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CSEP 521 FINAL PROJECT

Practical Applications of RPCA

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1 Abstract

In this paper we analyze the performance of PCA and robust PCA on datasets that are artificially made noisy. In particular, we use a method[2] which attempts to decompose the corrupted matrix into a low rank and a sparse component. The low rank component can then be used to recover the principal components for the data being analyzed. We attempt this on facial data (to recover eigenfaces) and on video data (as background recovery) and examine the performance of Robust PCA for each of these applications.

2 Introduction

2.1 PCA

$$PCA(M,k) = \arg\min_{M'}(||M - M'||_F) \mid rank(M') \le k$$

Principle Component Analysis[4] (or PCA) is the attempt to approximate a matrix M with a nearby (in the Frobenius norm) low rank matrix M'. As a reminder, the rank of a matrix M is the number of independent vectors that are needed to recreate the columns of the matrix, and the Frobenius norm of a matrix is a generalization of the euclidean norm for vectors, where $||A||_F = \sqrt{\sum_{a_{i,j} \in A} |a_{i,j}|^2}$.

When the columns of the matrix we are performing PCA on represent a series of measurements (usually with the average subtracted out), with PCA we are essentially trying to decompose the measurements into linear independent 'hidden variables'. If we have reason to believe that our measurements are the result of a smaller subset of independent variables, PCA gives us the tools needed to find the best set of these variables.

PCA would not be useful if it were costly to compute, but thankfully, the problem formulation listed above is intimately related to a common operation in the analysis of matrices, that is: the Singular Value Decomposition. The Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) problem is a problem with the goal of decomposing a matrix into $M = U\Sigma V^*$, where U and V are unitary matrices ($UU^* = I$ and $V^*V = I$) and Σ is a real diagonal matrix with the entries sorted. While the factorization may not be unique, the diagonal matrix is, and it can be shown that the best k-rank approximation of a matrix M can be found as $M' = U\Sigma'V^*$ where Σ' is the diagonal matrix Σ with all entries $\sigma_{i,i} = 0$ for i > k. It suffices here to say that the SVD problem is well studied, and that solutions

can be found quite quickly in $O(mn^2)$ time for an $m \times n$ matrix. Probabilistic methods exist which can perform even faster when $k \ll m, n$.

2.2 Robust PCA

Robust PCA[2] is an extension of PCA to the domain of corrupted data. PCA can quite easily recognize data where redundancy in the information of the data points exists, but it does not properly account for the fact that the collection of data itself may be lossy. One circumstance in which PCA fails is where significant outliers exist in the data, where the inclusion of a single dramatic outlier may have a dramatic impact on the estimated principal components. In a world where massive amounts of data exist to be sample, but where the quality of the data may very significantly, a variation on PCA which incorporates robustness to these problems adds significant utility when analyzing data with the intent of discovering low rank approximations.

In the paper "Robust principal component analysis?" [2] such a method is outlined, called Principal Component Pursuit (PCP). PCP breaks down the finding of the solution into decomposing a given matrix M into two components L and S via the equation:

$$L, S = \underset{L, S}{\arg \min}(||L||_* + \lambda ||S||_1) \mid L + S = M$$

where $||A||_*$ is the nuclear norm, defined as the sum of the singular values of M, or $\sum_{\sigma \in SVD(M)} \sigma$, and $||A||_1$ is the sum of the absolute values of the entries of A, or $\sum_{a_{i,j} \in A} |a_{i,j}|$. Amazingly, as part of the analysis the authors determine that there is a choice of parameter $\lambda = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ that succeeds with fairly high probability. To be specific this algorithm succeeds to capture the to perfectly capture the original matrices L and S with $P \geq 1 - \frac{c}{n^{10}}$ provided the conditions that (for an $n \times n$ matrix)

$$rank(L) \le \frac{p_r n}{\mu(log n)^2}$$
 and $m \le p_s n^2$

Here p_r and p_s are positive constants, μ is a measure of incoherence[3] (with small μ it is required that the significant values are not sparse), and m is the support set of the matrix S_0 (or equivalently, the number of nonzero entries in S_0). Interestingly, this shows that the number of corrupted entries can scale linearly with the size of the matrix, and that with a fixed μ , the rank of the low rank component L_0 can grow as $\frac{n}{\log(n)^2}$. Another interesting point to note is that while we have constraints on the number of corrupted

entries (the support set of S_0) we have no such constraints on how the data is corrupted (that is, it could be corrupted with arbitrarily large absolute value errors). When in fact our goal in many circumstances is to recover a fixed low rank approximation from a large amount of (probabilistically corrupted) data, these constraints work perfectly!

However one difficulty with this algorithm is that, while provably able to separate low rank from sparse data, it has not performed as successfully on real world data, frequently taking a large number of iterations to complete. An alternative algorithm is described in [6], the Inexact Augment Lagrange Multiplier method. This algorithm has no proof of correctness, but uses a relaxed form of the constraints above. by solving the lagrangian problem:

$$F(L,S,Y,\mu) = ||L||_* + \lambda ||S||_1 + \langle Y, M - L - S \rangle + \frac{\mu}{2} ||M - L - S||_F^2$$

In addition, it uses an iterative approach towards updating the S and Y matrices that limits the number of SVD operations necessary for the algorithm to succeed. While this algorithm has not been proven correct, the fact that it is much faster in practice, and has been shown to converge in many practical demonstrations, we will use this algorithm when analyzing the performance of Robust PCA on our datasets. One important feature to note, is that it is recommended that μ_0 be set to $\frac{1.25}{||M||_2}$.

During the analysis section of this paper, we primarily used code obtained from [5], which is a translation of the MATLAB implementation of RPCA into numpy created by Kyle Kastner.

3 Potential Uses for Robust PCA

3.1 Facial Identification

One area we would like to investigate more thoroughly here, is the impact that Robust PCA has on the use of eigenfaces. Eigenfaces are the result of an attempt to use the low dimensional structure of facial images to create a small number of 'basis faces' that can be used to segment pictures of individuals, allowing identification of individuals based on a small number of projections. One property of image data in general that makes it quite amenable to PCA analysis is that the dimensions are naturally bounded (by 0 and 255 in most formats), meaning that no renormalization of particular dimensions needs to take place in order for PCA to find reasonable latent variables.

There is another property of facial data that makes it an attractive target for PCA: it has been shown that an idealized Lambertian convex surface (that is, a convex surface that has an ideal matte appearance) when displayed with arbitrary illuminations, lies on a 9 dimensional subspace[1]. While faces are neither perfectly Lambertian nor perfectly convex, the fact that they may be approximated as such lends credence to the idea that analyzing a particular face (or group of faces) may involve looking for low dimensional data underlying the apparently complex representation of the images themselves (which can be on the order of thousands or even millions of pixels).

Robust PCA has been shown to be capable of correctly identifying specularities in facial image data of a particular individual in the past[8]. As part of our research, we will attempt to determine whether Robust PCA lends itself to analyzing large data sets of facial data with many different lighting circumstances. If the promises of the approach are to be believed, it should be capable of recognizing the irregularities caused by these circumstances and correcting for them, allowing for more accurate eigenfaces to be collected once the sparse error component is eliminated.

3.2 Background / Foreground Segmentation of Videos

4 Metrics

The remainder of our paper will be spent analyzing the performance of Robust PCA relative to PCA on various data sets. In order to do so we would like to define a few metrics that would be useful when discussing the accuracy of Robust PCA in reproducing the original low rank matrix.

4.1 Frobenius error

One useful metric, and the one used by the original paper, was the metric $\frac{||L_0-L||_F}{||L_0||_F}$, where L_0 is the true low rank matrix, and L is the approximation that results from applying RPCA. This is a reasonable metric of the error of the approximation, as it is the sum of square errors of the approximation over the sum of squares of the values of the original matrix, giving a natural sense of 'how far' the resulting approximation lies from the true low rank matrix.

One difficulty with using this form of error, while it is the most common type used in papers discussing the Robust PCA problem, is that when using real world data, the true low rank matrix is not known, only the original matrix M. Replacing L_0 with M above results in the metric becomign $\frac{||E||_F}{||M||_F}$, or to restate another way, measures that the sum of the squares of the error matrix derived relative to the original matrix. This can be used to determine whether the Robust PCA algorithm has successfully found a relatively small error in it's decomposition, but does not give us much indication into how well it performed (that is, whether the low rank matrix obtained is truly indicative of the data underlying the metrics).

4.2 Clustering Metric

In the particular case of eigenfaces, one stated goal of the creation of the eigenfaces involved is to allow for easy recognition of particular people. As such, we could evaluate how well our eigenfaces perform based on how well they correctly cause images of the same person to be clustered close together. Let us call $v_1...v_k$ to be the projection of a particular image onto the first to the kth eigenface generated either Robust or standard PCA, which is a natural dimensionality reduction often used to analyze PCA performance.

We can evaluate how well our data is clustered within the projection by using the silhouette width[7] for the clusters in the new projected space. Assuming we have mapped each metric into the basis provided by the k eigenfaces (let us call these mapped vectors objects $o_1..o_m$), we can define our clusters $C_1..C_n$ to be the natural clusters formed when clustering all images of the same individual.

We can define $a(o_i)$ to be the average distance of the object o_i within it's cluster, $b(o_i)$ to the minimum over all other clusters of average distance to that cluster, and the silhouette distance for that object to be the difference of those measures over the maximum.

$$a(o_i) = \frac{1}{|C_{o_i}| - 1} \sum_{o_j \in C_{o_i}, o_j \neq o_i} d(o_i, o_j)$$

$$b(o_i) = \min_{C_B \neq C_{o_i}} \frac{1}{|C_B|} \sum_{o_j \in C_B} d(o_i, o_j)$$

$$sil(o_i) = \frac{b(o_i) - a(o_i)}{\max a(o_i), b(o_i)}$$

Then, the silhouette width of the a cluster is naturally defined as the average silhouette width of the objects within it, and the width of the entire clustering to be the average over its clusters.

$$sil(C_i) = \frac{1}{|C_i|} \sum_{o_j \in C_i} sil(o_j)$$

$$sil(C) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} sil(C_i)$$

We can plot this coefficient over the choice of number of eigenfaces for each process (PCA and Robust PCA, varying λ) in order to determine what method leads to the most natural clustering of faces into the correct groups.

References

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