

A Novel Approach On Matching Algorithms

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Abstract: Prototype-based classifiers are usually clustering-based methods. Therefore, they require a dissimilarity criterion to cluster the drill data and also to assign class labels to test data. Euclidean distance is a commonly used dissimilarity criterion. However, the Euclidean distance may not be able to give accurate shape-based comparisons of very high-dimensional signals. This can be problematic for some classification applications where high-dimensional signals are grouped into classes based on shape similarities. Therefore, a reliable shape-based dissimilarity measure is desirable. The Hungarian method proved to be an effective method for solving assignment problems. Any new primal-dual algorithm must be effective on some class of problems to be of interest. In particular, it must be associated to the Hungarian method for the assignment problem. With this in mind, we have tried to determine how the nonnegative least squares primal-dual procedure relates to the Hungarian method for the assignment problem. We have established several connections between the two algorithms, and more generally, between the nonnegative least squares algorithm and the weighted matching problem on general graphs. In [6], the authors showed that the nonnegative least squares algorithm is a steepest ascent method for solving the dual of a linear programming problem. This means that this method should require fewer iterations, on average, than the Hungarian method. Results were shown effectively in MATLAB

Keywords: Algorithm, Least Squares, MATLAB, NNLS

I. Introduction

Object detection and recognition are two important problems in the signal processing domain. For this purpose, a transmitter-receiver approach is usually employed. Signals are transmitted in the direction of the suspected target location and the alteration of these transmitted waves by the target is received and recorded. For example, radars use reflection of electromagnetic waves to detect aircrafts in air, reflected sound waves are used to detect vessels under water and the electromagnetic induction (EMI) sensors measure the secondary electromagnetic field induced in a buried object to detect landmines. The received signals are usually very high-dimensional time or frequency domain signals. They are analyzed using signal processing and machine learning algorithms for existence and identification of the target objects. The object detection task can simply be to determine if an object exists in the test data, as for the radars used by air traffic controllers to determine the location of aircraft, or it can be more complicated, for example, by including the recognition of the target. Landmine detection systems that use EMI sensors not only need to determine whether an object is buried in the ground, but they also need to recognize whether the buried object is a mine or a non-mine. The EMI response of a buried object depends on its metallic composition and geometry and stays consistent across most weather and soil conditions. Therefore, the high-dimensional

EMI response contains shape-based information about the target. This information can be characterized to identify the object as a mine or a non-mine. One approach to classification is to extract features that capture the shape and distinguishing characteristics of signals in the training dataset. These features are then used to train a discrimination-based classifier which learns a decision rule for assigning class labels to the test data. A discrimination-based classifier learns the decision rule by drawing a decision boundary between training data of both classes in the feature.

II. Methodology

The potential usefulness of the MPDM for a variety of problems is demonstrated by devising two important MPDM-based algorithms. The first algorithm, called CAMP, deals with the prototype-based classification of high-dimensional signals. The second algorithm is called the EK-SVD algorithm and it automates the dictionary learning process for the MP approximation of signals. In the CAMP algorithm, MPDM is used with the Competitive Agglomeration (CA) clustering algorithm by Frigui and Krishnapuram to propose a probabilistic classification model [2]. The CA algorithm is a fuzzy clustering algorithm that learns the optimal number of clusters during training. Therefore, it eliminates the need for manually specifying the number of clusters beforehand. This algorithm has been named as CAMP as an abbreviation of CA and MP algorithms. For a two class problem ($y \in \{f_0, f_1\}$), CAMP clusters members of each class separately and uses the cluster representatives as prototypes. The prior probability $p(y=j)$ of a class is computed based on similarity of the

cluster c_j to clusters of the other class. The likelihood $p(x|c_j)$ of a point x is determined using MPDM. The likelihood $p(x|c_j)$ and the prior $p(y|c_j)$ is used to compute the posterior probability $p(y|x)$ of x of belonging to a class y . The test point t that has low posterior probabilities for both classes may be considered to be an outlier. Matching pursuits has previously been used as a feature extractor for discrimination based classifiers (section 2.3). However, the new CAMP algorithm is the first method that builds a bridge between clustering and matching pursuits techniques. Therefore, it can be used to combine existing MP-based image compression techniques with the prototype-based image recognition and retrieval applications in one framework. The experimental results also show the usefulness of CAMP for classification of high-dimensional data. The CAMP algorithm has been used for classification of real landmines detection data collected using an electromagnetic induction sensor, discussed. The classification performance of the CAMP algorithm has been found to be better than an existing multi-layer perceptron based system for this data. Our CAMP algorithm also outperformed support vector machines using non-linear radial basis function as kernel. The experimental results also demonstrate the superiority of MPDM over the Euclidean distance for shape-based comparisons in high dimension. An extensive experiment using simulated data is also reported to demonstrate the outlier detection capabilities of CAMP over discrimination-based classifiers and the prototype-based classifier using the Euclidean distance.

III. Review

Matching pursuits (MP) is a well known technique for sparse signal representation. MP is a greedy algorithm that finds linear approximations of signals by iteratively projecting them over a redundant, possibly non-orthogonal set of signals called dictionary. Since MP is a greedy algorithm, it may give a suboptimal approximation. However, it is useful for approximations when it is hard to come up with optimal orthogonal approximations, as in the case of high-dimensional signals or images. Historically, matching pursuits (MP) technique is used for signal compression, particularly audio, video and image signal compression. However, MP has also been used in some classification applications, usually as a feature extractor. This chapter is an overview of the Matching Pursuits algorithm, its dictionaries and its application to the classification problems. Therefore, we discuss in detail the definition and characteristics of the MP algorithm and also some commonly used improvements over the basic MP algorithm. The dictionary plays a pivotal role in performance of the MP algorithm, therefore we discuss in detail some well known MP dictionaries and also the dictionary learning methods. Since we are trying to adopt the MP algorithm for classification purposes, in Section 2.3 we review the existing discrimination and model based classification systems that use the MP algorithm.

IV. Algorithm

Matching Pursuits (MP) is an algorithm that expresses any signal x as a linear combination of elements from a set of signals called the dictionary [1]. It was reintroduced from the statistical community to the signal processing community by Mallat and Zhang in 1993 [8]. Let H be a Hilbert space, then matching pursuits decomposes a signal $x \in H$ through an iterative, greedy process over an overcomplete set of signals, called the dictionary $D = \{g_i\}$.

At each iteration the dictionary element that is the most similar to the residue is chosen and subtracted from the current residue. If the angle of projection at each iteration is small, then it will take only a few iterations to drive the residue to zero. Conversely, if at each iteration the angle of projection between the residue and the chosen element is large, it will take more iterations and dictionary elements to reduce the residue significantly. In addition, if the dictionary is large, then the computation time of the iterations will be large. Hence the proper choice of dictionary is essential. Since MP is a greedy algorithm, the chosen coefficients should get smaller as the iteration index j , gets larger. Hence, the maximum information about the signal x is contained in the first few coefficients. Therefore, MP also has a denoising effect on the signal x . Sparsity of representation is an important issue, both for the computational efficiency of the resulting representations and for its theoretical and practical influence on generalization performance. The MP algorithm provides an explicit control over the sparsity of the approximation solution through choice of a suitable value of p .

Theorem 1. Algorithm 1 terminates with a solution of problem (PLS).

1. Let B be the feasible basis for problem P
2. Let I_B be the index set of the columns in B
3. $\hat{x} \leftarrow B^+ b$
4. $\pi \leftarrow b - B \hat{x}$
5. $S \leftarrow \{j : A_j > 0\}$
6. if $S = \emptyset$ the

7. stop: optimal solution found
8. end if
9. Let $k \in s$
10. $d \leftarrow B^+ A_k$
11. $\theta \leftarrow \min_{d_j > 0} \frac{x_j}{d_j}$
12. $P \leftarrow I - BB^+$
13. $\theta \leftarrow \frac{\pi^t A_j}{\|PA_j\|^2}$
14. $\theta \leftarrow \min\{\theta, \bar{\theta}\}$
15. if $\theta = \bar{\theta}$ then
16. $I_B \leftarrow I_B \cup \{j\}$
17. if $\theta = \bar{\theta}$ then
18. $\bar{x}(\theta) \leftarrow \bar{x}_j - \theta d_j$
19. $I_B \leftarrow I_B - \{j : x(\theta) = 0\}$
20. end if
21. $B \leftarrow [A_j] \forall j \in I_B$
22. Return to 3
23. else
24. $I_B \leftarrow I_B \left\{ J : \theta = \frac{\bar{x}_j}{d_j} \right\}$
25. $B \leftarrow [A_j] \forall j \in I_B$
26. $\bar{x} \leftarrow B^+ b$
27. Return to 10
28. end if

V. Outputs

This estimation is itself then sampled, and the residual of the signal is updated. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and let $u = \Phi x$ be the measurement vector. The HHS Pursuit algorithm produces a signal approximation \hat{x} with $O(s/\epsilon^2)$ nonzero entries. $\|x - \hat{x}\|_2 \leq \sqrt{s} \|x - x_s\|_1$, where again x_s denotes the vector consisting of the s largest entries in magnitude of x . The number of measurements m is proportional to $(s/\epsilon^2) \text{polylog}(d/\epsilon)$, and HHS Pursuit runs in time $(s^2/\epsilon^4) \text{polylog}(d/\epsilon)$. The algorithm uses working space $(s/\epsilon^2) \text{polylog}(d/\epsilon)$, including storage of the matrix Φ .

There are other algorithms such as the Sudocodes algorithm that as of now only work in the noiseless, strictly sparse case. However, these are still interesting because of the simplicity of the algorithm. The Sudocodes algorithm is a simple two-phase algorithm. In the first phase, an easily implemented avalanche bit testing scheme is applied iteratively to recover most of the coordinates of the signal x . At this point, it remains to reconstruct an extremely low dimensional signal (one whose coordinates are only those that remain). In the second phase, this part of the signal is reconstructed, which completes the reconstruction. Since the recovery is two-phase, the measurement matrix is as well. For the first phase, it must contain a sparse submatrix, one consisting of many zeros and few ones in each row. For the second phase, it also contains a matrix whose small submatrices are invertible. The following result for strictly sparse signals. Combinatorial algorithms such as HHS pursuit provide sublinear time recovery with optimal error bounds and optimal number of measurements. Some of these are straightforward and easy to implement, and others require complicated structures. The

major disadvantage however is the structural requirement on the measurement matrices. Not only do these methods only work with one particular kind of measurement matrix, but that matrix is highly structured which limits its use in practice. There are no known sublinear methods in compressed sensing that allow for unstructured or generic measurement matrices

OUTPUTS

Fig 1 Computation time for the fixed $N = 256$ and $K = 24 \& 32$

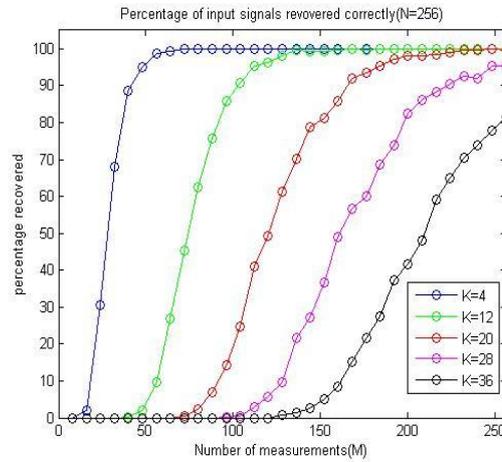


Fig 2: Average exact recovery and Computational time(sec)

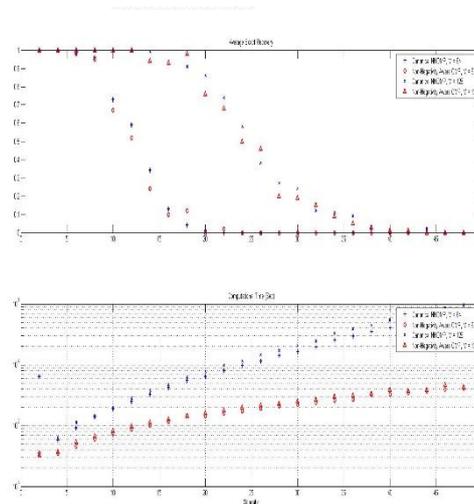


Fig. 3. Computation time for the fixed $M = 128$ and $K = 64 \& 96$

Fig 4: Percentage of recovered signals

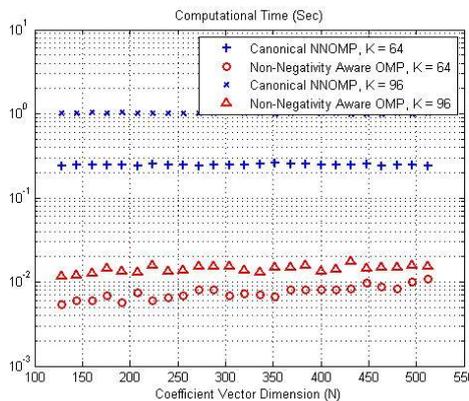
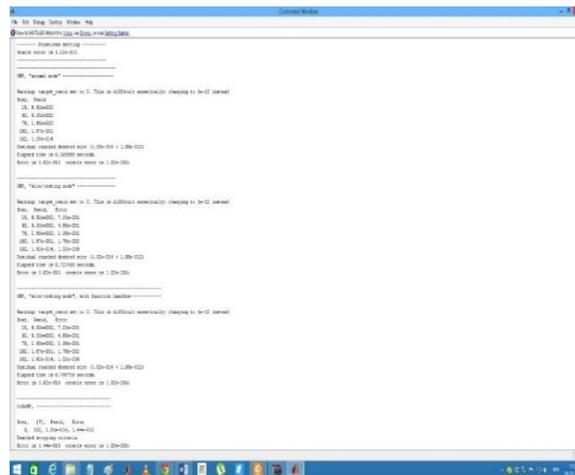


Fig 5: Sparse AOMP data

VI. Conclusion

A matching pursuits dissimilarity measure has been presented, which is capable of performing accurate shape-based comparisons between high-dimensional data. It extends the matching pursuits signal approximation technique and uses its dictionary and coefficient information to compare two signals. MPDM is capable of performing shape-based comparisons of very high dimensional data and it can also be adapted to perform magnitude-based comparisons, similar to the Euclidean distance. Since MPDM is a differentiable measure, it can be seamlessly integrated with existing clustering or discrimination algorithms. Therefore, MPDM may find application in a variety of classification and approximation problems of very high dimensional data. The MPDM is used to develop an automated dictionary learning algorithm for MP approximation of signals, called Enhanced K-SVD. The EK-SVD algorithm uses the MPDM and the CA clustering algorithm to learn the required number of dictionary elements during training. Under-utilized and replicated dictionary elements are gradually pruned to produce a compact dictionary, without compromising its approximation capabilities. The experimental results show that the size of the dictionary learned by our method is 60% smaller but with same approximation capabilities as the existing dictionary learning algorithms. The MPDM is also used with the competitive agglomeration fuzzy clustering algorithm to build a prototype-based classifier called CAMP. The CAMP algorithm builds robust shape-based prototypes for each class and assigns a confidence to a test pattern based on its dissimilarity to the prototypes of all classes. If a test pattern is different from all the prototypes, it will be assigned a low confidence value. Therefore, our experimental results show that the CAMP algorithm is able to identify outliers in the given test data better than discrimination-based classifiers, like, multilayer perceptrons and support vector machines.

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