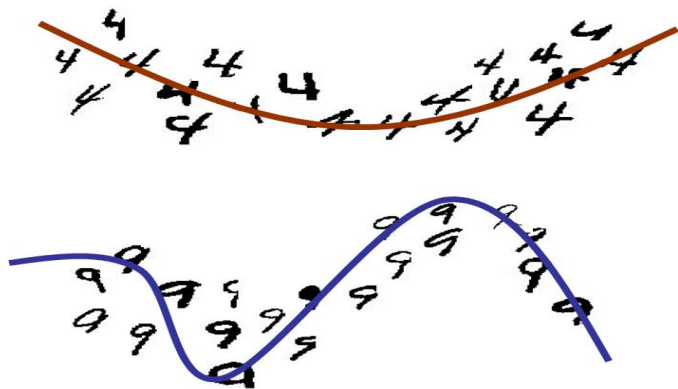
## Problem definition - locally

Or, how do we tell whether a new digit is a 4 or a 9?



# Digit manifolds

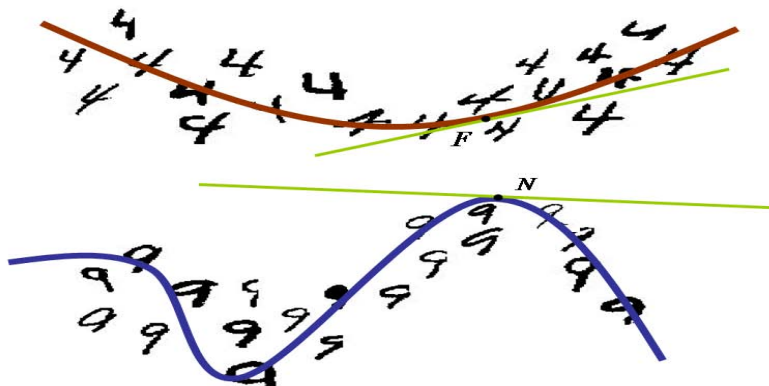
Imagine a high-D surface (red curve) where all 4's live on and a high-D surface (blue curve) where all 9's live on.





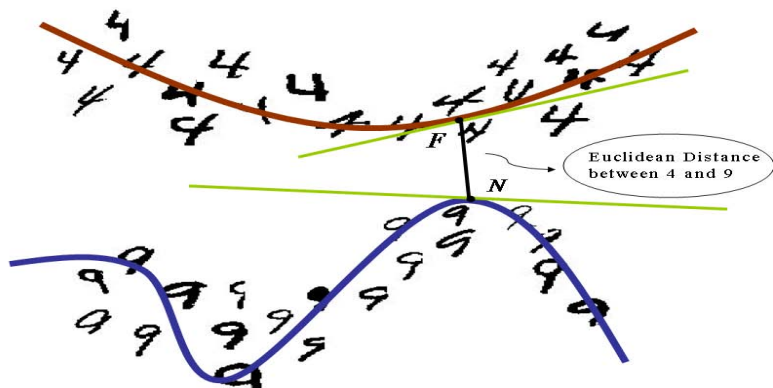
## Tangent spaces - training

Create a **Tangent Space** of the 4's at  $F$  and create a **Tangent Space** of the 9's at  $N$ .



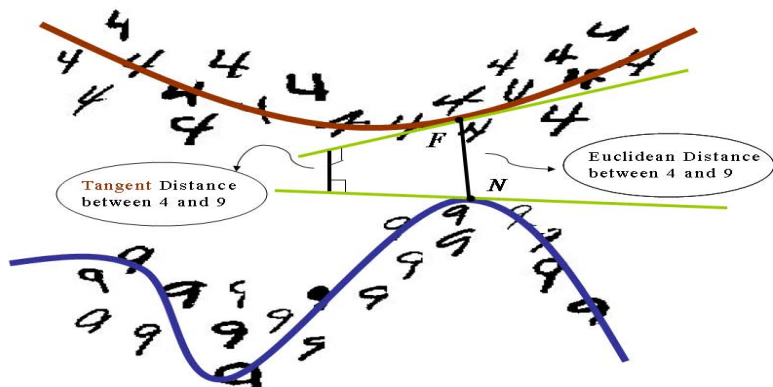
Dimensions of the tangent spaces depend on the degree of variations.

# Euclidean distance



- Euclidean distance between each pair of 4 and 9 varies drastically.
- Calculation is time-consuming.

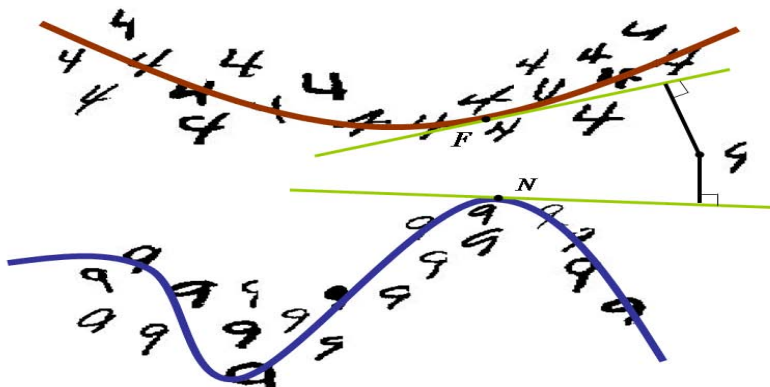
# Tangent distance



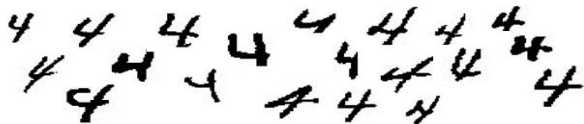
- Tangent distance captures the geometry.
- Calculation is efficient.

# Classification

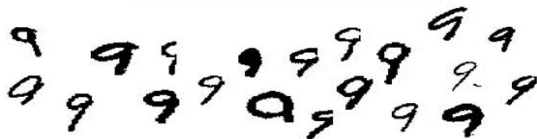
So, is it a 4 or a 9?



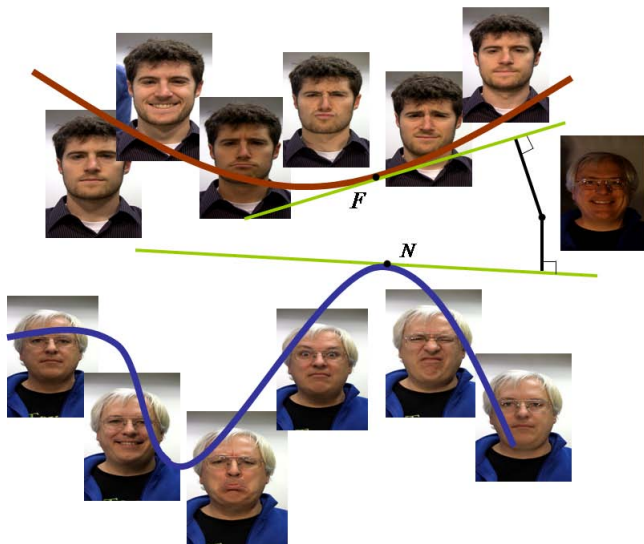
# Classification result



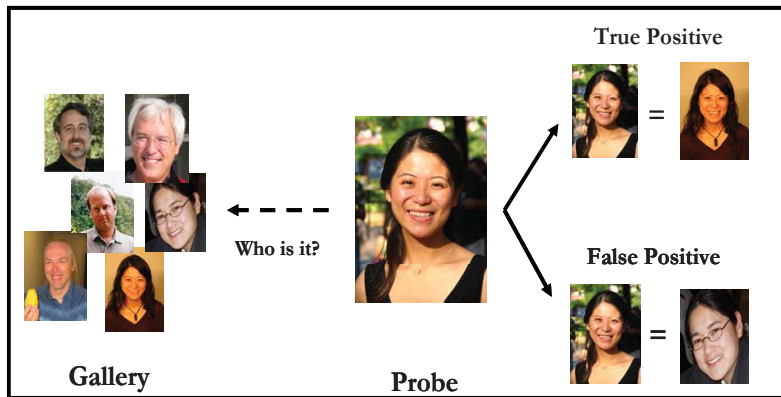
$$4 = 9$$



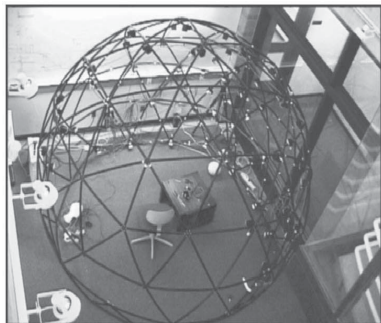
# Face recognition



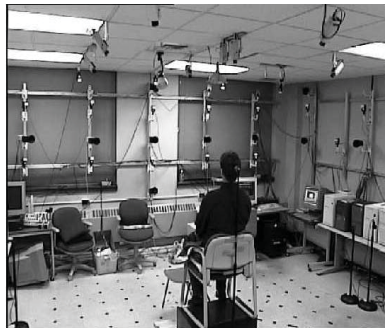
# Face recognition paradigm



# Illumination apparatus



Yale Face Database B



CMU-PIE



# Illumination images



Yale Face Database B



(a) "lights" subset



(b) "illum" subset

CMU-PIE

# Empirical fact

Images of a single person seen under variations of illumination appear to be more difficult to recognize than images of different people [Zhao et al., 2003].

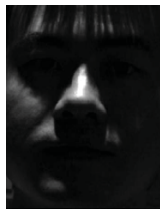


Subject 1



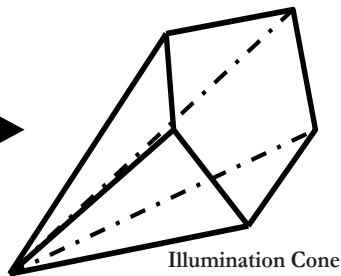
Subject 2

Can you tell  
who this is?



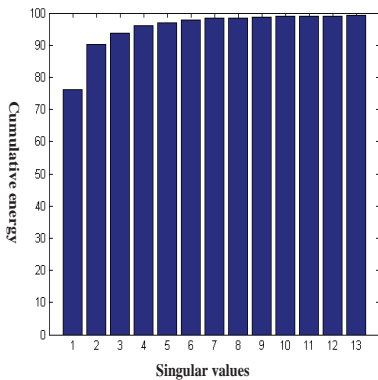
# Geometric facts - 1

The set of  $m$ -pixel monochrome images of an object seen under general lighting conditions forms a convex polyhedral cone (illumination cone) in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  [Belhumeur & Kriegman, 1998].

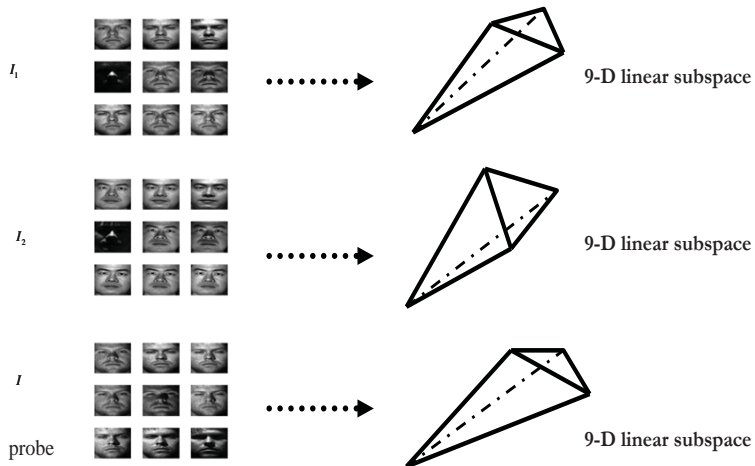


## Geometric facts - 2

The illumination cone can be approximated by a 9-dimensional linear subspace [Basri & Jacobs, 2003], i.e., the illumination cone is low-dimensional and linear.

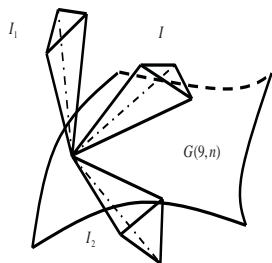


## Set-up



## Definition of $G(k, n)$

These illumination cones are all elements of a parameter space called the **Grassmannian (Grassmann manifold)**,  $G(9, n)$ , where  $n$  is the ambient dimension.



### Definition

The *Grassmannian*  $G(k, n)$  or the *Grassmann manifold* is the set of  $k$ -dimensional subspaces in an  $n$ -dimensional vector space  $K^n$  for some field  $K$ , i.e.,

$$G(k, n) = \{W \subset K^n \mid \dim(W) = k\}.$$

# Principal angles [Björck & Golub, 1973]

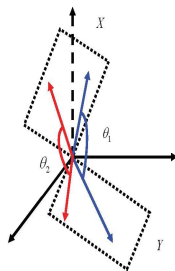
It turns out that any attempt to construct an unitarily invariant metric on  $G(k, n)$  yields something that can be expressed in terms of the **principal angles** [Stewart & Sun, 1990].

## Definition

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are two vector subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , then the principal angles  $\theta_k \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq q$  between  $X$  and  $Y$  are defined recursively by

$$\cos(\theta_k) = \max_{u \in X} \max_{v \in Y} u^T v = u_k^T v_k$$

subject to  $\|u\| = \|v\| = 1$ ,  $u^T u_i = 0$  and  $v^T v_i = 0$  for  $i = 1 : k - 1$  and  $q = \min \{\dim(X), \dim(Y)\} \geq 1$ .



# Grassmannian distances [Edelman et al., 1999]

These are the distance functions we will use to compare points on the Grassmann manifold.

Metric Name	Mathematical Expression
Fubini-Study	$d_{FS}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}) = \cos^{-1} \left( \prod_{i=1}^k \cos \theta_i \right)$
Chordal 2-norm	$d_{c2}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}) = \left\  \left\  2 \sin \frac{1}{2} \theta \right\ _F \right\ _2$
Chordal F-norm	$d_{cF}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}) = \left\  \left\  2 \sin \frac{1}{2} \theta \right\ _2 \right\ _F$
Geodesic (Arc Length)	$d_g(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}) = \ \theta\ _2$
Chordal (Projection F-norm)	$d_c(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}) = \ \sin \theta\ _2$
Projection 2-norm	$d_{p2}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}) = \ \sin \theta\ _\infty$



## Empirical result - database

Since we are only concerned with the lighting variations, we fix the frontal pose, neutral expression and select the “illum” and “lights” subsets of CMU-PIE (68 subjects, 13 poses, 43 lightings, 4 expressions) [Sim et al., 2003] for experiments.

- lights: 21 illumination conditions with background lights **on**.
- illum: 21 illumination conditions with background lights **off**.

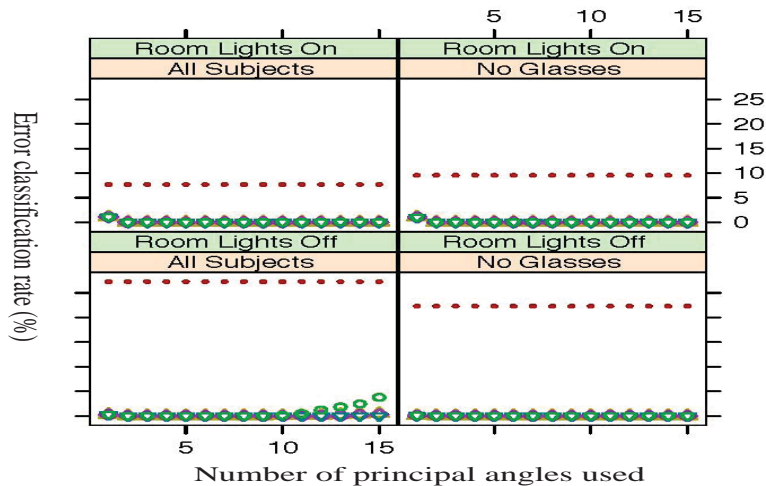


(a) “lights” subset



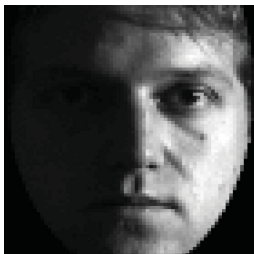
(b) “illum” subset

# Empirical results

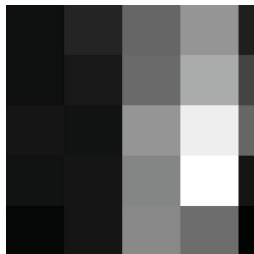


# Robustness

If the data set is perfectly separable with the Grassmann method when using this kind of image [Chang et al., 2006a]:

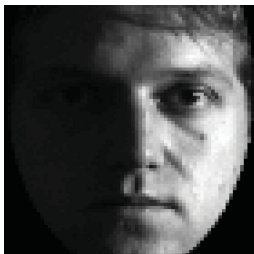


The data set is still perfectly separable with the Grassmann method when using this kind of image [Chang et al., 2007bc]:



# Robustness

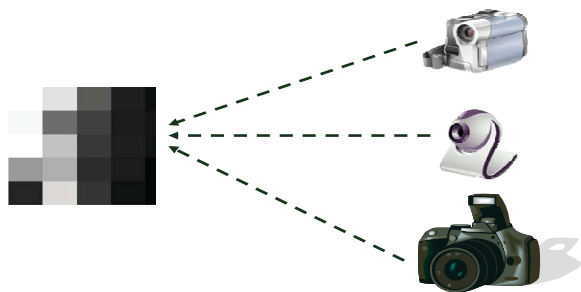
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The data set is still perfectly separable with the Grassmann method when using this kind of image [Chang et al., 2007bc]:

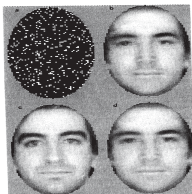


## Potential use: low-res. illumination camera



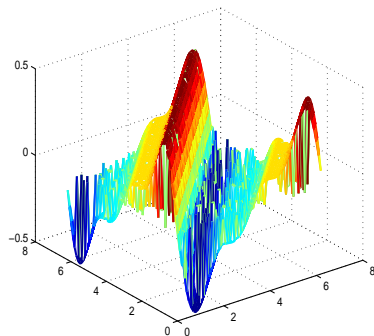
*Large private databases of facial imagery can be stored at a resolution that is sufficiently low to prevent recognition by a human operator yet sufficiently high to enable machine recognition.*

# KL procedure for missing data

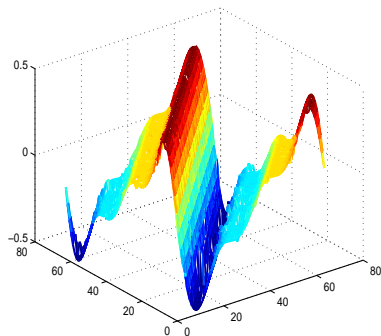


1. Initialize the missing data with the ensemble average.
2. Compute the first estimate of the KL basis.
3. Re-estimate the ensemble using the gappy approximation and the KL basis.
4. Re-compute the KL basis.
5. Repeat Steps 3–4 until stopping criterion is satisfied.

# A gappy example

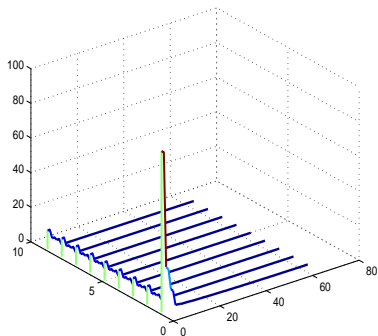
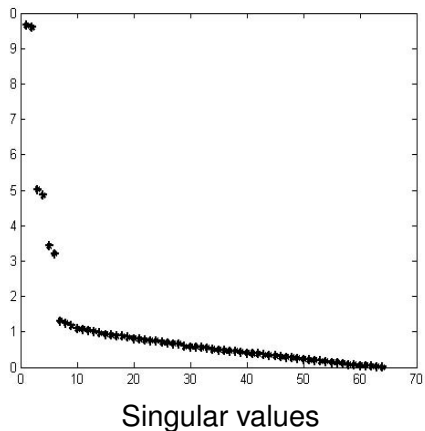


Gappy data



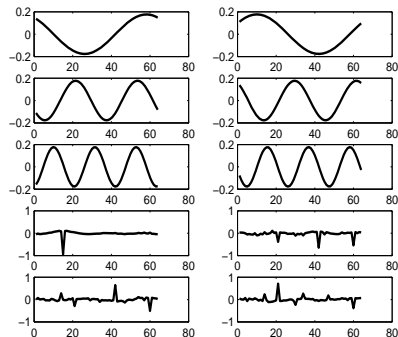
After 1 repair

# Gappy example continued

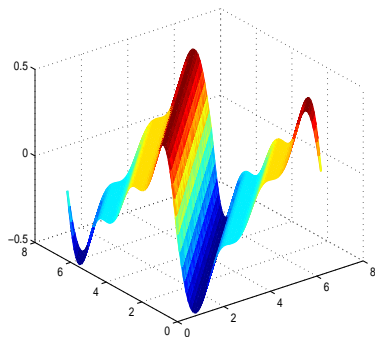




# Gappy example continued



Eigenvectors of repaired data



Repaired

## KL procedure for noisy data

- Decompose observed data into its *noise* and *signal* components:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(\mu)} = \mathbf{s}^{(\mu)} + \mathbf{n}^{(\mu)},$$

or, in terms of data matrices,

$$X = S + N. \quad (S = \text{signal}, N = \text{noise})$$

- The optimal first basis vector,  $\phi$ , is taken as a superposition of the data, i.e.,

$$\phi = \psi_1 \mathbf{x}^{(1)} + \dots + \psi_P \mathbf{x}^{(P)} = X\psi.$$

- May decompose  $\phi$  into signal and noise components

$$\phi = \phi_{\mathbf{n}} + \phi_{\mathbf{s}},$$

where  $\phi_{\mathbf{s}} = S\psi$  and  $\phi_{\mathbf{n}} = N\psi$ .

# MNF continued

- The basis vector  $\phi$  is said to have **maximum noise fraction (MNF)** if the ratio

$$D(\phi) = \frac{\phi_{\mathbf{n}}^T \phi_{\mathbf{n}}}{\phi^T \phi}$$

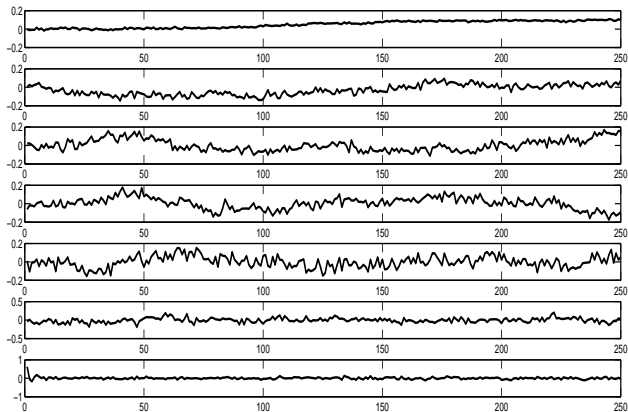
is a maximum.

- A steepest descent method yields the *symmetric definite generalized eigenproblem*

$$N^T N \psi = \mu^2 X^T X \psi.$$

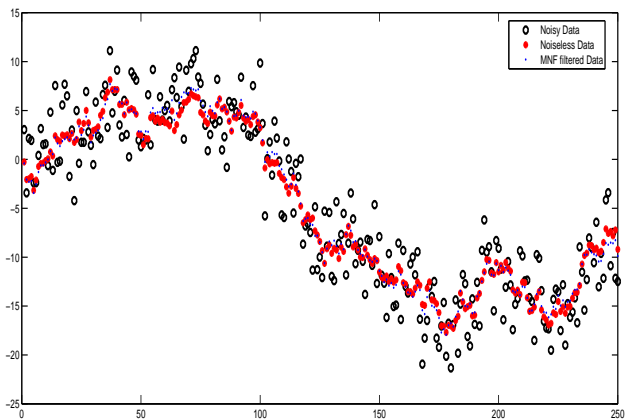
This problem may be solved without actually forming the product matrices  $N^T N$  and  $X^T X$ , using the generalized SVD (gsvd).

# A MNF example



6 observed noisy time series

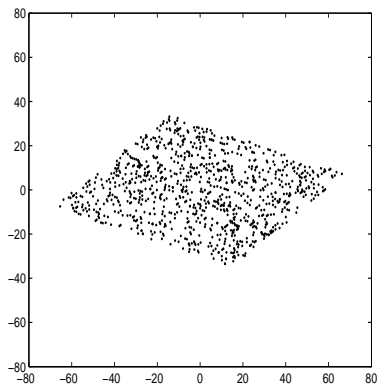
# A MNF example



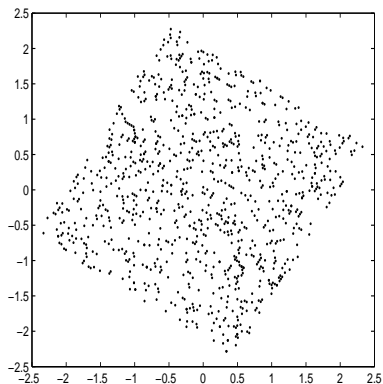
MNF filtered data

# Whitening

Transform the observed data vectors  $\mathbf{x}$ 's linearly so that the new vector  $\mathbf{y}$ 's are uncorrelated and having variance one.



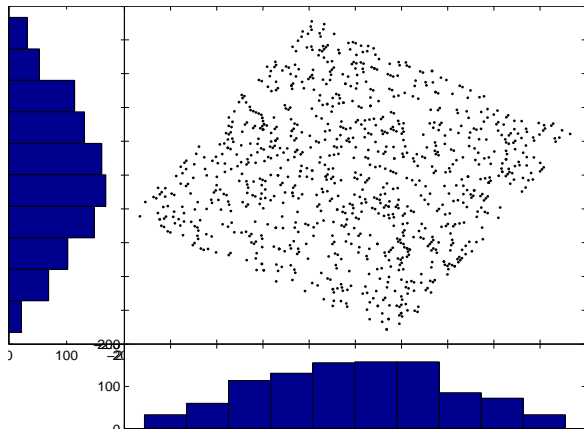
Observed data ( $\mathbf{x}$ )



Whitened data ( $\mathbf{y}$ )

# Resulting of Whitening

$$\mathbf{y} = \Lambda^{-1/2} \Phi^T \mathbf{x}, \text{ where } \mathbf{C} = \Phi \Lambda \Phi^T \text{ and } \mathbf{C} = \langle \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T \rangle.$$



# Convolution - sharpening

$$\begin{aligned}
 w(x, y) \star f(x, y) &= \sum_{s=-a}^a \sum_{t=-b}^b w(s, t) f(x - s, y - t) \\
 &= \sum_{s=-a}^a \sum_{t=-b}^b f(s, t) w(x - s, y - t)
 \end{aligned}$$



A blurred image



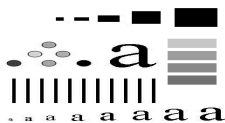
Laplacian edge filter



Enhanced image



# Convolution - smoothing

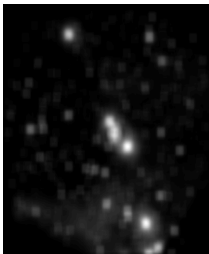


# Convolution - threshold smoothing

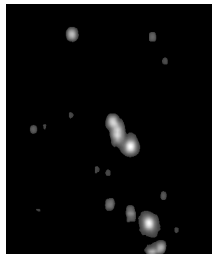
original



filtered with a 15 by 15 averaging filter

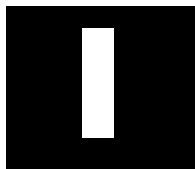


thresholded with 25% of highest intensity

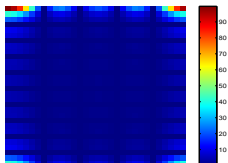


# Fourier analysis

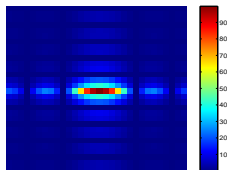
$$F(u, v) = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{x=0}^{M-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} f(x, y) e^{-i2\pi\left(\frac{ux}{M} + \frac{vy}{N}\right)}$$



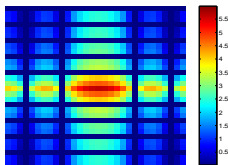
(a) Image.



(b) Spectrum.



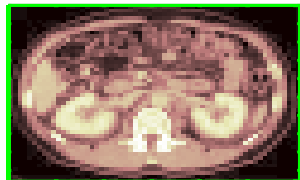
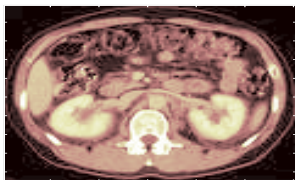
(c) Centered spectrum.



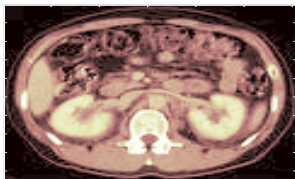
(d) log transform

# Multiresolution analysis

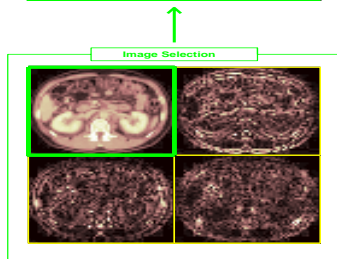
$$X(b, a) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|a|}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \Psi^* \left( \frac{t-b}{a} \right) dt$$



dwt



idwt



# References

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