On Efficient Computation of Tensor Subspace Kernels for Multi-dimensional Data

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Abstract: In pattern classification problems kernel based methods and multi-dimensional methods have shown many advantages. However, since the well-known kernel functions are defined over one-dimensional vector spaces, it is not straightforward to join these two domains. Nevertheless, there are attempts to develop kernel functions which can directly operate with multi-dimensional patterns, such as the recently proposed kernels operating on the Grassmannian manifolds. These are based on the concept of the principal angles between the orthogonal spaces rather than simple distances between vectors. An example is the chordal kernel operating on the subspaces obtained after tensor unfolding. However, a real problem with these methods are their high computational demands. In this paper we address the problem of efficient implementation of the chordal kernel for operation with tensors in classification tasks of real computer vision problems. The paper extends our previous works in this field. The proposed method was tested in the problems of object recognition in computer vision. The experiments show good accuracy and accelerated performance.

1 INTRODUCTION

Kernel based methods found broad applications in variety of object classification problems. This is due to their ability of transforming patterns into higher dimensional space in which their separation allows more reliable pattern separation. The well-known example are the support vector machines (SVM) proposed by Cortes and Vapnik (Cortes and Vapnik, 1995). On the other track, tensor methods allow direct processing of the multi-dimensional patterns, such as images, video streams, etc. The methods were developed in sixties, although their application in signal processing was started by de Lathauwer (de Lathauwer, 1997). Since then, many tensor based methods were developed for pattern classification, such as for instance tensor faces (Vasilescu and Terzopoulos, 2002, Cyganek, 2010). However, since the well-known kernel functions are defined over one-dimensional vector spaces, whereas the tensor methods assume multi-dimensional objects, it is not straightforward to find functions that are Hilbert kernels and directly operate with the tensor objects. Nevertheless, recent research on the concept of the principal angles between subspaces (Ham, 2005), as well as distances on the Grassmannian manifolds led to development of kernels that can operate with tensor objects. Based on the works by Hamm Signoretto et al. proposed a chordal tensor that can operate with tensor and showed their superior abilities in signal and video processing (Signoretto et al., 2011). A version of the chordal tensor, but operating on slightly different subspaces, was proposed by Liu et al. (Liu et al. 2013). Both chordal versions are based on a sequence of singular value decompositions (SVD) applied to the unfolded matrices obtained from the input tensors. This way two versions of the chordal tensor are obtained: the S-subspace and D-subspace type, respectively. This will be further explained in this paper. The chordal tensor was analyzed by Cyganek et al. (Cyganek et al. 2015) in broad group of pattern classification tasks. These works showed very good accuracy of this approach. However, direct computation of the chordal tensor is burdened with high computational costs.

To solve this problem we proposed a number of improvements. In our previous work (Cyganek et al. 2016) a fast eigenvalue computation algorithm was proposed which allows fast computation of the chordal kernel based on the so called S-spaces.
However, it was not shown how to use this algorithm for the D-spaces. In this paper we address this problem and show its solution which constitutes the main contribution.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 presents a short introduction to kernel methods operating on tensor subspaces. In Section 3 we present methods of efficient computations of the chordal kernels. Section 3.1 briefly outlines fast computation of the S-subspace chordal distance, which was presented in our previous work (Cyganek et al. 2016). On the other hand, Section 3.2 introduces a novel approach to the computation of the D-subspace chordal distance. This is the main contribution of this paper. The paper ends with discussion of implementation and experimental results, as shown in Section 4. Finally, Section 5 contains conclusions and directions of further work.

2 INTRODUCTION TO KERNELS ON TENSOR SUBSPACES

The presented in this paper chordal kernel allows direct computation of the kernel function directly out of the tensor objects. As shown by many authors, application of the high dimensional tensor methods and kernels, in many domains leads to superior results (Signoretto et al. 2011, Liu et al. 2013, Cyganek et al. 2015). In this section we present only a brief outline of the chordal kernel and tensor methods. However, further details can be found in the aforementioned publications.

The chordal kernel tensor, which is the main subject of this paper, relies on computation of the chordal distance, which is defined on the spaces spanned by the unfolded representations of the two tensors. In order to come to the proper expressions, let us briefly recall basic facts on tensor algebra (for a more complete description see papers by Lathauwer, Kolda, Cichocki, Cyganek). A tensor is defined as follows

\[ \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_1 \times N_2 \times \ldots \times N_L}, \]

which can be seen as an \( L \)-dimensional cube of real data; Its dimensions correspond to different factors of the measurements. A \( j \)-th flattening, or unfolding, of a tensor \( \mathbf{A} \) is a matrix defined as follows

\[ \mathbf{A}^{(j)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_j \times (N_1 \times \ldots \times \hat{N}_j \times \ldots \times N_L)}, \]

where columns of \( \mathbf{A}^{(j)} \) are the \( j \)-mode vectors of \( \mathbf{A} \).

Let us notice, that \( j \) in the above denotes a row index of \( \mathbf{A}^{(j)} \). On the other hand, column index is a product of all the rest \( L-1 \) indices of the tensor \( \mathbf{A} \) (Cichocki, 2009) (Lathauwer, 1997) (Lathauwer, 2000) (Cyganek, 2013). Having defined the \( \mathbf{A}^{(j)} \) flattening of the tensor \( \mathbf{A} \) let us compute its SVD decomposition, as follows

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbf{A}^{(j)} &= \mathbf{S}^{(j)} \mathbf{V}^{(j)} \mathbf{D}^{(j)} \mathbf{T}^{(j)} = \\
&= \begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)} & \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{A},2}^{(j)} \\
0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)} & 0 \\
0 & \mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{A},2}^{(j)}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)} \\
\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{A},2}^{(j)}
\end{bmatrix},
\end{align*}
\]

Further on, let us observe that columns of \( \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)} \) and columns of \( \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)} \) constitute orthogonal bases, called the D-space and S-space, respectively. Both correspond to the ranges of \( \mathbb{R}^{{\mathbf{A}^{(j)}}} \) and \( \mathbb{R}^{{\mathbf{A}^{(j)}}} \), respectively. Based on this observation, two types of projectors can be defined, as follows (Cyganek, 2016)

\[
\mathbf{P}_{{\mathbf{A}^{(j)}}} = \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)} \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)\mathsf{T}},
\]

as well as

\[
\mathbf{P}_{{\mathbf{A}^{(j)}}} = \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)} \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)\mathsf{T}}.
\]

The two above projectors directly lead to the two chordal distances and chordal kernels, respectively, as follows (Signoretto et al. 2011)

\[
K^1(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}) = \prod_{j=1}^L \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left\| \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)} \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)\mathsf{T}} - \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{B},1}^{(j)} \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{B},1}^{(j)\mathsf{T}} \right\|^2 \right),
\]

and (Liu et al. 2013)

\[
K^2(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}) = \prod_{j=1}^L \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left\| \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)} \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{A},1}^{(j)\mathsf{T}} - \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{B},1}^{(j)} \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{B},1}^{(j)\mathsf{T}} \right\|^2 \right).
\]

In one of our previous papers on this subject we investigated properties of the kernel (6), showing its superior performance in many classification tasks of the visual objects (Cyganek et al. 2014). However, the computational burden was very high and the subsequent research led to development of new fast computation methods of the kernel (7) (Cyganek et al. 2016), and finally to the kernel (6) (this paper).
3 EFFICIENT COMPUTATION OF THE CHORDAL KERNELS

The previous discussion has shown that computation of the two types of the chordal kernel requires a number of decompositions of the unfolding matrices obtained from the input tensor. A more detailed investigation shows that this is the main bottleneck of the whole method. Therefore, a faster algorithm would help in this respect. Algorithm 1 presents such an algorithm which is based on the work by Bingham and Hyvärinen (Bingham and Hyvärinen, 2000). This is the fast eigen-decomposition based on the fixed point theorem, which allows alleviation of the much slower full SVD decomposition algorithm (Golub and van Loan, 1996). However, contrary to the latter, the Algorithm 1 requires a symmetric matrix on its input. In the next sections we show how to fulfill this requirements when computing the S-space, as well as the D-space versions of the chordal distance, respectively. The latter constitutes the main contribution of this paper.

Algorithm 1. Fast eigen-decomposition of a symmetrical matrix

Input – a symmetric matrix $C$, a number of eigenvectors $k_{\text{max}}$, a threshold $\rho_{\text{th}}$.
Output – $k_{\text{max}}$ first eigenvectors of $C$.

Random initialize vector $e_0^{(i)}$.

$k \leftarrow 0$

for $k < k_{\text{max}}$


do

$k \leftarrow 0$

for $k < k_{\text{max}}$


do $i \leftarrow 1$


do

$e_i^{(i)} \leftarrow C e_{k-1}^{(i)}$

G-S orthogonalization:

$e_i^{(i)} \leftarrow e_i^{(i)} - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (e_i^{(j)} e_j) e_j$

Normalize vector: $e_i^{(i)} \leftarrow \frac{e_i^{(i)}}{\|e_i^{(i)}\|}$

$\rho = \left| e_i^{(i)} e_i^{(i)-1} - 1 \right|$

$i \leftarrow i + 1$

while $\rho > \rho_{\text{th}}$

end for

end for

After finding the $k_{\text{max}}$ leading eigenvectors, the corresponding eigenvalues are computed as follows (Cyganek et al. 2016)

$$\lambda_i = e_i^T A e_i.$$  \hfill (8)

The method computes the $k_{\text{max}}$ leading eigenvectors of a symmetric matrix $C$. However, the algorithm is iterative. Nevertheless, in practice it converges fast. Also, on its input, the threshold $\rho_{\text{th}}$, which controls a degree of orthogonality of the vectors, must be provided. Detailed discussion of the steps of the above algorithm is presented in our previous publication (Cyganek et al. 2016). In the next two subsections we provide details on efficient computation of the both S and D subspaces, respectively, which constitute the core of computations of both types of the chordal kernel for tensor data.

3.1 Efficient Computation of the S-Subspace

A method of efficient computation of the S-space based on the fast eigen-decomposition algorithm was proposed in our previous work (Cyganek 2016). Here, for completeness, we recall the main steps of this derivation.

In this case, we arrive to the following computation

$$C_S = A^{(j)} A^{(j)} = S^{(j)} V \Pi S^{(j)} S^{(j)},$$  \hfill (9)

where $A^{(j)}$ denotes the $j$-th flattening matrix of the input tensor. In the following we will skip the superscript $(j)$ from for clarity. Thus, the product $C_S = AA^T$ in (9) is always symmetric and, for majority of tensors used in real cases, it contains much less elements than the matrix $A$ alone. Thus, $C_S$ can be directly used with the Algorithm 1 for computation of the S-type chordal kernel of tensor data.

3.2 Efficient Computation of the D-Subspace

As alluded to previously, computation of the chordal kernel in accordance with the proposition of Signoretto et al. requires computation of a series of D subspace matrices, from the decompositions of the two input tensors of this kernel. In this case, to come
with a symmetric matrix and to employ the Algorithm 1, the following derivation is proposed. In this case, starting from (3) the following is obtained

\[ A^{T(j)} A^{(j)} = D^{T(j)} V^{(j)} D^{(j)}. \] (10)

However, computation of the \( D \) matrix based on (10) from the series of unfolded tensor matrices, in most of the cases would be inefficient due their much larger number of columns than rows, i.e. \( N \neq M \). Therefore in this case we propose to proceed slightly different, taking as a starting point eigen-decomposition of the \( AA^T \), exactly as in (9). In this case, computation of the eigenvectors can be stated as follows

\[ AA^T e_k = \mu_k e_k. \] (11)

where \( e_k \) denote \( k \)-th eigenvector and \( \mu_k \) its corresponding eigenvalue. Since \( AA^T \) is of dimensions \( N \times N \), there is at most \( N \) eigenvectors \( e_k \), i.e. \( k \leq N \). For clarity, in the above formula we also skipped the superscript \((j)\) from (9). Solution to (11) can be efficient, since the product \( AA^T \) is a symmetric matrix of relatively small size.

Now, left multiplying (11) by \( A^T \) yields

\[ A^T AA^T e_k = \mu_k A^T e_k. \] (12)

which can be interpreted as follows

\[ \left( \begin{array}{c} A^T A \\ e_k \end{array} \right) = \mu_k \left( \begin{array}{c} A^T e_k \end{array} \right) . \] (13)

So, we see that the vectors \( q_k \) are eigenvectors of the matrix \( \Xi = A^T A \) of dimensions \( M \times M \), thus they provide columns of the sought matrix \( D \) in (10) without explicit computation of the \( A^T A \), however. Thus, to find out \( q_k \) the following product

\[ q_k = A^T e_k \] (14)

needs to be computed. If we consider all possible eigenvectors \( q_k \), the following matrix is obtained

\[ Q = A^T E, \] (15)

where columns of the matrices \( Q \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N} \) and \( E \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N} \) constitute eigenvectors \( q_k \) and \( e_k \), respectively.

Since \( q_k \) are eigenvectors of the symmetric matrix \( \Xi = A^T A \), they are orthogonal. However, in general case they do not need to be orthonormal. Thus, the last step is to normalize columns of the matrix \( Q \) in (15), so the Frobenius norm of each of them is 1. Thus, an estimate of the \( N \) eigenvectors of the matrix \( D_{A^{(j)}} \) in (3) is obtained as follows

\[ D_{A^{(j)}} = \bar{Q}, \] (16)

where \( \bar{Q} \) is a column normalized version of the matrix \( Q \) in (15). It is worth noticing however, that the rank of the matrix \( D_{A^{(j)}} \) never exceeds \( N \). Thus, the above procedure is exact up to the numerical errors associated with matrix multiplications.

Summarizing, efficient computation of the matrix \( D_{A^{(j)}} \) proceeds as follows:

1. Compute the symmetric matrix \( C = AA^T \);
2. Compute eigenvectors \( e_k \) of \( C \) (see the previous section);
3. From \( e_k \), form matrix \( E \) and compute matrix \( Q \) in accordance with (15);
4. Normalize columns of \( Q \) and from (16) compute \( D_{A^{(j)}} \).

That is, in other words, efficient computation of \( D \)-type constitutes of two steps: computation of the eigenvectors exactly as in the \( S \)-type, then followed by one matrix multiplication and matrix normalization. In effect, both computations, i.e. of the \( D \)-type and \( S \)-type of the chordal kernel, can be almost identically efficiently computed, thanks to the fast eigen-decomposition and the \( D \)-type and \( S \)-type algorithms proposed in this paper.

\section{Implementation and Experimental Results}

All of the algorithms presented in this paper were implemented in C++ in the Microsoft Visual 2015 Studio. The experiments were run on a computer endowed with the Intel® Core™ i7-4800MQ CPU @2.7GHz, 32GB RAM, and OS 64-bit Windows 7. The input tensors were two video objects created from the images of the Georgia Tech Face Database of the two persons shown in Figure 1. Both tensors used for testing were of dimensions \( 181 \times 241 \times 3 \times 5 \), i.e. these were composed of 5 color frames. Figure 2 depicts execution times of the full SVD decomposition compared to the fixed-point
version for the D-subspace tensor kernels for the video streams shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Two video streams composed of the frames from the Georgia Tech Face Database which constitute two 4D tensors used to compute chordal kernels.

Figure 2: Comparison of execution time of the full SVD decomposition and the fixed-point version for the D-subspace tensor kernels of size 181x241x3x5.

Observing Figure 2 it becomes evident that the obtained with our method speed up ratio is an order of magnitude faster compared to the full SVD decomposition. On the other hand, there are no significant differences in computation speed between the D-space and S-space, computed with the fixed point algorithm proposed in this paper.

It is also in order to compare computation accuracy between the full SVD decomposition in relation to the proposed fixed point approximation of a number of leading eigenvectors. Results of this computations are shown in Figure 3.

Although the error is different for a different number of eigenvectors, the total error does not exceed 5e-08 which is well accepted in many applications.

5 CONCLUSIONS

This paper extends and completes the method proposed in our previous work (Cyganek 2016) by providing a method of efficient computation of the chordal kernel for tensor data from the respective D sub-spaces of the input tensors. We show two efficient algorithms for computation of both versions of the chordal kernel operating on tensor data. This type of kernels opens new way of classifying tensor (multi-dimensional) objects, such as images, video streams, etc. with the broad category of kernel methods, such as SVM or KPCA. Our experimental results showed that the achieved speed up ration in an order of magnitude thanks to the proposed methodology. Further investigation will focus upon observing further properties of the two types of the chordal kernels, as well as upon development of new kernels capable of operation with tensor objects.

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