

# Topographic NMF for Data Representation

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**Abstract**—Nonnegative matrix factorization (NMF) is a useful technique to explore a parts-based representation by decomposing the original data matrix into a few parts-based basis vectors and encodings with nonnegative constraints. It has been widely used in image processing and pattern recognition tasks due to its psychological and physiological interpretation of natural data whose representation may be parts-based in human brain. However, the nonnegative constraint for matrix factorization is generally not sufficient to produce representations that are robust to local transformations. To overcome this problem, in this paper, we proposed a topographic NMF (TNMF), which imposes a topographic constraint on the encoding factor as a regularizer during matrix factorization. In essence, the topographic constraint is a two-layered network, which contains the square nonlinearity in the first layer and the square-root nonlinearity in the second layer. By pooling together the structure-correlated features belonging to the same hidden topic, the TNMF will force the encodings to be organized in a topographical map. Thus, the feature invariance can be promoted. Some experiments carried out on three standard datasets validate the effectiveness of our method in comparison to the state-of-the-art approaches.

**Index Terms**—Data clustering, dimension reduction, feature invariance, machine learning, nonnegative matrix factorization.

## I. INTRODUCTION

**D**ATA representation is a fundamental problem in image processing and pattern recognition tasks. A good representation can typically reveal the latent structure of data, and further facilitate these tasks in terms of learnability and computational complexity [1]–[7]. However, in many real

applications, the input data matrix is generally of very high dimension, which brings the curse of dimensionality for further data processing [8]. To solve this problem, matrix factorization approaches, such as Cholesky decomposition and singular value decomposition (SVD), have been used to explore two or more lower dimensional matrices whose product provides a good approximation for the original data matrix.

Among matrix factorization methods, nonnegative matrix factorization (NMF) [9] has recently become popular for data representation owing to its psychological and physiological interpretation of natural data whose representation may be parts-based in human brain [10], [11]. Since there is only additive, not subtractive, combinations, NMF with nonnegative constraints will obtain a parts-based representation. In essence, it models data as a linear combination of a set of basis vectors, and both the combination encodings and the basis vectors are nonnegative. That is, a face image can be represented by an additive combination of several versions of mouths, noses, eyes, and other facial parts. What's more, in many real-world applications, the components must be either zero or positive. For instance, the probability of a given document belonging to a particular group is nonnegative [12]. In addition, NMF has shown superior performance to PCA and SVD in face recognition [13] and document clustering [12].

To obtain the desired characteristics like preserving local structure, minimizing prediction error etc., many NMF variants have been developed by modifying the objective function or constraint conditions of the original NMF. For example, to consider the geometric structure in the data, several graph regularized NMF methods [14]–[17] were presented to learn a new parts-based data representation, which respected the graph structure. Ding *et al.* [18] developed a NMF-like algorithm that yielded nonnegative factors but allowed the data matrix to have mixed signs. Based on linear programming, a NMF algorithm with earth mover's distance was presented in [19].

Liu *et al.* [20] proposed an A-optimal nonnegative projection (ANP) method by imposing prediction error constraint on the encoding factor, which results in a data representation with the smaller prediction error. Ding *et al.* [21] presented that NMF is roughly equivalent to the classical K-means clustering, and the nonnegative constraint results in sparseness that could lead to better approximations of the cluster indicators than direct optimization in the discrete space. Thus, Hoyer [22] introduced a nonnegative sparse coding algorithm (NNSC), which explicitly incorporated a sparseness constraint based on the relationship between the  $L_1$  norm and  $L_2$  norm. However, the above extensions may not be sufficient to produce

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Fig. 1. Learned 16 basis vectors on the ORL dataset by the NNSC and the proposed TNMF, respectively. (a) NNSC. (b) TNMF.

representations that are robust to local transformations, such as scale and rotational invariance.

In order to learn the invariance of feature representation, we propose a topographic NMF algorithm (TNMF). Specifically, a topographic constraint is imposed on the encoding factor as a regularizer for matrix factorization. In essence, the topographic constraint is a two-layered network, which contains the square nonlinearity in the first layer and the square-root nonlinearity in the second layer. Our TNMF is inspired by reconstruction topographic independent component analysis (RICA) [23]–[25], which has demonstrated that the topographic constraint can be helpful to learn invariance on input data. In particular, this constraint forces encodings to be organized in a topographical map by pooling together structure-correlated features belonging to the same hidden topic. By pooling over related features, the proposed topographic architecture can learn complex invariances, e.g., scale and rotational invariance. Fig. 1 shows the learned 16-basis vectors on the ORL dataset by NNSC and TNMF, respectively, and the TNMF can obtain better basis vectors than NNSC by achieve invariance.

To outline the workflow of our proposed TNMF, the overview is illustrated in Fig. 2. Specifically, we firstly extract the raw image features for input images. Then, by pooling related features together, we can obtain the encodings that are grouped by hidden topics in a structure-correlated feature space. Finally, K-means can be applied on new representations for clustering.

## II. BRIEF REVIEW OF NMF

As a matrix factorization algorithm, NMF [9] is utilized to decompose the original data matrix into a set of bases and encodings where the basis and encodings are assumed to be nonnegative. Mathematically, given a data matrix  $X = [x_{ij}] = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n] \in R^{m \times n}$ , NMF aims to find two non-negative matrices  $W = [w_{ik}] = [W_1, \dots, W_t] \in R^{m \times t}$  and  $S = [s_{jk}] = [\mathbf{s}_1, \dots, \mathbf{s}_n]^T \in R^{n \times t}$  to approximate the original matrix as follows:

$$X \approx WS^T$$

where each column of  $X$  is a sample vector. Each data point  $\mathbf{x}_j$  is approximated by a linear combination of the columns of

$W$  with the coefficient  $\mathbf{s}_j$ . Thus,  $W$  and  $S$  can be regarded as a basis set and encodings, respectively. To quantify the quality of the approximation, a cost function can be constructed by some measures of distance. One popular measure is the Euclidean distance (i.e., Frobenius norm)

$$O_F = \|X - WS^T\|_F^2. \quad (1)$$

Although the objective function  $O_F$  in (1) is not convex with respect to both  $W$  and  $S$  together, the following alternating algorithm [26] converged to a local minimum:

$$\begin{aligned} w_{ik} &\leftarrow w_{ik} \frac{(XS)_{ik}}{(WS^TS)_{ik}} \\ s_{jk} &\leftarrow s_{jk} \frac{(X^TW)_{jk}}{(SW^TW)_{jk}}. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

In many real applications, we generally have  $t \ll \min(m, n)$ . Thus, NMF is to explore a compressed approximation of the original data matrix.

## III. TOPOGRAPHIC NMF

Reconstruction topographic ICA (RICA) [23]–[25] is an unsupervised learning algorithm that can learn complex invariant features from unlabeled image patches by using a topographic network. This network can be described as a two-layered network, with the square nonlinearity in the first layer ( $(\cdot)^2$ ) and the square-root nonlinearity in the second layer ( $\sqrt{\cdot}$ ), respectively. Mathematically, given a data matrix  $X = [x_{ij}] \in R^{m \times n}$ , the topographic network is performed by minimizing the following objective function

$$p = \sqrt{\varepsilon + H \cdot ((W^TX) \odot (W^TX))} \quad (3)$$

where  $W = [W_1, \dots, W_t] \in R^{m \times t}$  is the basis matrix of the first layer,  $H = [h_{ij}] \in R^{t \times t}$  is the spatial pooling matrix in the second layer,  $\odot$  denotes the element-wise multiplication and  $\varepsilon$  is a small positive constant. In addition, the pooling matrix  $H$  is hard-coded to represent the topographical structure of the neurons in the first layer as in [25], generally fixed to uniform weights, i.e., each element  $h_{ij}$  is 1.

In fact,  $W^TX$  could be regarded as encodings corresponding to data  $X$  [24]. Thus, we denote  $S = (W^TX)^T$  where  $S = [s_{jk}] \in R^{n \times t}$  for simplicity. Then, we rewrite the function  $p$  as

$$p(S) = \sqrt{\varepsilon + H \cdot (S \odot S)^T}. \quad (4)$$

For convenience, we term the  $p(S)$  as topographic constraint. Equation (4) forces encodings to be organized in a topographical map by pooling together structure-correlated features belonging to the same hidden topic. More specifically, features that are near to each other in the topographic map are relatively strongly dependent in the sense of mutual information [23].

By incorporating the topographic constraint into the original NMF model, the optimization problem (1) becomes

$$O_F = \|X - WS^T\|_F^2 + \lambda p(S) \quad (5)$$

where  $\lambda$  is a tradeoff parameter. As pointed out in [23] and [24], such topographic pooling architecture results in pooling units that are robust to local transformations of their

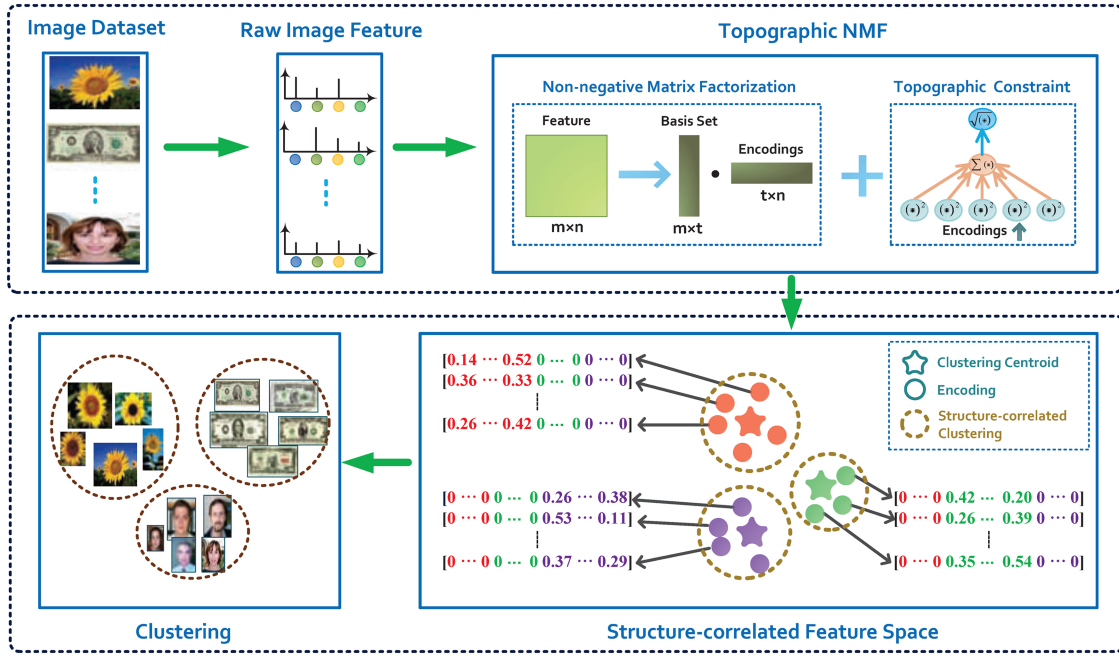


Fig. 2. Method overview for image clustering. (a) Raw image features are extracted and then decomposed into a nonnegative basis set and the corresponding nonnegative encodings with topographic constraint. Note that topographic constraint is a two-layered network, which contains square-root nonlinearity in the first layer and square-root nonlinearity in the second layer. (b) Obtained encodings are grouped in a structure-correlated feature space, which will be beneficial to clustering tasks.

inputs, and meanwhile promotes feature selectivity by allowing the reconstruction error and minimizing the encoding energy. As we known, the combination of robustness and selectivity is central to feature invariance [27].

To solve the problem (5), the objective function can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} O_F &= \|X - WS^T\|_F^2 + \lambda p(S) \\ &= \text{Tr}((X - WS^T)(X - WS^T)^T) + \lambda p(S) \\ &= \text{Tr}(XX^T) + \text{Tr}(WS^T SW^T) - 2\text{Tr}(XSW^T) \\ &\quad + \lambda p(S) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where  $\text{Tr}(\cdot)$  denotes the trace of a matrix, and the steps of derivation employ the matrix property  $\text{Tr}(AB) = \text{Tr}(BA)$  and  $\text{Tr}(B) = \text{Tr}(B^T)$ .

#### A. Multiplicative Update Rules Formulation

The objective function of TNMF in (6) is not convex with respect to both variables  $W$  and  $S$ . Thus, it is unrealistic to explore the global optima for the objective. In the following, we describe an alternative update scheme to obtain the local optima.

Given  $\Phi = [\phi_{ik}] \in R^{m \times t}$  and  $\Psi = [\varphi_{jk}] \in R^{n \times t}$ , denote  $\phi_{ik}$  and  $\varphi_{jk}$  as the Lagrange multipliers for constraint  $w_{ik} \geq 0$  and  $s_{jk} \geq 0$ . Thus, the Lagrange  $L$  is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \text{Tr}(XX^T) + \text{Tr}(WS^T SW^T) - 2\text{Tr}(XSW^T) \\ &\quad + \lambda p(S) + \text{Tr}(\Phi W^T) + \text{Tr}(\Psi S^T). \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

With respect to  $W$  and  $S$ , the partial derivatives of  $L$  are

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial W} = -2XS + 2WS^T S + \Phi \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial S} = -2X^T W + 2SW^T W + \lambda p'(S) + \Psi. \quad (9)$$

By utilizing the KKT conditions  $\phi_{ik} w_{ik} = 0$  and  $\varphi_{jk} s_{jk} = 0$ , we obtain the following equations for  $w_{ik}$  and  $s_{jk}$ :

$$-(XS)_{ik} w_{ik} + (WS^T S)_{ik} w_{ik} = 0 \quad (10)$$

$$-(X^T W)_{jk} s_{jk} + (SW^T W)_{jk} s_{jk} + \frac{1}{2} \lambda p'_{jk}(S) s_{jk} = 0. \quad (11)$$

Since the update is essentially element-wise, we use  $p_{jk}(S)$  to denote the part of function  $p(S)$ , which is only relevant to the element  $s_{jk}$  in  $S$ . Equations (10) and (11) lead to the following update rules:

$$w_{ik} \leftarrow w_{ik} \frac{(XS)_{ik}}{(WS^T S)_{ik}} \quad (12)$$

$$s_{jk} \leftarrow s_{jk} \frac{(X^T W)_{jk}}{(SW^T W)_{jk} + \frac{1}{2} \lambda p'_{jk}(S)}. \quad (13)$$

Thus, the update rules (12) and (13) can be used to solve the optimization problem (6). Note that the  $W$  and  $S$  are randomly initialized in our experiments.

Regarding the update rules (12) and (13), we have the following theorem.

**Theorem 1:** The objective function  $O_F$  of TNMF in (6) is nonincreasing under the update rules in (12) and (13). The objective function is invariant under these updates if and only if  $W$  and  $S$  are at a stationary point.

Theorem 1 grants the convergence under the update rules of  $W$  and  $S$ , i.e., (12) and (13), and the final solution will be a local optimum. The proof of Theorem 1 is given in the following section.

### B. Proof of Convergence

In order to prove Theorem 1, the cost function  $O_F$  of TNMF should be demonstrated to be nonincreasing under the update steps in (12) and (13). While we have exactly the same update formula for  $W$  in (12) as the original NMF [26]. In addition, (13) is only related to  $S$ . Thus, we just consider that  $O_F$  is nonincreasing under the second update step in (13).

To prove the convergence of  $O_F$  with (13), we employ the following property of an auxiliary function similar to that used in the expectation maximization algorithm [28].

**Lemma 1:** If  $G$  is an auxiliary function of  $F$ , i.e.,  $G(s, s') \geq F(s)$  and  $G(s, s) = F(s)$ , then  $F$  is nonincreasing under the update

$$s^{(q+1)} = \arg \min_s G(s, s^{(q)}). \quad (14)$$

*Proof:*

$$F(s^{(q+1)}) \leq G(s^{(q+1)}, s^{(q)}) \leq G(s^{(q)}, s^{(q)}) = F(s^{(q)}).$$

Notice that  $F(s^{(q+1)}) = F(s^{(q)})$  holds only if  $s^{(q)}$  is a local minimum of  $G(s, s^{(q)})$ .

Now, we will show that the update step for  $S$  in (13) is exactly the update in (14) with a proper auxiliary function  $G$ .

We rewrote the objective function  $O_F$  of TNMF in (6) as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} O_F &= \|X - WS^T\|_F^2 + \lambda p(S) \\ &= \sum_{i,j} (x_{ij} - \sum_k w_{ik} s_{jk})^2 + \\ &\quad \lambda \sum_{j,l} \sqrt{\varepsilon + \sum_k h_{lk} s_{jk}^2} \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

where  $1 \leq l \leq t$ . In addition, we use  $F_{jk}$  to denote the part of  $O_F$ , which is only relevant to the element  $s_{jk}$  in  $S$ . Thus, we have

$$F'_{jk} = \left( \frac{\partial O_F}{\partial s} \right)_{jk} = (-2X^T W + 2SW^T W)_{jk} + \lambda p'_{jk}(S) \quad (16)$$

and

$$F''_{jk} = (2W^T W)_{kk} + \lambda p''_{jk}(S). \quad (17)$$

**Lemma 2:** Function

$$\begin{aligned} G(s, s_{jk}^{(q)}) &= F_{jk}(s_{jk}^{(q)}) + F'_{jk}(s_{jk}^{(q)})(s - s_{jk}^{(q)}) \\ &\quad + \frac{(SW^T W)_{jk} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda p'_{jk}(S)}{s_{jk}^{(q)}} (s - s_{jk}^{(q)})^2 \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

is an auxiliary function for  $F_{jk}$ , the part of  $O_F$  which is only relevant to  $s_{jk}$ .

*Proof:* Since  $G(s, s) = F_{jk}(s)$  is obvious, we need only show that  $G(s, s_{jk}^{(q)}) \geq F_{jk}(s)$ . To do this, we compare the Taylor series expansion of  $F_{jk}(s)$

$$\begin{aligned} F_{jk}(s) &= F_{jk}(s_{jk}^{(q)}) + F'_{jk}(s_{jk}^{(q)})(s - s_{jk}^{(q)}) \\ &\quad + ((W^T W)_{kk} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda p''_{jk}(S))(s - s_{jk}^{(q)})^2 \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

with (18) to find that  $G(s, s_{jk}^{(q)}) \geq F_{jk}(s)$  is equivalent to

$$\frac{(SW^T W)_{jk} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda p'_{jk}(S)}{s_{jk}^{(q)}} \geq (W^T W)_{kk} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda p''_{jk}(S). \quad (20)$$

It is easy to check that

$$(SW^T W)_{jk} = \sum_l s_{jl}^{(q)} (W^T W)_{lk} \geq s_{jk}^{(q)} (W^T W)_{kk}.$$

In addition, we have  $p'_{jk}$  and  $p''_{jk}$  as follows:

$$p'_{jk}(S) = \sum_l \frac{h_{lk} s_{jk}^{(q)}}{\sqrt{\varepsilon + \sum_k h_{lk} (s_{jk}^{(q)})^2}} \quad (21)$$

$$\begin{aligned} p''_{jk}(S) &= \sum_l \left( \frac{h_{lk}}{\sqrt{\varepsilon + \sum_k h_{lk} (s_{jk}^{(q)})^2}} \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{(h_{lk} s_{jk}^{(q)})^2}{(\varepsilon + \sum_k h_{lk} (s_{jk}^{(q)})^2)^{3/2}} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

Similarly, it is easy to verify that  $\frac{1}{2}\lambda p'_{jk}(S) \geq \frac{1}{2}\lambda p''_{jk}(S) \cdot s_{jk}^{(q)}$ . Therefore, (20) holds and we have  $G(s, s_{jk}^{(q)}) \geq F_{jk}(s)$ . Now, we can prove the convergence of Theorem 1. ■

**Proof of Theorem 1** Replacing  $G(s, s_{jk}^{(q)})$  in (14) by (18) leads to the update rule

$$\begin{aligned} s_{jk}^{(q+1)} &= s_{jk}^{(q)} - s_{jk}^{(q)} \frac{F'_{jk}(s_{jk}^{(q)})}{2(SW^T W)_{jk} + \lambda p'_{jk}(S)} \\ &= s_{jk}^{(q)} \frac{(X^T W)_{jk}}{(SW^T W)_{jk} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda p'_{jk}(S)}. \end{aligned}$$

According to Lemma 2,  $F_{jk}$  is nonincreasing under this update rule.

### C. Connection to RICA

The optimization problem in RICA [23], [24] is defined as

$$O_F = \|X - WW^T X\|_F^2 + \lambda p(W^T X). \quad (23)$$

Similar to TNMF, RICA also attempts to find a matrix factorization, and simultaneously forces the pooling features to group similar features together to achieve invariance. According to (5) and (23), it is clear there is a close connection between the proposed TNMF and RICA. However, TNMF has three major differences from RICA.

- 1) As an independent competent analysis method, the prewhitening on the input data in RICA should be carried out to satisfy the orthogonality constraint, i.e.,  $WW^T = I$ . But for TNMF, the explicit encoding as  $S = (W^T X)^T$  is employed without the requirement of data prewhitening.
- 2) Nonnegative constraints are imposed on both basis matrix  $W$  and encoding matrix  $S$  in TNMF, which leads to a parts-based representation with only additive, not subtractive, combinations.
- 3) The goal of TNMF is to obtain a low-rank approximation ( $t \ll m$ ) to the input data matrix with each column of encoding matrix  $S$  corresponding to a hidden topic, which is roughly equivalent to the classical K-means. However, RICA as in sparse coding [29] tries to learn highly over-complete features ( $t \gg m$ ).

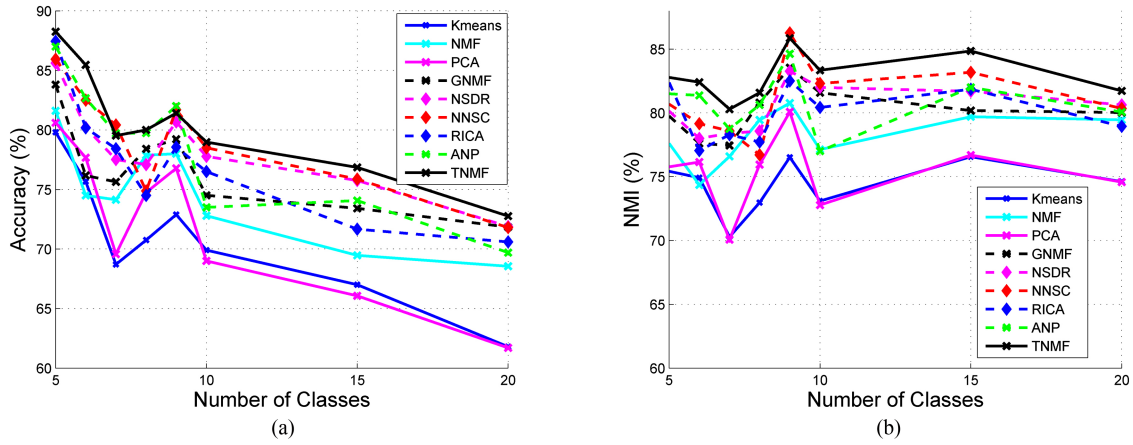


Fig. 3. Clustering results on ORL dataset. (a) Accuracy. (b) NMI.

TABLE I  
CLUSTERING RESULTS ON ORL DATASET

N	Accuracy (%)								
	Kmeans	NMF	PCA	GNMF	NSDR	NNSC	RICA	ANP	TNMF
5	79.80±2.80	81.60±1.18	80.60±2.64	83.80±1.75	85.61±1.66	85.94±1.57	87.44±1.04	87.00±0.66	<b>88.25±0.62</b>
6	75.67±1.63	74.50±1.21	77.67±0.92	76.17±1.26	80.20±1.17	82.50±1.28	80.17±0.45	82.67±0.87	<b>85.46±0.97</b>
7	68.71±1.55	74.14±1.55	69.57±1.91	75.64±1.17	77.52±1.10	<b>80.42±0.82</b>	78.42±1.12	79.71±1.02	79.52±0.90
8	70.75±0.81	77.88±0.75	74.75±1.16	78.41±0.57	77.09±0.59	74.88±0.17	74.50±1.11	79.75±0.42	<b>80.00±0.43</b>
9	72.89±0.47	78.00±1.32	76.78±1.73	79.22±0.52	80.67±0.49	81.70±0.62	78.56±0.50	<b>82.00±0.54</b>	81.41±0.53
10	69.90±0.52	72.80±0.59	69.00±0.49	74.51±0.47	77.78±0.63	78.50±0.43	76.50±0.67	73.50±0.47	<b>78.98±0.41</b>
15	67.00±0.36	69.47±0.16	66.07±0.16	73.42±0.31	75.75±0.52	75.87±0.37	71.67±0.37	74.07±0.22	<b>76.85±0.38</b>
20	61.80±0.29	68.55±0.33	61.70±0.34	71.84±0.23	71.89±0.22	71.80±0.08	70.60±0.15	69.70±0.46	<b>72.77±0.06</b>
Avg.	70.81±1.05	74.62±0.89	72.02±1.17	76.62±0.79	78.31±0.80	78.95±0.67	77.23±0.68	78.55±0.58	<b>80.41±0.54</b>
N	Normalized Mutual Information (%)								
	Kmeans	NMF	PCA	GNMF	NSDR	NNSC	RICA	ANP	TNMF
5	75.42±3.60	77.60±1.45	75.78±3.50	79.75±1.33	80.14±1.02	80.68±1.28	82.37±1.24	81.50±0.85	<b>82.78±0.71</b>
6	74.92±1.44	74.36±1.07	76.15±0.69	77.61±0.89	78.00±0.81	79.16±0.55	77.05±0.46	81.37±0.68	<b>82.41±0.41</b>
7	70.29±1.01	76.59±1.29	70.07±1.48	77.45±0.73	78.40±0.87	78.58±0.93	78.29±1.01	78.75±0.86	<b>80.29±0.75</b>
8	72.97±0.61	79.45±0.57	75.95±0.88	80.81±0.62	78.57±0.56	76.71±0.11	77.72±0.87	80.63±0.39	<b>81.58±0.28</b>
9	76.52±0.21	80.77±0.65	80.08±0.76	83.54±0.52	83.27±0.36	<b>86.27±0.38</b>	82.51±0.25	84.63±0.27	85.85±0.22
10	73.10±0.41	77.13±0.49	72.78±0.32	81.58±0.39	82.00±0.48	82.31±0.41	80.43±0.34	77.00±0.25	<b>83.34±0.32</b>
15	76.57±0.15	79.70±0.07	76.69±0.08	80.18±0.23	81.69±0.28	83.18±0.24	81.85±0.27	82.00±0.08	<b>84.85±0.23</b>
20	74.61±0.14	79.46±0.14	74.58±0.13	80.03±0.14	80.63±0.23	80.35±0.07	78.95±0.08	80.07±0.20	<b>81.73±0.07</b>
Avg.	74.30±0.95	78.13±0.72	75.26±0.98	80.11±0.61	80.34±0.58	80.91±0.50	79.90±0.57	80.75±0.45	<b>82.85±0.37</b>

#### IV. EXPERIMENTS

In this section, the datasets and evaluation metrics are first introduced. Then, we evaluate the performance of the proposed TNMF model for image clustering over some previous state-of-the-art algorithms. Once the clustering results are obtained, we further analyze their statistical significance. Finally, we analyze the computational complexity of TNMF, and experimentally show the speed of its convergence. All experiments were conducted on a windows machine with Intel Core2 Duo 3 GHz CPU(E8400) and 3 GB RAM.

##### A. Datasets

The performance of TNMF is evaluated on three public image datasets: AT&T ORL,<sup>1</sup> Caltech 101 [30], and Yale.<sup>2</sup>

- 1) The ORL dataset contains ten different images in each of 40 distinct subjects, thus 400 images in total. For

some subjects, the images were taken at different times, varying the lighting, facial expressions (open/closed eyes, smiling/not smiling), and facial details (glasses/no glasses). Each image is 32×32 pixels with 256 gray levels per pixel.

- 2) Caltech 101 dataset contains 9144 images, which belong to 101 object classes and 1 background class including animals, vehicles, etc. Following the same experiment setup in ANP [20], we choose the ten largest categories as our experimental data which consists of 3044 images in total, and extract the SIFT descriptors [31] to form a 500-D frequency histogram [32] for each image.
- 3) Yale Face dataset consists of 165 grayscale images with 15 subjects. Each subject has 11 images, which are different facial expression or configuration: center-light, w/glasses, happy, left-light, w/no glasses, normal, right-light, sad, sleepy, surprised, and wink. Each image is 32×32 pixels with 256 gray levels per pixel.

<sup>1</sup><http://www.uk.research.att.com/facedatabase.html>

<sup>2</sup><http://cvc.yale.edu/projects/yalefaces/yalefaces.html>

TABLE II  
CLUSTERING RESULTS ON CALTECH 101 DATASET

$N$	Accuracy (%)								
	Kmeans	NMF	PCA	GNMF	NSDR	NNSC	RICA	ANP	TNMF
2	74.00±3.83	76.88±4.42	73.88±3.88	78.03±4.04	78.45±4.21	80.49±2.24	81.13±2.36	82.13±3.96	<b>83.34±2.32</b>
3	58.25±3.31	68.25±2.83	56.00±2.41	75.64±2.63	75.81±2.74	74.88±1.10	75.63±1.57	76.17±2.70	<b>78.78±1.54</b>
4	56.06±2.35	66.88±2.41	57.06±2.46	74.53±2.15	74.07±2.37	73.96±1.34	74.25±1.04	71.56±1.90	<b>75.25±1.12</b>
5	52.30±0.94	60.20±1.37	51.80±0.89	68.41±1.16	68.74±1.86	66.17±0.57	67.56±0.76	66.55±1.35	<b>70.04±0.54</b>
6	49.96±0.47	58.71±1.05	48.79±0.44	65.78±0.95	65.97±1.23	63.41±0.60	64.75±0.37	63.17±0.99	<b>66.06±0.66</b>
7	46.50±0.47	54.00±0.57	46.18±0.37	61.76±0.51	62.52±0.77	61.04±0.44	61.75±0.34	58.14±0.71	<b>64.13±0.40</b>
8	46.06±0.27	54.53±0.38	45.03±0.24	59.85±0.31	60.17±0.46	60.02±0.25	59.10±0.07	59.84±0.53	<b>62.23±0.14</b>
9	43.94±0.21	54.22±0.26	43.06±0.15	58.27±0.24	58.46±0.28	59.13±0.08	58.52±0.21	58.83±0.24	<b>60.54±0.12</b>
10	42.02±0.04	51.52±0.16	40.00±0.04	56.45±0.10	56.57±0.20	57.77±0.08	58.47±0.14	57.63±0.07	<b>58.97±0.06</b>
Avg.	52.12±1.32	60.58±1.49	51.31±1.21	66.52±1.34	66.75±1.57	66.32±0.74	66.79±0.69	66.00±1.38	<b>68.82±0.77</b>
$N$	Normalized Mutual Information (%)								
	Kmeans	NMF	PCA	GNMF	NSDR	NNSC	RICA	ANP	TNMF
2	41.49±17.58	49.60±20.86	41.46±17.59	58.16±8.13	58.91±9.22	57.37±6.14	59.05±7.15	59.08±18.60	<b>61.54±5.48</b>
3	35.77±7.17	49.00±7.68	33.09±5.31	58.81±2.74	58.67±3.06	58.50±2.13	60.14±2.40	60.27±6.46	<b>60.46±2.55</b>
4	39.85±4.65	54.19±4.61	40.02±4.70	57.78±2.21	57.14±2.65	59.60±1.44	58.74±1.01	59.68±4.00	<b>59.88±1.63</b>
5	40.82±2.09	50.35±2.11	40.19±2.13	57.40±1.63	57.76±1.87	58.42±0.87	58.44±0.56	58.02±2.07	<b>59.50±0.86</b>
6	41.13±1.14	50.91±1.50	40.30±0.98	57.04±0.55	57.39±0.60	56.59±0.47	57.80±0.25	57.08±1.38	<b>58.07±0.52</b>
7	38.81±0.86	48.32±0.78	38.10±0.75	56.51±0.47	56.64±0.54	56.21±0.39	<b>56.79±0.27</b>	51.91±0.91	56.66±0.49
8	41.58±0.63	50.89±0.47	40.89±0.45	56.47±0.33	<b>56.57±0.36</b>	56.02±0.16	56.10±0.10	55.93±0.55	56.23±0.19
9	41.95±0.23	52.30±0.32	41.00±0.21	56.34±0.26	56.43±0.31	56.79±0.06	56.17±0.14	56.08±0.21	<b>56.83±0.18</b>
10	40.86±0.03	51.17±0.13	38.57±0.05	56.31±0.21	56.37±0.24	56.33±0.14	56.20±0.22	56.39±0.09	<b>56.92±0.11</b>
Avg.	40.25±3.82	50.75±4.27	39.29±3.57	57.20±1.84	57.32±2.09	57.31±1.30	57.71±1.34	57.16±3.81	<b>58.45±1.33</b>

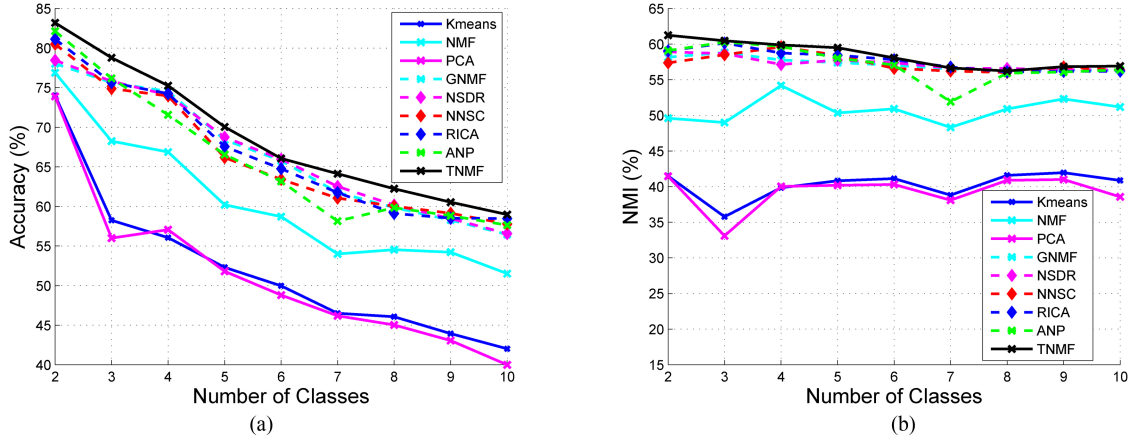


Fig. 4. Clustering results on the Caltech 101 dataset. (a) Accuracy. (b) NMI.

### B. Evaluation Metrics

The clustering results are usually evaluated by comparing the cluster label of each sample with its label provided by the database. Similar to [20], two standard clustering metrics, the accuracy (AC) and normalized mutual information metric (NMI), are utilized to measure the clustering performance. Given a dataset with  $n$  images, for each image  $x_i$ , denote by  $e_i$  and  $r_i$  the cluster label and the ground truth provided by the database, respectively. The metric AC is defined as follows:

$$AC = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \delta(r_i, \text{map}(e_i))}{n} \quad (24)$$

where  $\delta(x, y)$  is the delta function, which equals one if  $x = y$  and equals zero otherwise, and  $\text{map}(e_i)$  is the mapping function that maps each cluster label  $e_i$  to the best label from the database. The best mapping can be found by employing the Kuhn–Munkres algorithm [33].

Let  $C$  denote the set of clusters obtained from the ground truth and  $\tilde{C}$  obtained from our algorithm. Their mutual information metric  $MI(C, \tilde{C})$  is defined as follows:

$$MI(C, \tilde{C}) = \sum_{c_i \in C, \tilde{c}_j \in \tilde{C}} p(c_i, \tilde{c}_j) \cdot \log \frac{p(c_i, \tilde{c}_j)}{p(c_i) \cdot p(\tilde{c}_j)} \quad (25)$$

where  $p(c_i)$  and  $p(\tilde{c}_j)$  are the probabilities that an image arbitrarily selected from the dataset belongs to the clusters  $c_i$  and  $\tilde{c}_j$ , respectively, and  $p(c_i, \tilde{c}_j)$  is the joint probability that the arbitrarily selected image belongs to the clusters  $c_i$ , as well as  $\tilde{c}_j$  at the same time. In our experiments, we use the normalized mutual information  $NMI$  as follows:

$$NMI(C, \tilde{C}) = \frac{MI(C, \tilde{C})}{\max(H(C), H(\tilde{C}))} \quad (26)$$

where  $H(C)$  and  $H(\tilde{C})$  are the entropies of  $C$  and  $\tilde{C}$ , respectively. Note that  $NMI(C, \tilde{C})$  ranges from 0 to 1.  $NMI = 1$  if the two sets of clusters are identical, and  $NMI = 0$  if the two sets are independent.

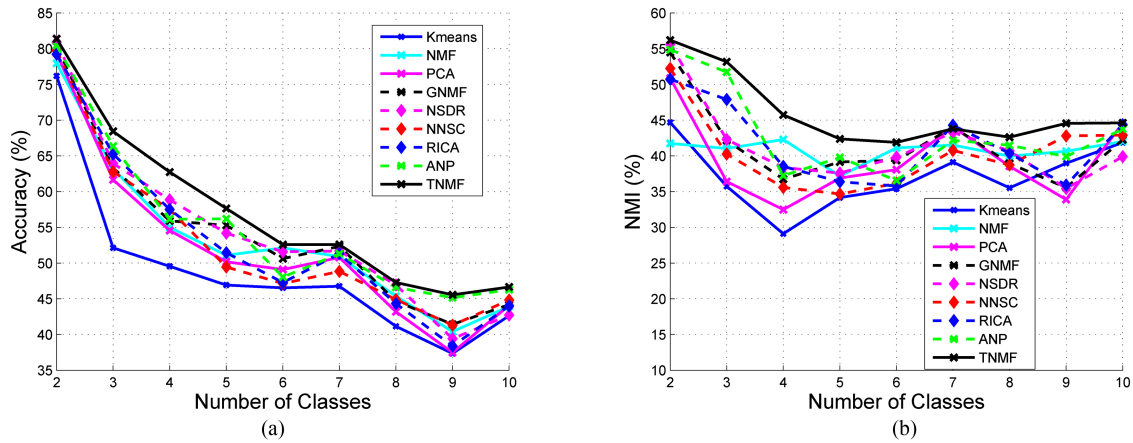


Fig. 5. Clustering results on the Yale dataset. (a) Accuracy. (b) NMI.

TABLE III  
CLUSTERING RESULTS ON YALE DATASET

N	Accuracy (%)								
	Kmeans	NMF	PCA	GNMF	NSDR	NNSC	RICA	ANP	TNMF
2	76.18±2.74	77.95±2.29	79.36±1.76	80.35±2.09	80.91±2.40	79.73±2.15	79.24±2.73	80.45±2.29	<b>81.39±2.17</b>
3	52.12±1.15	63.21±0.82	61.67±0.85	63.33±0.96	63.94±1.00	62.79±0.85	65.26±1.31	66.36±0.94	<b>68.42±0.90</b>
4	49.55±0.57	55.00±0.71	54.55±0.69	55.91±0.54	58.86±0.80	57.50±0.83	57.50±1.03	56.14±0.89	<b>62.73±0.86</b>
5	46.91±0.50	51.09±0.66	50.18±0.35	55.27±0.48	54.18±0.78	49.45±0.37	51.45±0.73	56.18±0.65	<b>57.64±0.62</b>
6	46.52±0.37	52.12±0.22	49.09±0.31	50.61±0.09	51.58±0.32	47.12±0.25	47.27±0.24	48.03±0.43	<b>52.58±0.17</b>
7	46.75±0.39	50.91±0.58	50.78±0.33	52.34±0.45	51.69±0.68	48.83±0.31	51.30±0.31	51.29±0.44	<b>52.60±0.40</b>
8	41.14±0.19	45.34±0.32	43.18±0.29	44.66±0.27	46.93±0.41	44.89±0.42	44.32±0.25	46.59±0.58	<b>47.27±0.31</b>
9	37.34±0.25	40.41±0.11	37.48±0.15	41.42±0.07	39.40±0.10	41.31±0.25	38.38±0.26	45.15±0.19	<b>45.56±0.12</b>
10	42.64±0.24	43.91±0.30	44.09±0.08	44.18±0.24	42.73±0.32	44.82±0.17	44.00±0.07	46.27±0.27	<b>46.64±0.09</b>
Avg.	48.79±0.71	53.33±0.67	52.26±0.53	54.23±0.58	54.47±0.76	52.94±0.62	53.19±0.77	55.16±0.74	<b>57.20±0.63</b>
N	Normalized Mutual Information (%)								
	Kmeans	NMF	PCA	GNMF	NSDR	NNSC	RICA	ANP	TNMF
2	44.68±3.47	41.74±2.54	50.88±2.96	54.47±3.59	55.59±3.48	52.23±3.26	50.73±3.86	54.86±3.19	<b>56.19±2.14</b>
3	35.74±2.56	41.02±2.20	36.41±2.21	42.17±2.72	42.30±2.42	40.25±2.22	47.89±3.02	51.72±2.23	<b>53.16±1.39</b>
4	29.11±1.38	42.29±1.41	32.48±1.51	36.74±0.98	38.37±1.67	35.57±2.02	38.53±2.97	37.23±0.70	<b>45.73±1.08</b>
5	34.17±1.15	37.16±0.75	36.89±0.75	39.14±0.71	37.59±0.82	34.66±0.63	36.37±1.13	39.78±0.82	<b>42.37±0.51</b>
6	35.40±0.81	41.11±0.35	38.07±0.64	39.37±0.23	39.83±0.50	36.14±0.53	35.79±0.68	36.55±0.75	<b>41.88±0.45</b>
7	39.12±0.57	41.51±0.51	44.07±0.38	44.04±0.60	43.28±0.64	40.77±0.37	<b>44.28±0.60</b>	42.18±0.29	43.79±0.40
8	35.52±0.40	39.95±0.42	38.54±0.43	38.94±0.36	40.70±0.61	38.72±0.74	40.34±0.49	41.48±0.37	<b>42.62±0.29</b>
9	38.96±0.39	40.63±0.15	33.89±0.15	35.56±0.28	35.43±0.06	42.79±0.41	35.92±0.40	39.91±0.20	<b>44.55±0.16</b>
10	41.87±0.29	42.02±0.28	44.60±0.17	42.26±0.31	39.89±0.26	42.89±0.24	44.35±0.11	43.76±0.25	<b>44.62±0.14</b>
Avg.	37.17±1.22	40.82±0.95	39.53±1.02	41.41±1.08	41.44±1.16	40.44±1.15	41.57±1.47	43.05±0.97	<b>46.10±0.72</b>

### C. Clustering Results

To evaluate the clustering performance, we compare our TNMF with other state-of-the-art algorithms on the above two datasets. The evaluated algorithms are listed below:

- 1) traditional K-means on original data (Kmeans);
- 2) nonnegative matrix factorization (NMF) [9];
- 3) principle component analysis (PCA);
- 4) graph regularized NMF (GNMF) [15];
- 5) nonnegative spectral clustering with discriminative regularization (NSDR) [4];
- 6) nonnegative sparse coding (NNSC) [22];
- 7) reconstruction ICA (RICA) [24];
- 8) A-optimal nonnegative projection (ANP) [20].

Following the same setting in ANP,  $N$  categories will be randomly picked up from the dataset with fixing cluster number  $N$ . All of these images are mixed into the collection  $X$  for clustering. To obtain the encodings, we set the dimensionality

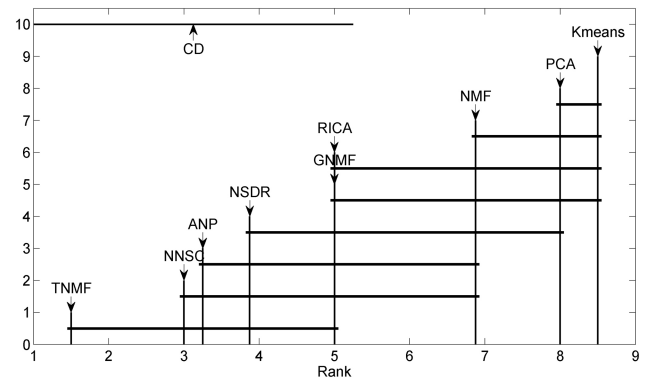


Fig. 6. Graphical representation of Nemenyi test on ORL data (CD=4.01).

of the new space to be the same as the number of clusters  $N$ . Then, K-means is applied on new representations for clustering. The above process will be repeated ten times, and both

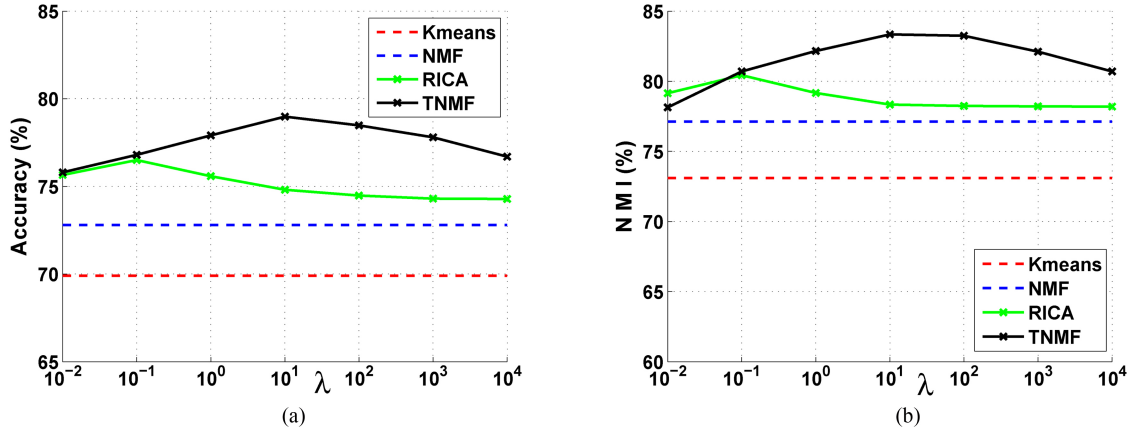


Fig. 7. Performance of TNMF versus parameter  $\lambda$ . (a) Accuracy. (b) NMI.

the average and variance of the performance are given as the final experiment result.

Fig. 3 shows the effectiveness of the proposed TNMF on ORL dataset. The detailed results are described in Table I. Our results are better than the best of the other algorithms, i.e., 1.46% improvement in accuracy averagely and 1.94% improvement in normalized mutual information averagely. Fig. 4 and Table II show the clustering results on the Caltech 101, respectively. Specifically, TNMF achieves 2.03% improvement in accuracy averagely and 0.74% improvement in normalized mutual information than the best of the other algorithms. Especially, TNMF outperforms all the other algorithms all the way in terms of clustering accuracy. In addition, Fig. 5 and Table III demonstrate the clustering results on the Yale dataset, respectively, and TNMF outperforms the other methods in most cases, i.e., 2.04% improvement in accuracy averagely and 3.05% improvement in normalized mutual information averagely.

#### D. Statistical Analysis

To evaluate the performance of our proposed TNMF, we use the Friedman test and Nemenyi test recommended in [34]. First, the average ranks of classifiers over all data are computed, and Friedman test is conducted to verify the null-hypothesis that all classifiers are equivalent in the respect of clustering performance. If the null hypothesis is rejected, then the Nemenyi test will proceed. In addition, if the average ranks of two classifiers differ by at least the critical difference (CD), then it can be concluded that their performances are significantly different.

In the Friedman test, we set the significant level  $\alpha = 0.05$ . Based on the accuracies of all methods over each cluster number on ORL dataset, we obtain the  $p$ -value =  $6.14 \times 10^{-23}$  by performing the Friedman test. Since  $p$ -value is lower than  $\alpha$ , we can reject the null hypothesis and Nemenyi test can proceed. As shown in Fig. 6 for CD diagram, TNMF achieves significant improvement over NMF, PCA, and Kmeans on ORL data. In addition, TNMF is much more competitive with some state-of-the-arts methods, NNSC, ANP, NSDR, GNMF, and RICA.

TABLE IV  
RUNNING TIME (IN SECONDS)

$N$	5	10	15	20
NMF	0.13s	0.33s	0.49s	0.71s
RICA	4.37s	10.69s	13.68s	17.46s
TNMF	0.14s	0.36s	0.60s	0.97s

#### E. Tuning Parameter Selection

In the experiments, we experimentally set  $\lambda = 10$  for the ORL data,  $\lambda = 100$  for Caltech data, and  $\lambda = 0.01$  for Yale data. Fig. 7 shows how the performance of TNMF varies with the parameter  $\lambda$  on ORL dataset for cluster number  $N=10$ . It is easy to find that the TNMF is stable with respect to the parameter  $\lambda$ .

#### F. Computational Complexity Analysis and Convergence Study

In this experiment, we test the speed performance of the original NMF, RICA, and our TNMF, and meanwhile investigate the effect over the cluster number  $N$  as 5, 10, 15, and 20. In addition, all the algorithms are terminated when changes of the parameter vector drop below  $10^{-6}$ . We use the RICA implementation provided in [24]. Table IV shows the running times for NMF, RICA, and our TNMF. The results show that our method is much faster than the RICA and slightly slower than NMF. However, as shown in Section IV-C, TNMF achieves much better clustering performance than NMF. In addition, the overall cost of TNMF is same as the original NMF for each update step (i.e.  $O(mnt)$ ).

In Section III-B, we have theoretically proved the convergence of TNMF, and now we experimentally show the speed of convergence of TNMF in comparison to the NMF in Fig. 8. Note that we set the cluster number  $N = 10$ . Fig. 8 demonstrates that TNMF converges as fast as NMF within 400 iterations.

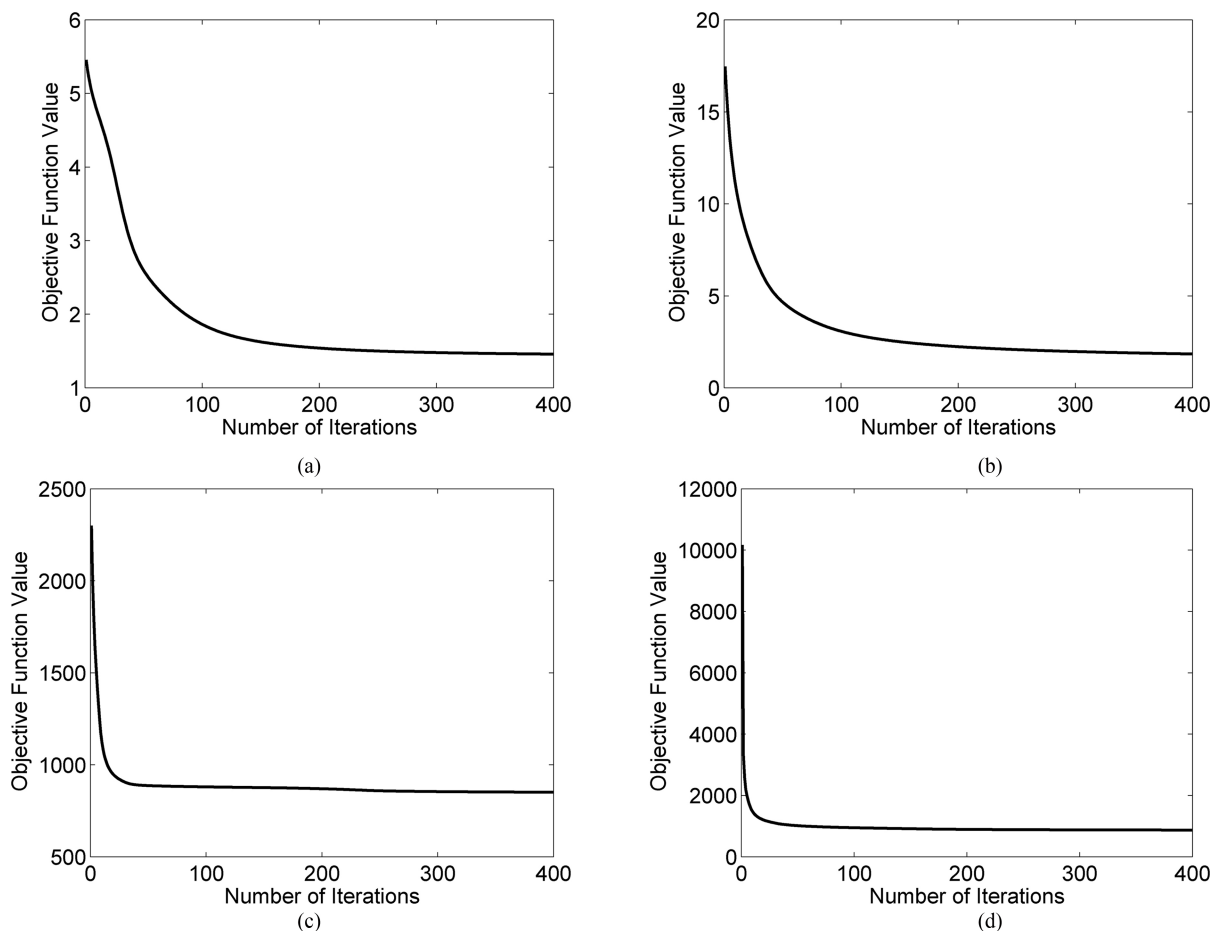


Fig. 8. Convergence of NMF and TNMF on ORL and Caltech 101 datasets. (a) ORL-NMF. (b) ORL-TNMF. (c) Caltech-NMF. (d) Caltech-TNMF.

## V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we propose a topographic NMF algorithm for data clustering, called TNMF. TNMF explicitly incorporates a topographic constraint to force encodings to be organized in a topographical map by pooling structure-correlated features together to achieve invariance. The experiments conducted on standardized datasets have demonstrated the effectiveness of the proposed method.

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