

MULTI-TARGET DETECTION WITH THE GENERALIZED METHOD OF MOMENTS

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ABSTRACT

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Index Terms— One, two, three, four, five

1. INTRODUCTION

We study the multi-target detection (MTD) problem of estimating a target signal $x : \{0, \dots, L - 1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ from a noisy measurement that contains multiple copies of the signal, each randomly translated [1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6]. Specifically, let $y : \{0, \dots, N - 1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a measurement of the form

$$y[\ell] = \sum_{i=1}^p x[\ell - \ell_i] + \varepsilon[\ell], \quad (1)$$

where $\{\ell_i\}_{i=1}^p \in \{L + 1, \dots, N - L\}$ are arbitrary translations, and $\varepsilon[\ell]$ is i.i.d. Gaussian noise with zero mean and variance σ^2 .

The translations and the number of occurrences of x in y are unknown. Figure 1 presents an example of a measurement y at different signal-to-noise ratios (SNRs). We define $\text{SNR} := \frac{\|x\|_2^2}{L\sigma^2}$, where L is the length of x (in pixels), and σ^2 is the noise variance.

The MTD model arises in several scientific applications, such as passive radar [7], astronomy [8], motion deblurring [9], and system identification [10]. In particular, it serves as mathematical abstraction of the cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM) technology for macromolecular structure determination [11], [12], [13]. In a cryo-EM experiment [14], biological macromolecules suspended in a liquid solution are rapidly frozen into a thin ice layer. An electron beam then passes through the sample, and a two-dimensional tomographic projection is recorded. Importantly, the 2-D location

and 3-D orientation of particles within the ice are random and unknown. This measurement, called *micrograph*, is affected by high noise levels and the optical configuration of the microscope. This transformation is typically modeled as a convolution of the model (1) with a point spread function, whose Fourier transform is called contrast transfer function (CTF) [15], [16].

In the current analysis workflow of cryo-EM data [17], [18], [19], the 2-D projections are first detected and extracted from the micrograph, and later rotationally and translationally aligned to reconstruct the 3-D molecular structure. This approach fails for small molecules, which induce low contrast, and thus low SNR. This makes them difficult to detect and align [6], [11], [17], [20], rendering current cryo-EM algorithmic pipeline ineffective. For example, in the limit $\text{SNR} \rightarrow 0$, reliable detection of signals' locations within the measurement is impossible [6, Proposition 3.1].

The MTD model was devised in [6] in order to study the recovery of small molecules directly from the micrograph, below the current detection limit of cryo-EM [11], [21]. An autocorrelation analysis technique (see Section 2.1) was implemented to recover low-resolution 3-D structures from noiseless simulated data under a simplified model. Autocorrelation analysis consists of finding an image that best explains the empirical autocorrelations of the measurement. For any noise level, those autocorrelations can be estimated to any desired accuracy for sufficiently large N . Computing the autocorrelations is straightforward and requires only one pass over the data, which is advantageous for massively large datasets, such as cryo-EM datasets [17]. As such, autocorrelation analysis provides an attractive alternative to other computational methods, such as maximum likelihood estimation, which is intractable for the MTD problem [2].

The method of moments is a classical statistical inference technique, tracing back to 1894 [22]. This work expands on similar estimation to method of moments which is based upon an autocorrelations analysis [1], which is described in detail in Section 2.2. The estimator results in a set of parameters whose autocorrelations agree with the empirical autocorrelations of the signal y , by minimizing a least-squares (LS) objective. For computing the autocorrelations, a single pass through the signal is required. This single-pass requirement stands in contrast to main-stream parameter estimation techniques, such as maximum likelihood estimation, which usu-

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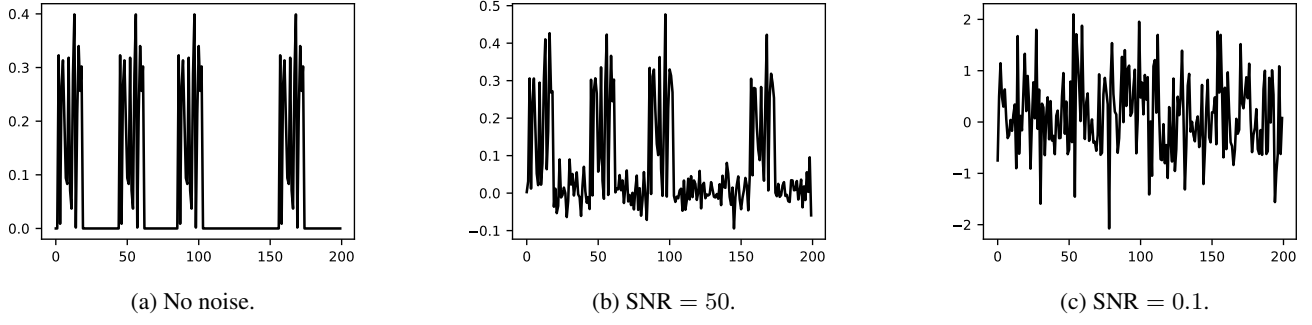


Fig. 1: Three measurements y from (1) at different noise levels: no noise (left); $\text{SNR} = 50$ (middle); $\text{SNR} = 0.1$ (right). Each measurement contains multiple copies of the target signal in arbitrary locations. In this work, our goal is to estimate the target signal directly from y . We focus on the low SNR regime (e.g., panel (c)) in which the signal occurrences are swamped by the noise, and the locations of the signal occurrences cannot be detected reliably.

ally iterates over the data. The method

This work studies the application of the estimator *generalized method of moments* (GMM) and its application to the MTD problem. The GMM theory, which was first introduced in [23], shows that the GMM provides an optimal estimator, in compare to others weighted LS objective function (or an equivalent, such as autocorrelations). As shown in previous work, the GMM estimator suggests a significant in the estimation error [24].

2. MATHEMATICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Autocorrelation analysis

The autocorrelation of order q of a random signal $z \in \mathbb{R}^N$ is defined as

$$A_z^q[\ell_1, \dots, \ell_{q-1}] := \mathbb{E}_z \left[\frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^2} z[i] z[i + \ell_1] \cdots z[i + \ell_{q-1}] \right], \quad (2)$$

where $\ell_1, \dots, \ell_{q-1}$ are integer shifts. Indexing out of bounds is zero-padded, that is, $z[i] = 0$ out of the range $\{0, \dots, N-1\}$. In this work, we use the first three autocorrelations which are explicitly given by

$$A_z^1 = \mathbb{E}_z \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} z[i] \right], \quad (3)$$

$$A_z^2[\ell] = \mathbb{E}_z \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} z[i] z[i + \ell] \right], \quad (4)$$

$$A_z^3[\ell_1, \ell_2] = \mathbb{E}_z \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} z[i] z[i + \ell_1] z[i + \ell_2] \right]. \quad (5)$$

As N grows indefinitely, the empirical autocorrelations of z almost surely (a.s.) converge to the population autocorrela-

tions of z :

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^2} z[i] z[i + \ell_1] \cdots z[i + \ell_{q-1}] \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{=} A_z^q[\ell_1, \dots, \ell_{q-1}]. \quad (6)$$

Our goal is to relate the autocorrelations of the measurement with the target signal x . In particular, the first-order autocorrelation is defined as

$$A_y^1 := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} y[i]. \quad (7)$$

This is the mean of the measurement. The second-order autocorrelation of y , $A_y^2 : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, is defined by

$$A_y^2[\ell_1] := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} y[i] y[i + \ell_1], \quad (8)$$

and the third-order autocorrelation $A_y^3 : \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$A_y^3[\ell_1, \ell_2] := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} y[i] y[i + \ell_1] y[i + \ell_2]. \quad (9)$$

2.2. Autocorrelations under the well-separated model

We first discuss the well-separated case of the MTD problem, which was studied in [1]. In this case, we assume that each signal in the measurement y is separated by at least a full signal length from its neighbors. Specifically, we assume that

$$|\ell_{i_1} - \ell_{i_2}| \geq 2L - 1, \quad \text{for all } i_1 \neq i_2. \quad (10)$$

To compute the third-order autocorrelation (9), we compute the product of y with its two shifts. Importantly, for ℓ -s in the range

$$\mathcal{L} = \{0, \dots, L-1\}, \quad (11)$$

any given occurrence of x in y is only ever correlated with itself, and never with another occurrence.

In [1], it was shown that under the separation condition (10), for any fixed level of noise σ^2 , density γ and signal length L , in the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$ we have that

$$A_y^1 \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{=} \gamma A_x^1, \quad (12)$$

$$A_y^2[\ell_1] \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{=} \gamma A_x^2[\ell_1] + \sigma^2 \delta[\ell_1], \quad (13)$$

$$A_y^3[\ell_1, \ell_2] \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{=} \gamma A_X[\ell_1, \ell_2] + \gamma S_1 \sigma^2 (\delta[\ell_1] + \delta[\ell_2] + \delta[\ell_1 - \ell_2]), \quad (14)$$

for $\ell_1, \ell_2 \in \mathcal{L}$ (defined in (11)), where

$$\delta[\ell] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \ell = \vec{0}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

is the Kronecker delta function. Here, γ is the density of the target images in the measurement and is defined by

$$\gamma = p \frac{L}{N}. \quad (16)$$

As such, (12) - (14) relate the autocorrelations of the measurement with those of the target signal x . Moreover, the signal x can be identified from its autocorrelations, and thus, potentially, also from the autocorrelations of the measurement. In [1], it was shown that γ (respectively σ) can be estimated from the first- and second-order autocorrelations of the measurement if σ (respectively γ) is known. In particular, if γ and σ are known (or are reliably estimated), we can provably determine the signal from the measurement's autocorrelations. Previous works [1], [2], [3], [4], [5] demonstrated successful signal and image estimations. Importantly, the aforementioned relations between the autocorrelations of M and F do not directly depend on the location of individual signal occurrences in the measurement, but only through the density parameter γ . Therefore, detecting the signal occurrences is not a prerequisite for signal recovery, and thus signal recovery is possible even in very low SNR regimes.

2.3. Signal recovery from autocorrelations

3. GENERALIZED METHOD OF MOMENTS

3.1. The GMM framework

In its most simplified form, the GMM generalizes (??) by replacing the LS objective with a weighted LS. In particular, a specific choice of weights guarantees favorable asymptotic statistical properties, such as the minimal asymptotic variance of the estimation error.

Let us define the *moment function*, $f(\theta, y): \Theta \times \mathbb{R}^r \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^q$. The moment function needs to be chosen such that its expectation value is zero only at a single point $\theta = \theta_0$. Namely,

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\theta, y)] = 0 \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \theta = \theta_0. \quad (17)$$

We refer to (17) as the *uniqueness of the parameter set* condition. The moment function must satisfy the uniqueness condition and a few additional regularity conditions (which can be found in [23, 24]). This flexibility enables the GMM to be applied to a wide range of problems, such as subspace estimation [25].

TODO: Define the moment function

The estimated sample moment function is the average of f over N observations:

$$g_N(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(\theta, y_i). \quad (18)$$

The GMM estimator is defined as the minimizer of the weighted LS expression,

$$\hat{\theta}_N = \arg \min_{\theta \in \Theta} g_N(\theta)^T W_N g_N(\theta). \quad (19)$$

Here, W_N is a fixed positive semi-definite (PSD) matrix. Note that the LS estimator (??) is a special case of (19).

3.2. Large Sample Properties

Before presenting the statistical properties of the GMM, we fix notation. We denote by \xrightarrow{p} and \xrightarrow{d} convergence in probability and in distribution, respectively. Let

$$S := \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{Cov} \left[\sqrt{N} g_N(\theta_0) \right], \quad (20)$$

be the covariance matrix of the estimated sample moment function (18) at the ground truth θ_0 . We denote by $\{W_N\}_{N=1}^\infty$ a sequence of PSD matrices which converges almost surely to a positive definite (PD) matrix W . Finally, the expectation of the Jacobian of the moment function at the ground truth θ_0 is denoted by $G_0 = \mathbb{E} [\partial f(\theta_0, y) / \partial \theta^T]$.

The large sample properties of the GMM estimator, were derived in [23], and are presented in the following theorem.

Theorem 3.1. *Under the uniqueness of the parameter set (17), and the regularity conditions ??-?? of Appendix ??, the GMM estimator satisfies:*

A. (Consistency) $\hat{\theta}_N \xrightarrow{p} \theta_0$.

B. (Asymptotic normality)

$$\sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, M S M^T),$$

$$\text{where } M = [G_0^T W G_0]^{-1} G_0^T W.$$

C. (Optimal choice of a weighting matrix) *The minimum asymptotic variance of $\hat{\theta}_N$ is given by $(G_0^T S^{-1} G_0)^{-1}$ and is attained by $W = S^{-1}$.*

Theorem 3.1 provides a matrix W that guarantees a minimal asymptotic variance of the estimator's error.

The covariance matrix S of (20), which plays a central role in Theorem 3.1, is required to be a PD matrix. Therefore, the moment function must be chosen so that S is full-rank. In this work, we noticed that if we remove the repeating entries of f (that appear due to the inherent symmetries of the auto-correlations), the covariance is indeed full rank (although, in some cases, ill-conditioned).

It is important to note that in practice, the ground truth θ_0 is unknown a priori, so we cannot use the optimal weighting matrix. A common heuristic is to replace (19) with an iterative scheme, which is named iterative GMM. **TODO: rephrase — However for our choice of the moment function (??), it is enough to apply the covariance on the empirical part,**

$$\text{Cov}[g_N(\theta)] = \text{Cov} \left[\begin{bmatrix} y_i; \dots; y_i^{\otimes k_M} \end{bmatrix} \right]. \quad (21)$$

The covariance depends solely on the observations $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^N$, not on the input of the parameter set θ . Therefore, in a single pass one can compute the moments estimators (??) and the optimal covariance for (??).

4. NUMERICAL EXPERIMENTS

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5. CONCLUSION

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