The University of Texas at Dallas

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Methodology

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Methodology
- 3 Our Implementation and Results
- 4 HLLE Extensions
- 6 Conclusion
- **6** References





- Introduction
- 3 Our Implementation and Results





Methodology

Introduction

There are several concrete situations related to image analysis and acoustics. Let's discuss the following image and acoustic analysis:

- Scene variation: Pose variation and facial gesturing.
- Image variation: Changes in lighting sources and in lighting colors.
- Acoustic articulation: Changes in sound source, direction of the sound.



Motivation continued...

Introduction

In all such situations, there is an underlying parameter controlling the articulation of the scene; here are two examples:

- Facial expression: The tonus of several facial muscles control facial expression. A parameter vector θ records the contradiction of each of those muscles.
- **Pose variations:** Several joint angles control the combined pose of the elbow-wrist-finger system in combination.

We are interested in recovering the underlying parameters θ_i from the observed points m_i on the articulation manifold M.



Parametrization

Introduction

Parametrization Recovery Problem: Given a collection of data points (m_i) on an articulation manifold M, recover the mapping ψ and the parameter points θ_i .

- If ψ is one solution, and $\psi: \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}^d$, the combined mapping $\psi \circ \phi$ is another solution.
- We need some extra assumptions to solve this problem and determine unique solutions.



Introduction

• **Isometry:** The mapping ψ preserves geodesic distances. That is, define a distance between two points m and m' on the manifold according to the distance traveled by a bug walking along the manifold M according to the shortest path between m and m'. Then the isometry assumption says that

$$G(m, m') = |\theta - \theta'|, \forall m \leftrightarrow \theta, m' \leftrightarrow \theta',$$

where |.| denotes Euclidean distance in \mathbb{R}^d

• Convexity: The parameter space Θ is a convex subset of \mathbb{R}^d . That is, if θ , θ' is a pair of points in Θ , then the entire line segment

$$(1-t)\theta + t\theta' : t \in (0,1)$$

lies in Θ .

Under, these assumptions, ISOMAP, introduced by Dr.

Tenenbaum et al.[1], which recovered Θ .

7 / 44

Validity of assumptions

Introduction

▶ The above-stated assumptions lead to two associated questions:

Q1 Do interesting articulation manifolds have isometric structure?

YES. For example, The author considered images of a ball on a white background, where the underlying articulation parameter is the position of the ball's center. Images m has been modeled as continuous function m(x, y) on the plane $(x,v)\in\mathbb{R}^2$. Let, $B_{ heta}$ denote the ball of radius 1 centered at $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^2$, and define

$$m_{\theta}(x, y) = 1_{B_{\theta}}(x, y)$$

If θ is a convex subset of \mathbb{R}^2 , then isometry holds.



Validity of assumptions

Introduction

Q2 Are interesting parameter spaces truly convex? NO.

A simple example occurs with images showing two balls that articulate by translation. The two balls never overlap. In this case, the parameter space $\Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^4$ becomes nonconvex.



Weaker assumptions

- Local isometry: In a small enough neighborhood of each point m, geodesic distances to nearby points m' in M are identical to Euclidean distances between the corresponding parameter points θ and θ'
- Connectedness: The parameter space Θ is an open, connected subset of \mathbb{R}^d

In such a setting, the original assumptions of **ISOMAP** are violated, and the method fails to recover the parameter space up to a linear mapping. In this article, Dr. Donoho proposed a procedure to solve this problem.



- 1 Introduction
- 2 Methodology
- 3 Our Implementation and Results





April 17, 2024

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- ▶ Dr. Donoho describes a method for recovering a low dimensional parametrization of high dimensional data by assuming that the data lie on a manifold M.
- ► The method, Hessian Locally Linear Embedding (HLLE) accomplishes linear embedding by minimizing the Hessian functional on the manifold that is locally isometric to an open, connected subset Θ of Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^d . This subset need not to be convex.



Methodology

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Notation

- Θ is a parameter space and $\Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^d$
- A smooth mapping $\psi: \Theta \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$
- \mathbb{R}^n is the embedding space obeys d < n
- m_i, i = 1, 2, ..., N are the data examples with different choices of control vectors θ_i, i = 1, 2, ..., N. We also enumerate m = ψ(θ) of all possible measurements as the parameters vary.
- M is the data manifold and we speak of the image $M = \psi(\Theta)$. All the data points m_i lie exactly in the manifold M.



Hessian Matrix

Methodology

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Let's $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function with input vector $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$. If $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$ and all second-order partial derivatives of f exist, then Hessian H of f is a square $n \times n$ matrix defined as

$$\mathsf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\delta^2 f}{\delta \mathsf{x}_1^2} & \frac{\delta^2 f}{\delta \mathsf{x}_1 \delta \mathsf{x}_2} & \cdots & \frac{\delta^2 f}{\delta \mathsf{x}_1 \delta \mathsf{x}_n} \\ \frac{\delta^2 f}{\delta \mathsf{x}_2 \delta \mathsf{x}_1} & \frac{\delta^2 f}{\delta \mathsf{x}_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\delta^2 f}{\delta \mathsf{x}_2 \delta \mathsf{x}_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\delta^2 f}{\delta \mathsf{x}_n \delta \mathsf{x}_1} & \frac{\delta^2 f}{\delta \mathsf{x}_n \delta \mathsf{x}_2} & \cdots & \frac{\delta^2 f}{\delta \mathsf{x}_n^2} \end{bmatrix}$$



That is, the Hessian matrix is $(H_f)_{i,j} = \frac{\delta^2 f}{\delta x_i \delta x_i}$ where i and j range from 1 to n.



▶ The method follows from properties of a quadratic form

$$\mathscr{H}(f) = \int_{M} ||H_f(m)||_m^2 dm$$

defined on functions

$$f: M \mapsto \mathbb{R}$$

 \blacktriangleright $\mathcal{H}(f)$ measures the average over the manifold M of the Frobenius norm of the Hessian of f.



Introduction

▶ What is Frobenius norm of the Hessian of f?

The Frobenius norm of a matrix belongs to the group of entry-wise matrix norms. The general p-norm of matrix A reads:

$$||A||_{p,p} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} |a_{ij}|^{p}\right)^{1/p}$$

The Frobenius norm is then obtained by setting p=2:

$$||A||_{2,2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} |a_{ij}|^2}$$

Alternatively,

$$||A||_{2,2} = \sqrt{tr(A^T A)} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{min(n,m)} \sigma_i^2(A)}$$

where A^T represents the conjugate transpose of matrix A.

Tangent space and Neighborhood

• Suppose that $M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a smooth manifold, and thus the tangent space $T_m(M)$ is well defined at each point $m \in M$.

Our Implementation and Results

- Tangent space as an affine subspace, associate an orthonormal coordinate system to each such tangent space $T_m(M) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.
- There is a neighborhood N_m of m such that each point $m' \in N_m$ has a unique closest point $v' \in T_m(M)$ and such that the implied mapping $m' \rightarrow v'$ is smooth.
- We obtain local coordinates for a neighborhood N_m of $m \in M$, $x_1^{(tan,m)}, ..., x_d^{(tan,m)}$.
- We use the local coordinates to define the Hessian of $f: M \to \mathbb{R}$ that is C^2 near m.



Tangent Hessian

- Suppose $m' \in N_m$ has local coordinates $x = x^{(tan,m)}$.
- The rule g(x) = f(m') defines a function $g: U \to \mathbb{R}$, where U is a neighborhood of 0 in \mathbb{R}^d .
- As the mapping $m' \to g$ is smooth, the function g is C^2 .
- Hessian of f at m in tangent coordinates as the Hessian of g

$$(H_f^{(tan)}(m))_{i,j} = \frac{\delta}{\delta x_i} \frac{\delta}{\delta x_j} g(x)|_{x=0}$$
 (1)

• Consider a quadratic form defined on C^2 functions by

$$\mathscr{H}(f) = \int_{M} ||(H_f^{(tan)}(m))||_F^2 dm \tag{2}$$

where dm stands for a probability measure on M.

• $\mathcal{H}(f)$ measures the average curviness of f over manifold M.

Theorem and Corollary

Theorem: Suppose $M = \psi(\Theta)$ where Θ is an open, connected subset of \mathbb{R}^d , and ψ is a locally isometric embedding of Θ into \mathbb{R}^n . Then $\mathcal{H}(f)$ has a (d+1)-dimensional null space consisting of the constant function and a d-dimensional space of functions spanned by the original isometric coordinates.

Corollary: Under the same assumptions as Theorem, the original isometric coordinates θ can be recovered, up to a rigid motion, by identifying a suitable basis for the null space of \mathcal{H} .



HLLE Extensions

Hessian Locally Linear Embedding (HLLE)

Consider the setting with sampled data (m_i) lying on M, we to recover the underlying parameterization ψ and underlying parameter settings θ_i . HLLE algorithm:

- Input: $(m_i : i = 1, ..., N)$ a collection of N points in \mathbb{R}^n .
- Parameters: d the dimension of the parameter space: k the size of the neighborhoods for fitting.
- Constraints: min(k, n) > d.
- **Output**: $(w_i : i = 1, ..., N)$ a collection of N points in \mathbb{R}^d , the recovered parametrization.



HLLE Procedure

- Identify neighbors
- Obtaining tangent coordinates
- Develop Hessian estimator
- Develop quadratic form
- Find approximate null space
- Find basis for null space





HLLE Procedure (Contd.)

Identify neighbors

- For each m_i , identify the indices corresponding to the k-nearest neighbors in Euclidean distance.
- N_i denotes the collection of those neighbors.
- For each N_i , form a $k \times n$ matrix M^i with rows that consist of the recentered points $m_i - \bar{m}_i$, where $i \in N_i$.

Obtaining tangent coordinates

- Singular value decomposition of M^i , getting matrices U, D, and V; dimension of U is $k \times min(k, n)$.
- The first d columns of U give the tangent coordinates of points in N_i .



HLLE Procedure (Contd.)

Methodology

Develop Hessian estimator

- Develop matrix H^i with the property that if f is a smooth function $f: M \to \mathbb{R}$, and $\mathbf{f}_i = f(m_i)$.
- The vector v^i with entries that are obtained by extracting entries from **f** corresponding to points in neighborhood N_i .
- Then $H^i v^i$ gives a d(d+1)/2 vector with entries that approximate the entries of the Hessian matrix, $(\frac{\delta f}{\delta U \delta U})$.

Develop quadratic form

Build a symmetric matrix $\mathcal{H}_{i,i}$ having, in coordinate pair ij,

$$\mathscr{H}_{i,j} = \sum_{l} \sum_{r} ((H^{l})_{r,i} (H^{l})_{r,j})$$
 (3)



HLLE Procedure (Contd.)

Find approximate null space

- Eigen-analysis of \mathcal{H} to identify the (d-1)-dimensional subspace corresponding to the d+1 smallest eigenvalues.
- An eigenvalue 0 is associated with the subspace of constant functions.
- Next d eigenvalues will correspond to eigenvectors spanning in space V^d where the embedding coordinates are to be found.

Find basis for null space

- Select a basis for V^d its restriction to specific neighborhood N_0 provides an orthonormal basis.
- The given basis has basis vectors $w_1, ..., w_d$; which are the embedding coordinates.



Remarks

- Coding requirements: Easy implementation in MATLAB, MATHEMATICA, S-PLUS, R. R implementation is available from R package dimRed [2].
- Storage requirements: Although it may seem to require $O(N^2)$ storage as it involves solving a eigenvalue problem for $N \times N$ matrix, the actual storage required is proportional to $k \cdot N$.
- Computational complexity: For our sparse matrix, the cost of each product is 2kN, whereas the cost is $2N^2$ for a full matrix, making the overall cost of the sparse version $O(kN^2)$.



Remarks (Contd.)

Methodology

Building Hessian estimator

- Create a matrix with $1 + d + \frac{(d+1)d}{2}$ columns
- The first one is a vector of ones, the first d of the remaining columns are columns of U, and finally the last $\frac{d(d+1)}{2}$ consist of the various cross products and squares of those d columns. For example, in case of d=2

$$X^i = [1, U_{.,1}, U_{.,2}, (U_{.,1}^2), (U_{.,2}^2), (U_{.,1} \times U_{.,2})]$$

- Perform the usual Gram–Schmidt orthonormalization process on the matrix X^i , yielding a matrix \tilde{X}^i with orthonormal columns.
- Define H^i by extracting the last $\frac{d(d+1)}{2}$ columns and transposing.

$$(H^i)_{r,l} = (\tilde{X}^i)_{l,1+d+r}$$



Remarks (Contd.)

Methodology

Basis for the null space

- Let V be the $N \times d$ matrix of eigenvectors built from the nonconstant eigenvectors associated with the (d+1) smallest eigenvalues.
- let $V_{l,r}$ denote the *l*th entry in the *r*th eigenvector of \mathcal{H} .
- Define the matrix (R) $rs = \sum_{j \in N_1} V_{j,r} V_{j,s}$.
- Desired N × d matrix of embedding coordinates is obtained from W = V · R^{-1/2}.



Hessian Locally Linear Embedding Algorithm Donoho-Grimes [3]

Algorithm 1: Hessian Locally Linear Embedding (HLLE)

Data: Dataset $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times D}$

Result: Low-dimensional embedding coordinates $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$

Parameters: k: the size of Neighborhoods and d: the dimension of the parameter space

Step 1: Find Nearest Neighbors for each data point so you have a collection of N_i from (i = 1,...,n). This can be done via KNN or the ϵ -Neighborhood algorithm

For (i = 1 to n)

- Step 2: Based on N_i construct a matrix M^i of size $(k+1) \times D$ and then center the matrix by subtracting avg of columns in M^i
- Step 3: Obtain the tangent coordinates: perform SVD on Mⁱ then the first d columns of U give you the tangent coordinates of the points in N_i
- Step 4: Construct the local Hessian estimator: construct a new matrix $A^i = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & U & U^2 & (U_{:,i} \odot U_{:,m}) \end{bmatrix}$ of size $(k+1) \times (1+d+d(d+1)/2)$ where $j \neq m$ and $1 \le i \le m \le d$. Then perform Gram-Schmidt process and extract Q and save the last d(d+1)/2 columns as a H^i of size $(k+1) \times d(d+1)/2$

Step 5: Construct the sparse matrix S of size $n \times (nd(d+1)/2)$ from the list of H^i and then calculate $H = S \times S^{\top}$ of size $n \times n$

Step 6: Perform Eigen Decomposition on H and extract the last (d+1) eigenvectors corresponding to the smallest (d+1) eigenvalues then drop the constant vector and then you have the d dimensional Low-dimensional embedding $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$



- 1 Introduction
- 2 Methodology
- 3 Our Implementation and Results
- 4 HLLE Extensions
- **5** Conclusion
- 6 References



Swiss Roll with hole and 1 turn Dimension Reduction (DR) using HLLE

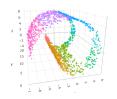


Figure 1: 3D Swiss Roll

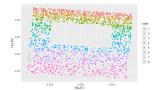


Figure 3: HLLE DR with ϵ neighborhood $\epsilon = 1.5$, adj = 0.5

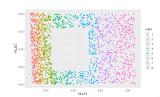


Figure 2: HLLE DR with knn = 10

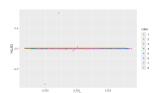


Figure 4: HLLE DR with knn = 50



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April 17, 2024

Swiss Roll with hole and 1 turn Dimension Reduction (DR) comparisons

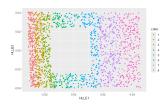


Figure 5: HLLE DR with knn = 10

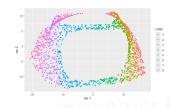


Figure 6: Isomap DR

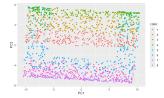


Figure 7: PCA DR

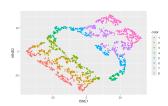


Figure 8: tNSE DR

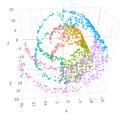


Figure 9: 3D Swiss Roll



Figure 11: HLLE DR with ϵ neighborhood $\epsilon = 2.9$, adj = 0.2

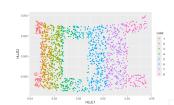


Figure 10: HLLE DR with knn = 9

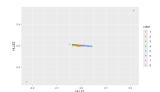


Figure 12: HELE DR with knn = 20

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Swiss Roll with hole and 2 turns Dimension Reduction comparisons

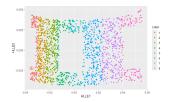


Figure 13: HLLE DR with knn = 9

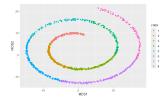


Figure 15: MDS DR

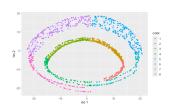


Figure 14: Isomap DR

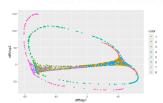


Figure 16: Diffusion Map DR

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3D face mesh Dimension Reduction (DR) comparisons

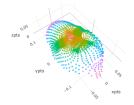


Figure 17: 3D Mesh of a face

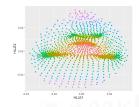


Figure 18: HLLE DR with knn = 14

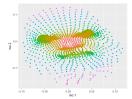


Figure 19: Isomap DR

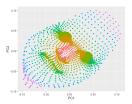


Figure 20: PCA DR



Figure 21: Xray of Covid Chest

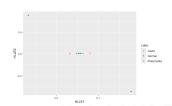


Figure 22: HLLE DR with knn = 10

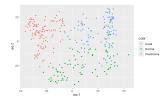


Figure 23: Isomap DR



Figure 24: PCA DR

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- 4 HLLE Extensions

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HLLE Extensions

- One thing that was found during implementation of the HLLE algorithm is that the space collapses fairly easily depending on the neighborhood size or if the data itself contains a lot of noise and/or outliers
- One way to counter this was discussed in the paper on Robust HLLE by Xing[5]
- In this paper the authors introduce a slightly different framework for calculating the Hessian estimator that is claimed to be faster than Donoho's implementation of the Hessian estimator
- They also introduce the use of robust PCA for obtaining the local tangent coordinates
- They introduce 3 steps for the Robust HLLE by first employing an algorithm to identify outliers, second locally smooth the data, and lastly implement RHLLE



Fast Outlier Identifying Algorithm

Algorithm 2: Fast Outlier Identifying Algorithm

Data: Data points x_i^i , Number of iterations L, Threshold ϵ

Step 1: Update \bar{x}_i with the weighted sample mean vector:

Initialization: $\bar{x}_i^{(0)} \leftarrow \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^k x_j^l \quad l \leftarrow 0$;

while $\|\bar{x}_{i}^{(l+1)} - \bar{x}_{i}^{(l)}\|_{2}^{2} > \epsilon$ and l < L do

Compute weights $(w_j^i)^I = \frac{\exp(-\|x_j^i - \bar{x}_i\|_{2/\sigma})}{\sum_{j=1}^k \exp(-\|x_j^i - \bar{x}_i\|_{2/\sigma}^2)}$ (j = 1, ..., k);

Update mean $\bar{x}_i^{(l+1)} \leftarrow \sum_{j=1}^k (w_j^i)^l (\bar{x}_i^j)^{(l)}$;

Step 2: Update weights based on Huber function: for $j=1\ to\ k$ do

Compute projection error ϵ^i_j via weighted PCA ;

Compute weight w_i^i :

$$w_j^i = w(\epsilon_j^i) = \frac{\rho'(\epsilon_j^i)}{\epsilon_j^i} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \epsilon_j^i \le \frac{1}{2}c \\ \frac{c}{2\epsilon_j^i}, & \text{if } \epsilon_j^i > \frac{1}{2}c \end{cases}$$

Note: σ represents the mean squared Euclidean distance of k neighbors.

c>0 and user-defined, and

$$\rho(\epsilon) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}\epsilon^2, & \text{if } |\epsilon| \le c \\ c(|\epsilon| - \frac{1}{2}c), & \text{if } |\epsilon| > c \end{cases}$$

is the Huber function



Robust HLLE Algorithm [5]

Algorithm 3: Robust Hessian Locally Linear Embedding (RHLLE)

Data: Dataset $X^{on} = [x_1^{on}, x_2^{on}, ..., x_{Nall}^{on}] \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times N}$

Result: Low-dimensional embedding coordinates Y

Step 1: Fast Outlier Identifying Algorithm

Remove outliers from X^{on} using the fast outlier identifying algorithm

Obtain dataset $X^{or} = [x_1^{or}, x_2^{or}, ..., x_N^{or}]$ without outliers

Step 2: Noise Reduction Using Local Linear Smoothing

Reduce noise in X^{or} using local linear smoothing via weighted PCA and then project x_i to an approximate tangent subspace

Obtain noise-reduced dataset $X^{nr} = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_N]$

Step 3: Robust Hessian Locally Linear Embedding

- Find k nearest neighbors for each point $x_i \in X^{nr}$
- Compute total reliability scores W_i^p for each local patch $N(x_i)$ Determine reliable local patch subset RLP
- Compute local tangent coordinates and local Hessian operator for each local patch $N(x_i) \in RLP$
- Compute weighted global functional H_w
- Perform eigenanalysis of H_w to obtain low-dimensional embedding coordinates

HLLE Extensions

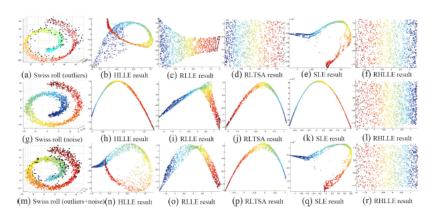


Figure 25: The first row shows the Swiss roll dataset with outliers and the embedding results of different algorithms; The second row shows the Swiss roll dataset with noise and the embedding results of different algorithms; The third row shows the Swiss roll dataset with both outliers and noise and the embedding results of different algorithms.

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Methodology
- 3 Our Implementation and Results
- 4 HLLE Extensions
- **5** Conclusion
- 6 References





Conclusion

- HLLE is great for representing smooth and non-noisy data to lower dimensions but is sensitive with the presence of outliers and/or noise in the data.
- A key takeaway is that the HLLE approach assumes local isometry compared to ISOMAP that assumes global isometry.
- Further a useful advantage of HLLE is that it can make use of sparse eigenproblems.
- Another remark is that calculation of a local hessian for each data point using a for loop can be further sped up by parallel computing.
- A drawback of the HLLE approach is that it requires estimation of the second derivative, which is known to be numerically noisy or difficult in very high-dimensional data samples.



- 1 Introduction
- 2 Methodology
- 3 Our Implementation and Results
- 4 HLLE Extensions
- Conclusion
- **6** References





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