

BLG453E COMPUTER VISION
Fall 2017 Term
Week 13



Istanbul Technical University
Computer Engineering Department

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Learning Outcomes of the Course

Students will be able to:

1. Discuss the main problems of computer (artificial) vision, its uses and applications
2. Design and implement various image transforms: point-wise transforms, neighborhood operation-based spatial filters, and geometric transforms over images
3. Define and construct segmentation, feature extraction, and visual motion estimation algorithms to extract relevant information from images
4. Construct least squares solutions to problems in computer vision
5. Describe the idea behind dimensionality reduction and how it is used in data processing
6. Apply object and shape recognition approaches to problems in computer vision

Week : Dimensionality Reduction and its use in Computer Vision

At the end of Week: Students will be able to:

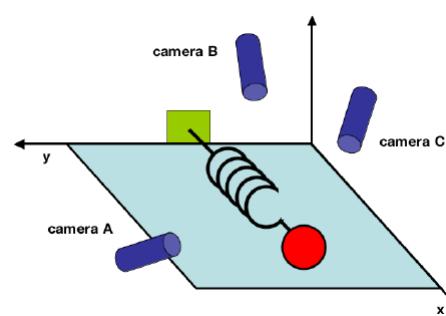
- 5. Describe the idea behind dimensionality reduction and how it is used in data processing

Dimension: no of variables measured on each observation

Intuition: Not all the measured variables are “important” for understanding the underlying phenomena of interest

Example Toy Problem

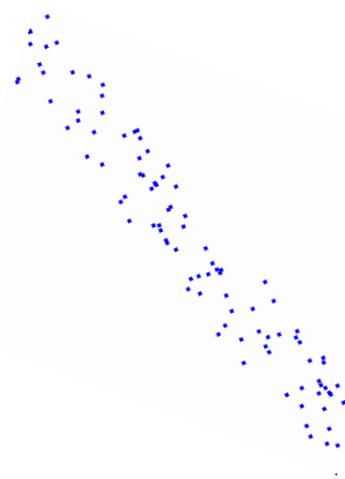
- Suppose, want to study motion of the *ideal spring*: ball of mass m attached to it, stretch the spring, it will oscillate indefinitely along the x-axis



- ❑ Say we record the ball’s 2D position from three cameras for 10 mins at 120Hz, we have $10*60*120=72,000$ measurements or observations

Example Toy Problem

Q: What is the data dimensionality ?



- ❑ In fact, the spring travels in a straight line: → any spread deviating from the straight line must be noise
- ❑ Hence, directions with largest variances in our measurement vector space contains the dynamics of interest

Dimensionality Reduction



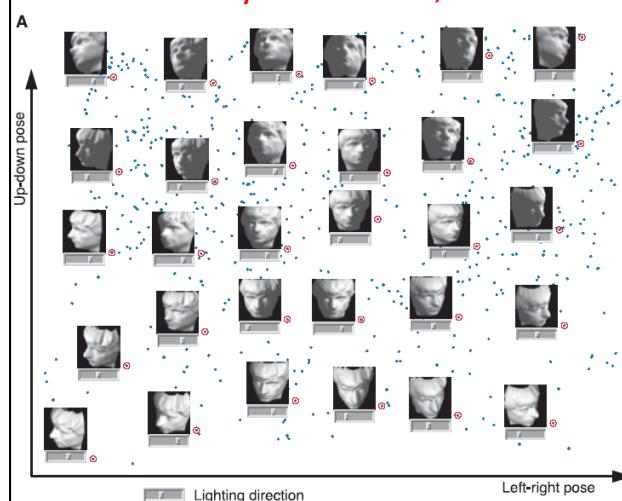
64x64 sized images → dimension = 4096

From face database: olivettifaces

Dimensionality Reduction

- Need to analyze large amounts multivariate data:
 - Human Faces, Medical images, speech signals
 - Linguistics: Syntactic language analysis
 - Climate and atmospheric patterns and data analysis
 - Gene Distributions
- Difficult to visualize data in dimensions just greater than three.
- Discover compact representations of high dimensional data.
 - Better Modeling and Recognition
 - Probably meaningful dimensions
 - Visualization
 - Compression

Typically, if 2-3 dimensions are enough to explain the variability in the data, we can do a visual analysis

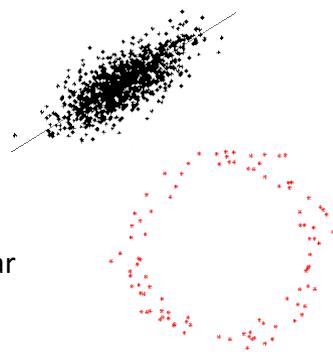


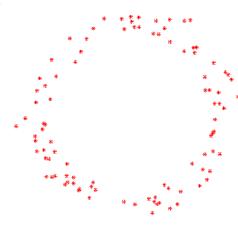
For example:

- 64X64 Input Images form 4096-dimensional vectors
- Intrinsically, three dimensions is enough for presentations:
- Two pose parameters and azimuthal lighting angle

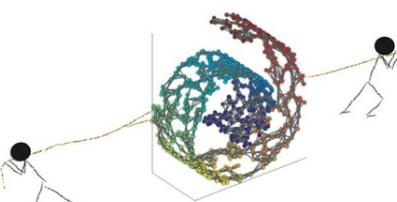
Tennenbaum | Silva | Langford: "A Global Geometric Framework for Nonlinear Dimensionality Reduction (Isomap)"

Types of Structure in Multivariate Data

- Linear


- Non-Linear


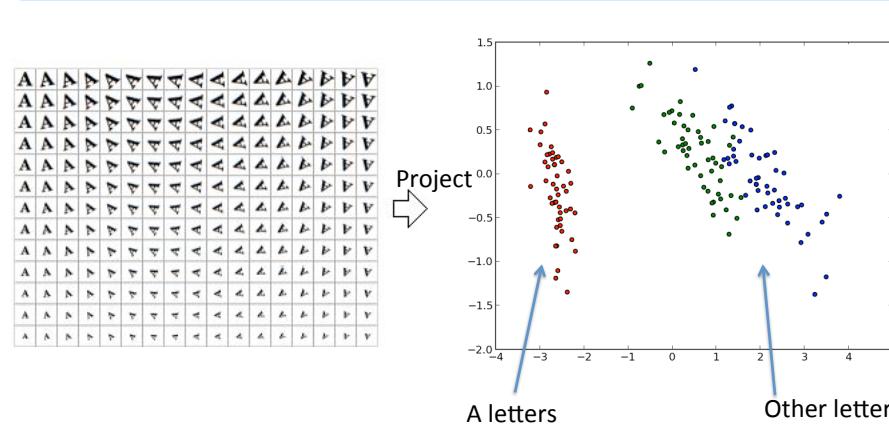
Q: Can you unroll the non-linear data to a simpler structure?



<http://www.cse.wustl.edu/~kilian/research/manifold/manifold.html>

Concept of Dimensionality Reduction:

Embed data in a higher dimensional space to a lower dimensional manifold



Question: Are there projections that can produce this 2D mapping?

Dimensionality Reduction

Goal:

High-dimensional observations/data are projected onto “meaningful” low-dimensional space

- Classical techniques
 - Principle Component Analysis—maximizes/preserves the variance
 - Multidimensional Scaling—preserves inter-point distances

Overview

- **Linear Dimensionality Reduction**
 - Principal Component Analysis (PCA)**
 - Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)
- **Applications of PCA**
 - Nonlinear Dimensionality Reduction (advanced topic, we'll cover briefly if time permits)
 - Isomap
 - Locally Linear Embedding
 - Laplacian Embedding

References:

General Ref book: E. Alpaydin, “Introduction to Machine Learning”, 2010, Chapter 6

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Tennenbaum&Silva&Langford – Roweis&Saul – Belkin&Niyogi | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> [Isomap] [Locally Linear Embedding] [Laplacian Eigenmaps] |
|---|---|

Idea in Dimensionality Reduction:

Linear Approach:

want to find a mapping $y = W^T x$, with a linear transformation:
 W is $k \times d$ dimensions, $k \ll d$

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_1 & \mathbf{w}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{w}_k \end{bmatrix}$$

i.e. write the new variable y (in a low dimension) as a linear combination of original variables:

$$y_i = w_{i1}x_1 + w_{i2}x_2 + \dots + w_{id}x_d, \quad i = 1, \dots, k$$

$$y_i = \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x}$$

Note: Each x is d -dimensional vector, y is d -dimensional vector

Linear Dimensionality Reduction:

Derive on board

Overview of Principal Component Analysis

- Principal component analysis (PCA) is a classical way to reduce data dimensionality
- PCA projects high dimensional data to a lower dimension
- PCA projects the data in the least square sense— it captures big (principal) variability in the data and ignores other small variabilities

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

$$\mathbf{X}_{d \times N} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 & \mathbf{x}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{x}_N \end{bmatrix}$$

These are Centered Data Points, i.e. mean is subtracted from each data point:

$$\mathbf{X}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{X}_i - \mathbf{X}_{mean}$$

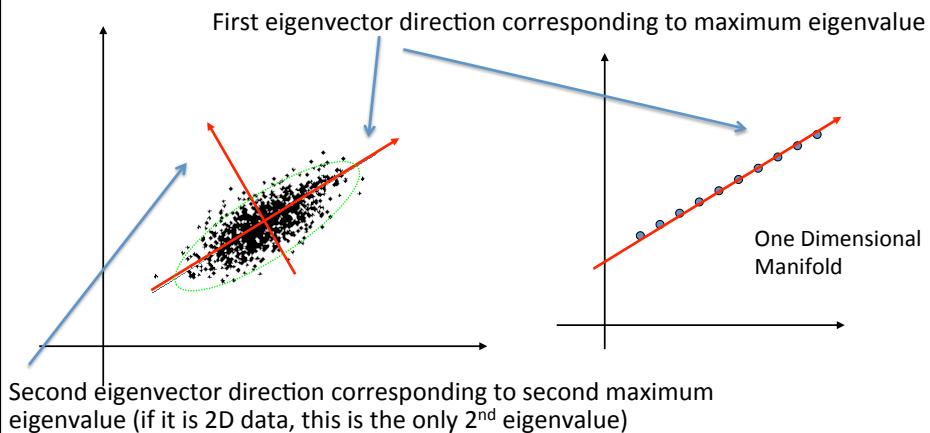
Calculate Covariance matrix S of the data:

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T$$

Perform Eigen Value Decomposition on Data Covariance matrix S, which is symmetric :

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{V}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^T$$

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)



→ Maximizing the data variance corresponds to
Finding the appropriate rotation of the canonical basis

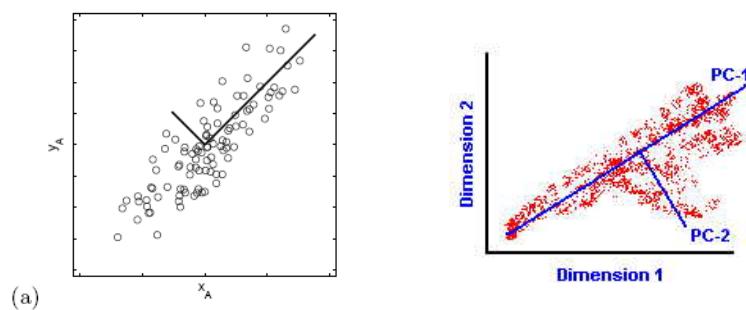


Fig (a): Independent data: one can not predict r_1 from r_2 (e.g. plot of x_A vs. Humidity)

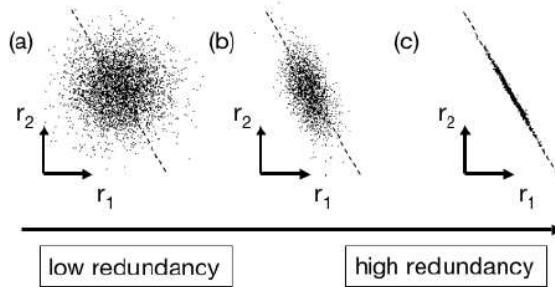


FIG. 3 A spectrum of possible redundancies in data from the two separate recordings r_1 and r_2 (e.g. x_A, y_B). The best-fit line $r_2 = kr_1$ is indicated by the dashed line.

PCA: Mathematical Derivation – Least Squares (You are not responsible from this derivation)

Let us say we have x_i , $i=1 \dots N$ data points in p dimensions (p is large)

If we want to represent the data set by a single point x_0 , then

$$\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{m} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}_i \quad \leftarrow \text{Sample mean}$$

Can we justify this choice mathematically?

$$J_0(\mathbf{x}_0) = \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_0\|^2$$

It turns out that if you minimize J_0 , you get the above solution, i.e., sample mean

PCA: Mathematical Derivation

Representing the data set $\mathbf{x}_i, i=1 \dots N$ by its mean is quite uninformative

So let's try to represent the data by a straight line of the form:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{m} + a\mathbf{e}$$

This is equation of a straight line that says that it passes through m

\mathbf{e} is a unit vector along the straight line

The training points projected on this straight line would be

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{m} + a_i\mathbf{e}, \quad i = 1 \dots N$$

PCA: Mathematical Derivation

Let's now determine a_i 's

$$J_1(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N, \mathbf{e}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{m} + a_i\mathbf{e} - \mathbf{x}_i\|^2$$

$$\text{Expand } J_1 = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i^2 \|\mathbf{e}\|^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^N a_i \mathbf{e}^T (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m}) + \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m}\|^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N a_i^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^N a_i \mathbf{e}^T (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m}) + \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m}\|^2$$

$$\text{Partially differentiating with respect to } a_i \text{ we get:} \quad a_i = \mathbf{e}^T (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m})$$

Plugging in this expression for a_i in J_1 (3rd line above) we get:

$$J_1(\mathbf{e}) = - \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{e}^T (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m})(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m})^T \mathbf{e} + \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m}\|^2 = -\mathbf{e}^T S \mathbf{e} + \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m}\|^2$$

where

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m})(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m})^T \quad \text{is called the sample covariance matrix}$$

PCA: Mathematical Derivation

So minimizing J_1 is equivalent to maximizing:

$$\mathbf{e}^T S \mathbf{e}$$

Subject to the constraint that \mathbf{e} is a unit vector:

$$\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e} = 1$$

Use Lagrange multiplier method to form the objective function:

$$\max_{\mathbf{e}} \quad \mathbf{e}^T S \mathbf{e} - \lambda(\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{e} - 1)$$

Differentiate to obtain the equation: $2S\mathbf{e} - 2\lambda\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{0} \text{ or } S\mathbf{e} = \lambda\mathbf{e}$

Solution is that \mathbf{e} is the eigenvector of S corresponding to the largest eigen value

PCA: Mathematical Derivation (Extra for interested)

The preceding analysis can be extended in the following way.

Instead of projecting the data points on to a straight line, we may now want to project them on a d-dimensional plane of the form:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{m} + a_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + \cdots + a_d \mathbf{e}_d$$

d is much smaller than the original dimension p

In this case one can form the objective function: $J_d = \sum_{i=1}^N \| (\mathbf{m} + \sum_{k=1}^d a_{ik} \mathbf{e}_k) - \mathbf{x}_i \|^2$

It can also be shown that the vectors $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_d$ are d eigenvectors

corresponding to d largest eigen values of the scatter matrix = sample covariance

PCA: Summary

- Reduce the number of dimensions of the data points “ x_i ” to $k \ll d$, where d is the dimension of points in the original space
- Search in \mathbb{R}^d for the direction of the unit vector v such that the projection of the set of N data points x_n ($n=1, \dots, N$) to this direction leads to the scatter of N points with highest dispersion
- To keep 1 component, pick the one that best separates all the points, i.e. has the highest variance: This is achieved by picking the eigenvector of largest eigenvalue
- You can keep d components by picking d eigenvectors that correspond to d largest eigen values.

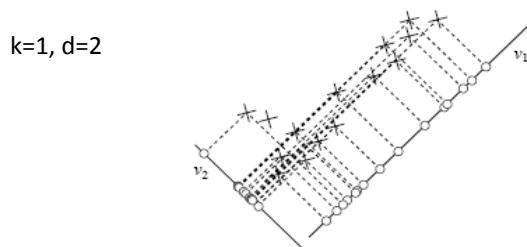


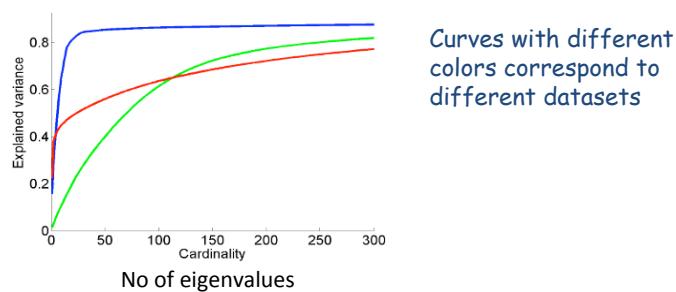
Figure 12.30 – Projecting the samples for the directions v_1 and v_2 : the dispersion of the projected points is more favorable to an analysis for the vector v_1 than it is for v_2

Explained Variance by the k eigenvalues out of d

Eigenvalues are sorted in descending order $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \dots > \lambda_k$

$$\text{Proportion (or percent) of variance} = 100 * \frac{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_k}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_k + \dots + \lambda_d}$$

Desired: % variance is large while dimension k is much smaller than d



PCA Applications

PCA

Assume we have a set of n feature vectors \mathbf{x}_i ($i = 1, \dots, n$) in \mathbb{R}^d . Write

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_i (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T$$

The unit eigenvectors of Σ — which we write as $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_d$, where the order is given by the size of the eigenvalue and \mathbf{v}_1 has the largest eigenvalue — give a set of features with the following properties:

- They are Orthogonal.
- Projection onto the basis $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$ gives the k -dimensional set of linear features that preserves the most variance.

Algorithm 22.5: *Principal components analysis identifies a collection of linear features that are independent, and capture as much variance as possible from a dataset.*

Principal Component Analysis

PCA algorithm

Input: Datamatrix X

Output: Vectors B_1, \dots, B_k
Eigen

1. Compute the average image:
N: # data points $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{N} \sum X_i$
 X_i that are all aligned
2. Subtract the average from each X_i : $Z_i = X_i - \bar{X}$
3. Define $Z = [Z_1 \dots Z_N]$
4. B_1, \dots, B_k = eigenvectors of matrix ZZ^T with the k largest eigenvalues

Application: Face recognition & compression using Eigenfaces

- 280x350 pixel image of a face
= 75,000-dimensional vector X_i
- \bar{X} = "mean" face image
- B_1, \dots, B_k : ($k < 20$ usually)
the "eigenfaces"
- Each face image represented as linear combination of eigenfaces

centered face image:
 $X_i - \bar{X}$

B_3

B_2

B_1

Source: IAPR PCA Lecture Notes

Principal Component Analysis: Results

The input photographs
(they are all approximately aligned)

Pre-alignment is important!

| | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| amber1.gif 250x300 83kb | amber2.gif 250x300 83kb | amber3.gif 250x300 83kb | amy1.gif 250x300 83kb | amy2.gif 250x300 83kb | amy3.gif 250x300 83kb |
| andrew1.gif 250x300 83kb | andrew2.gif 250x300 83kb | andrew3.gif 250x300 83kb | andy1.gif 250x300 83kb | andy2.gif 250x300 83kb | andy3.gif 250x300 83kb |
| andrea1.gif 250x300 83kb | andrea2.gif 250x300 83kb | andrea3.gif 250x300 83kb | anita1.gif 250x300 83kb | anita2.gif 250x300 83kb | anita3.gif 250x300 83kb |
| christ1.gif 250x300 83kb | christ2.gif 250x300 83kb | christ3.gif 250x300 83kb | denis1.gif 250x300 83kb | | |

Source: IAPR PCA Lecture Notes

Principal Component Analysis: Results

The top 6 eigenvectors (eigenfaces) :



IAPR PCA Lecture Notes

Principal Component Analysis: Results

X_L (M dimensions)



X_L (d-dimensional)
approx d=3



\bar{X}



+

B_1



y_1^1

B_2



$+ y_1^2$

B_3



IAPR PCA Lecture Notes

Face Recognition Using PCA (Eigenfaces)

Distance matrix

Face i

Face j

y_i : coordinates of Y_i in the reduced space

Distance between vectors $\begin{bmatrix} y_i^1 \\ \vdots \\ y_i^d \end{bmatrix}$ & $\begin{bmatrix} y_j^1 \\ \vdots \\ y_j^d \end{bmatrix}$

Recognition
(Given: Query image T & Database)

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} B_1 & B_2 & \dots & B_k \end{bmatrix} : \text{Linear transform matrix}$$

① Compute coordinates of T in basis B_1, \dots, B_k

$$t^j = W_j^T (T - \bar{X})$$

② Find the vector y_i that is closest to vector $\begin{bmatrix} t^1 \\ \vdots \\ t^d \end{bmatrix}$

③ Return face image X_i

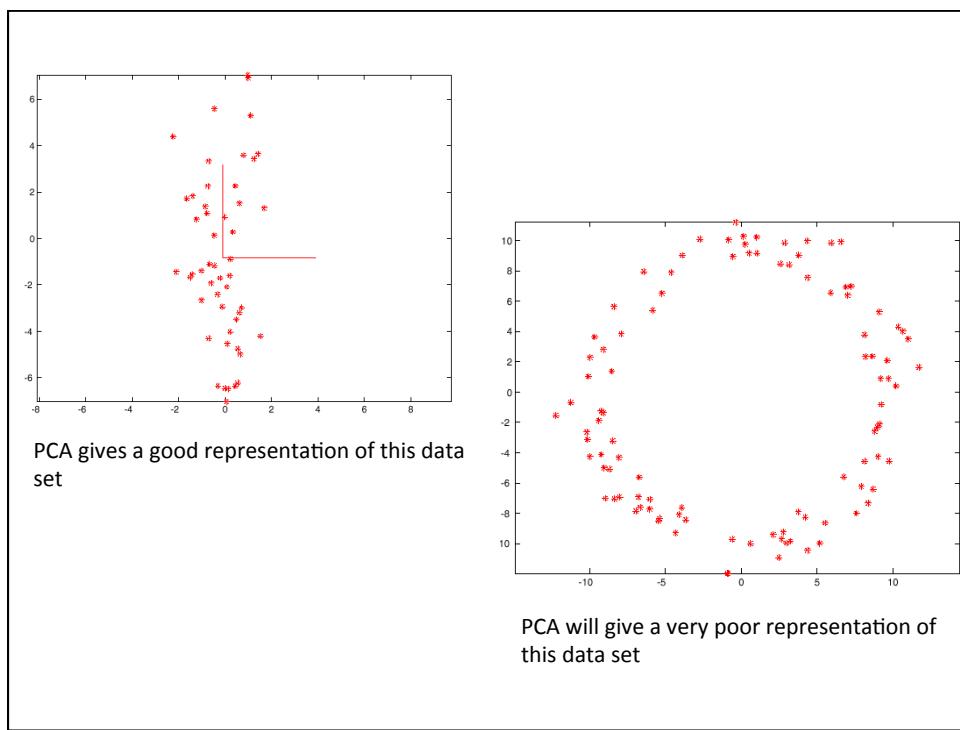
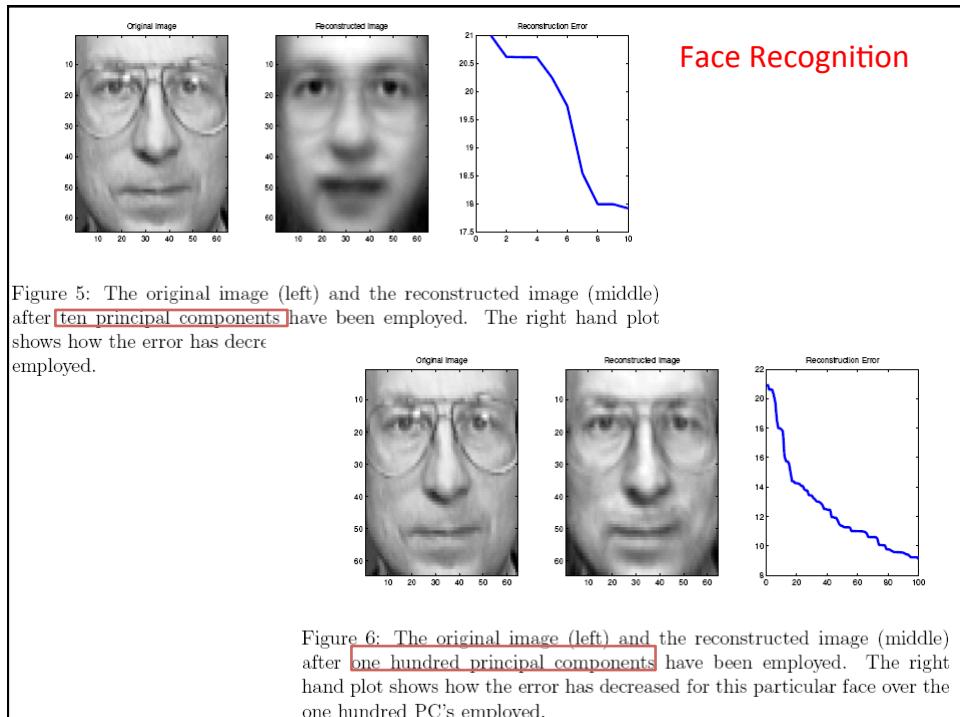
$$X_i = \bar{X} + W Y_i$$

Face Recognition databases: another example

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64x64 sized images \rightarrow dimension = 4096

From face database: olivettifaces



Difficulties with PCA

- Data may lie on more complex manifolds, e.g. the swiss roll, or the data on previous slide
- Projection may suppress important detail
 - Smallest variance directions may not be unimportant
 - The task we are interested in may not correlate with picking the largest variance directions
- Then you can resort to MDS or Nonlinear Dimensionality reduction techniques (not covered in this class) or other such more advanced techniques

END OF LECTURE

Recall Learning objectives of Week : Students are able to:

LO5: Describe the idea behind dimensionality reduction and how it is used in data processing

LO6: Apply object and shape recognition approaches to problems in computer vision

Work on your last Homework Assignment

EXTRA MATERIAL: Slides on/after this one are for your reference: You are not responsible in our class

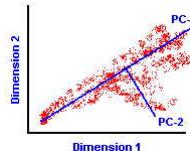
- Linear Dimensionality Reduction
 - Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
 - Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)
- Applications of PCA
- Nonlinear Dimensionality Reduction (advanced topic)
 - Isomap
 - Locally Linear Embedding
 - Laplacian Embedding

Overview: you are responsible from only bold items below

- Linear Dimensionality Reduction
- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)
- Applications of PCA
- Nonlinear Dimensionality Reduction
 - Isomap (Tennenbaum&Silva&Langford)
 - Locally Linear Embedding (Roweis&Saul)
 - Laplacian Eigenmaps (Belkin&Niyogi)

Linear Dimensionality Reduction

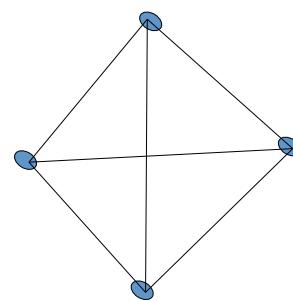
- PCA
 - Finds a low-dimensional embedding of the data points that best preserves their variance as measured in the high-dimensional input space



- MDS
 - Finds an embedding that preserves the inter-point distances, similar to PCA when the points are given rather than distances between points.

Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)

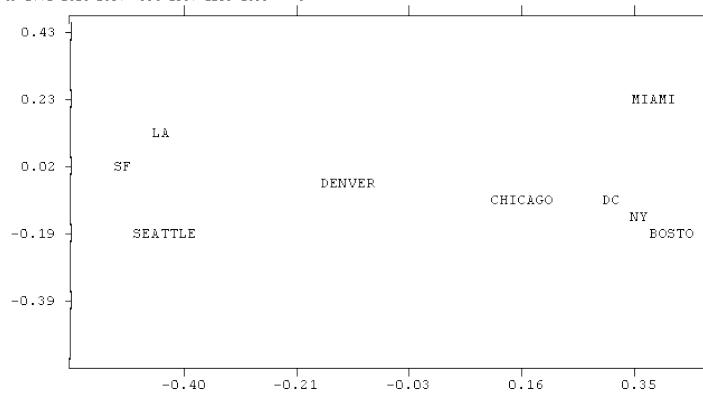
- Here we are given pairwise distances instead of the actual data points
 - First convert the pairwise distance matrix into the dot product matrix XX^T
 - Then, proceed similar to PCA



MDS: Example

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | |
|---|---------|------|------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| | BOSTON | NY | DC | MIAMI | CHIC | SEAT | SF | LA | DENV | |
| 1 | BOSTON | 0 | 206 | 429 | 1504 | 962 | 2976 | 3995 | 2879 | 1949 |
| 2 | NY | 206 | 0 | 232 | 1305 | 802 | 2634 | 3610 | 2111 | 1111 |
| 3 | DC | 429 | 232 | 0 | 1075 | 671 | 2664 | 2166 | 2631 | 1616 |
| 4 | MIAMI | 1504 | 1308 | 1075 | 0 | 1329 | 3273 | 3053 | 2667 | 2037 |
| 5 | CHICAGO | 962 | 802 | 671 | 1329 | 0 | 2013 | 2142 | 2054 | 996 |
| 6 | SEATTLE | 2976 | 2815 | 2684 | 3273 | 2013 | 0 | 808 | 1131 | 1307 |
| 7 | SF | 3995 | 2934 | 2799 | 3053 | 2142 | 808 | 0 | 379 | 1235 |
| 8 | LA | 2879 | 2786 | 2631 | 2687 | 2054 | 1131 | 379 | 0 | 1059 |
| 9 | DENVER | 1949 | 1771 | 1616 | 2037 | 996 | 1307 | 1235 | 1059 | 0 |

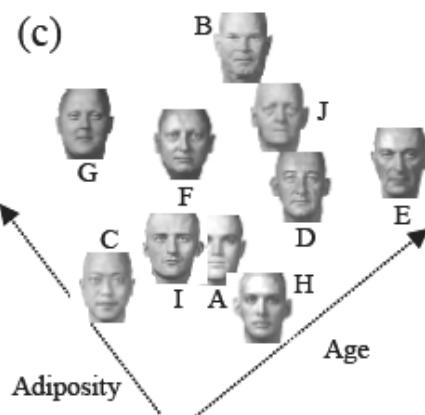
- Given road travel distances between cities, we try to get an approximation to the map
- Map deviates from bird-flight path (Euclidean distance) due to geographical obstacles (lakes, mountains ..)



MDS is more general

- When the distances are Euclidean, MDS is equivalent to PCA
- In MDS: Instead of pairwise distances we can use pairwise “dissimilarities”.

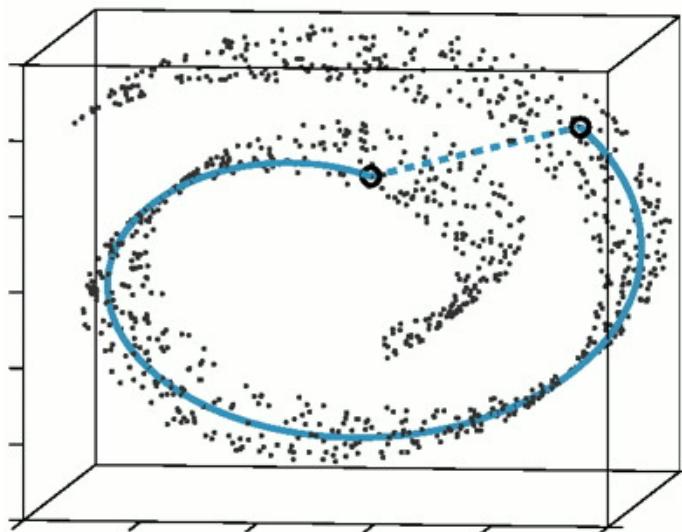
Eg. Face recognition:
May get some significant cognitive dimensions (not always true)

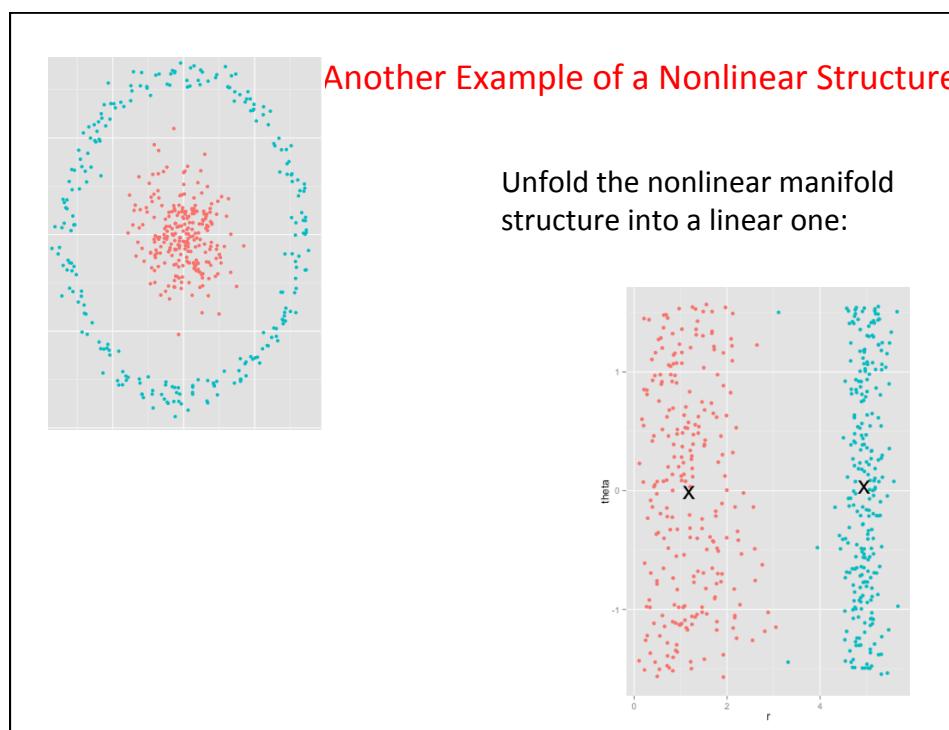
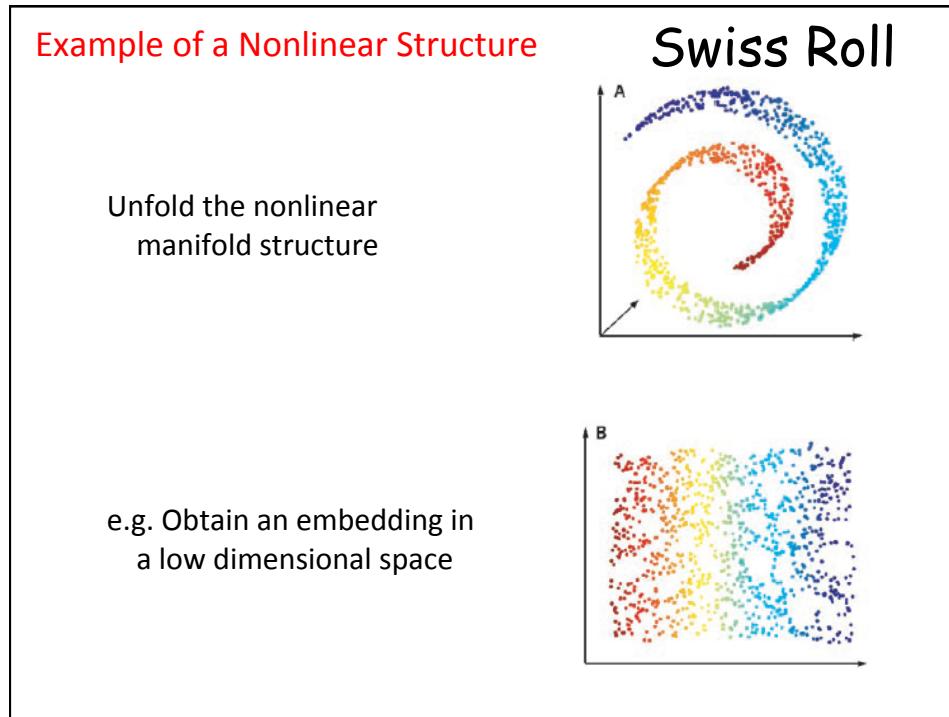


Nonlinear Dimensionality Reduction

- Many data sets contain essential nonlinear structures that can not be recovered by PCA and MDS
- May need to resort to some nonlinear dimensionality reduction approaches

To preserve structure, preserve the geodesic distance and not the Euclidean distance

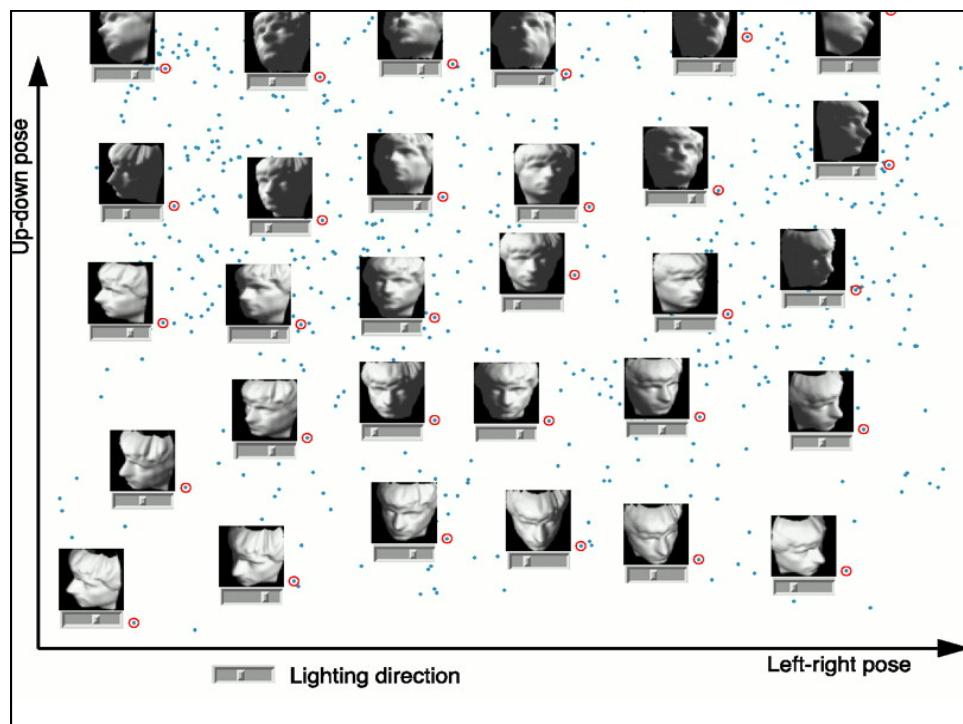


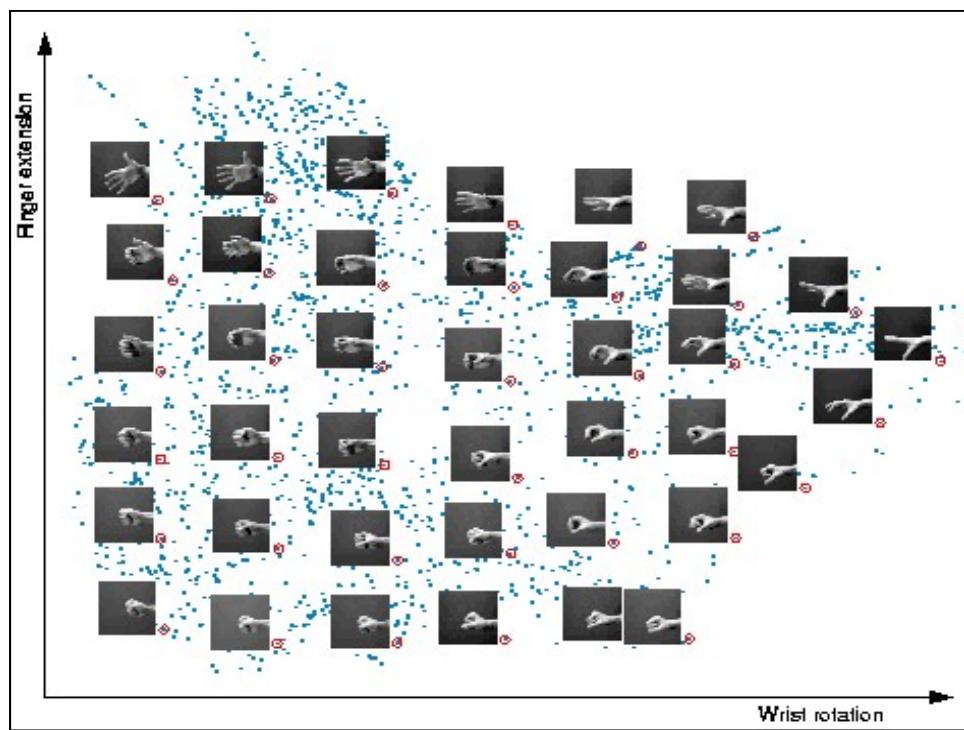
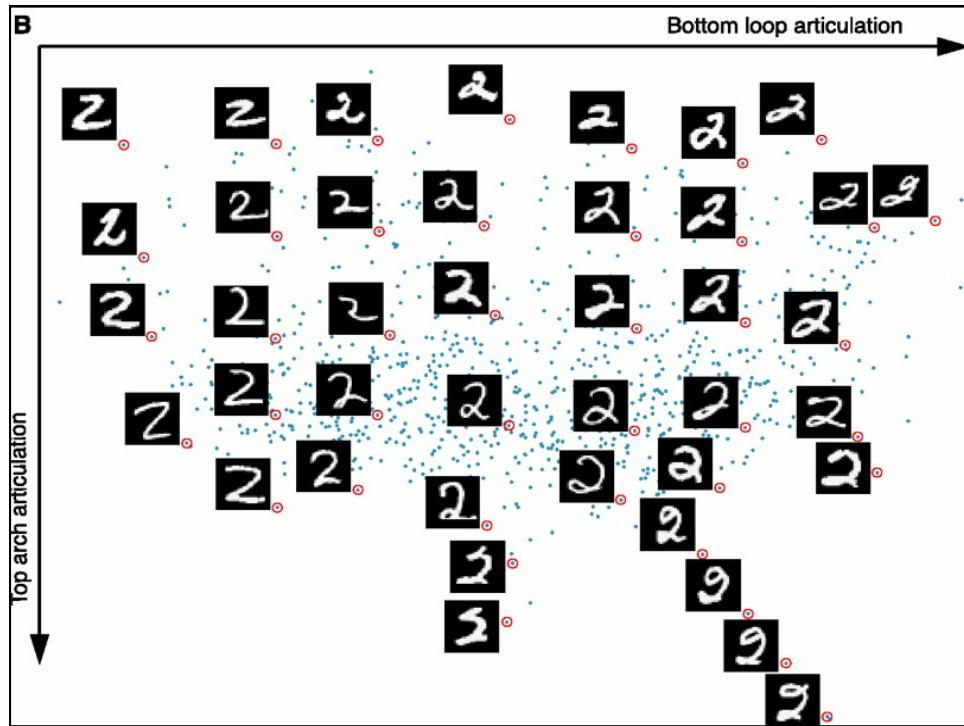


For your future reference: You are not responsible in this class from the following:

State-of-the Art Nonlinear Methods

- Tenenbaum et.al's **Isomap Algorithm**
 - Global approach: Uses MDS with geodesic distances
 - On a low dimensional embedding
 - Nearby points should be nearby.
 - Faraway points should be faraway.
- Roweis and Saul's **Locally Linear Embedding Algorithm**
 - Local approach
 - Nearby points nearby
- Belkin and Niyogi's **Laplacian Eigenmaps for Dimensionality Reduction and Data Representation**, "Neural Computation", 2003; 15(6):1373-1396





Example applications

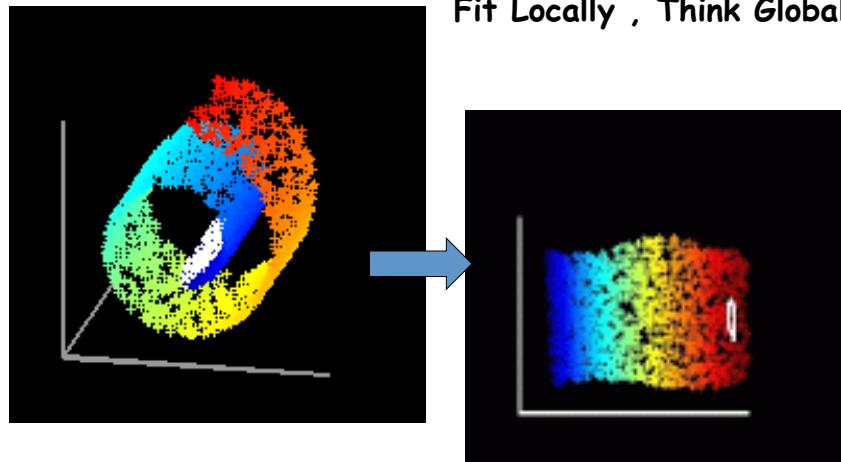
Interpolations between distant points in the low-dimensional coordinate space.

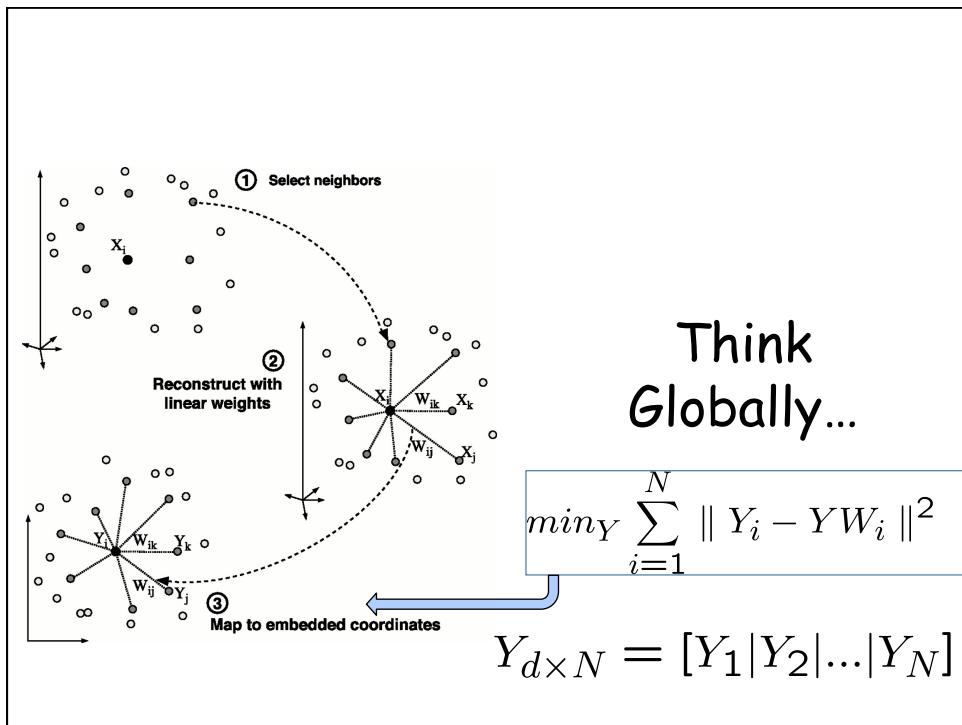
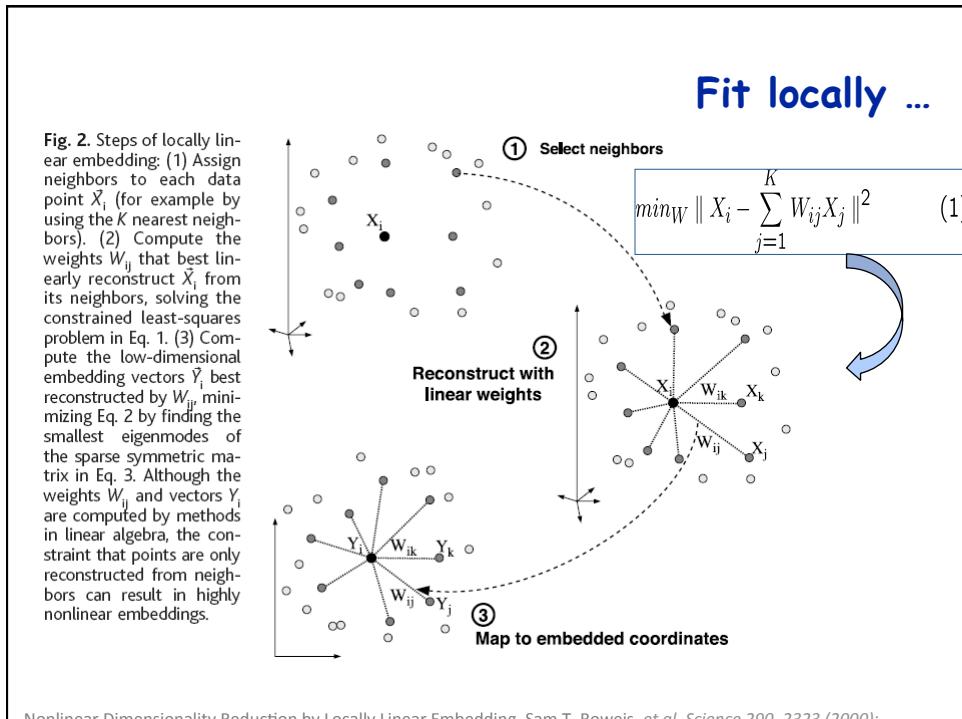
A**B**

Locally Linear Embedding

A Manifold is a topological space which is locally Euclidean."

Fit Locally , Think Globally





Properties of Locally Linear Embedding Method (Not linear globally)

- ❑ The same weights that reconstruct the data points in d -dimensions should reconstruct it in the manifold in k - dimensions
 - The weights characterize the intrinsic geometric properties of each neighborhood
- ❑ The weights that minimize the reconstruction errors are invariant to rotation, rescaling and translation of the data points
 - Invariance to translation is enforced by adding the constraint that the weights sum to one

Examples : 2-D embedding of faces

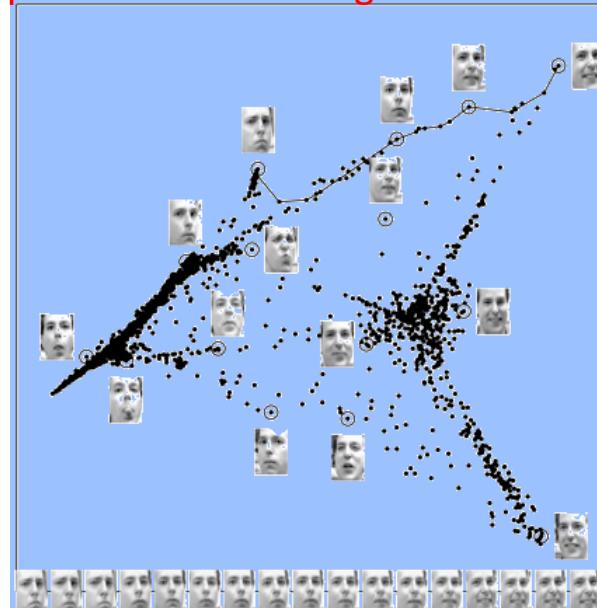
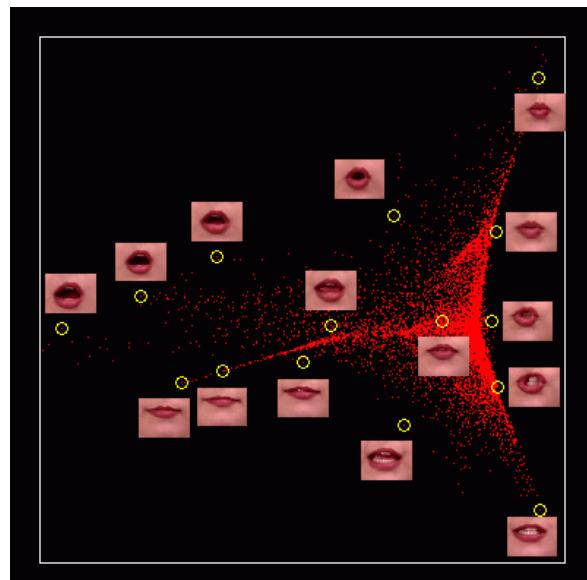


Fig. 3. Images of faces (11) mapped into the embedding space described by the first two coordinates of LLE. Representative faces are shown next to circled points in different parts of the space. The bottom images correspond to points along the top-right path (linked by solid line), illustrating one particular mode of variability in pose and expression.



Short circuit problem

There is a free parameter:

How many neighbours?

- How to choose neighborhoods:

Susceptible to short-circuit errors
if neighborhood is larger than the folds in
the manifold

If nbhd is small, we get isolated patches

