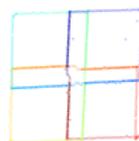


# Spectral Frame Analysis and Learning through Graph Structure

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# Thesis Outline

- ▶ Spectral Analysis of Scalable Frames
- ▶ Generating Frame Scalings through Optimization
- ▶ Frames Drawn from Distributions
- ▶ Learning Graph Structure
- ▶ Learning Linear Structure
- ▶ Learning Nonlinear Structure

# Outline

Preliminaries

Spectral Analysis of Scalable Frames

Learning Graph Structure

Learning Nonlinear Structure

References and Extra Slides

# Table of Contents

Preliminaries

Spectral Analysis of Scalable Frames

Learning Graph Structure

Learning Nonlinear Structure

References and Extra Slides

# Spectral Analysis

Let  $M$  be an  $n \times m$  matrix with elements on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then the Singular Value Decomposition of  $M$  is,

$$M = U\Sigma V^T.$$

Let  $G = M^T M$  be an  $m \times m$  symmetric matrix with elements on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then the Eigen-decomposition of  $G$  is,

$$G = V\Lambda V^T.$$

$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_m$$

# Spectral Analysis

## Definition (Condition Number)

We define the condition number of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $G$  to be,

$$\kappa(G) = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_n}.$$

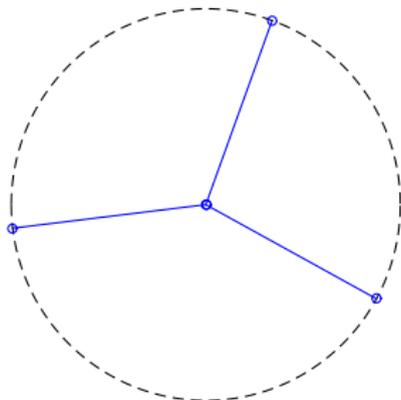
- ▶ If the smallest eigenvalue value is 0, we take the condition number to be  $\infty$ .
- ▶ We shall extend this definition of condition number to apply to non-square matrices using the singular values.
- ▶ The condition number of a  $n \times m$  matrix  $M$ , is defined to be the square-root ratio of the largest and  $\min(n, m)$ th eigenvalues of  $M^T M$ .

# Frame Definition

A finite frame for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a set  $\Phi = \{\varphi_k\}_{k=1}^m \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  such that there exist positive constants  $0 < A \leq B < \infty$  for which

$$A\|f\|_2^2 \leq \sum_{k=1}^m |\langle f, \varphi_k \rangle|^2 \leq B\|f\|_2^2$$

for all  $f \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .



# Synthesis \ Analysis

## Synthesis Operator

Given a frame  $\Phi \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , we denote, again by  $\Phi$ , the  $n \times m$  matrix whose  $k^{\text{th}}$  column is the vector  $\varphi_k$ . For a given set of coefficients  $\{c_k\}_{k=1}^m$ , we can construct/reconstruct a signal  $f$ ,

$$f = \sum_{k=1}^m c_k \varphi_k.$$

## Analysis Operator

The adjoint of the frame  $\Phi^T$  denotes the analysis operator, that allows for the decomposition of signals into frame coefficients,

$$C = \{c_k\}_{k=1}^m = \{\langle \varphi_k, f \rangle\}_{k=1}^m.$$

# Dual Frames, Tight Frames, and the Frame Operator

## Dual Frames

Given a frame  $\Phi$ , we define the dual of  $\Phi$  to be a frame  $\Psi$  such that

$$\Phi\Psi^T = I.$$

## Frame Operator

Given a frame  $\Phi$ , we define the frame operator to be

$$S = \Phi\Phi^T.$$

## Tight Frames

A frame  $\Phi$  is called tight if the frame operator is  $A$  times the identity,

$$S = \Phi\Phi^T = AI.$$

# Scalable Frames Definitions

Scalable frames were introduced in [KOPT13, KOP] as a way to create tight frames without changing the structure of the frame itself. More precisely:

## Definition

Let  $m \geq n$  be given. A frame  $\Phi = \{\varphi_k\}_{k=1}^m \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is scalable if there exist a subset  $\Phi_J = \{\varphi_k\}_{k \in J}$  with  $J \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$ , and positive scalars  $\{x_k\}_{k \in J}$  such that the system  $\tilde{\Phi}_J = \{x_k \varphi_k\}_{k \in J}$  is a tight frame for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

# Characterization

- ▶ We can write the analysis operator of the scaled frame as a product of the original frame and a diagonal matrix  $X$ ,

$$X\Phi^T.$$

- ▶ The frame operator then becomes

$$\tilde{S} = \Phi X^T X \Phi^T = \Phi X^2 \Phi^T = AI.$$

- ▶ We can then rescale the coefficient matrix  $X$  so that  $A = 1$ .

## Characterization (cont.)

- ▶ One can convert the equation  $\Phi X^2 \Phi^T = AI$  into a linear system of equations in  $m$  unknowns:  $x_k^2$ .
- ▶ we need the following function:  $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  (called the Reduced Frame Transform) given by,

$$F(\varphi) = [F_0(\varphi), F_1(\varphi), \dots, F_{n-1}(\varphi)]^T,$$

$$F_0(\varphi) = \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_1^2 - \varphi_2^2 \\ \varphi_1^2 - \varphi_3^2 \\ \vdots \\ \varphi_1^2 - \varphi_n^2 \end{bmatrix}, F_k(\varphi) = \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_k \varphi_{k+1} \\ \varphi_k \varphi_{k+2} \\ \vdots \\ \varphi_k \varphi_n \end{bmatrix}$$

and  $F_0(\varphi) \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ ,  $F_k(\varphi) \in \mathbb{R}^{n-k}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ , where  $d := \frac{(n-1)(n+2)}{2}$ .

- ▶ Let  $F(\Phi)$  be the  $d \times m$  matrix given by

$$F(\Phi) = (F(\varphi_1) \ F(\varphi_2) \ \dots \ F(\varphi_m)).$$

# Previous Result

## Proposition

[KOP, Proposition 3.7] Given a frame  $\Phi \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ .  $\Phi$  is scalable if and only if there exists a non-negative  $u \in \ker F(\Phi) \setminus \{0\}$ . Moreover, the scaling matrix  $X$  is a diagonal operator where the elements are the square-roots of the solution  $u$ .

# Convex Geometry

- ▶ First consider the sets  $\mathcal{S}_1$  and  $\mathcal{S}_2$  given by

$$\mathcal{S}_1 := \{u \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid F(\Phi)u = 0, u \geq 0, u \neq 0\},$$

and

$$\mathcal{S}_2 := \{v \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid F(\Phi)v = 0, v \geq 0, \|v\|_1 = 1\}.$$

- ▶  $\mathcal{S}_1$  is a subset of the null space of  $F(\Phi)$ , and each  $u \in \mathcal{S}_1$  is associated a scaling matrix  $X_u$ , defined as

$$X_u := (X_{ij})_u = \begin{cases} \sqrt{u_i} & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- ▶  $\mathcal{S}_2 \subset \mathcal{S}_1 \cap B_{\ell^1}$ , where  $B_{\ell^1}$  is the unit ball under the  $\ell^1$  norm.

# Generating Frame Scalings through Optimization

## Theorem

Let  $\Phi = \{\varphi_k\}_{k=1}^m \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a frame, and let  $g : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a convex objective function. Then the program

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize: } g(u) \\ & \text{subject to: } F(\Phi)u = 0 \\ & \quad \|u\|_1 = 1 \\ & \quad u \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

has a solution if and only if the frame  $\Phi$  is scalable.

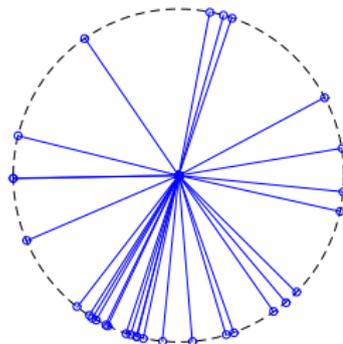
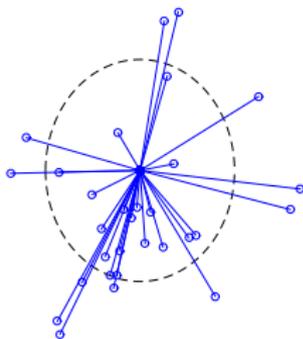
# Proof Sketch

## Proof.

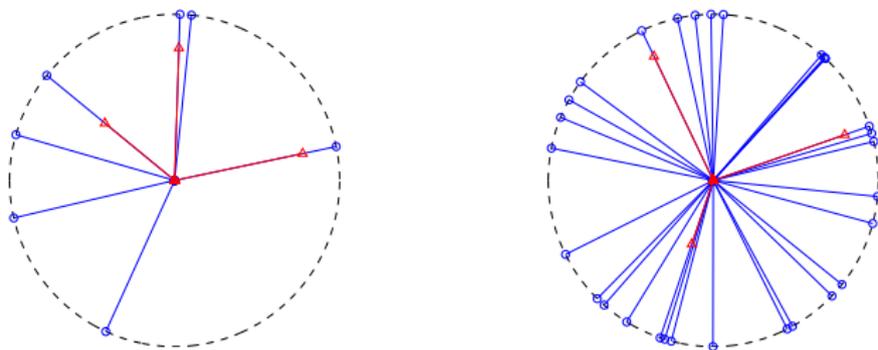
Any feasible solution  $u^*$  is contained in the set  $\mathcal{S}_2$ , which itself is contained in  $\mathcal{S}_1$ , and thus corresponds to a scaling matrix  $X_u$ .

Conversely, any  $u \in \mathcal{S}_1$  can be mapped to a  $v \in \mathcal{S}_2$  by appropriate scaling factor. This provides an initial feasible solution, and so there must exist a minimizer on  $\mathcal{S}_2$ . □

# Gaussian Frames

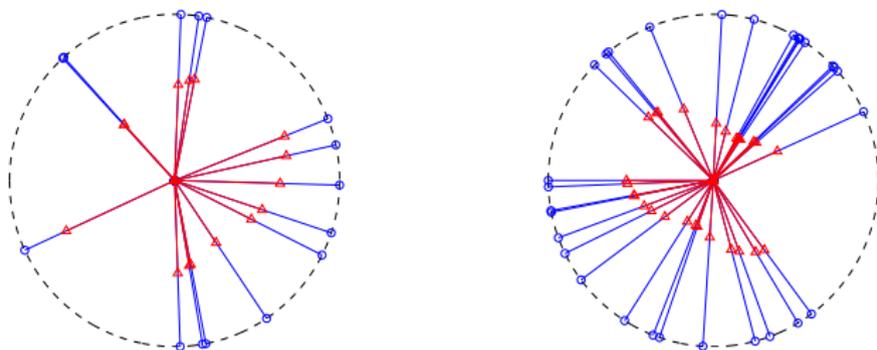


# Sparse Results



**Figure:** Results on two random Gaussian frames before and after scaling.

# Barrier Results



**Figure:** Results on two random Gaussian frames before and after scaling.

# Table of Contents

Preliminaries

**Spectral Analysis of Scalable Frames**

Learning Graph Structure

Learning Nonlinear Structure

References and Extra Slides

# Spectral Analysis of Frames

- ▶ We can relate the scaling weights to the spectrum of the frame
- ▶ We can also view the scaling weights as analogs of the spectrum

## Theorem (Spectral Frame Decomposition)

*Let  $\Phi$  be a frame in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $m$  elements, and assume  $\Phi$  is scalable with diagonal scaling matrix  $X$ . Furthermore, let  $V$  be an  $m \times m$  matrix of the right singular vectors of  $\Phi$ , such that the singular value decomposition is,*

$$\Phi = U\Sigma V^T.$$

*Then there exists an  $m \times n$  sub-block of  $V$  (denoted  $\tilde{V}$ ) such that*

$$\tilde{V}^T X^2 \tilde{V} = \Lambda^{-1}.$$

# Proof Sketch

$$\Phi X^2 \Phi^T = I.$$

Using a singular value decomposition of  $\Phi$ , we have

$$U \Sigma V^T X^2 V \Sigma^T U^T = I.$$

We can simplify this system by performing left and right matrix multiplications of  $U^T$  and  $U$  respectively.

$$\Sigma V^T X^2 V \Sigma^T = I.$$

$$\Sigma^T \Sigma V^T X^2 V \Sigma^T \Sigma = \Sigma^T I \Sigma,$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} V^T X^2 V \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\Lambda \tilde{V}^T X^2 \tilde{V} \Lambda = \Lambda,$$

$$\tilde{V}^T X^2 \tilde{V} = \Lambda^{-1} \Lambda \Lambda^{-1},$$

$$\tilde{V}^T X^2 \tilde{V} = \Lambda^{-1}.$$

# Spectral Analysis of Frames

## Corollary (Spectral Frame Decomposition)

Let  $\Phi$  be a frame in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $m$  elements, and assume  $\Phi$  is scalable with diagonal scaling matrix  $X$ . Furthermore, let  $V$  be an  $m \times m$  matrix of the right singular vectors of  $\Phi$ , such that the singular value decomposition is

$$\Phi = U\Sigma V^T.$$

Then the inverse of each eigenvalue of the frame operator  $S = \Phi\Phi^T$  can be written as the sum of squares of the right singular vectors  $(v_i)_k = v_{ik}$  and the scaling weights  $X_{kk} = x_k$ ,

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_i} = \langle v_i \odot v_i, x \odot x \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^m (v_{ik}x_k)^2 \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n.$$

# Perturbed Spectral Analysis of Frames

- ▶ It will often occur that a frame will not be exactly scalable
- ▶ We can bound approximately scalable frames
- ▶ We present worst-case bounds for non-exact scalings

# Perturbed Spectral Analysis of Frames

## Theorem (Perturbed Spectral Decomposition)

Let  $\Phi$  be a frame in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $m$  elements. Also, let  $\tilde{V}$  denote an  $m \times n$  sub-block of  $V$ . Given a non-trivial, non-negative diagonal matrix  $Y$ , we shall write the general scalability equality as

$$\Phi Y^2 \Phi^T = I + E,$$

with an error matrix,  $E$ , bounded by

$$E \preceq \delta \mathbf{1}\mathbf{1}^T,$$

for some  $\delta > 0$ . Then the following inequality holds,

$$\left\| \tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V} \right\|_2 \leq \frac{1 + \delta n}{\lambda_n}.$$

# Proof Sketch

$$\Phi Y^2 \Phi^T = I + E,$$

$$(U \Sigma V^T) Y^2 (U \Sigma V^T)^T = I + E,$$

$$\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V} = \Lambda^{-1} \Lambda \Lambda^{-1} + \Lambda^{-1/2} U^T E U \Lambda^{-1/2},$$

$$\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V} = \Lambda^{-1} + \Lambda^{-1/2} U^T E U \Lambda^{-1/2}.$$

$$\|\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V}\|_2 = \|\Lambda^{-1} + \Lambda^{-1/2} U^T E U \Lambda^{-1/2}\|_2,$$

$$\|\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V}\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{\lambda_n} + \frac{\delta n}{\lambda_n}.$$

# Approximate Spectral Analysis of Frames

## Corollary (Approximate Spectral Decomposition)

Let  $\Phi$  be a frame in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $m$  elements. Also, let  $\tilde{V}$  denote an  $m \times n$  sub-block of  $V$ . Given a non-trivial, non-negative diagonal matrix  $Y$ , we shall write the general scalability equality as

$$\Phi Y^2 \Phi^T = I + E,$$

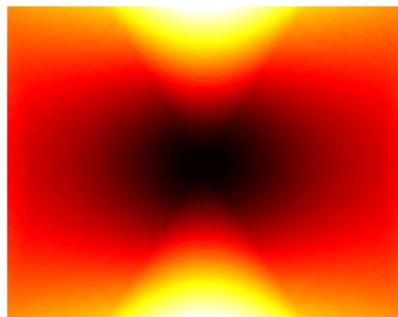
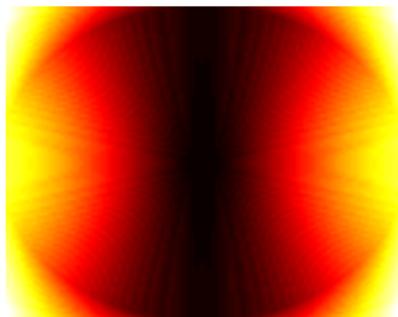
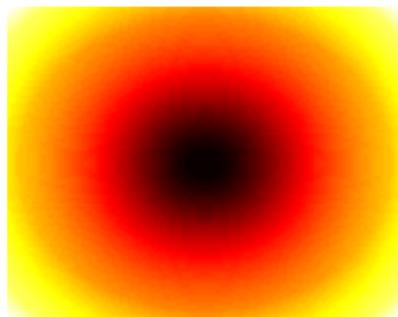
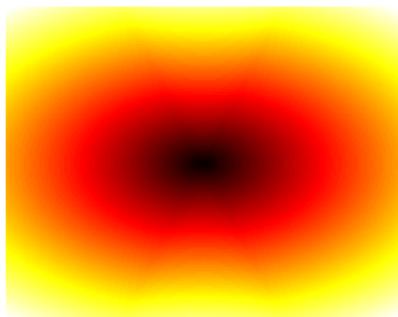
with an error matrix,  $E$ , bounded by

$$E \preceq \delta \mathbb{1}\mathbb{1}^T,$$

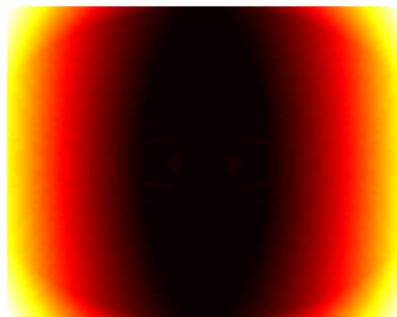
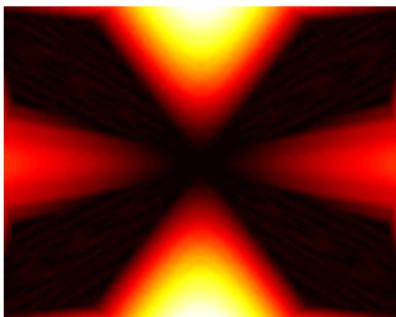
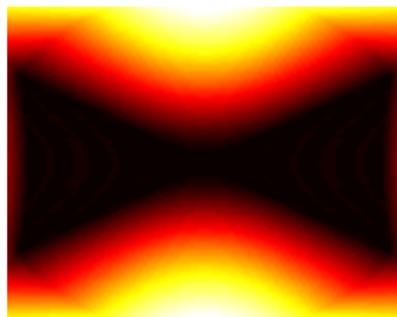
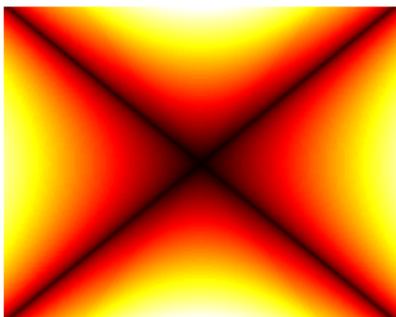
for some  $\delta > 0$ . If  $\Phi$  is scalable with scaling matrix  $X$ , and the difference between  $X$  and  $Y$  is denoted  $D^2 := X^2 - Y^2$ , then the following inequality holds,

$$\left\| \tilde{V}^T D^2 \tilde{V} \right\|_2 \leq \frac{\delta n}{\lambda_n}.$$

# Scalability Projections



# Scalability Projections



# Table of Contents

Preliminaries

Spectral Analysis of Scalable Frames

**Learning Graph Structure**

Learning Nonlinear Structure

References and Extra Slides

# Graph Background

- ▶ Denote a **graph** by  $\mathcal{G} := (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ , where  $\mathcal{V} := \{\nu_1, \nu_2, \dots, \nu_n\}$  is a set of vertices on the graph.
- ▶  $\mathcal{E} := \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m\}$  is the ordered set of edge pairs that denotes a connection between two nodes.
- ▶ A weight  $0 \leq \omega_{ij} \leq 1$  denotes the similarity between two nodes  $(\nu_i, \nu_j)$ , and  $\omega_{ij} = 0$  if the nodes are not connected.
- ▶ The matrix of these weights is referred to as the adjacency matrix  $W$ .
- ▶ We denote the degree of a node,  $\nu_i$ , as  $d_i := \sum_{j=1}^n \omega_{ij}$ .
- ▶ The **degree matrix**  $D$  is then a diagonal matrix with entries  $D_{ii} = d_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

# Graph Background

- ▶ We now define the **Laplacian matrix** on the graph as

$$L_G := L = D - W. \quad (1)$$

- ▶ The **incidence matrix**,  $B = [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m]$ , is defined as an  $n \times m$  matrix where every column in  $B$  represents an edge  $(\nu_i, \nu_j)$  in  $\mathcal{E}$ .
- ▶ For a column in the incidence matrix,  $b_k$ , we have

$$b_k(i) := \begin{cases} \sqrt{\omega_{ij}} & : (\nu_i, \nu_j) \in \mathcal{E}, i < j \\ -\sqrt{\omega_{ij}} & : (\nu_i, \nu_j) \in \mathcal{E}, i > j \\ 0 & : \text{else} \end{cases}. \quad (2)$$

- ▶ The Laplacian can now be defined as  $L := BB^T$ .

# Graph Conditioning

## Definition (Graph Condition Number)

$$\kappa(L_G) := \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_r} \text{ for } \lambda_1 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_r > \lambda_{r+1} = \cdots = \lambda_n = 0. \quad (3)$$

- ▶ This function is simply the condition number of  $L$  (ignoring the zero eigenvalues).
- ▶ Where  $\lambda_i = 0$  can lead to numerically unstable solutions for linear systems,  $\lambda_i = 0$  in this setting, disconnects the graph.
- ▶ Scaling leads to the well-conditioned graphs, as sets of complete sub-graphs.
- ▶ This encourages the use of the incidence matrix  $B$  as the frame  $\Phi$ , which leads to the Laplacian  $L$  as the frame operator  $S$ .

# Graph Conditioning

## Definition

Let  $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \omega)$  be a graph with incidence matrix  $B$ , and Laplacian matrix  $L = BB^T$ . Then  $B$  is scalable if there exists a non-negative, non-zero diagonal matrix  $X$ , such that the graph condition number  $\kappa(\tilde{\mathcal{L}})$  of the scaled Laplacian  $\tilde{L} = BX^2B^T$  is equal to 1,

$$\tilde{\lambda}_1 = \dots = \tilde{\lambda}_r > \tilde{\lambda}_{r+1} = \dots = \lambda_n = 0. \quad (4)$$

## Proposition

Let  $\mathcal{G}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \omega)$  be a complete graph with incidence matrix  $B$ , and Laplacian matrix  $L = BB^T$ . Then  $B$  is scalable with scaling weights

$$x_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{w_{ij}}}, \text{ such that,}$$

$$\tilde{L}_{\mathcal{G}} = BX^2B^T = nI - \mathbb{1}\mathbb{1}^T,$$

and  $\kappa(\tilde{L}_{\mathcal{G}}) = 1$ .

# Proof Sketch

- ▶ The graph is complete, and if we scale all of the edges to have weight 1, the degree of each node will be equal to  $n - 1$ , and the resulting graph will be complete.
- ▶ As the complete graph has Laplacian eigenvalues  $\lambda_i = n$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n - 1$ , the graph has condition number 1.

# Problem Formulation

- ▶ As every complete graph is trivially scalable, we move on to more complicated graphs
- ▶ We can cast the problem of scaling a graph as finding a non-negative solution to the following:

$$F(B)u = [\mathbf{0}, -\mathbb{1}]^T,$$

$$\mathbb{1}^T u \geq 1,$$

$$u \geq \mathbf{0},$$

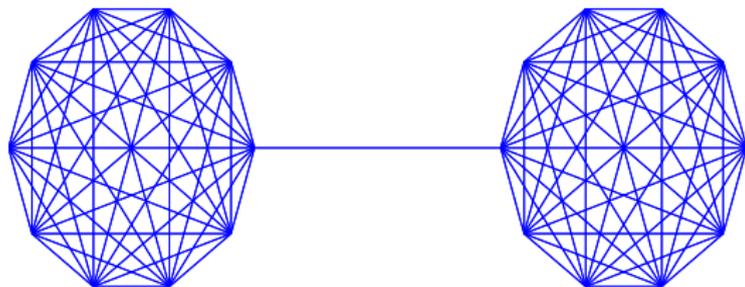
$$\text{minimize: } g(u)$$

$$\text{subject to: } F_0(B)u = \mathbf{0},$$

$$\mathbb{1}^T u \geq 1,$$

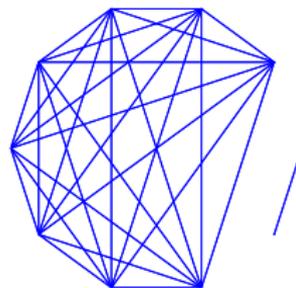
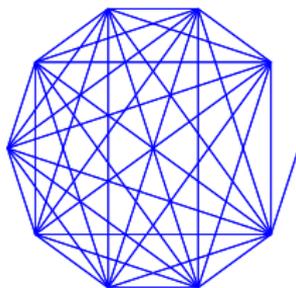
$$u \geq \mathbf{0}.$$

# Graph Examples I



Two-Complete Graphs Spectrum				
	original	g1	g2	g3
$\sigma_{\max}$	3.4396	3.4396	3.3977	3.1623
$\sigma_{\min}$	0.4112	0.4112	0.4089	3.1623
$\kappa(L_G)$	8.3648	8.3648	8.3094	1.0000
$x_k$	-	0.0101	0.0112	0.0090

# Graph Examples II



Outlier Complete Graph Spectrum

	original	g1	g2	g3
$\sigma_{\max}$	3.1623	3.0000	3.1623	3.0927
$\sigma_{\min}$	1.0000	3.0000	1.0000	0.9909
$\kappa(L_{\mathcal{G}})$	10.000	1.0000	10.000	9.7412
$x_k$	-	0.2000	0.0286	0.0000

# Table of Contents

Preliminaries

Spectral Analysis of Scalable Frames

Learning Graph Structure

**Learning Nonlinear Structure**

References and Extra Slides

# Low-Rank Embeddings and Pre-Image Problems

- ▶ Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is a standard tool for data analysis and low-rank approximations [Jol02, LV07].
- ▶ Viewing the eigenvalues as variance indicators is a clear and concise explanation of the projection, and when data's true manifold is linear/affine, PCA is optimal in its representation.
- ▶ For notation, and for connections with later notions, we shall denote PCA as an eigen-value/vector problem of a data matrix  $M$ ,

$$M^T M V = V \Lambda,$$

where the eigen-decomposition of the gram matrix  $M^T M$  is,

$$M^T M = V \Lambda V^T.$$

# Low-Rank Embeddings and Pre-Image Problems

- ▶ The assumption of linearity on the manifold is generally violated for complex datasets.
- ▶ Nonlinear dimension reduction techniques were designed to alleviate this drawback.
- ▶ The canonical example being Kernel PCA [SSM97, LV07].
- ▶ Instead of analyzing the data directly, kernel methods analyze the relationship between data points.

# Low-Rank Embeddings and Pre-Image Problems

- ▶ In [HLMS04, BDLR<sup>+</sup>04], various non-linear dimension reduction methods (Isomap [TDSL00], Laplacian Eigenmaps [BN03], Locally Linear Embeddings [SR00], etc.) are shown to fall under the Kernel PCA model.
- ▶ The Kernel PCA problem for a dataset  $M$ , with respect to a kernel  $K(M) = K_M$ , shall be denoted,

$$K_M V = V \Lambda.$$

- ▶ The **embedding**  $\Theta$  of this dataset, shall be denoted,

$$\Theta = \Lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} V^T,$$

# Robust Principal Component Analysis [RPCA]

- ▶ We have at our disposal, sparsity methods, and spectral methods.
- ▶ Both are useful signal processing techniques when dealing with large datasets.
- ▶ **Robust Principal Component Analysis** was devised as a technique to take advantage of sparsity and low intrinsic dimensionality of datasets.

# Robust Principal Component Analysis [RPCA]

- ▶ Standard practice, when dealing with search over such a large space, is to formulate an optimization problem
- ▶ Given a data matrix  $\tilde{\Phi}$ , we want a sparsity  $E$  and low-rank  $\Phi$  decomposition.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize: } \text{rank}(\Phi) + \gamma \|E\|_0 \\ & \text{subject to: } \Phi + E = \tilde{\Phi} \end{aligned}$$

# $\ell_1$ Norm Approximation

- ▶ Let's first consider minimizing  $\|E\|_0$ .
- ▶ This problem is **NP-hard**, so the standard approach is to find a convex relaxation that approximately solves the problem.
- ▶ The well known **convex relaxation** is the  $\ell_1$  norm.

# Nuclear Norm Approximation

- ▶ Now consider minimizing  $\text{rank}(\Phi)$ .
- ▶ We first notice that minimizing the rank of a matrix is also NP-hard.
- ▶ We need a convex relaxation of the rank function.

# Nuclear Norm Approximation

- ▶ Using an analogous approximation from the  $\ell_0$ - $\ell_1$  derivation, the **Nuclear Norm** becomes the convex relaxation

$$\|\Phi\|_* := \sigma_1 + \sigma_2 + \sigma_3 + \cdots + \sigma_n.$$

# The Complete Formulation

## Original Problem

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{minimize: } \text{rank}(\Phi) + \gamma \|E\|_0 \\ &\text{subject to: } \Phi + E = \tilde{\Phi} \end{aligned}$$

# The Complete Formulation

## Original Problem

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize: } \text{rank}(\Phi) + \gamma \|E\|_0 \\ & \text{subject to: } \Phi + E = \tilde{\Phi} \end{aligned}$$

## Convex Relaxation

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize: } \|\Phi\|_* + \gamma \|E\|_1 \\ & \text{subject to: } \Phi + E = \tilde{\Phi} \end{aligned}$$

# Robust Manifold Learning

- ▶ The natural extension of PCA is to compare similarities between nonlinear transformations of the dataset in the form of kernels (KPCA).
- ▶ In this same vein, we may wish to add a notion of robustness to KPCA by employing an error regularizing term.
- ▶ This motivates the introduction of the Robust Manifold Learning (RML) problem,

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize: } \text{rank}(K(\Phi)) + \gamma \|E\|_0 \\ & \text{subject to: } \Phi + E = \tilde{\Phi}, \end{aligned}$$

# Robust Manifold Learning

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize: } \text{rank}(K(\Phi)) + \gamma \|E\|_0 \\ & \text{subject to: } \Phi + E = \tilde{\Phi}, \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ As with many formulations, we shall study the convex relaxation of this problem,

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize: } \|K(\Phi)\|_* + \gamma \|E\|_1 \\ & \text{subject to: } \Phi + E = \tilde{\Phi}. \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Much of the intuition behind this approach can be gleaned from an understanding of robust PCA and its variations.

# Inverse Mapping

- ▶ This brings us to the major issue with nonlinear methods; there is in general no well-defined inverse for an embedding obtained from KPCA.
- ▶ The kernel matrix  $K$  is computed, and an embedding is formed and thresholded for the kernel.
- ▶ Once the threshold has been applied, an inverse operation is performed as follows,

$$\varphi_k = \sum_{i \in \Omega(\theta_k)} \frac{a}{\|\theta_k - \theta_i\|_2^2} \varphi_i. \quad (5)$$

# RML Algorithm

Before presenting the algorithm, we define following operators.

## Definition (Spatial Shrinkage Operator)

We denote by  $\mathcal{S}_\gamma$  the **Spatial Shrinkage Operator**, which performs a soft thresholding on a given  $n \times m$  matrix by subtracting positive constant,  $\gamma$ , from each element and thresholding all negative values to 0:

$$\mathcal{S}_\gamma[A] = \max\{A - \gamma \mathbb{1} \mathbb{1}^T, \mathbf{0}\},$$

where we use the entry-wise max function.

## Definition (Spectral Shrinkage Operator)

We denote by  $\widehat{\mathcal{S}}_\mu$  the **Spectral Shrinkage Operator**, which performs a soft thresholding on a given  $n \times m$  matrix by subtracting positive constant,  $\mu$ , from each singular value and thresholding all negative values to 0:

$$\widehat{\mathcal{S}}_\mu[A] = U \cdot \max\{\Sigma - \mu I, \mathbf{0}\} \cdot V^T,$$

where  $A = U \Sigma V^T$ .

# RML Algorithm

## Definition (Embedding Operator)

Define  $\mathcal{E}$  as the embedding operator such that,

$$\Theta = \mathcal{E}[K(\Phi)],$$

where  $K(\Phi)$  is the kernel matrix on the dataset  $\Phi$ .

## Definition (Inverse Operator)

Define  $\mathcal{E}^{-1}$  as the embedding operator such that,

$$\Phi = \mathcal{E}^{-1}[\Theta],$$

where  $\Theta$  is an embedding formed from a kernel matrix. The inverse is performed using the interpolation formula presented previously.

# RML Algorithm

while not converged do:

1.  $K \leftarrow K(\tilde{\Phi} - E)$

2.  $K \leftarrow \hat{\mathcal{S}}_{\mu}[K]$

3.  $\Theta \leftarrow \mathcal{E}[K]$

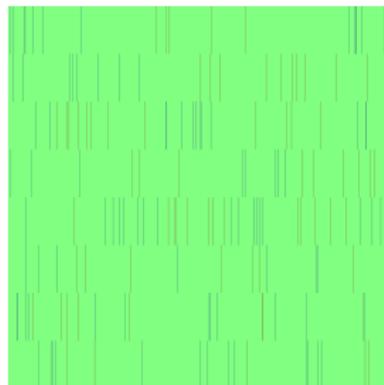
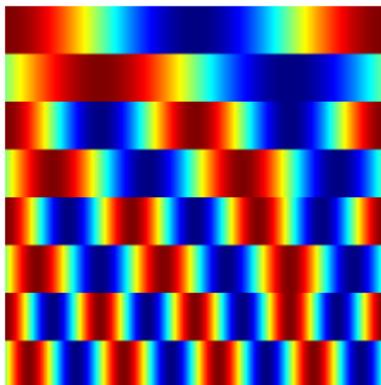
4.  $\Phi \leftarrow \mathcal{E}^{-1}[\Theta]$

5.  $E \leftarrow \mathcal{S}_{\gamma}[\tilde{\Phi} - \Phi]$

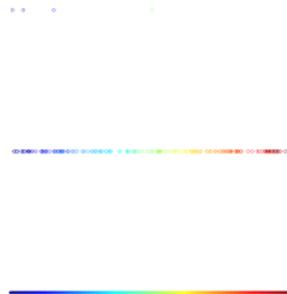
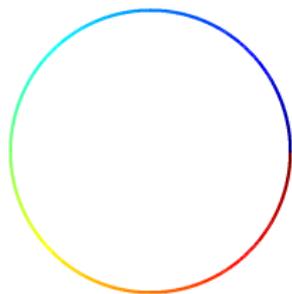
end while

# Circle Embeddings

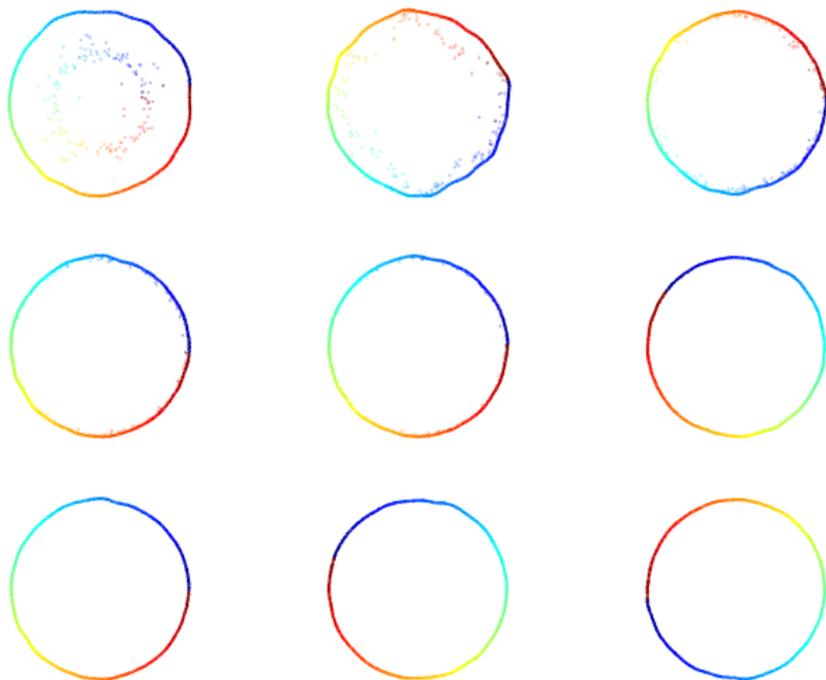
- ▶ We start with a clear example of when standard RPCA fails by adding sparse noise to an embedding of a circle.
- ▶ We sample sine and cosine functions  $m = 1000$  times using  $n = 4$  frequencies for each, resulting in a dataset  $\Phi$  of size  $2n$ -by- $m$ .
- ▶ Sparse noise  $E$  is then added to the dataset by randomly selecting 80 indices and biasing the location.



# Circle Embeddings



# Circle Embeddings



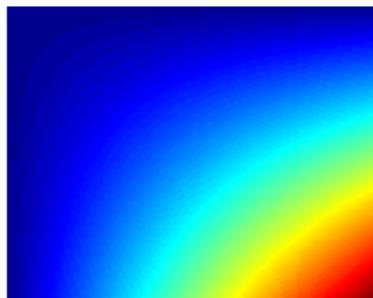
# Circle Embeddings



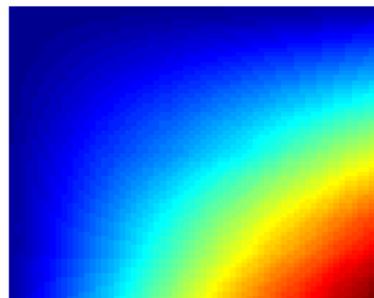
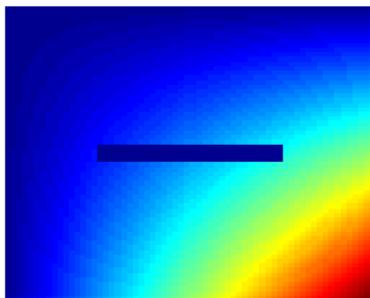
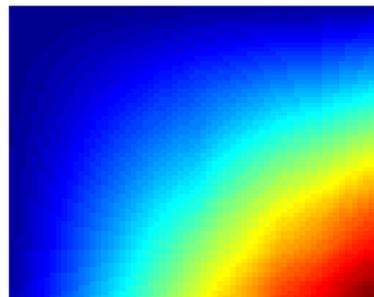
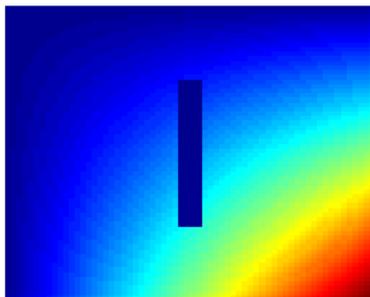
**Figure:** This figure shows the embeddings obtained after the various techniques are employed. From left to right, we present the final results after our robust manifold learning technique, kernel PCA, standard PCA, and standard robust PCA.

# Inpainting Background

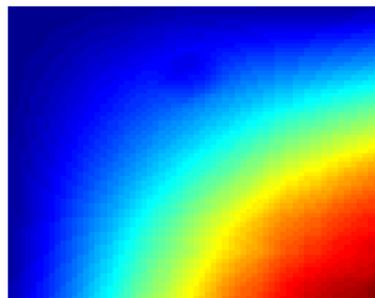
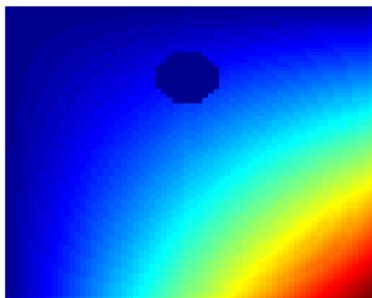
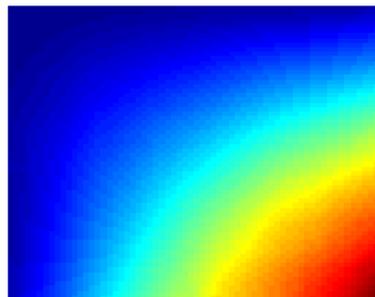
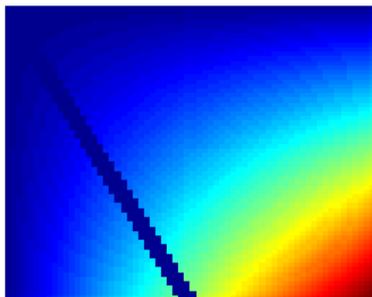
- ▶ **Image inpainting** interpolates across corrupted or missing data in an image
- ▶ Sapiro and Bertalmio 2000
- ▶ Igehy and Pereira 1997



# Inpainting



# Inpainting



# Table of Contents

Preliminaries

Spectral Analysis of Scalable Frames

Learning Graph Structure

Learning Nonlinear Structure

References and Extra Slides

# References I

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# Extra Slides: Error Analysis

$$\tilde{G}\tilde{f} - Gf = 0$$

$$(G + E)\tilde{f} - Gf = 0$$

$$G(\tilde{f} - f) = -E\tilde{f}$$

$$\tilde{f} - f = -G^{-1}E\tilde{f}$$

$$\|\tilde{f} - f\|_2 = \|G^{-1}E\tilde{f}\|_2$$

$$\|\tilde{f} - f\|_2 \leq \|G^{-1}\|_2 \|E\|_2 \|\tilde{f}\|_2$$

$$\frac{\|\tilde{f} - f\|_2}{\|\tilde{f}\|_2} \leq \frac{\|G^{-1}\|_2 \|E\|_2 \|G\|_2}{\|G\|_2}$$

$$\frac{\|\tilde{f} - f\|_2}{\|\tilde{f}\|_2} \leq (\|G^{-1}\|_2 \|G\|_2) \frac{\|E\|_2}{\|G\|_2}.$$

## Extra Slides: Error Analysis (cont.)

- ▶ The relative error in the approximate solution is bounded by the error matrix  $E$ , but also properties of the matrix  $G$ .
- ▶ The matrix norms of  $G$  and  $G^{-1}$  are the largest and reciprocal smallest eigenvalues respectively,

$$\|G\|_2 = \lambda_1 \quad , \quad \|G^{-1}\|_2 = \frac{1}{\lambda_n}.$$

## Extra Slides: Spectral Frame Decomposition

$$\Phi X^2 \Phi^T = I.$$

Using a singular value decomposition of  $\Phi$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} (U \Sigma V^T) X^2 (U \Sigma V^T)^T &= I, \\ U \Sigma V^T X^2 V \Sigma^T U^T &= I. \end{aligned}$$

We can simplify this system by performing left and right matrix multiplications of  $U^T$  and  $U$  respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} U^T U \Sigma V^T X^2 V \Sigma^T U^T U &= U^T I U, \\ \Sigma V^T X^2 V \Sigma^T &= I. \end{aligned}$$

We shall now perform left and right matrix multiplications by  $\Sigma^T$  and  $\Sigma$  respectively. In this case, we obtain block matrices where the upper-left  $n \times n$  block is a diagonal matrix of non-zero eigenvalues  $\Lambda$  and all other blocks are zero matrices.

## Extra Slides: Spectral Frame Decomposition (cont.)

$$\Sigma^T \Sigma V^T X^2 V \Sigma^T \Sigma = \Sigma^T I \Sigma,$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} V^T X^2 V \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}.$$

We write  $V$  in block form as well,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_1 & V_2 \\ V_3 & V_4 \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} X_1 & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & X_2 \end{bmatrix}^2 \begin{bmatrix} V_1 & V_2 \\ V_3 & V_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Given this structure, we shall further simplify the system by removing the zero matrices and obtain the result,

$$\Lambda \tilde{V}^T X^2 \tilde{V} \Lambda = \Lambda,$$

$$\tilde{V}^T X^2 \tilde{V} = \Lambda^{-1} \Lambda \Lambda^{-1},$$

$$\tilde{V}^T X^2 \tilde{V} = \Lambda^{-1}.$$

## Extra Slides: Perturbed Spectral Decomposition

$$\Phi Y^2 \Phi^T = I + E,$$

$$(U \Sigma V^T) Y^2 (U \Sigma V^T)^T = I + E,$$

$$U \Sigma V^T Y^2 V \Sigma^T U^T = I + E,$$

$$U^T U \Sigma V^T Y^2 V \Sigma^T U^T U = U^T I U + U^T E U,$$

$$I \Sigma V^T Y^2 V \Sigma^T I = U^T U + U^T E U,$$

$$\Sigma V^T Y^2 V \Sigma^T = I + U^T E U,$$

$$\Sigma^T \Sigma V^T Y^2 V \Sigma^T \Sigma = \Sigma^T I \Sigma + \Sigma^T U^T E U \Sigma,$$

$$\Lambda \tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V} \Lambda = \Lambda + \Lambda^{1/2} U^T E U \Lambda^{1/2},$$

$$\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V} = \Lambda^{-1} \Lambda \Lambda^{-1} + \Lambda^{-1/2} U^T E U \Lambda^{-1/2},$$

$$\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V} = \Lambda^{-1} + \Lambda^{-1/2} U^T E U \Lambda^{-1/2}.$$

## Extra Slides: Perturbed Spectral Decomposition (cont.)

Taking the norm of both sides of the equation, and applying the bound, we have on the error matrix  $E$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \|\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V}\|_2 &= \|\Lambda^{-1} + \Lambda^{-1/2} U^T E U \Lambda^{-1/2}\|_2, \\ \|\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V}\|_2 &\leq \|\Lambda^{-1}\|_2 + \|\Lambda^{-1/2} U^T E U \Lambda^{-1/2}\|_2, \\ \|\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V}\|_2 &\leq \|\Lambda^{-1}\|_2 + \|\Lambda^{-1/2} U^T (\delta \mathbb{1} \mathbb{1}^T) U \Lambda^{-1/2}\|_2, \\ \|\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V}\|_2 &\leq \frac{1}{\lambda_n} + \frac{\delta}{\lambda_n} \|U^T (\mathbb{1} \mathbb{1}^T) U\|_2, \\ \|\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V}\|_2 &\leq \frac{1}{\lambda_n} + \frac{\delta}{\lambda_n} \|\mathbb{1} \mathbb{1}^T\|_2, \\ \|\tilde{V}^T Y^2 \tilde{V}\|_2 &\leq \frac{1}{\lambda_n} + \frac{\delta n}{\lambda_n}. \end{aligned}$$

# Examples

