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# Local orthogonal greedy pursuits for scalable sparse approximation of large signals with shift-invariant dictionaries

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**Abstract**—We propose a way to increase the speed of greedy pursuit algorithms for scalable sparse signal approximation. It is designed for dictionaries with localized atoms, such as time-frequency dictionaries. When applied to OMP, our modification leads to an approximation as good as OMP while keeping the computation time close to MP. Numerical experiments with a large audio signal show that, compared to OMP and Gradient Pursuit, the proposed algorithm runs in over 500 less time while leaving the approximation error almost unchanged.

**Index Terms**—sparse approximation, greedy algorithms, local atoms, orthogonal matching pursuit

## I. INTRODUCTION

A sparse approximation of a signal  $s$  over a *dictionary*  $\Phi$  is a linear approximation of  $S$  on a few vectors of  $\Phi$  called *atoms*. Finding such a good approximation is a key issue in various domains such as compression, under-determined source separation, and more recently compressed sensing. The problem of finding the closest  $m$ -term approximant is NP-Complete due to the combinatorial exploration of all subsets of  $\Phi$ . Many algorithms have been proposed to obtain good sparse approximations in polynomial time, but even polynomial algorithms can prove too expensive for large signal dimensions.

Today's most popular approaches are  $\ell^1$  minimization, on the one hand, which is tackled with specialised convex optimization iterative techniques, and greedy algorithms, on the other hand, which iteratively decrease the approximation error by relaxing the sparsity constraint. In this paper we focus on the latter class, which includes Matching Pursuit (MP) [1], Orthogonal Matching Pursuit (OMP) [1], [2], as well as several variants such as Gradient Pursuit (GP) [3] or Relaxed Greedy Algorithm [4]. Roughly speaking, MP is fast but can yield substantially poorer approximation performance than OMP and GP, which however typically have substantially larger running times for large data.

In this paper we propose a way to drastically reduce the complexity of greedy algorithms in the special case of localized atoms. We illustrate the properties of the proposed algorithm by comparing it with MP, OMP and GP on a high

dimensional audio signal.

## II. GREEDY ALGORITHMS

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be an Hilbert space of finite dimension  $N$ . A dictionary  $\Phi$  is a set of unit norm vectors  $\varphi_k$  of  $\mathcal{H}$  called atoms. We will also use the notation  $\Phi$  for the matrix that admits the atoms  $\varphi_k$  as columns. A sparse approximation of a signal  $s$  over a dictionary  $\Phi$  is a vector  $x$  with small approximation error  $\|s - \Phi x\|_2$  under a constraint on the number of nonzero coefficients  $\#\{k, x_k \neq 0\}$ , usually denoted with the  $\ell^0$  "norm"  $\|x\|_0$ . Finding the best approximation with  $\|x\|_0 \leq K$  is an NP-hard problem, and greedy algorithms are sub-optimal iterative algorithms that attempt to solve this problem by successively adding new atoms into a sparse approximation  $\Phi_i x_i$  with the objective of minimizing the new residual  $r_i = s - \Phi_i x_i$ . Each iteration  $i$  of a greedy algorithm is composed of two successive steps:

- 1) **selection**: find the atom that has the highest scalar product with the residual  $\varphi_i = \operatorname{argmax}_{\varphi \in \Phi} |\langle r_{i-1}, \varphi \rangle|$  and add it to the selected atoms  $\Phi_i = \Phi_{i-1} \cup \varphi_i$ ;
- 2) **update** the coefficients  $x_i$  (and the residual  $r_i$ ), trying to minimize the new approximation error  $\|r_i\|_2$ .

Several update rules have been proposed, among which

- 1) MP :  $r_i = r_{i-1} - \langle r_{i-1}, \varphi_i \rangle \varphi_i$ ;
- 2) OMP:  $r_i = r_{i-1} - \Phi_i (\Phi_i^T \Phi_i)^{-1} \Phi_i^T r_{i-1}$ ;
- 3) GP :  $r_i = r_{i-1} - \frac{\|\Phi_i^T r_{i-1}\|_2}{\|\Phi_i \Phi_i^T r_{i-1}\|_2} \Phi_i \Phi_i^T r_{i-1}$ .

MP is the fastest of the above described algorithms, because it only attempts to optimize the coefficient of the last selected atom to minimize the new approximation error. OMP optimizes all coefficients to obtain the minimum error with the set of selected atoms. This can provide a much smaller error, but to the price of significantly more computations. GP essentially attempts to reduce the cost of OMP by performing the first step of a conjugate gradient descent to approximate the full projection OMP would perform.

Table I indicates the complexity order of each step for MP, OMP and GP with a general dictionary. The main quantities driving the complexity are  $N$  (the dimension of the signal

space),  $\alpha \geq 1$  (the redundancy of the dictionary that contains  $\alpha N$  atoms), and  $i$  (the iteration number, which indicates that  $i$  atoms have been selected). Since the goal is to obtain a sparse approximation of the signal, the iteration number  $i$  is always lower than the signal dimension  $N$ .

The selection step involves two substeps: the computation of the  $\alpha N$  correlations  $\langle r_{i-1}, \varphi \rangle$ ,  $\varphi \in \Phi$ , each of them costing of the order of  $N$  multiply-add; the search for the atom with *maximum* correlation, which requires  $\alpha N - 1$  comparisons. The update step for OMP involves computing the *Gram matrix*  $G_i = \Phi_i^T \Phi_i$ , which can be updated from the previously computed  $\Phi_{i-1}^T \Phi_{i-1}$  but requires the computation of the scalar product of the last selected atom  $\varphi_i$  with the  $i - 1$  previous ones  $\Phi_{i-1}$ . Then, the new *coefficients*  $x_i$  in OMP can be computed by inverting the Gram matrix with a cost roughly quadratic in the size  $i$  of the matrix by reusing the computations done in previous iterations. The exact cost will depend on the chosen inversion method. A more complete study about it, as well as the explanations for GP complexity, can be found in [3]. Eventually, all methods require updating the *residual*, which involves an  $N \times i$  matrix multiply  $\Phi_i x_i$  and/or updating the  $N$  entries of the vector.

Table I  
COMPLEXITY ORDER OF A GIVEN ITERATION OF SEVERAL GREEDY ALGORITHMS IN THE GENERAL CASE

| Step             | MP  | OMP                                 | GP                    |
|------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| <b>selection</b> | $\lambda = \Phi^* r$<br>$\operatorname{argmax}( \lambda )$                                      | $ND = N^2 \alpha$<br>$D = N \alpha$ |                       |
| <b>update</b>    | $G_i = \Phi_i^* \Phi_i$<br>$\delta_i = G_i^{-1} \lambda_i$<br>$r_i = r_{i-1} - \delta_i \Phi_i$ | 0<br>0<br>$N$                       | $iN$<br>$i^2$<br>$iN$ |

### III. LOCAL DICTIONARIES

Dictionaries are said to be *local* if the length  $L$  of the convex hull of the support of the atoms is much smaller than the signal length:  $L \ll N$ . Common shift-invariant dictionaries such as Gabor or wavelets dictionaries are local. This structure can be exploited to substantially decrease the algorithms' complexity through the following tricks:

- the cost for computing a scalar product drops from  $N$  to  $L$ , making the projection step of *OMP* and *GP* cheaper.
- with the MP update, between two consecutive iterations, the residual only changes on the support  $\operatorname{support}(\varphi_i) := \{t, \varphi_i(t) \neq 0\}$  of the last selected atom. This leaves only about  $\alpha L$  correlations to recompute instead of  $\alpha N$ , since all the other ones are still relevant. This drives down the cost to  $\alpha L \log L$ .
- previous comparisons between the correlations can also be stored in a tournament tree to make the search of the maximum faster.
- the complexities for the manipulation of  $G_i$  are also quite pessimistic as it should be sparse: if 2 atoms have disjoint supports, then their scalar product is null. Fast pres election of the subset of atoms that can possibly be correlated with the last one can be performed within logarithmic complexity if the atoms are sorted by increasing support location.

These tricks are implemented in the Matching Pursuit ToolKit (MPTK<sup>1</sup>) C++ library [5] and enable a speedup of up to a 100 times in decomposition, allowing  $I = 1.5 \cdot 10^6$  iterations of MP on a twenty-minute 44kHz audio signal ( $N = 60 \cdot 10^6$  samples) to be performed in less than twenty minutes of computation time on a standard PC, with an  $\alpha = 3$  times overcomplete dictionary of Gabor atoms of length  $L = 1024$ .

The key property that makes such speedup possible is that *the residual update is also local*: the residual outside the support of the last selected atom is the same before and after the update. This locality property could certainly be used to speed up the first iterations of OMP or GP, however in OMP/GP the updated support size will grow with the number of iterations until the whole signal support is spanned by selected atoms.

Table II summarizes the complexity order of each step (except the first one which involves computing all correlations) of MP, OMP and GP with a general local dictionary.

Table II  
COMPLEXITY ORDER OF A GIVEN ITERATION (AFTER THE FIRST ONE) OF SEVERAL GREEDY ALGORITHMS WITH LOCAL DICTIONARIES

| Step             | MP  | OMP                        | GP                                 |
|------------------|---|----------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <b>selection</b> | $\lambda = \Phi^* r$<br>$\operatorname{argmax}( \lambda )$                                      | $L^2 \alpha$<br>$L \alpha$ | $LD = LN \alpha$<br>$D = N \alpha$ |
| <b>update</b>    | $G_i = \Phi_i^* \Phi_i$<br>$\delta_i = G_i^{-1} \lambda_i$<br>$r_i = r_{i-1} - \delta_i \Phi_i$ | 0<br>0<br>$L$              | $iL$<br>$i^2$<br>$iL$              |

The situation is completely different from the general case. The only difference between the costs of MP and OMP used to be the projection step. As the cost for computing , and becomes negligible compared to the huge gap that appears in the selection step.

This asks for other algorithms to fill the gap between MP and OMP. To our knowledge, all approaches to decrease OMP complexity emphasize the reduction in the cost of the update step (e.g., by replacing full matrix inversion by conjugate gradient descent as in [3]), not the selection step.

Additional hypotheses on the structure dictionary might bring other improvements such as faster scalar product computations for all Fourier-based dictionaries.

### IV. LOCOMP ALGORITHM

#### A. Principle

As described above, in local dictionaries, simple tricks allow to significantly reduce the computational complexity of MP compared to a naive implementations. However, the cost of OMP and GP remains quite high, calling for modified algorithms to handle real-world large-scale signals, where the aimed number of atoms  $I$  is somewhat lower than the signal size  $N$ , but the latter is large enough to discourage naive computation (e.g. for one minute of music sampled at 8 kHz, we already have  $N \approx 5 \cdot 10^5$ ).

The prohibitive costs for OMP and GP are the ones with strongest dependency in  $N$ : as shown in Table II the most

<sup>1</sup><http://mptk.irisa.fr/>

costly steps are the correlation computation and maximum search, which have linear dependency in  $N$ . This linear dependency has disappeared in MP by exploiting the locality of the changes in the residual. MP is scalable to large signals because the cost of an iteration depends on  $L$ , not on  $N$ . This is why we propose an algorithm that only slightly loosens this locality property. To our knowledge, all approaches to decrease OMP complexity emphasize the reduction in the cost of the update step (e.g., by replacing full matrix inversion by conjugate gradient descent as in [3]), not the selection step, so they provide little improvement for local dictionaries.

The main idea of the proposed LocOMP algorithm is to select a sub-dictionary  $\Psi_i \subset \Phi_i$  containing the last selected atom  $\varphi_i$  and to orthogonalize the decomposition only on this sub-dictionary. The simplified algorithm is described in Algorithm 1.

---

**Algorithm 1**  $x = \text{LocOMP}(s, \Phi)$

---

```

 $r_0 = s$ 
 $\Phi_0 = \emptyset$ 
 $x_0 = 0$ 
for  $i = 1$  to  $I$  do
   $\varphi_i = \text{argmax}_{\varphi \in \Phi} |\langle r_{i-1}, \varphi \rangle|$  {selection}
   $\Phi_i = \Phi_{i-1} \cup \varphi_i$ 
   $\Psi_i = \text{neighbour}(\Phi_i, \varphi_i)$  {sub-dictionary selection}
   $\chi_i = (\Psi_i^* \Psi_i)^{-1} \Psi_i^* r_{i-1}$  {coefficients of projection on sub-dictionary}
   $x_i = x_{i-1} + \chi_i$  {update coefficients}
   $r_i = r_{i-1} - \Psi_i \chi_i$  {update residual}
end for
return  $x_I$ 

```

---

*B. Neighbourhood selection*

The key element that determines the behaviour of the algorithm is the `neighbour()` function that performs the sub-dictionary selection:

- MP corresponds to  $\text{neighbour}(\Phi_i, \varphi_i) := \varphi_i$ ;
- OMP corresponds to  $\text{neighbour}(\Phi_i, \varphi_i) := \Phi_i$ ;

As seen in Section III, the complexity of the algorithm is driven by the length of the updated residual. If this update interval is fixed, then the best sub-dictionary possible is always the one that all atoms whose support is included in that interval. The sub-dictionary selection problem can then be reduced to the choice of the interval.

In LocOMP,  $\text{neighbour}(\Phi_i, \varphi_i)$  is centered on  $\varphi_i$  with length  $3L - 2$ :  $\text{neighbour}(\Phi_i, \varphi_i)$ : it contains all the atoms  $\varphi \in \Phi_i$  which support intersects with the support of  $\varphi_i$ . This choice was mainly led by the observation that, as explained in Section III, this set is already the one that has to be searched for when updating the Gram matrix. Selecting it as the atom's neighbourhood spares another search.

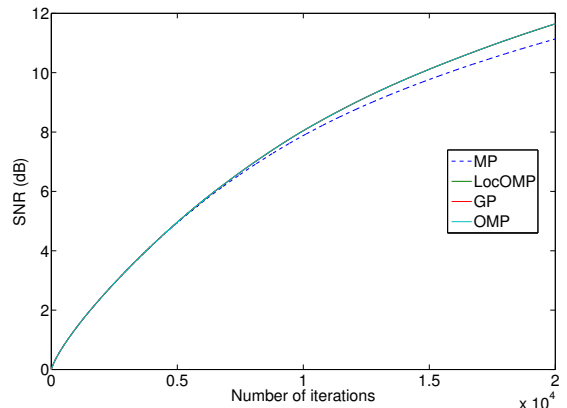


Figure 1. SNR depending on the iteration

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

LocOMP has been tested and compared to MP, OMP and GP on an excerpt from the RWC base<sup>2</sup>. It is a one-minute mono-channel jazz guitar audio signal downsampled to 8kHz ( $N \approx 5 \cdot 10^5$ ). Given the high cost of running OMP and GP for comparison (the total running time for each of these algorithms in the first experiment below was roughly  $5 \cdot 10^5$  seconds,  $\approx 5.7$  days), it was not possible to run experiments on more than one signal, and this was also the largest signal dimension we could test. In comparison, the computation time of LocOMP was 854 seconds ( $\approx 15$  minutes).

A. SNR and computation time

In a first experiment, OMP, GP, LoCOMP and MP were run for  $I = 20000$  iterations<sup>3</sup> to decompose the signal on a fully shift-invariant MDCT dictionary of scale  $L = 32$  (therefore with redundancy factor  $\alpha = 32$ ) containing  $\alpha N \approx 1.5 \cdot 10^7$  atoms. The scale roughly corresponds to the smallest scale of the windows used in AAC encoding on 44.1 kHz signals. That is a quite poor dictionary, but we could not afford to actually run OMP and GP on larger ones.

We used the approximation SNR as a measure of the quality of the approximation. Figure 1 shows the SNR reached by each algorithm at each iteration. OMP, GP and LocOMP cannot be distinguished on this plot. The final SNR for LocOMP after 20000 iterations is actually only 0.01dB lower than for OMP and GP, while the final SNR for MP is 0.6dB lower.

The CPU times per iteration evolved linearly for each algorithm. Table III shows their value for the first iteration (which is relatively costly for every algorithm because it involves computing inner products with all atoms of the dictionary), the next beginning iterations, the last iterations and finally the total duration of the complete execution.

<sup>2</sup><http://staff.aist.go.jp/m.goto/RWC-MDB/>

<sup>3</sup>The iterations of the different algorithms were interleaved on the same process to ensure a similar environment for all. The Matlab<sup>®</sup> code was compiled and run on a standard PC (2.33 Ghz, 4 Go RAM). It was not fully optimized for runtime speed, especially for the first OMP and GP iterations, but this should not affect the observed time magnitudes.

Table III  
CPU TIME PER ITERATION (s)

| Iteration               | MP    | LocOMP | GP                | OMP               |
|-------------------------|-------|--------|-------------------|-------------------|
| First ( $i = 0$ )       | 3.4   | 3.4    | 3.4               | 3.5               |
| Begin ( $i \approx 1$ ) | 0.028 | 0.033  | 3.4               | 3.4               |
| End ( $i \approx I$ )   | 0.028 | 0.050  | 40.5              | 41                |
| Total time              | 571   | 854    | $4.50 \cdot 10^5$ | $4.52 \cdot 10^5$ |

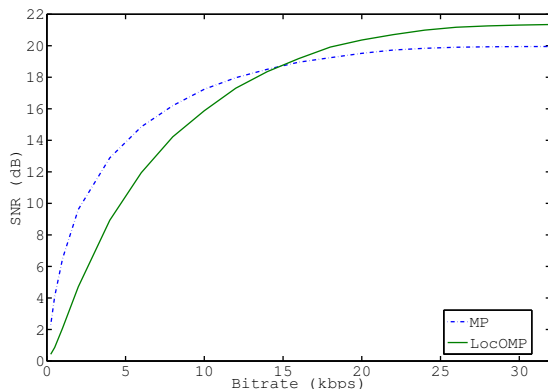


Figure 2. SNR depending on the decoding bit rate

The algorithms clearly split into two groups. The cost drop after the first iteration for MP shows that most of the first iteration was spent computing the correlations, and both MP and LocOMP iterations remain much cheaper after the first iteration. To the opposite, the cost of GP and OMP iterations grows substantially with the iteration index and reaches up to 1500 (resp. 800) times than that of MP (resp. LocOMP) iterations. On this example, LocOMP almost reached the same level of approximation error as OMP/GP, with a total computation cost only 1.5 times that of MP and 500 times smaller than that of OMP/GP.

One can also see that there is little difference between OMP and GP. Even if one was able to perform the projection step at no cost (so every OMP iteration would cost no more than the first one), OMP would still be 100 times more expensive than LocOMP on these data.

Finally, one can see that the increase in the cost of each iteration is much lower for LocOMP than for OMP and GP. This is a side effect of the neighbourhood selection: at each step the residual is projected on a much lower dimension space, which is cheaper to compute.

### B. Preliminary application to audio coding

In a second experiment, we investigated the potential use of LocOMP in the scalable coding framework proposed by Ravelli and Daudet [6]. The 8 kHz signal was decomposed on a two-scale fully shift-invariant MDCT dictionary with scales  $L_1 = 32$  and  $L_2 = 256$ , roughly corresponding at 8kHz to the scales used in AAC encoding at 44.1kHz.

Figure 2 shows the rate/distortion curve of this coding scheme using MP and LocOMP as a transform. At high rates, LocOMP coding leads to less distortion than MP coding,

with a final gain of 1.4dB. However, LocOMP also brings a degradation at lower rates. This might be partly due to the choice of a much smaller dictionary than the eight-scale dictionary used in [6].

## VI. CONCLUSION

We proposed a greedy algorithm called LocOMP for sparse approximation of long signals with large local dictionaries. This algorithm shares the same tractability properties to long signals as MP. It showed the same empirical approximation quality as OMP/GP, with a gain of 0.6 dB over MP, while the computational cost remains 500 times lower than that of OMP. We expect the approximation gain of LocOMP over MP to be more significant for dictionaries more adapted to the decomposed signal (e.g.,  $L$  rather of the order of 256, the largest scale used in AAC codecs), however for such scales it no longer seems possible to compare the proposed algorithm with OMP/GP, because of the computational complexity of the latter.

A localized version of Gradient Pursuit is under implementation in MPTK [5] to benefit from other speedups not described here. As the signal is projected on a low-dimension sub-dictionary in LocOMP, it is not clear whether replacing LocOMP by LocGP would change much, but it leads to much lighter code. We believe this implementation will open the door to large scale experiments and applications of sparse approximation that so far seemed unachievable. A prototype is already running, but it is still far from reaching the same code optimization as MP.

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