

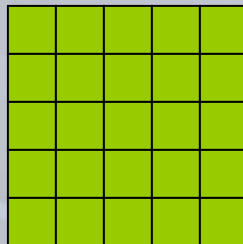
Tensors and Component Analysis

Musawir Ali

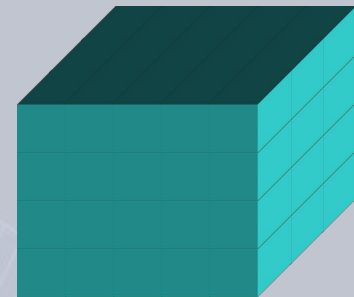
Tensor: Generalization of an n-dimensional array



Vector: order-1 tensor



Matrix: order-2 tensor

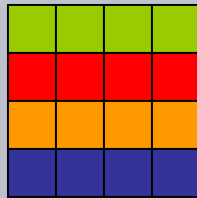


Order-3 tensor

Reshaping Tensors

Matrix to vector

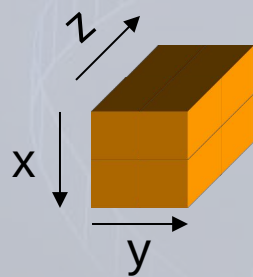
“Vectorizing” a matrix



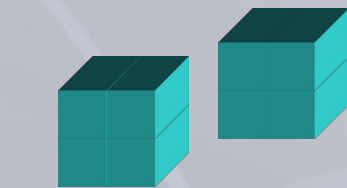
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Reshaping Tensors

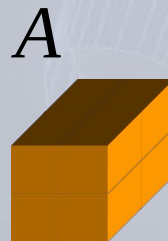


Order-3 tensor to matrix
“Flattening” an order-3 tensor



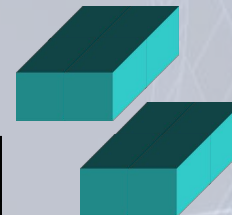
1,1,1	2,1,1	1,1,2	2,1,2
1,2,1	2,2,1	1,2,2	2,2,2

$A_{(2)}$



$A_{(1)}$

1,1,1	1,1,2	1,2,1	1,2,2
2,1,1	2,1,2	2,2,1	2,2,2



$A_{(3)}$

1,1,1	1,2,1	2,1,1	2,2,1
1,1,2	1,2,2	2,1,2	2,2,2

n-Mode Multiplication

Multiplying Matrices and order-3 tensors

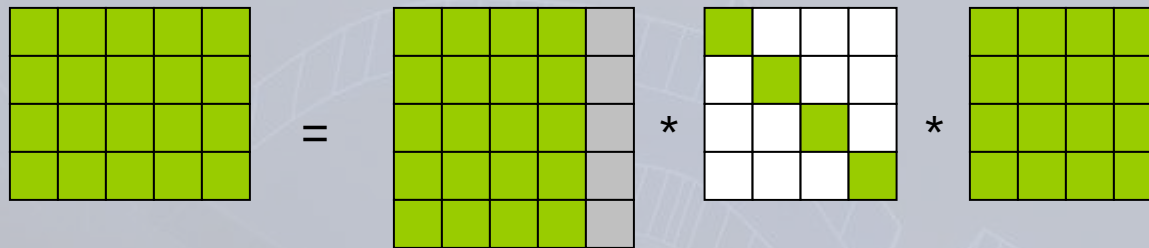
$$A \times_n M = M A_{(n)}$$

Multiplying a tensor A with matrix M

A is flattened over dimension n (permute dimensions so that the dimension n is along the columns, and then flatten), and then regular matrix multiplication of matrix M and flattened tensor $A_{(n)}$ is performed

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

SVD of a Matrix



$$M = U S V^T$$

U and V are orthogonal matrices, and S is a diagonal matrix consisting of singular values.

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

SVD of a Matrix: observations

$$M = U S V^T$$

Multiply both sides by M^T

Multiplying on the left

$$M^T M = (U S V^T)^T U S V^T$$

$$M^T M = (V S U^T) U S V^T$$

$$U^T U = I$$

$$M^T M = V S^2 V^T$$

Multiplying on the right

$$M M^T = U S V^T (U S V^T)^T$$

$$M M^T = U S V^T (V S U^T)$$

$$V^T V = I$$

$$M M^T = U S^2 U^T$$

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

SVD of a Matrix: observations

$$M^T M = V S^2 V^T$$

← diagonalizations →

$$M M^T = U S^2 U^T$$

Diagonalization of a Matrix: (finding eigenvalues)

$$A = W \Lambda W^T$$

where:

- A is a square, symmetric matrix
- Columns of W are eigenvectors of A
- Λ is a diagonal matrix containing the eigenvalues

Therefore, if we know U (or V) and S, we basically have found out the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of $M M^T$ (or $M^T M$) !

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

What is PCA?

- Analysis of n-dimensional data
- Observes correspondence between different dimensions
- Determines principal dimensions along which the variance of the data is high

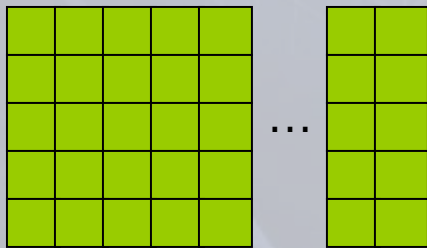
Why PCA?

- Determines a (lower dimensional) basis to represent the data
- Useful compression mechanism
- Useful for decreasing dimensionality of high dimensional data

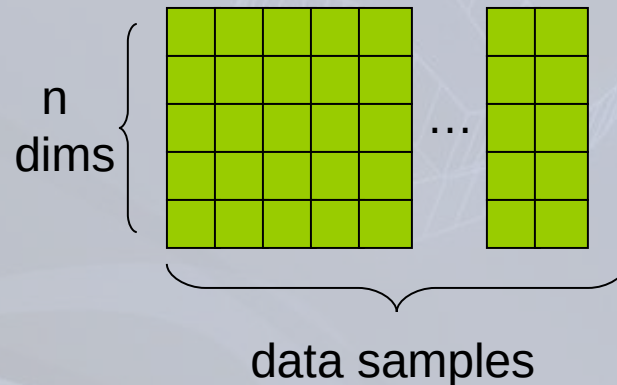
Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Steps in PCA: #1 Calculate Adjusted Data Set

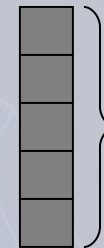
Adjusted Data Set: A



Data Set: D



Mean values: M

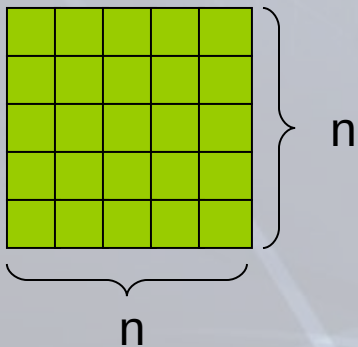


M_i is calculated by taking the mean of the values in dimension i

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Steps in PCA: #2 Calculate Co-variance matrix, C, from Adjusted Data Set, A

Co-variance Matrix: C



$$C_{ij} = \text{cov}(i,j)$$

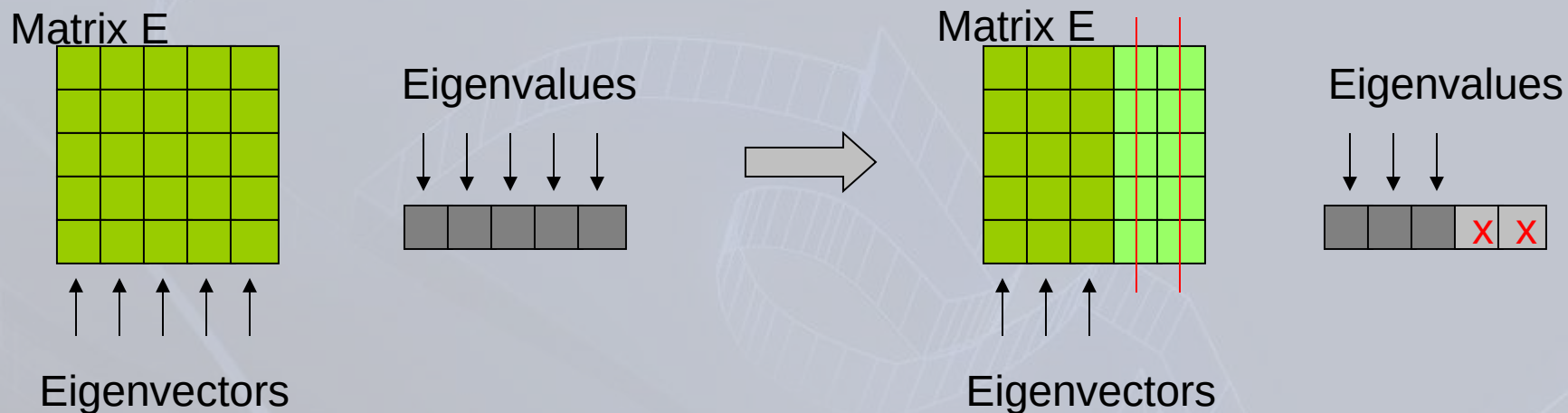
$$\text{cov}(X, Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{(n - 1)}$$

Note: Since the means of the dimensions in the adjusted data set, A, are 0, the covariance matrix can simply be written as:

$$C = (A A^T) / (n-1)$$

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Steps in PCA: #3 Calculate eigenvectors and eigenvalues of C



If some eigenvalues are 0 or very small, we can essentially discard those eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors, hence reducing the dimensionality of the new basis.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Steps in PCA: #4 Transforming data set to the new basis

$$F = E^T A$$

where:

- F is the transformed data set
- E^T is the transpose of the E matrix containing the eigenvectors
- A is the adjusted data set

Note that the dimensions of the new dataset, F , are less than the data set A

To recover A from F :

$$(E^T)^{-1}F = (E^T)^{-1}E^T A$$

$$(E^T)^T F = A$$

$$EF = A$$

* E is orthogonal, therefore $E^{-1} = E^T$

PCA using SVD

Recall: In PCA we basically try to find eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the covariance matrix, C . We showed that $C = (AA^T) / (n-1)$, and thus finding the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of C is the same as finding the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of AA^T

Recall: In SVD, we decomposed a matrix A as follows:

$$A = U S V^T$$

and we showed that:

$$AA^T = U S^2 U^T$$

where the columns of U contain the eigenvectors of AA^T and the eigenvalues of AA^T are the squares of the singular values in S

Thus SVD gives us the eigenvectors and eigenvalues that we need for PCA

N-Mode SVD

Generalization of SVD

Order-2 SVD:



Written in terms of mode-n product:

By definition of mode-n multiplication:

$$D = U S V^T$$

$$D = S x_1 U x_2 V$$

$$D = U (V S_{(2)})_{(1)}$$

$$D = U (V S)^T$$

$$D = U S^T V^T$$

$$D = U S V^T$$

Note: $S^T = S$ since S is a diagonal matrix

Note: $D = S x_1 U x_2 V = S x_2 V x_1 U$

N-Mode SVD

Generalization of SVD

Order-3 SVD:



$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{Z} \times_1 \mathbf{U}_1 \times_2 \mathbf{U}_2 \times_3 \mathbf{U}_3$$

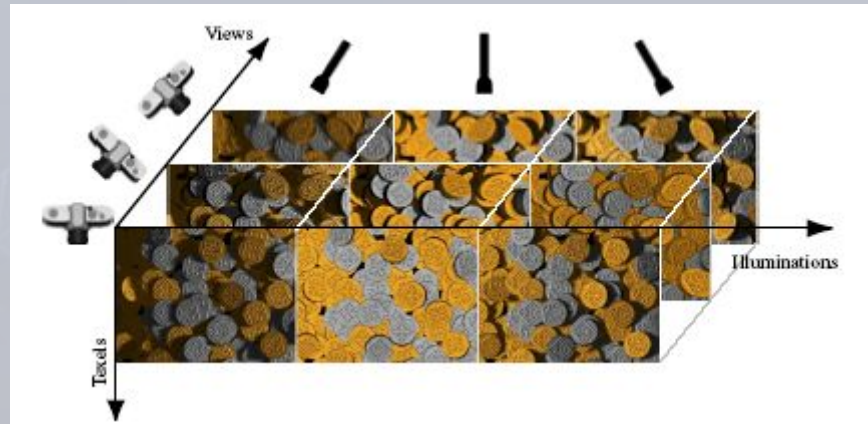
- \mathbf{Z} , the core tensor, is the counterpart of \mathbf{S} in Order-2 SVD
- \mathbf{U}_1 , \mathbf{U}_2 , and \mathbf{U}_3 are known as mode matrices

Mode matrix \mathbf{U}_i is obtained as follows:

- perform Order-2 SVD on $\mathbf{D}_{(i)}$, the matrix obtained by flattening the tensor \mathbf{D} on the i 'th dimension.
- \mathbf{U}_i is the leftmost (column-space) matrix obtained from the SVD above

PCA on Higher Order Tensors

Bidirectional Texture Function (BTF) as a Order-3 Tensor

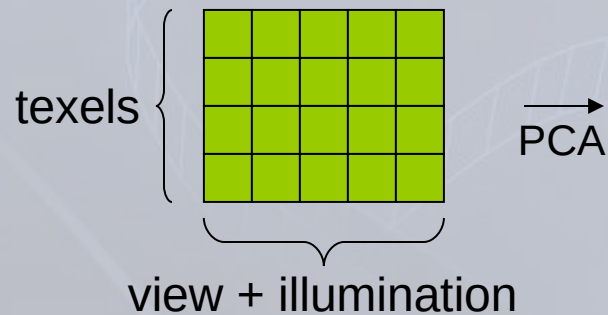


Changing illumination, changing view, and changing texels (position) along respective dimensions of the tensor

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{Z} \times_1 \mathbf{U}_t \times_2 \mathbf{U}_i \times_3 \mathbf{U}_v$$

PCA on Higher Order Tensors

Performing PCA on a Order-3 Tensor



U_t

- Transform data to new basis:

$$F = U_t^T A$$

where A is the data in original basis

- Retrieving/Rendering image:

$$T = Z x_1 U_t$$

$$\text{Image} = T x_1 F$$

TensorTextures

A cheaper equivalent of PCA: TensorTextures

PCA: $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{U}_t$



TensorTextures: $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{D} \mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{U}_i^T \mathbf{x}_3 \mathbf{U}_v^T$

Recall: $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{U}_t \mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{U}_i \mathbf{x}_3 \mathbf{U}_v$

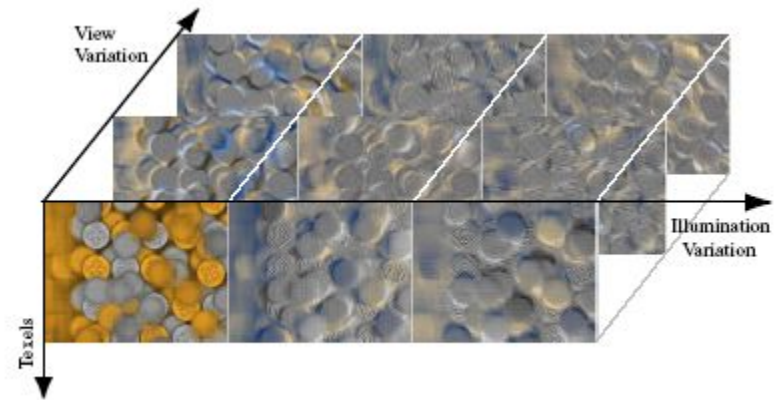
$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{U}_v (\mathbf{U}_i (\mathbf{U}_t \mathbf{Z}_{(1)})_{(2)})_{(3)}$$

$$\mathbf{D} = (\mathbf{U}_v \mathbf{U}_i) (\mathbf{U}_t \mathbf{Z}_{(1)})_{(2)}$$

$$(\mathbf{U}_v \mathbf{U}_i)^{-1} \mathbf{D}_{(2)} = \mathbf{U}_t \mathbf{Z}_{(1)}$$

$$(\mathbf{U}_i^T \mathbf{U}_v^T) \mathbf{D}_{(3)} = \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{U}_t$$

$$\mathbf{D} \mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{U}_i^T \mathbf{x}_3 \mathbf{U}_v^T = \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{U}_t$$



TensorTextures

Advantages of TensorTextures over PCA

PCA: $T = Z x_1 U_t$

TensorTextures: $T = D x_2 U_i^T x_3 U_v^T$

- Independent compression control of illumination and view in TensorTextures, whereas in PCA, the illumination and view are coupled together and thus change/compression of eigenvectors will effect both parameters.
- Images represented using fewer coefficients in TensorTextures.
 - PCA: $(v * i)$ basis vectors, each of size t
 - TensorTextures: $(v + i)$ basis vectors, of size v and i

where $v = \#$ of view directions, $i = \#$ of illumination conditions, and $t = \#$ of texels in each image used in the creation of the tensor

TensorTextures Compression vs PCA compression

(a) Original

(b) PCA

(c) TensorTexture

(d) TensorTexture



37 basis vectors
95.2% Compression

37 views, 1 illum : 37 basis vectors
95.2% Compression

2 views, 21 illums : 42 basis vectors
94.6% Compression

(e) PCA

(f) TensorTexture

(g) PCA

(h) TensorTexture



111 basis vectors
85.7% Compression

37 views, 3 illums : 111 basis vectors
85.7% Compression

124 basis vectors
84.0% Compression

31 views, 4 illums : 124 basis vectors
84.0% Compression

Notice that PCA has one set of basis vectors where as TensorTextures has two: one for illumination, and one for view. This enables selective compression to a desired level of tolerance of perceptual error