

# Computer Vision for HCI

## Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

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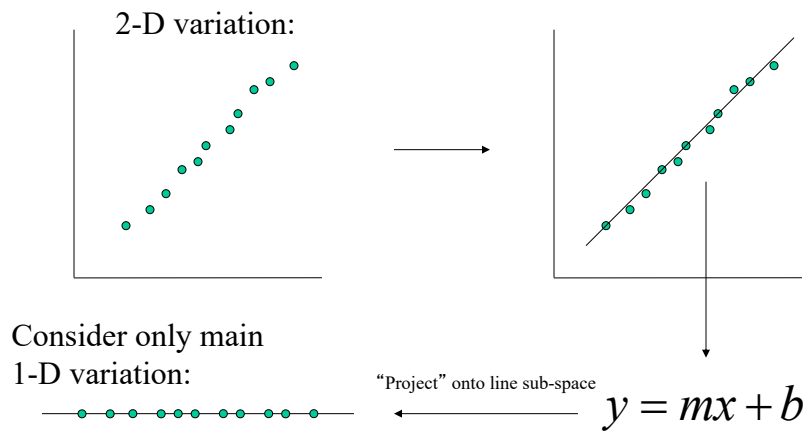
## Feature Sub-Spaces

- Many times a high-dimensional feature vector is contained within a lower-dimensional “sub-space”
- When processing the feature data (for modeling and/or recognition), it is beneficial to deal with the lower-dimensional sub-space
- PCA offers **linear** approximation to the sub-space which can be reduced to only the *major* sub-space dimensions

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# Dimensionality Reduction



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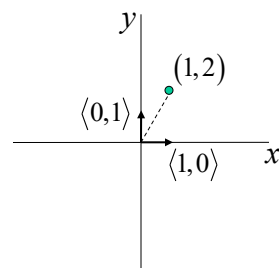
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# Linear Basis Set

- 2-D basis set

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 2 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\uparrow$   $\nearrow$   $\uparrow$   $\uparrow$   
 x,y coordinates      x-axis      y-axis

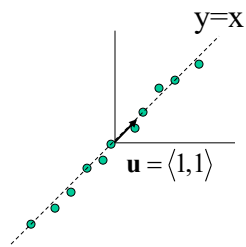


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# Linear Basis Set

- 1-D sub-space basis set



2-D space:

$$\mathbf{x}_i = a_i \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + b_i \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

1-D sub-space:

$$y_i = \gamma_i \cdot \mathbf{u} = \gamma_i \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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# Linear Basis Set

- Generate smaller dimension basis for feature vectors

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \gamma_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 + \gamma_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + \gamma_m \cdot \mathbf{u}_m$$

where  $\dim(\mathbf{x}) > m$

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# Principal Components Analysis

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## PCA

- The main idea for PCA
  - Fit a multi-dimensional Gaussian around data
    - Use covariance of data to model Gaussian
  - Select only those dimensions capturing most of the variance in data
    - Reduce dimensionality
  - Sub-space is uncorrelated

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## PCA Primer: Equation for Eigenvalues

Square matrix  $\rightarrow$   $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$   $\leftarrow$  Stretch/Scale  $\mathbf{x}$  (Eigenvalue)  
 Certain vector (Eigenvector)  $\rightarrow$   $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \lambda\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$   $\leftarrow$  Same direction as  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$   
 $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$   
 $\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}) = 0$   
 $\uparrow$   
 Want  $\mathbf{x}$  to be non-zero, thus  $\mathbf{A}$  is not invertible (determinant is zero). Each root leads to  $\mathbf{x}$ .

$\mathbf{A}$  is required to be square matrix for PCA

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## PCA Primer: Example for Finding Eigenvalues

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 4-\lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}) = (1-\lambda)(4-\lambda) - (2)(2) = \lambda^2 - 5\lambda = 0$$

$$\text{two roots: } \lambda_1 = 0, \lambda_2 = 5$$

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## PCA Primer: Finding the Eigenvectors

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda_i \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0}$$

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda_1 \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{0} & 0 \\ 0 & \textcircled{0} \end{bmatrix} \right) \mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda_2 \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{e}_2 = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\left( \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \textcircled{5} & 0 \\ 0 & \textcircled{5} \end{bmatrix} \right) \mathbf{e}_2 = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -4 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\mathbf{e}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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## PCA Primer: Test Our Results

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{e}_1 \stackrel{?}{=} \lambda_1 \mathbf{e}_1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (1 \cdot 2 - 2 \cdot 1) \\ (2 \cdot 2 - 4 \cdot 1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{e}_2 \stackrel{?}{=} \lambda_2 \mathbf{e}_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (1 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 2) \\ (2 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot 2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 10 \end{bmatrix} = 5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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## PCA Primer: Symmetric Matrices

- If **A** is symmetric ( $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T$ )
  - Real-valued eigenvalues\*\*\*
  - Eigenvectors can be chosen orthonormal\*\*\*
  - Can be factorized as
 
$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{Q}^T$$
 where **Q** orthonormal ( $\mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I}$ )  
 and **Λ** is diagonal
  - Eigenvalues go into diagonal entries of **Λ**
    - **Convention:** put largest eigenvalues first (descending values)
    - **Alternative:** put smallest eigenvalues first (ascending values)
  - Corresponding orthogonal eigenvectors are normalized (to become orthonormal) and go into columns of **Q**

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## PCA Primer: Matlab

```
>> A = [ 1 2; 2 4]
A =
     1     2
     2     4

>> [Q, S] = eig(A)
Q =
-0.8944  0.4472
0.4472  0.8944
S =
     0     0
     0     5
```

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## PCA Primer: Matlab

```
>> A = [ 1 2; 2 4];

>> [Q, S] = eig(A);

>> Q'*Q
ans =
    1.0000    0
         0    1.0000

>> A - Q*S*Q'
ans =
    0    0
    0    0
```

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## Positive Definite Matrices

- Matrix  $A$  is positive definite for all non-zero  $\mathbf{x}$  if
  - Symmetric and  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$

Positive semi-definite if  
 $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \geq 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} > 0$$

$$ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 > 0$$

- Recall equation for ellipse

$$ax^2 + by^2 = c$$

Rotated ellipse:  $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 = d$

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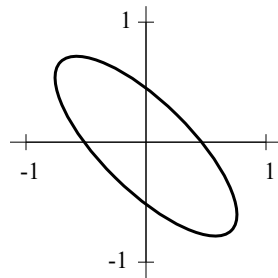
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# Ellipse Factorization

Consider the rotated ellipse:

$$5x^2 + 8xy + 5y^2 = 1$$



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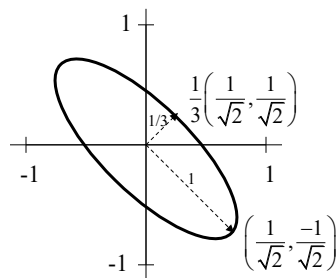
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# Ellipse Factorization

$$5x^2 + 8xy + 5y^2 = 1 \rightarrow a=5, b=4, c=5$$

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = 1$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Axes of ellipse point along eigenvectors

Half-lengths of axes are  $1/\sqrt{\lambda_i}$   
(NOTE: bigger eigenvalues give shorter axes!)

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## Eigenvector Projection

- The matrix  $\mathbf{Q}^T$  acts as a rotation matrix

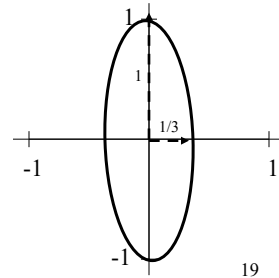
$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^T (\mathbf{Q} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^T) \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{Q}) \mathbf{\Lambda} (\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{X}$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_1^T \mathbf{x} \\ \hat{\mathbf{e}}_2^T \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}$$

Rotate previous axes:

$$\mathbf{X}_1 = \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{X}_2 = \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



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## Gaussian Density

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}} |\mathbf{K}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \cdot e^{\left[ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})^T \mathbf{K}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}) \right]}$$

(squared) Mahalanobis  
distance:

$$(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})^T \mathbf{K}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}) = C$$

**Remember this???**

Locus of all points at given distance  $C$  from  
mean (i.e., variance contour with  $C = \# \text{ stdev}^2$ )

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## Covariance

Covariance of vector  $\mathbf{x}$ :

$$\mathbf{K} = E[(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})^T] = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{B}^T$$

$\mathbf{K}$  is symmetric (and positive [semi-]definite)

Look at MATLAB's function `cov()`

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## Plotting Gaussian Density Function Contours

Describes a (rotated) ellipse (at a  $C$  variance contour, or squared stdev contour) centered around mean:

$$(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})^T \mathbf{K}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}) = C$$

Thus we can factorize  $\mathbf{K}^{-1}$  into eigenvectors (axes) and eigenvalues to give direction and half-lengths of ellipse axes

$$\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^T$$

$$\mathbf{K}^{-1} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1} \mathbf{Q}^T$$

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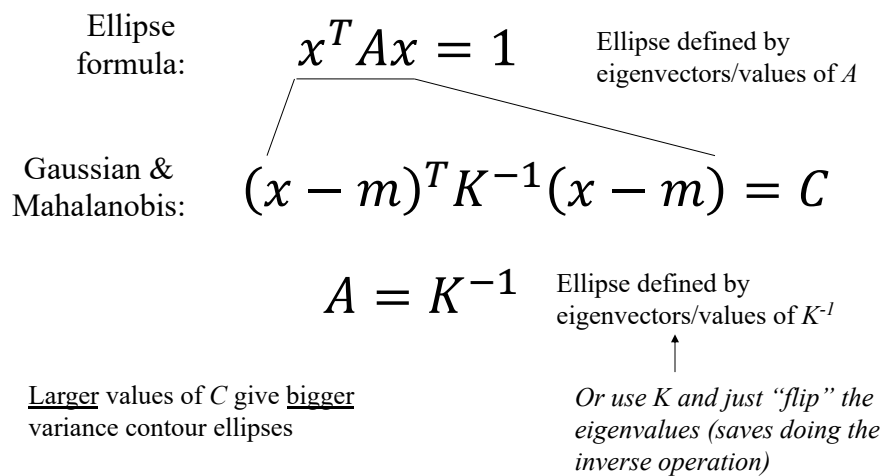
## Axes

- To compute the ellipse at Gaussian “variance” contour  $C$  ( $= \# \text{ stdev}^2$ ):
  - **Method #1:** From matrix  $\mathbf{K}^{-1}$  (inverse covariance)
    - Axes are columns in  $\mathbf{Q}$ ,
    - Half-lengths of axes are  $\frac{\sqrt{C}}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}}$ , with  $\lambda_i$  from  $\mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1}$
  - **Method #2:** From matrix  $\mathbf{K}$  (covariance)
    - Axes are columns in  $\mathbf{Q}$ ,
    - Half-lengths of axes are  $\sqrt{C\lambda_i}$ , with  $\lambda_i$  from  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$

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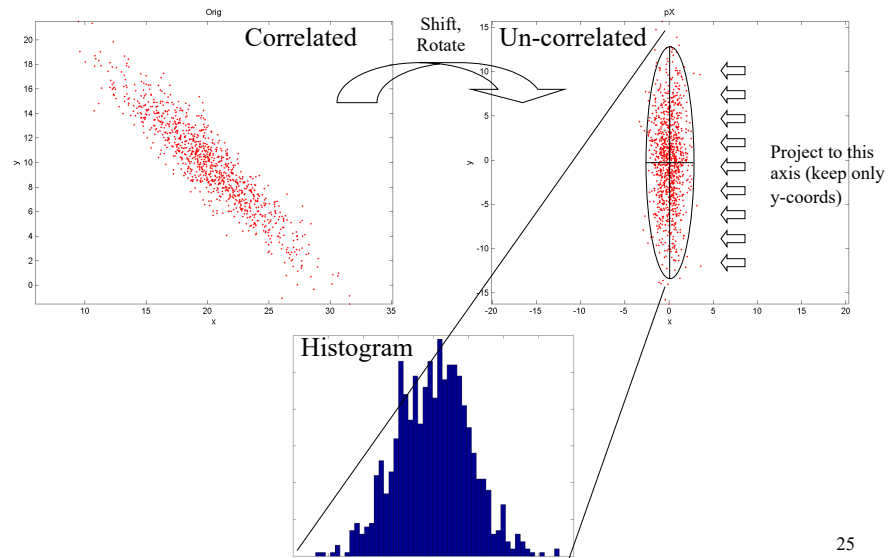
## Putting it all together...



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## Gaussian Spaces



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## Face Recognition (early days...)

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## Face Recognition Using EigenFaces (Turk & Pentland 91)

- Treat face recognition as 2-D view-based problem (images) rather than 3-D reconstruction and matching
- Project face images onto Gaussian feature space spanning significant variations among known face images
- Significant features in eigenspace for projection are called “EigenFaces”
  - Those eigenvectors capturing the majority of “variance” in data
    - Largest eigenvalues correspond to largest component variances
  - Project face image (vector) onto selected top eigenvectors

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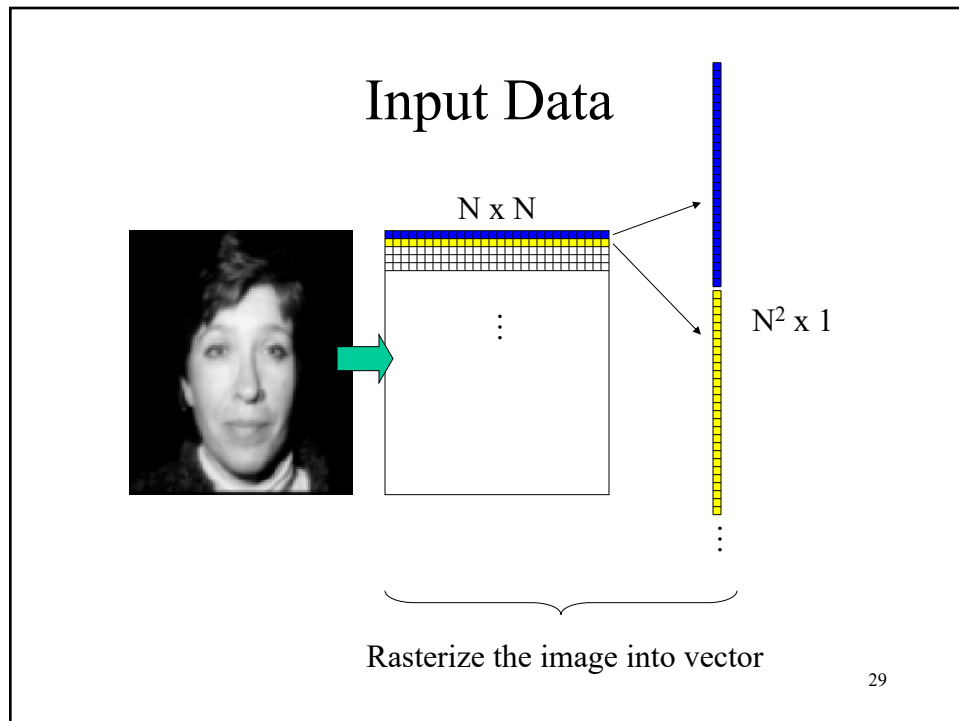
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## Using EigenFaces to Classify a Face Image

- Recognition achieved by comparing weights/coefficients of new face (after projection onto eigenspace) to other stored face weights/coefficients
  - Distance calculation more compact and efficient (uses small number of weights/coefficients)
- Calculate distance from face space or individual
  - Does it look like a face?
  - Does it look like “Joe”?

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## Input Data

- Compute mean face image  $\Psi$ 
  - From set of rasterized face images  $\Gamma_i$  (training images)
- Subtract mean from images
  - Remove the mean using  $\Phi_i = \Gamma_i - \Psi$
  - Form matrix of training faces
$$A = [\Phi_1 \ \Phi_2 \ \Phi_3 \ \cdots \ \Phi_M]$$
- Compute covariance matrix of  $A$

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## Extra: Eigen “Trick”

- Compute eigenvectors and eigenvalues of  $A$  from its covariance matrix
  - Gaussian sub-space
- Number of face images ( $M$ ) is much less than the dimension of the space ( $N^2$ )
- Thus only  $M-1$  meaningful eigenvectors in matrix  $A$ 
  - Remaining eigenvectors have eigenvalues = 0
- Can solve using a much smaller  $M \times M$  matrix and convert back to  $N^2 \times 1$  dimensionality

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## Extra: Eigen “Trick”

- Consider the eigenvectors  $\mathbf{v}_i$  of  $A^T A$ 
  - Recall  $AA^T$  is how to compute covariance matrix  $K$  for  $\Phi_i$  data
 
$$(A^T A)\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i$$
- Pre-multiplying both sides by  $A$ , we get
 
$$A(A^T A)\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i A\mathbf{v}_i$$
- Thus  $\mathbf{u}_i = A\mathbf{v}_i$  are the eigenvectors of  $AA^T$ 

Covariance matrix  $\longrightarrow (AA^T)[A\mathbf{v}_i] = \lambda_i [A\mathbf{v}_i]$
- Size comparison
  - Matrix  $A^T A$  is size  $M \times M$
  - Matrix  $AA^T$  (a covariance) is size  $N^2 \times N^2$
- Hence, compute eigenvectors/eigenvalues from  $A^T A$  and use  $\mathbf{u}_i = A\mathbf{v}_i$  to recover the desired dimensionality
  - Make sure to normalize the  $\mathbf{u}_i$  to make them unit vectors!

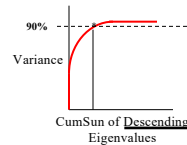
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## Compute Eigenvectors

- Retain only top  $m$  eigenvectors ( $\mathbf{u}_k$ )
  - Determine from strength of eigenvalues
  - These eigenvectors are the “EigenFaces”
- Accumulate eigenvalues until reach desired percentage of total sum of eigenvalues
  - Pre-sort eigenvalues from largest to smallest
  - Considered as “% variance captured”
  - Typically use around 90%



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## Projection into Face Space

- Project each rasterized (mean-subtracted) face image into sub-space ( $m$  eigenvectors)
  - Project onto each eigenvector (“EigenFace”)

$$\omega_k = \mathbf{u}_k^T \cdot \Phi_i$$

- Keep projection coefficients as representation of rasterized image

$$\Phi_i \rightarrow \Omega_i = [\omega_1 \ \omega_2 \ \omega_3 \ \cdots \ \omega_m]^T$$

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## Reconstruction *from* Face Space

- Reconstruct face image from sub-space
  - Reconstruct from projection coefficients on each eigenvector

$$\Phi_{recon} = \sum \omega_k \cdot \mathbf{u}_k$$

- Add back mean face

$$\Gamma_{recon} = \Phi_{recon} + \Psi$$

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## Recognition Pipeline

- Get new face image
  - Rasterize
  - Mean-subtract using  $\Psi$
- Compute  $\Omega$
- Use Sum-of-Squared-Error (SSE) to other faces in the database
  - Find best match for database items  $\Omega_i$  (assumes that new face is in the database)

$$\operatorname{argmin}_i \mathcal{E} = \|\Omega - \Omega_i\|^2$$

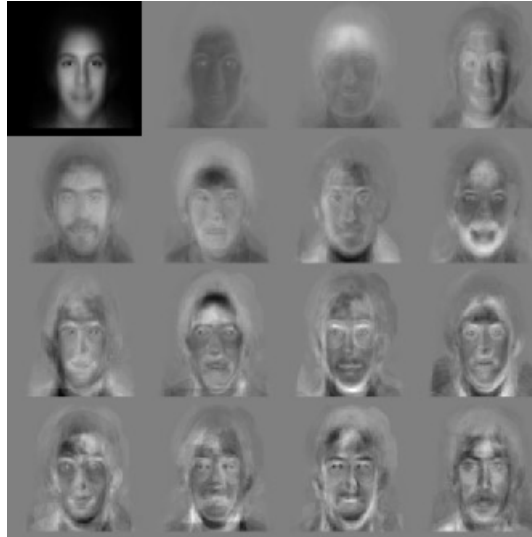
- Make sure “close enough” to face space and to person
  - Reconstruct new face image (from its projection coefficients and the eigenvectors), then threshold error distance from original face image
    - Face space only reconstructs face-like images
  - Make sure best match is within error tolerance to that person
- Other methods exist, including probabilistic methods

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## Example EigenFaces

Mean face



40 vectors were  
sufficient for 115  
training face  
images

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## EigenFace Reconstruction

Input Image



Eigenface Reconstruction



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# Face Recognition System



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## Summary

- Reduce high-dimensional input to lower-dimensional “sub-space”
  - Beneficial for recognition
- PCA offers linear approximation to the sub-space which can be reduced to only the *major* sub-space dimensions
  - Assumes Gaussian distribution
- Initial face recognition methods based on PCA
  - EigenFaces

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