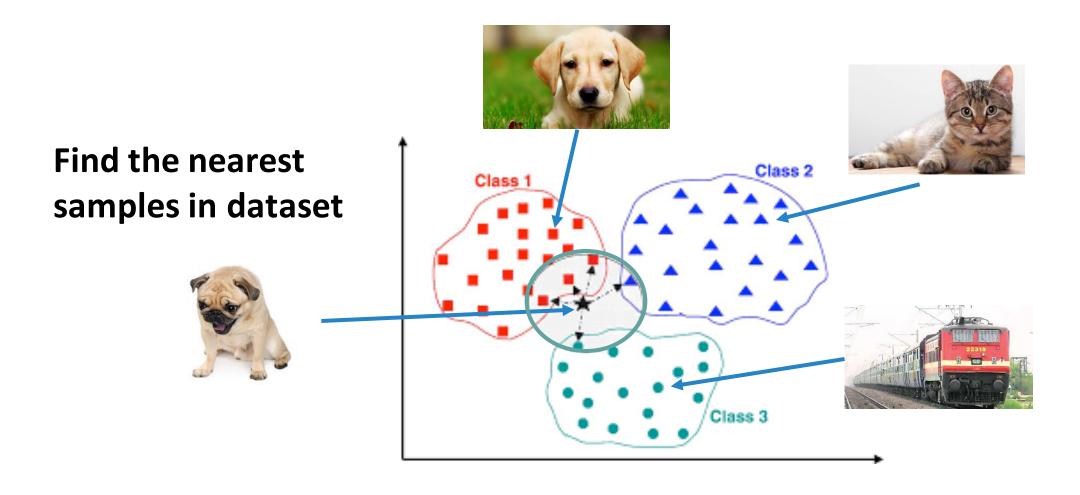
M1 Keisuke Fukuta



#### **Application**

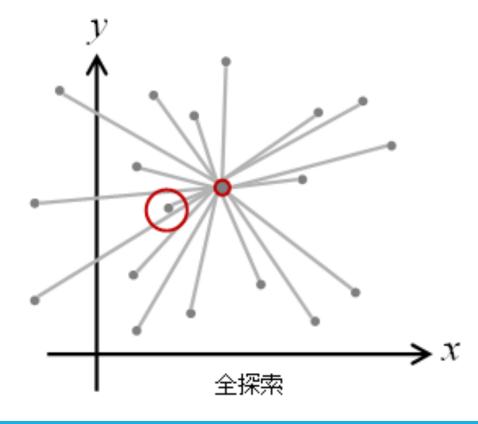
- Similar Image retrieval
- Feature matching

- Formulation
  - Data points  $X \subset R^D$ , input query  $q \in R^D$
  - $NN(q) = arg \min_{x \in X} d(x, q)$
  - Data num: N, data dim: D
- Distance d(x, y)
  - Minkowski distance  $d_P(x,y) = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{D} |x_i y_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$ 
    - d=2 -> Euclid Distance, d=1 -> Manhattan Distance
  - Cosine Similarity
  - Hamming Distance

### Linear Search

- Brute force search
- Calculate distances between query and all samples
- $\bullet$  O(DN)

If N >> 1, time-consuming or intractable Curses of dimentionality



# Approximate Nearest Neighbor Search

- To find the exact nearest sample is time-consuming (curses of dimensionality)
- → Approximate Nearest Neighbor

$$x \in X$$
 s.t.  $d(x,q) \le (1+\epsilon)d(v',q)$  for any  $v' \in X$ 

Memory, Speed, Accuracy is trade-off

### Approximate Nearest Neighbor Search

#### **Tree-based**

- kd-tree
  - Approximate kd-tree
  - Randomized kd-tree
- Hierarchial k-means
- FLANN (RKD & HKM)
- Ball-tree
- Vp-tree

#### Hash-based

- Locality sensitive hash (LSH)
- Spectral Hashing (SH)

- LVQ
- Product Quantization (PQ)
- IDFADC
- LOPQ

# KD-tree (k-dimensional tree)

#### Idea

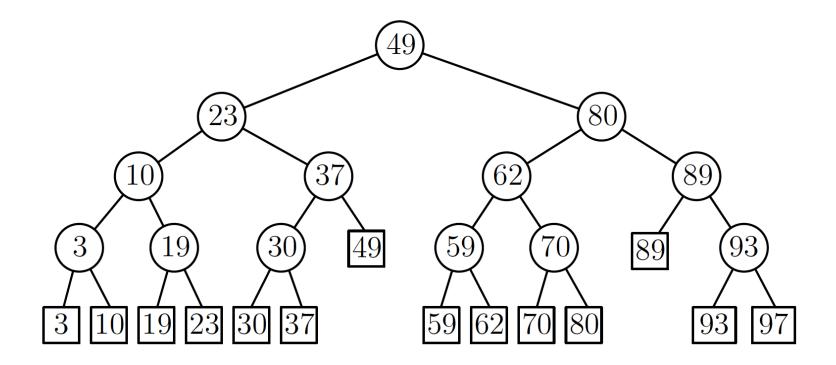
- Make good data structure beforehand
- → Utilize *binary tree*

Guess samples (region) which is likely to be the nearest

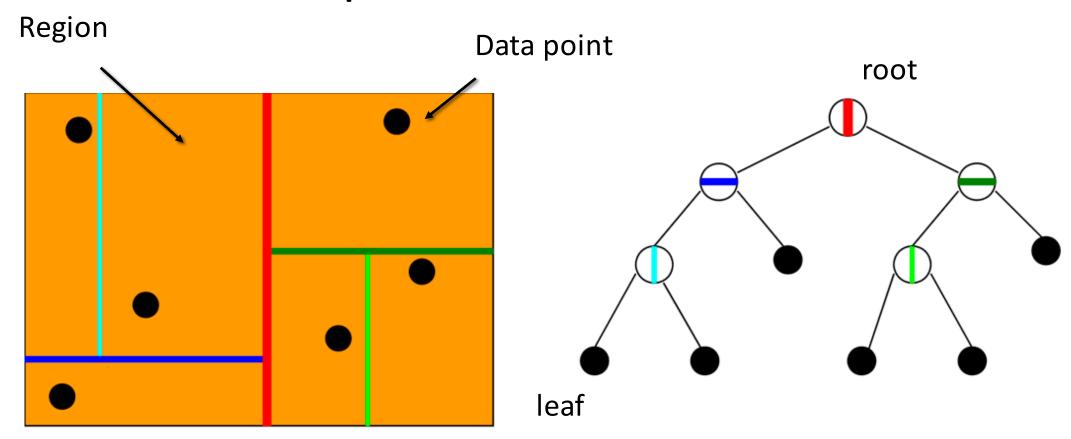
Verification to find the exact nearest

### **Binary Tree**

- Left node is smaller than parent
- Right node is bigger than parent



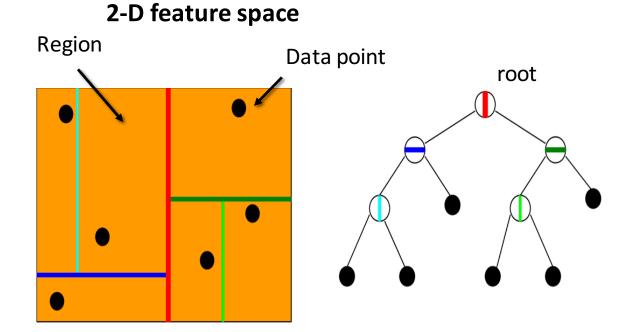
#### 2-D feature space



#### How to build tree ??

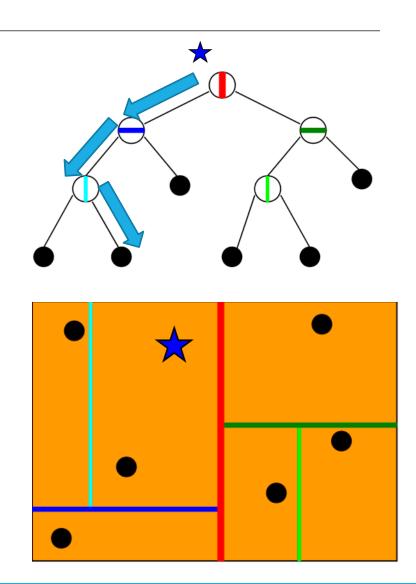
- 1. Choose axis whose variance is the largest
- 2. Split region with median
- 3. Repeat 1,2 in leaf nodes

(There are more smart splitting rule)



#### How to search?

- Binary Search
  - Find the region that contains input query with binary search



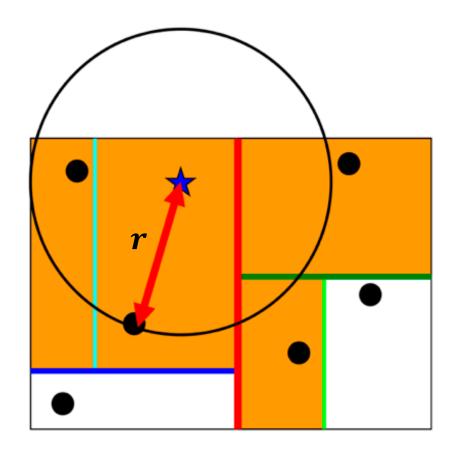
#### How to search?

#### 1. Binary Search

 Find the region that contains input query with binary search

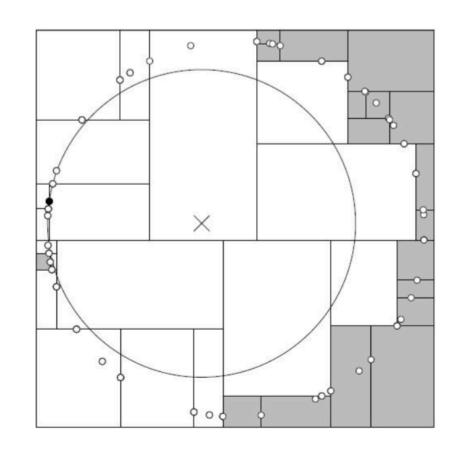
#### 2. Back track

- Find temporal solution within the region
- Find the region within r, and compare with temporal solution
- Traverse every region



•  $O(D \log_2 N)$  (for binary search)

- In some case, almost same as linear search (curses of dimensionality)
  - Worst case ->  $O(D N^{1-\frac{1}{D}})$
  - $N \gg 2^D$  is required



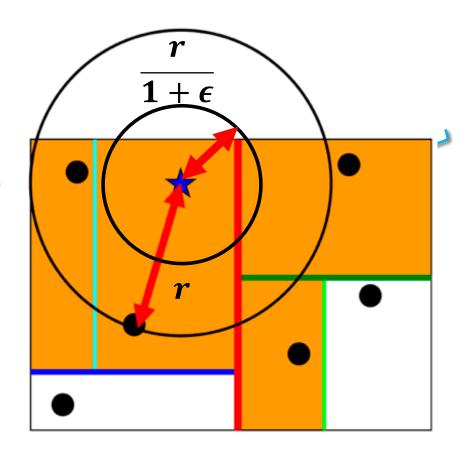
### Kd-tree

#### **Approximate kd-tree**

- Introduce approximate parameter  $\epsilon$ 
  - $\circ$  if  $\epsilon = 0$  -> equivalent to exact neighbor
- $d(x,q) \le (1+\epsilon) r_n (r_n : \text{the true nearest})$

#### Randomized kd-tree

Make m different trees



- Pros
  - Good accuracy
  - High speed

- Cons
  - Very slow in high dimension

# Approximate Nearest Neighbor Search

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- Hash
  - Hash function h(x)
  - · 0(1)
  - Ex. Str -> int

```
40
                                      22
                                               SIX
int hash(char *s) {
                             one
                                                       45
                                      46
                                               seven
                             two
    int i = 0;
                                              eight
                                                       29
                                      36
                             three
    while (*s) i += *s++;
                                              nine
                             four
                                      44
    return i%100;
                                               ten
                             five
                                      26
```

Collision

Locality Sensitive

$$d(v,q) \le r_1 \Rightarrow \Pr[h(q) = h(v)] \ge p_1$$
  
$$d(v,q) > r_2 \Rightarrow \Pr[h(q) = h(v)] < p_2$$

Hash function h(x) depends on distance metrics

- Hamming distance
- $L_p$  distance
- Jaccard index
- Cosine similarity

Example: Hamming Distance

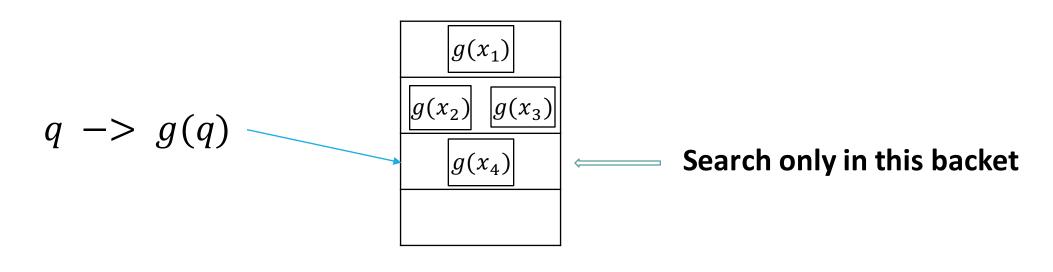
- $\rightarrow$  Hamming distance  $d(p_1; q) = 1$ ,  $d(p_2; q) = 2$

- h(x): randomly choose i and return i-th bit of input
- -> h(x) is locally sensitive

$$P[h(p) = h(q)] = 1 - \frac{d(p, q)}{D}$$

• Prepare 
$$g(v) = \begin{bmatrix} h_1(v) \\ h_2(v) \\ \vdots \\ h_k(v) \end{bmatrix}$$

Translate data points to hash X -> g(X)



Hash table

- Pros
  - High-speed
  - Able to determine approximation or performance theoretically

- Cons
  - Probabilistic search -> low accuracy

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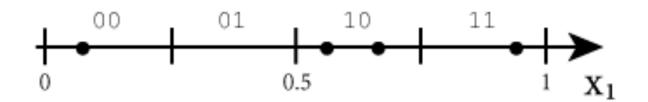
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- Product Quantization (PQ)
- IDFADC
- LOPQ

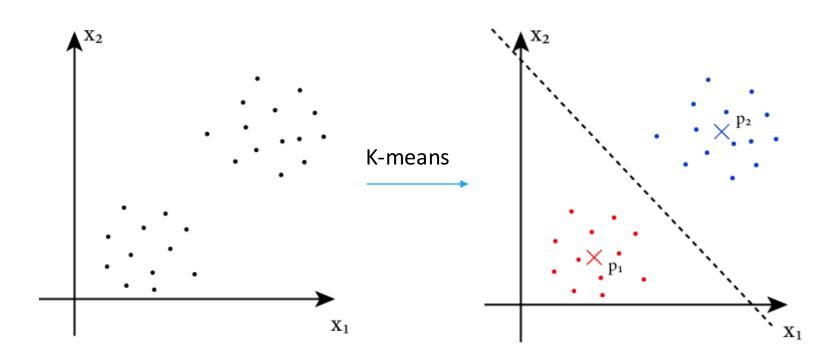
Ex. 
$$N = 10^9$$
,  $D = 128$ ,  $float32 \rightarrow 512GB$ 

Ex. 
$$N = 10^9$$
,  $32bit \rightarrow 4GB$ 

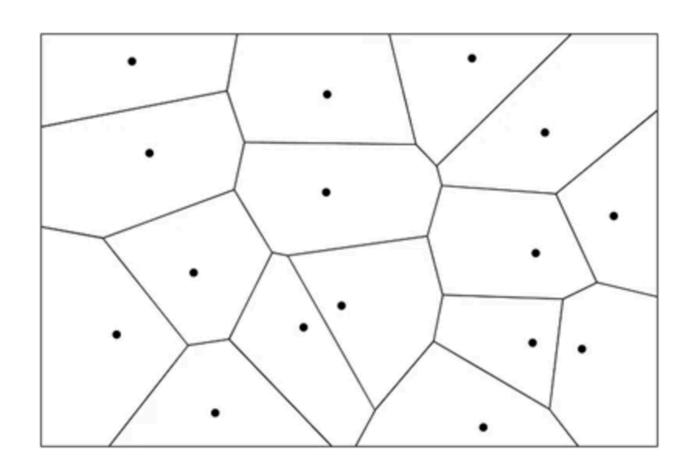
- Scalar Quantization
  - Ex. Float 32 bit -> 2bit

- Vector Quantization
  - Representative vectors
  - (float, float) -> 1bit
  - Code book size k-> log<sub>2</sub> k bit





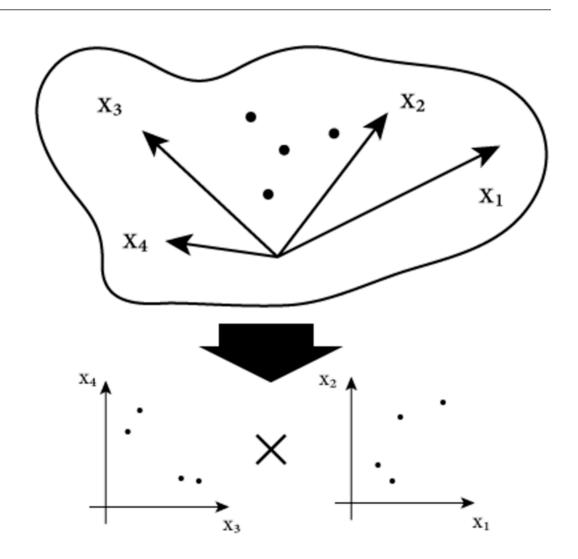
# Voronoi diagram



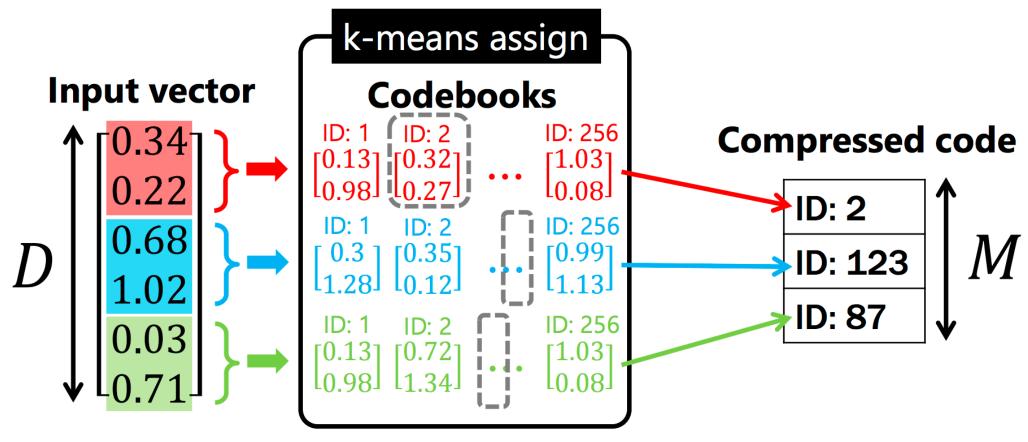
 $\mathbf{k} \propto exp(D)$ 

**Cannot apply to high dimension** 

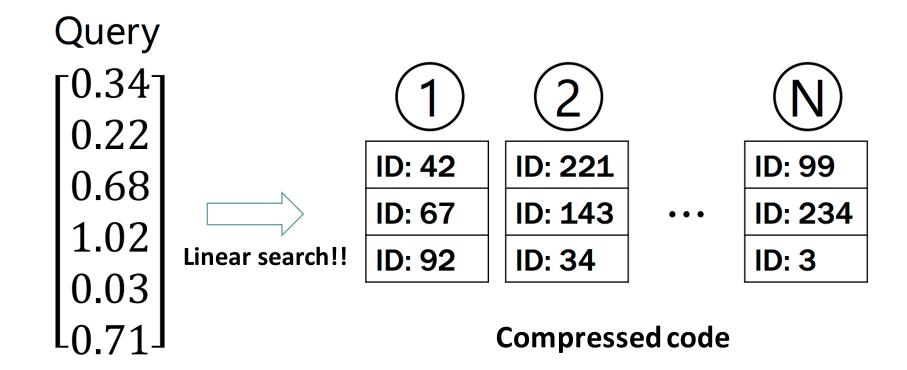
- Divide into sub-vector
- Product (not tensor-product)

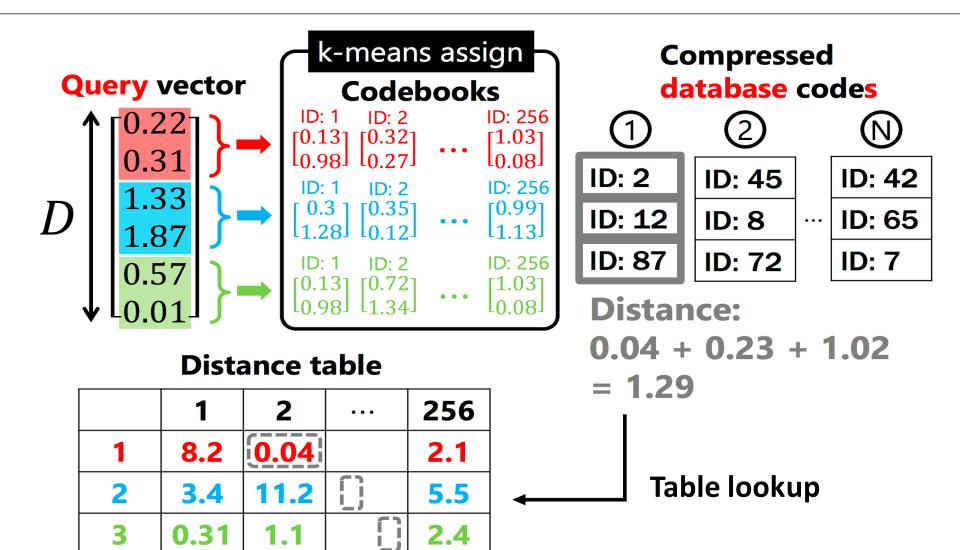


Divide into sub-vector and k-means in each sub-vectors



http://yusukematsui.me/project/survey\_pq/doc/ann\_lecture\_20161202.pdf





- Simple
- Memory efficient
- Precise Approximation
  - divide into  $256^M$  (code book size: 256 \* D, VQ:  $256^M * D$ )

- But, still O(N) (linear search)
- -> combine with coarse quantization beforehand
- -> apply PQ to residual of representative vector and input vector

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