Principal Component Analysis

Jenn-Jier James Lien (連 震 杰) Professor

Computer Science and Information Engineering
National Cheng Kung University

(O) (06) 2757575 ext. 62540 jjlien@csie.ncku.edu.tw http://robotics.csie.ncku.edu.tw

0.1 Major Issues

- 1. VQ Vs. PCA Vs. GAN → PCA Vs. SVM
 - 1) VQ: (1) Unsupervised learning, (2) Space reduction by clustering encoding
 - 2) PCA: (1) Unsupervised learning, (2) Dimensionality reduction
- 2. Fundamental of machine learning:
 - > PCA, PPCA to Factor analysis (including noise) by Markov Model.
- 3. **PCA**:
 - Dimensionality reduce => Domain knowledge
 - > Reconstruction
 - ➤ Low frequency components (PCA, Gaussian) + high frequency components (ICA, non-Gaussian) + noise
- 4. Covariance matrix Vs. correlation matrix
- 5. Covariance matrix \Rightarrow PCA \Rightarrow SVD: C=UWV^T
 - Gaussian Model
 - Affine transform:
 - » translation (mean shift),
 - » rotation (eigenvectors) and
 - » scaling (eigenvalue)
- 5. Camera 2D image plane Vs. Object surface/plane rotation (2D)
 - > Optical axis Vs. Normal direction of 2D plane/surface at object

0.2 Preprocssing

- ☐ Geometric Normalization: Affine (Vs. Perspective)
 - Translation
 - **Rotation**
 - Scaling
- ☐ Illumination Normalization (Gray Value (0~255) Histogram) /Histogram Equalization
 - > Translation
 - Rotation

 $(a-m_a)/\sigma_a = (b-m_b)/\sigma_b$

- Scaling
- ☐ Similarity Measure (Gaussian Model ?): Absolute Relation => Relative Relation
 - > Translation (shift): Zeroing
 - Rotation: ? (eigenvector ? Scale-Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT), Histogram Of Gradient (HOG) ?), Rotation invariance
 - Scaling: Normalization to the same unit (NT\$ vs US\$), Scaling invariance

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0.3 Domain Knowledge

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- ☐ Input Data => PCA (Reduce the dimension => Input) =>
 - => Similarity Measure (=> Machine Learning)
 - > => Detection or Recognition Result
- ☐ Domain Knowledge
- ☐ Find the best space => Manifold
 - Lower-dimensional space
 - » PCA, LDA
 - ➤ Higher-dimensional space
 - » SVM, Kernel function

Ter	nplate Matching: Correlation Coefficient		
 One image per person for few persons PCA => PCA (Gaussian) + ICA (Non-Gaussian) 			PCA ➤ Gaussian Model
>	One image per person for many persons Consider relation between persons		Orthogonal Vs. OrthonormaICANon-Gaussian Model
LDA			➤ Independent
	One image set per person for many persons		
Consider relation within the same person and between different person			erent persons

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LLE: Locally Linear Embedding

SVM: Linear and Non-Linear Discriminant

Subspace => Kernel Function to High Dimension

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- ☐ Orthogonal is independent
 - > x+y: Linear combination or orthogonal ... can be separated
 - \rightarrow x*y: correlation cannot be separated, => log x + log y
- ☐ Independent does not need to be orthogonal (ICA)
 - Why independent? \Rightarrow P(A,B) = P(A) P(B)
- ☐ Orthonormal = orthogonal + unit vector (normalization) = eigenvectors
- ☐ PCA: Physical meaning, why eigenvector, eigenvalue
- ☐ Gaussian Model: Mean, variance
- \square SVD => Factorization

PCA

0.4 Dimensionality Reduction

Linear Vs Non-Linear Supervised Vs. Unsupervised

- ☐ PCA => PCA (Gaussian) + ICA (Non-Gaussian)
 - One image per person for many persons
 - Consider relation between persons
- \Box LDA
 - One set image per person for many persons
 - Consider relation within the same person and between different persons
- ☐ LLE: Locally Linear Embedding
- ☐ ISOMAP
- Laplacision Eigenmap
- □ SVM: Linear and Non-Linear Discriminant
 - Subspace => Kernel Function to High Dimension

1.0 Principal Component Analysis

- ☐ Principal Component Analysis = Hotelling Transform = Karhunen-Loeve (K-L) Transform (or Expansion)
- **□** Principle components = Eigenvectors
- Properties: (Covariance matrix)
 - Compression (not regular compression, it reduces the dimensions)
 - Correlation (self and cross correlations Significant variance)

□ Compression:

- > DCT, Wavelets... (ex. MPEG, H.264)
 - » Spatial domain
 - » Temporal domain
- > PCA
- ☐ Decomposition/Factorization (SVD) Vs. 3D Reconstruction

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1.1 Why PCA

- 1. Dimensional Reduction Vs. Descriptor
 - 1) 1M 100x100-pixel facial images => 100x100 (2D) Matrix
 - => 100x100-dimensional (1D) Vector (...) $_{100x100}$
 - ➤ One sample/image at high-dimensional space/coordinate
 - 2) Similarity Measure: Detection or Recognition
 - Compare: 100x100-dim vector Vs. 100x100-dim vector
 - → PCA → 50-dim vector Vs. 50-dim vector
 - 3) Computational time
 - Storage

2. Reconstruction as GAN

Principal component analysis, or PCA: Is a statistical procedure that allows you to summarize the information content in large data tables by means of a smaller set of "summary indices" that can be more easily visualized and analyzed.

1.1 PCA

1. Covariance Matrix A Vs. Correlation Matrix A'

- 2. $A = (A' m) = UWV^T$
- \triangleright Gaussian distribution $N(m, Lamda^2)$,
- >as affine transform (translation by m, rotation by U and V, scaling by W)

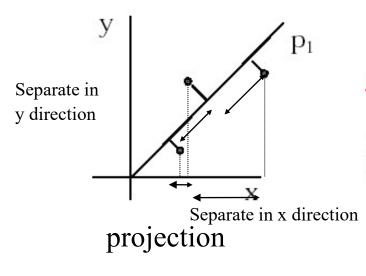
3. Affine transform –

- m: as the translation terms
- U: Eigenvector (orthonormal vector) matrix as the rotation matrix.
- W: Eigenvalues (Lamda²) as the variance/scaling terms at denomination for normalization.

- ♦ We are given:
 - a set of M objects" (images)

ex.

- each is represented, initially, by a set of N² features (128²) or pixels
- This data is organized as an (very large!) N2M matrix
- ◆ Let's look at a small example



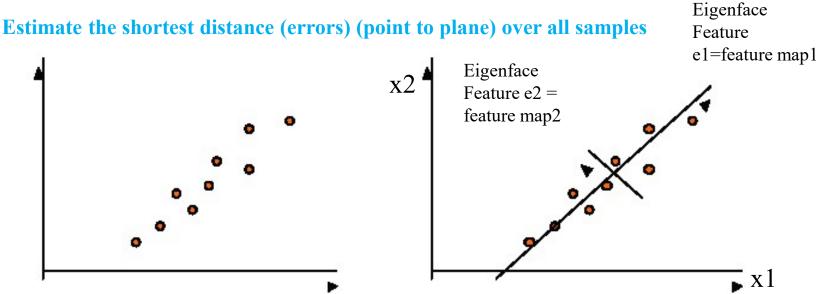
- points are 2-D points
- we find the axis that most closely passes through these points
- if the axis passed exactly through these points, then we would need only one coordinate to represent each point.
- ➤ That is, sum of all shortest vertical distance of samples or points to the major axis

Eigenvectors, orthonormal vector

• Find an orthogonal set of <u>basis vectors</u> for the feature space, subject to the requirement that <u>the new features</u> have zero correlation with each other.

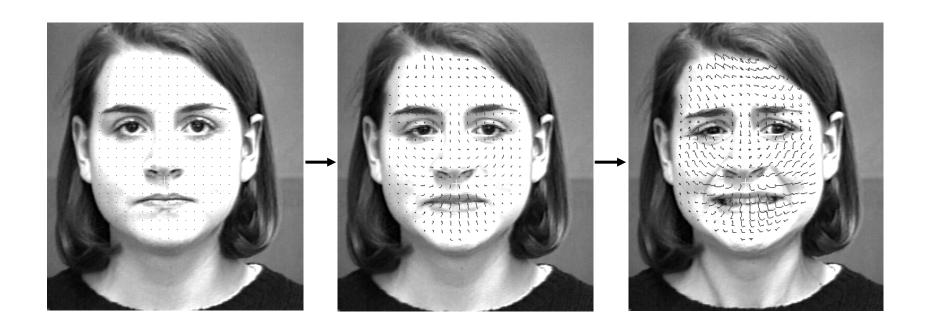


☐ Affine

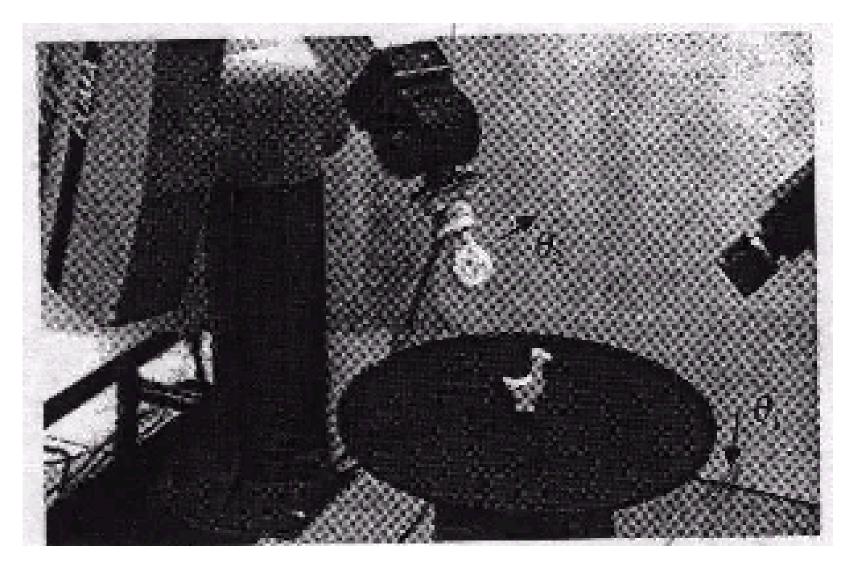


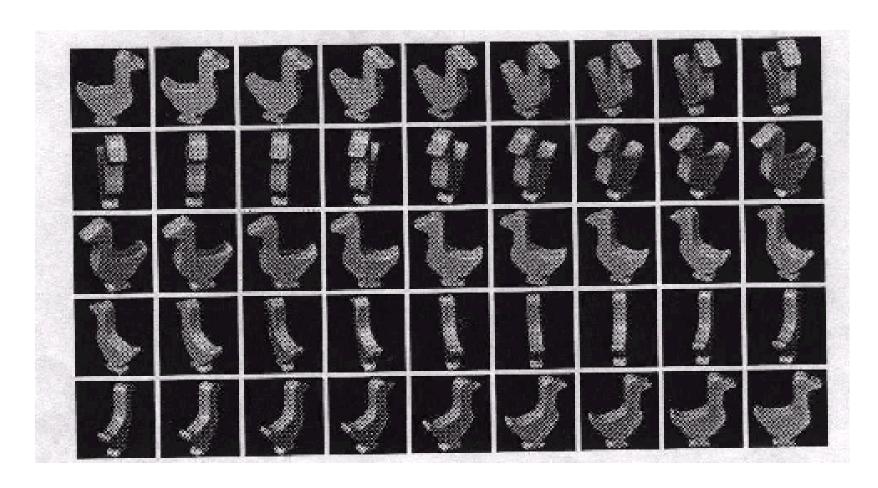
1.2 PCA Applications

1. Facial Expression Recognition: Input/output dense flows (x-axis and y-axis components)



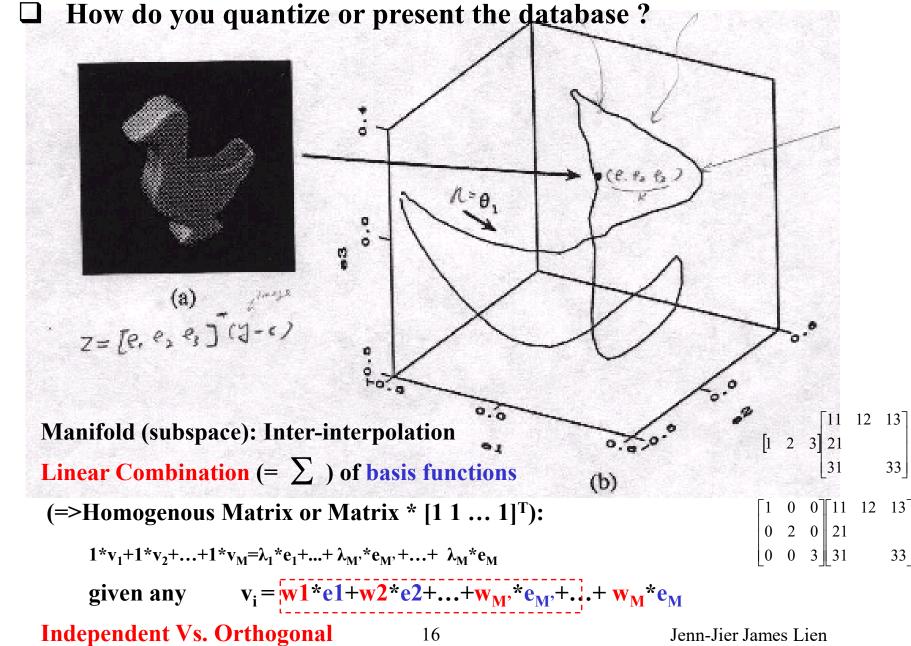
2. Object Recognition

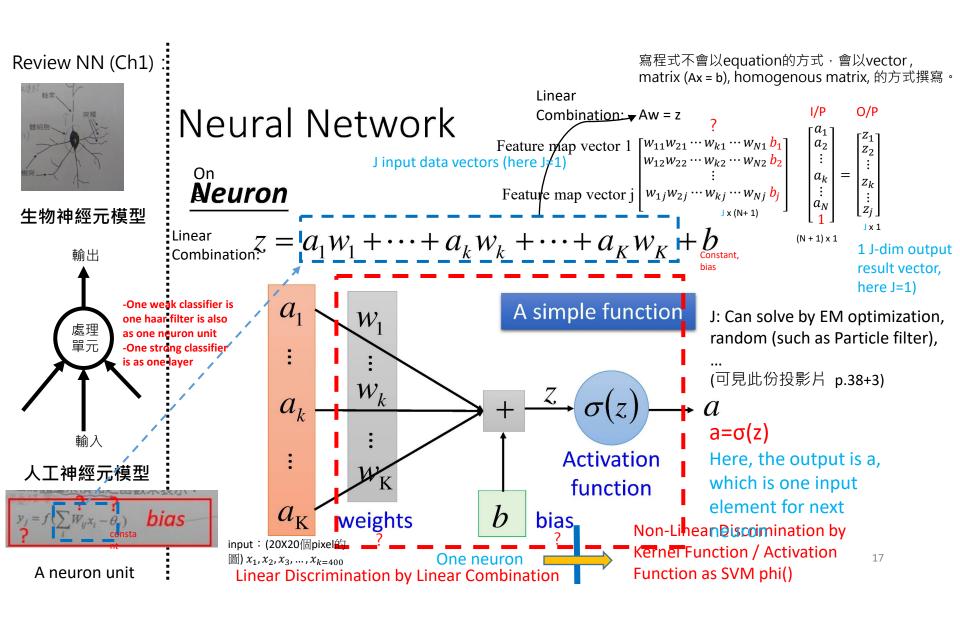




360 / (9x5) = 8 degrees

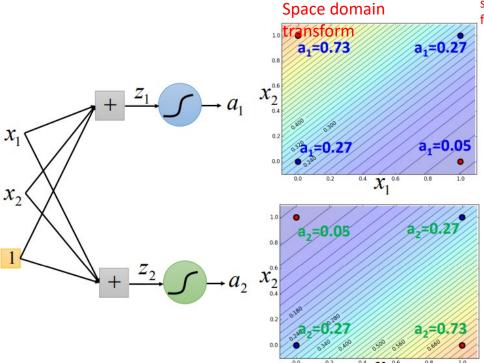
1.3 Domain Knowledge: Manifold





Limitation of Single Layer

J: a1 - As eigenvector 1 a2 – As eigenvector 2 J:

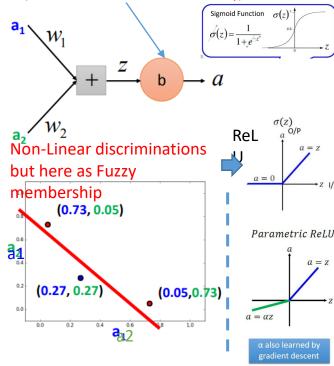


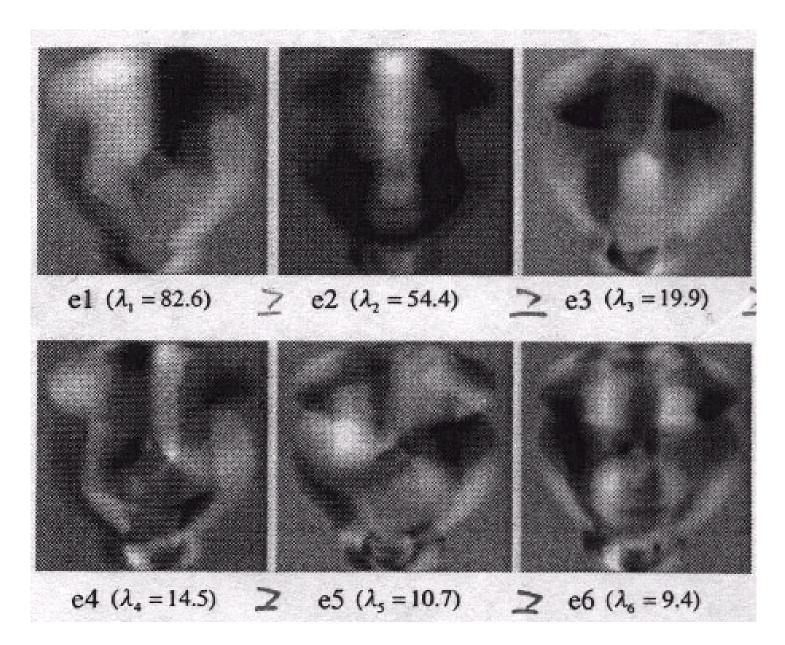
After we transform from (x1,x2) space to (a1,a2) space,

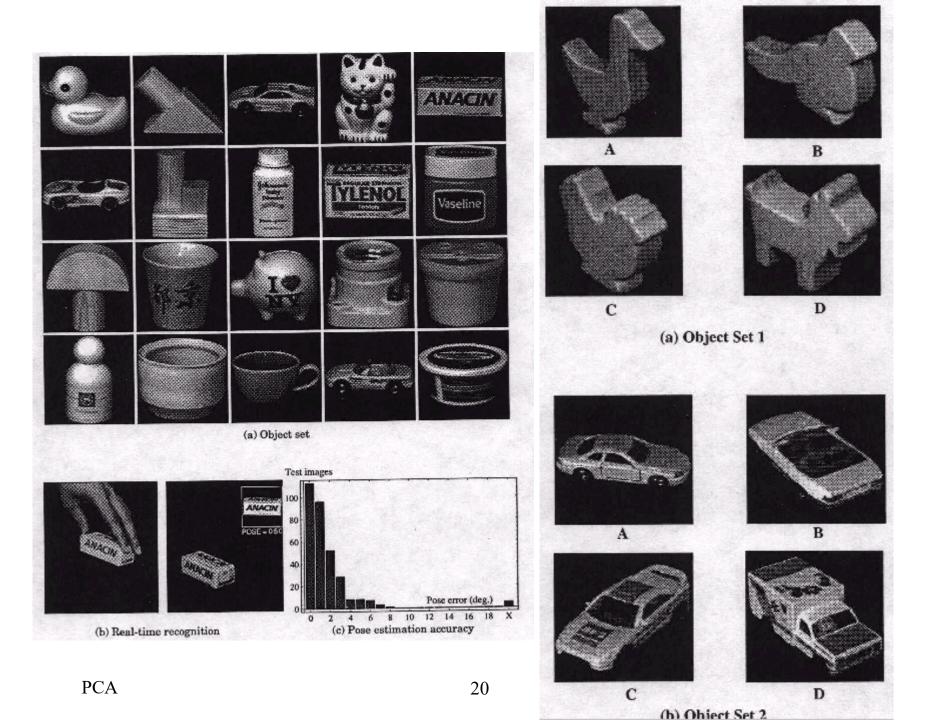
then we can separate by linear discrimination

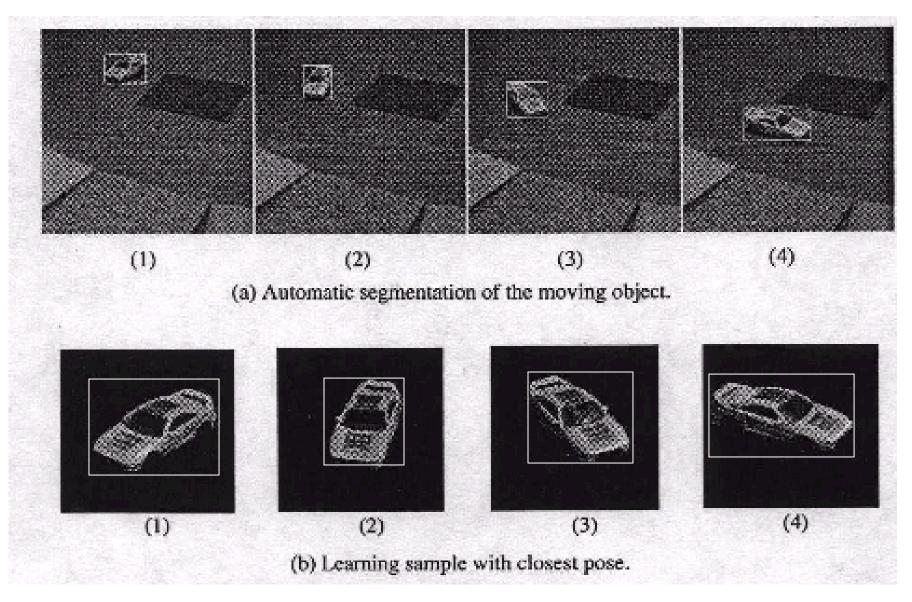
3.1) That is, instead of using SVM directly backproject to very high dimension by using kernel function or high dimensional activation function,

3.2) we can apply more layers (deeper network) to reach the same goal – space transformation layer by layer (step by step) and not so high dimension transform/activation function (nonlinear discrimination but as Fuzzy)









PCA

2. PCA Applications: Face Recognition

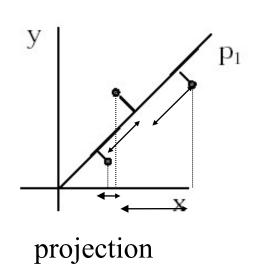
Database - Face Recognition: Input/output gray values



- We are given:
 - a set of M objects" (images) ex.
 - each is represented, initially, by a set of N² features (128²) Or pixels

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- This data is organized as an (very large!) N²xM matrix
- Let's look at a small example



- points are 2-D points
- we find the axis that most closely passes through these points
- if the axis passed exactly through these points, then we would need only one coordinate to represent each point.

Step 1 – Covariance Matrix

2.1.1 Computation of PCA

- 1) Preprocessing: Normalization
 - Geometric normalization (ex. Affine transformation) (Template)
 - ➤ Illumination normalization: ex. Histogram equalization => Purpose?
- 2) Let face images in the training set be $\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, ..., \Gamma_M$
 - Represent the images as column vectors, e.g., an image Γ_i of size NxN becomes an N²x1 column vector or row vector [, , ,...,]^T
- 3) The average/mean face of the set is:

(an N²x1 column vector)

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^{M} \Gamma_n$$

4) Each face differing from the average one is the vector: → Covariance matrix

(i.e., centralized image vector unbiased $\Phi_i = \Gamma_i - \Psi$

i.e., deviations/variances from the mean face => Covariance matrix

i.e., absolute difference => relative difference)

(an N²x1 column vector)



Feel enhancing?

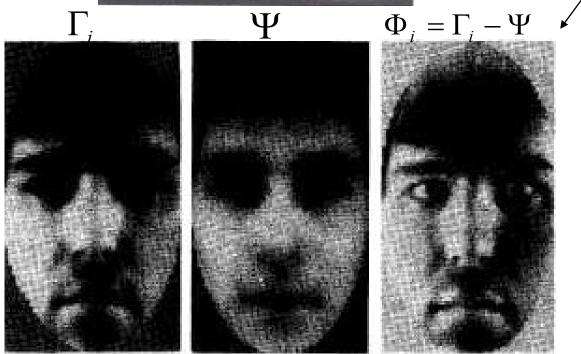


Plate 1. From left to right: sample face, average taken over extended ensemble, caricature of sample face.

$$\Phi_{i} = \Gamma_{i} - \Psi \qquad \Psi = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^{M} \Gamma_{n}$$

- $\Phi_i = \Gamma_i \Psi \qquad \Psi = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^M \Gamma_n$ PCA seeks the axis which the cloud of points are closest
 - this is mathematically identical to find the axis on which the variance of the point projections is greatest (that is on which the projections are most spreading out to be easily separated.)

 Vs. LDA (within+btw)
 - · for high dimensional objects, like pictures, it is unlikely that there will be a single axis that passes close to all of the objects.
 - \bullet So, in this case, after we find the best axis (u_1), we then find the next best one (orthogonal to the first - u₂), and then the third best (u₃), etc. _weight
 - Images are then represented by their projections on these axes: $W_i = \Phi_i^* u_i$. This is exactly analogous to the Fourier transform, with the u_i replacing the sinusoids.

Why orthogonal? => Liner combination

Basis function

2.1.2-1 From Covariance Matrix to Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues (see DIP book)

- In high dimension, you can not solve by equation process
 The principle components are the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix
 - Covariance matrix: Pixel over all M training images

$$C = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^{M} \Phi_n \Phi_n^T = AA^T$$
 (Linear Combination => Matrix)
Note: this is an outer product

$$C = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^{M} (\Gamma_n - \Psi) (\Gamma_n - \Psi)^T = \frac{1}{M} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{M} \Gamma_n \Gamma_n^T \right) - \Psi \Psi^T = C' - D = E[\Gamma^2] - E[\Gamma]^2$$
Covariance matrix
$$A = \left[\Phi_1, \Phi_2, ..., \Phi_M \right]$$
Covariance matrix
$$A = \left[\Phi_1, \Phi_2, ..., \Phi_M \right]$$
Covariance matrix

A is a N^2xM matrix, so C is anN^2xN^2 huge symmetric matrix! Wow!!

 $U^TCU=W$ landa² Singular?

By the way, W >= 0C is positive semi-definite: $uCu^T \ge 0$ for all $u \ne 0$

Non-invertible

So the eigenvalues of a positive semi-definite matrix are real and non-negative. ex. Covariance mat

Square term C, W: Covariance matrix

$$u = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \vdots \\ e_{N^2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e_{11} & e_{12} & \dots & e_{1N^2} \\ e_{21} & e_{22} & \dots & e_{2N^2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ e_{N^2 1} & e_{N^2 2} & \dots & e_{N^2 N^2} \end{bmatrix}$$
Let $\lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \lambda_i \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = u(\Gamma_i - \Psi)$

$$\Psi_{\lambda} = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N^2} u(\Gamma_i - \Psi) = u \left(\frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N^2} \Gamma_i - \frac{1}{N^2} N^2 \Psi \right) = 0$$
Average variance
$$C_{\lambda} = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N^2} (\lambda_i - \Psi_{\lambda}) (\lambda_i - \Psi_{\lambda})^T = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N^2} \lambda_i \lambda_i^T + \Psi_{\lambda} \Psi_{\lambda}^T = E[\lambda^2] - (E[\lambda])^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N^2} \lambda_i \lambda_i^T = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N^2} u(\Gamma_i - \Psi) \cdot [u(\Gamma_i - \Psi)]^T$$

$$= \frac{1}{N^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{N^{2}} u(\Gamma_{i} - \Psi)(\Gamma_{i} - \Psi)^{T} u^{T} = u \left(\frac{1}{N^{2}} \sum_{i=1}^{N^{2}} (\Gamma_{i} - \Psi)(\Gamma_{i} - \Psi)^{T} \right) u^{T}$$

$$= uCu^T (= W) \ge 0$$
Square term

DIP book

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2.1.2-2 From Covariance Matrix to Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues (see DIP book)

Step 2.1 –
$$1*v_1+1*v_2+...+1*v_M=\lambda_1*e_1+...+\lambda_M,*e_M,+...+\lambda_M*e_M$$
given any $v_1=w_1*e_1+w_2*e_2+...+w_n*e_n+...+v_M$

Solve Covariance Matrix to Eigen by SVD $v_i = w1*e1+w2*e2+...+w_M,*e_M,+...+w_M*e_M$ II) In high dimension, you can solve by SVD matrix factorization process

- Eigenvalues are numbers λ such that $Cu = \lambda u$ for some vectors $u \neq 0$. (A u = Lamda v)
- Eigenvectors are the vectors u such that $Cu = \lambda u$. They are orthogonal to each other.
- For general matrices, the eigenvalues are complex numbers.
- The eigenvalues of a positive semi-definite matrix are real and non-negative.

In reality, for example, by using book - numerical recipes, negative value happens - error.

$$CU=WU$$
 $C=U^TWU$

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 $U^TCU=W$ landa² ²⁹

N^2 -d eigenface

$$u = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \vdots \\ e_{N^2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e_{11} & e_{12} & \dots & e_{1N^2} \\ e_{21} & e_{22} & \dots & e_{2N^2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ e_{N^21} & e_{N^22} & \dots & e_{N^2N^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The eigenvectors are the principal components. Actually only M objects not N²
- Each eigenvector can be determined up to a scaling factor, so usually they are normalized to unit length:

$$u = \frac{u'}{\|u'\|}$$
 vector = direction (unit vector) + magnitude (scale)

 When stacked in a matrix, the eigenvectors form the Karhunen-Loeve transform matrix u with the property
 C = UWV^T where W is a diagonal matrix, whose diagonal entries are the eigen-values of C. U

orthonormal.

$$u_l^T u_k = e_l^T e_k = \delta_{lk} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } l = k \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Correlation/Covariance Matrix

$$C = uC_{\lambda}u^{T} = UWV^{T}$$

$$C_{\lambda} = egin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^2 & & & 0 \ & \lambda_2^2 & & \ & & \ddots & \ 0 & & \lambda_{N^2}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 \ge \lambda_2 \ge \dots \ge \lambda_M \ge \lambda_{M+1} \ge \dots \ge \lambda_{N^2}$$

$$= 0$$

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2.2.2-1 Solving for Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues: Method I:

Solve for the roots of the characteristic polynomial:

$$Cu = \lambda u \qquad Cu - \lambda u = 0$$

$$(C - \lambda I)u = 0 \qquad u \neq 0$$

By Cramer's theorem, this has non-trivial solution

iff
$$\det(C - \lambda I) = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} C_{11} - \lambda & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$
If C is $2x2$:
$$(c_{11} - \lambda)(c_{22} - \lambda) - c_{12}c_{21} = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - (c_{11} + c_{22})\lambda + c_{11}c_{22} - c_{12}c_{21} = 0$$

An Example

- Consider 4 points in 2D: (0,1), (2,2), (4,6), (6,7)
- Mean values: E[x1]=3, E[x2]=4
- Centered data: (-3,-3),(-1,-2), (1,2), (3,3)
- Covariance matrix C :

$$C_{11} = (9+1+1+9)/4 = 5$$
 $C_{12} = (9+2+2+9)/4 = 5.5$ $C_{21} = (9+2+2+9)/4 = 5.5$ $C_{22} = (9+4+4+9)/4 = 6.5$

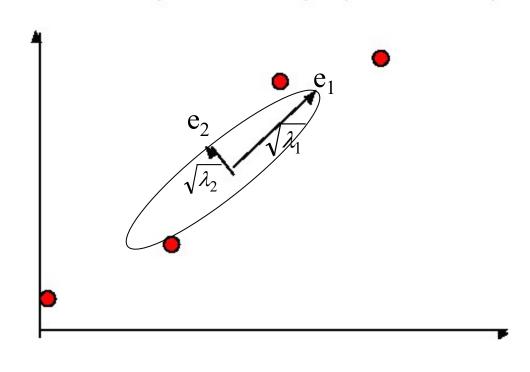
Characteristic polynomial:

$$\lambda^{2} - (5+6.5)\lambda + 5(6.5) - 5.5(5.5) = 0$$
11.5
2.25

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• Eigenvalues: $\lambda_{1,2} = (11.5 + /-\sqrt{123.25})/2 = (11.3,0.2)$

• Eigenvectors: (0.75, 0.66), (-0.66,0.75)



- **Uncertainty**
- Hessian Matrix

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Put in Lamda1 and Lamda2

2.2.2-2 Method II: Numerical Computation:

Step 2.1 – Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)
Solve Covariance Matrix to Eigen by SVD

- A fundamental problem in science and engineering
- Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) is now the preferred method to do eigen-analysis.
- That is, there is an easier way to do PCA in Book 'Numerical using Singular Value Decomposition: Recipes'
- [UWV]=svd(C)
- U is the eigenvector arrranged in descending eigenvalues, W contains a diagonal matrix with descending eigenvalues.

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$$U = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ \vdots \\ e_{N^2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e_{11} & e_{12} & \dots & e_{1N^2} \\ e_{21} & e_{22} & \cdots & e_{2N^2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ e_{N^21} & e_{N^22} & \cdots & e_{N^2N^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_{N^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

2.2.3 Solving for Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues:

Step 2.2 – Method for Huge Covariance Matrix

Solve Covariance Matrix to Eigen by SVD

$$C = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^{M} \Phi_n \Phi_n^T = AA^T \qquad \qquad A: N^2xM \quad matrix \qquad A= \\ [\Phi_1, \Phi_2, ..., \Phi_M] \qquad \qquad A^T: M \ x \ N^2 \quad matrix \qquad pixel base \\ Cu = \lambda u \qquad \qquad C = AA^T, \lambda: N^2x \quad N^2 \quad matrix \qquad pixel base \\ Image base
$$\underline{A^T A v_i} = \mu_i v_i \qquad \qquad A^T A, v: M \ x \ M \quad matrix \qquad image base \\ Image base
$$\underline{A^T A v_i} = \mu_i \underline{A v_i} \qquad \qquad M' < M << N^2, \\ ex. \quad M' = 7, \ M = 16, \ N = 128 \\ Image base
$$\underline{A V_i} = \mu_i \underline{A v_i} \qquad \qquad M' < M << N^2, \\ ex. \quad M' = 7, \ M = 16, \ N = 128 \\ Image base
$$\underline{A V_i} = \mu_i \underline{A v_i} \qquad \qquad M' < M << N^2, \\ ex. \quad M' = 7, \ M = 16, \ N = 128 \\ \underline{A V_i} = \underline{A V_i} \qquad M' = \underline{A V_i} \qquad M'$$$$$$$$$$

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2.3 Dimensional Reduction

• Given
$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 59.14 & -1.55 & 4.56 \\ -1.55 & 0.09 & -0.11 \\ 4.56 & -0.11 & 27.02 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $\det(C - \lambda I) = 0$

$$\det(C - \lambda I) = 0$$

The resulting eigenvectors and eigenvalues are

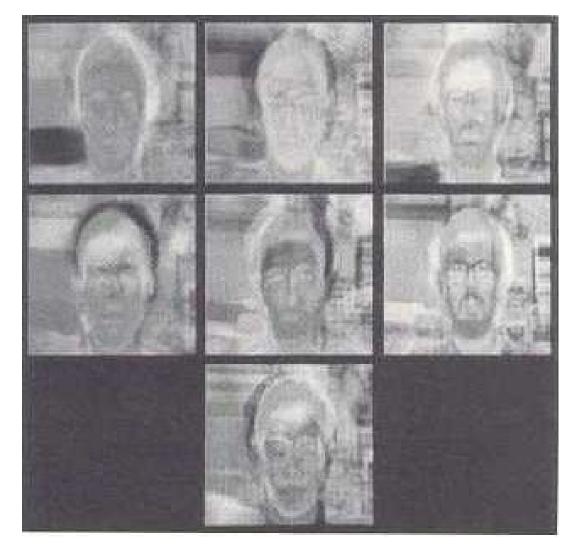
$$\mathbf{u}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.99 \\ 0.03 \\ -0.14 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda_{1} = 59.82 \quad \mathbf{u}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.14 \\ -0.00 \\ -0.99 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda_{2} = 26.39 \quad \mathbf{u}_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.03 \\ 1.00 \\ -0.00 \end{bmatrix}, \lambda_{3} = 0.04$$

Note
$$\frac{\lambda_3}{\sum_i \lambda_i} < 0.001$$
, what is the implication?

- We can throw u_3 away, and keep $w=[u_1 \ u_2]$.
- You may find the different objects/textures forming nice clusters in this 2D space.
- But there is an easier way to do PCA in Book 'Numerical using Singular Value Decomposition:
- $[U W V^{T}] = svd(C)$
- U is the eigenvector arrranged in descending eigenvalues, W contains a diagonal matrix with descending eigenvalues.

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- K-L transform: first basis -- data projected on which will have the maximum variance, the second basis captures the second maximum variance that is orthogonal to the first one. Once the variances are captured by some bases, the subsequent bases can be discarded.
- · This helps us to achieve dimensionality reduction.

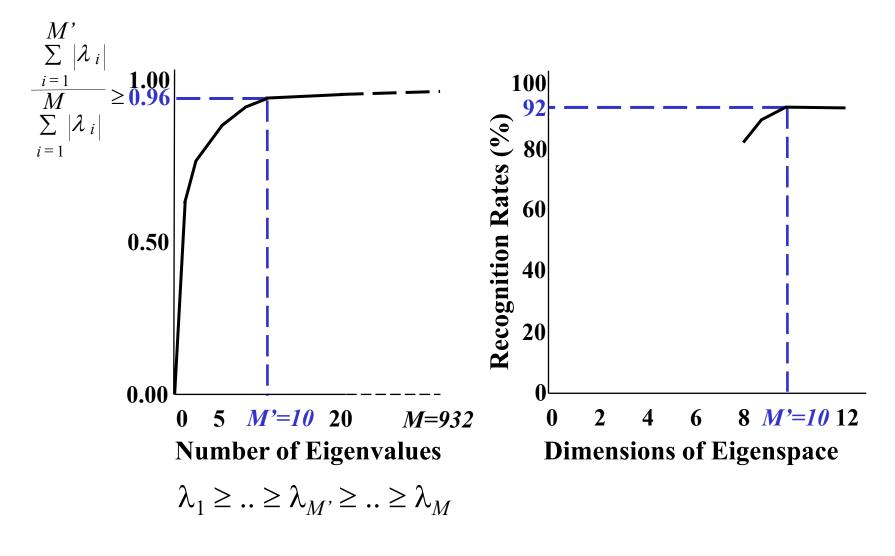


2.3 Dimension Reduction and Projection Weight Vector

Step 3 – Projection Weight Vector for Dimension Reduction

- Given your gallery of images
 - compute its principal components eigenvector *u*
 - this is just a set of other images that are used as a basis for representing the images in the gallery
 - determine $M' \le M$ such that the first M' principal components u are a "good" representation for the gallery
 - can be chosen based on the scores (eigenvalues) computed by the PCA
 - represent each image in the gallery by its projection on these M principal components \longrightarrow Eigenvalue or weight
 - ♦ this is just the dot product of the image and the principal components. $ω_k = u_k^T (\Gamma \Psi)$ for k = 1,...,M',...,M
 - each image now represented by M numbers $\Omega^T = [\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_{M'}]$

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$$\omega_k = u_k^T (\Gamma - \Psi)$$
 for $k = 1,...,M',...,M$

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2.4 Reconstruction

Step 4 – Reconstruction as GAN

 If we compute M principal axes, then we can reconstruct any image exactly from its principal components representation:

$$\Phi_f = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \omega_i u_i \qquad \Gamma_f = \Phi_f + \Psi$$

- This is just another basis for the M-vector that represents the image
 - the original basis is the natural one (1,0,0,...0), (0,1,0,...) ...
 - the principal axes represent just a rotation of the original high dimensional coordinate system

See lecture: Camera model example => World coordinate Vs. Camera Coordinate

- However, we don't need to use all of the principal axes to obtain good reconstructions of the image.
- The mathematical procedure that determines the principal axes uses an eigenvector analysis, and associates a "score" with each axis eigenvalue
 - these scores correspond to the amount of variation in the image set that the axis corresponds to and are the eigenvalues of the procedure
 - The scores generally go to zero "quickly". For a face database, we can generally reconstruct a 512x512 face using only 80-100 principal axes with very small error.

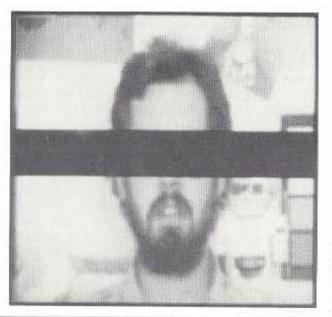
$$\Phi_f = \sum_{i=1}^{M'} \omega_i u_i \qquad \Gamma_f = \Phi_f + \Psi$$

PCA Jenn-Jier James Lien

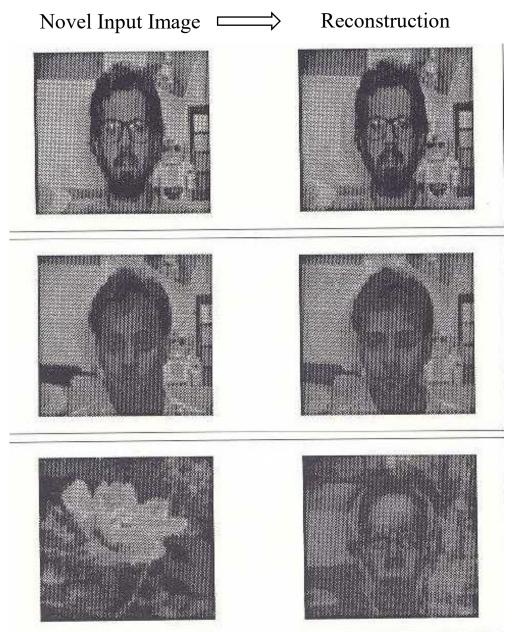




Lost details







Step 5 - Recognition

2.5 Recognition

- Given an unknown image
 - compute its projection onto the principal component basis
 - this is a set of M'numbers representing the unknown image $\Omega^T = [\omega_1, \omega_2 \omega_{M'}]$
 - compare this M²-tuple against each of the database imageM²tuples
 - simple L^2 norm $\| \|^2$
 - sometimes each component is weighted by the associated eigenvalue
 Landa

J: ?? w_i is normalized by dividing corresponding eigenvalue Lamda i

Step 6 – Eigen by NN

2.6 PCA by NN

1. Face Detection: Distance From Face Space

$$\varepsilon^{2} = \left\| \Phi - \Phi_{f} \right\|^{2}$$
input face

$$\Phi_f = \sum_{i=1}^{M'} \omega_i u_i$$

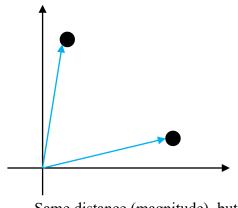
2. Face Classification

$$\Omega^T = [\omega_1, \omega_2 \omega_{M'}]$$

Minimize the Euclidian distance

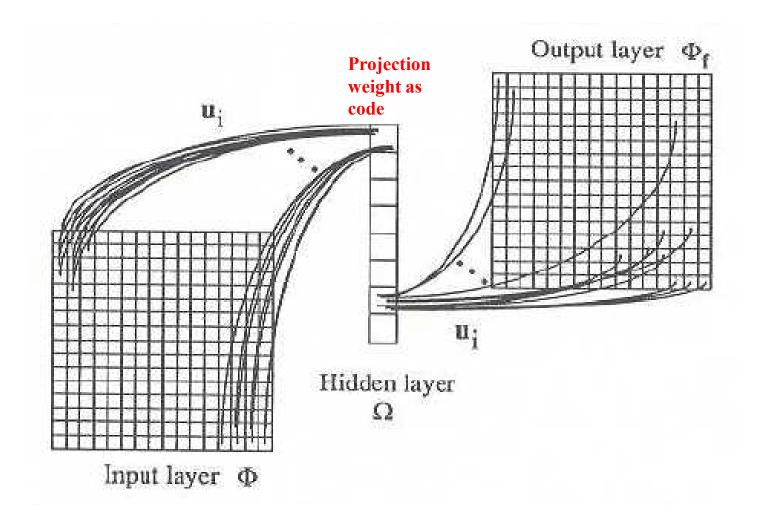
$$\varepsilon_k = \|\Omega - \Omega_k\|^2 \quad 1 \le k \le M$$
Novel face Known face class k

Euclidean Distance



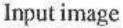
Same distance (magnitude), but different samples or vectors (directions)

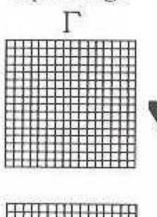
PCA by Neural Networks

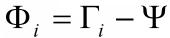


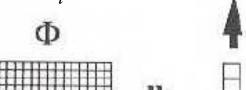
for face recognition

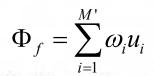
Identity
$$\varepsilon_k = \left\| \Omega - \Omega_k \right\|^2 \ 1 \le k \le M$$



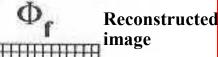


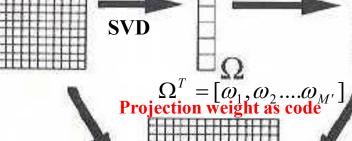






Projected image





Mean image

Ψ

Ф - Ф.

$$\varepsilon^2 = \left\| \Phi - \Phi_f \right\|^2$$

Distance measure

for face detection
Jenn-Jier James Lien

3. Discussion

- **□** PCA Properties:
 - Compression
 - Correlation
- □ Normalization
 - Histogram equalization
 - Geometric normalization

Normalize training data

or testing data?

- □ Recognition Rate: Lighting Variation (96%) > (In-Plane) Orientation Variation (85%) > Scale Variation (64%)
 - (out-of-plane rotation ??)
 - Under lighting changes alone the neighborhood pixel correlation remains high.
 - Under size changes, the correlation from one image to another is largely lost

Same Class







If Having New Data to PCA?

Other (Face) Recognition Methods

☐ Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA)

Fisher's Discriminant, Within + Between, one subject has many images

PCA => linear discriminant, but considering between only, one subject has only one image

□ Non-Linear Discriminant

Support Vector Machine: Kernel Function (to high dimensional space ?)

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Applications

- Face recognition -- the eigenface method by Pentland and Turk
 - Collect images of human faces in the same pose and label them with the name of the person;
 - find the first 7 principle components of the images -resemble faces, called eigenfaces.
- For each image, store the expansion coefficients for the corresponding eigenfaces, and when an unknown face arrives, find its expansion in terms of eigenfaces and assign to it the name of the closest image in eigenspace.

PCA

☐ Face Detection - Principal Components

 Image compression: Use only main PCs and their coefficients in representation. Gabor wavelets are the main PC of natural images. Strategy used in Face detection algorithm of Schneiderman and Kanade.

☐ Facial expression recognition

Use flow base, not gray-value base, to ignore differences across individual subjects

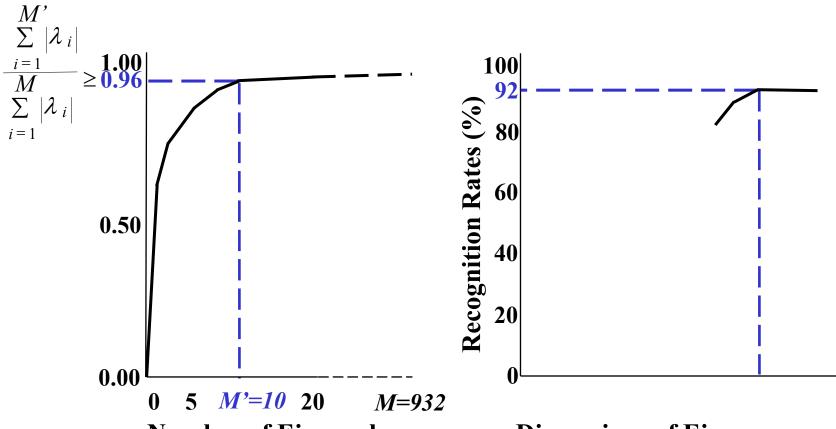
PCA properties:

Compression

Correlation

☐ Facial expression recognition

Computation of (horizontal) eigenflow number (upper facial expression)



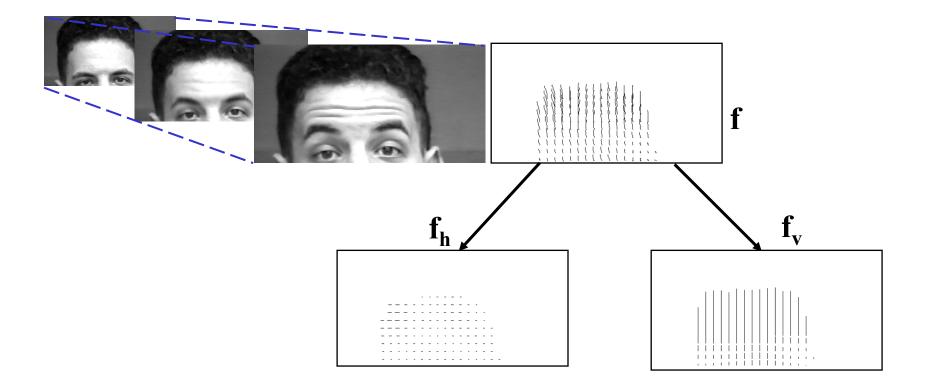
Number of Eigenvalues

$$\lambda_1 \geq ... \geq \lambda_{M'} \geq ... \geq \lambda_{M'}$$

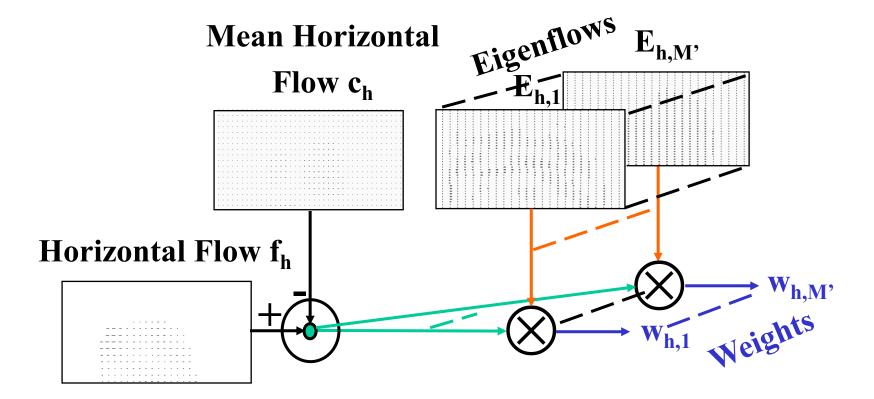
Dimensions of Eigenspace

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Input flow image



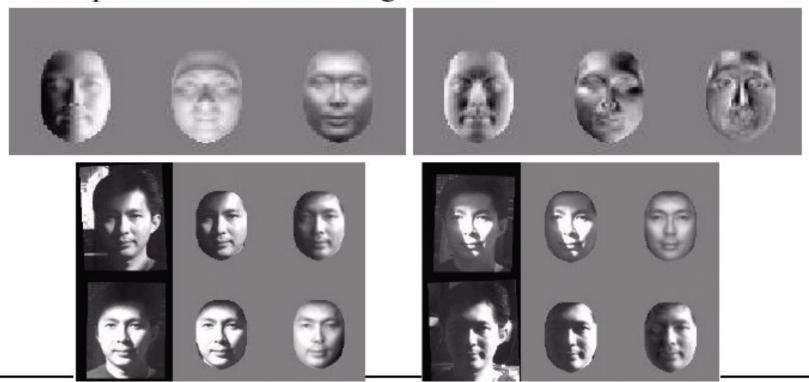
Weight vector for horizontal flow components (upper facial expression)

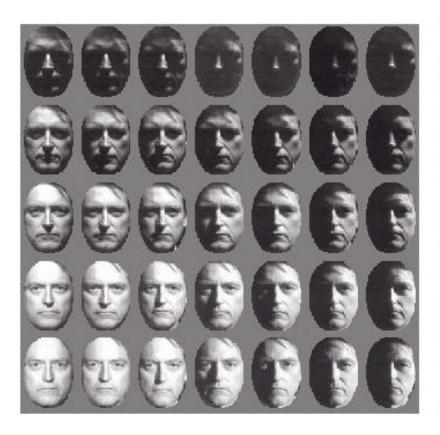


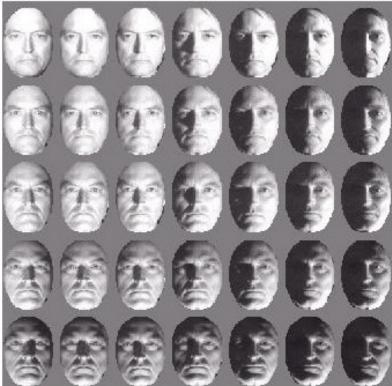
Wheelchair: EigenButts

• Illumination Direction

 Suppose we have a set of images of a face with lighting from different directions, the principle components of these images are:







Factor Analysis

References

- **□ PCA**:
 - ➤ DIP book
 - 1. M. Kirby and L. Sirovich, "Application of the Karhunen-Loeve Procedure for the Characterization of Human Faces," IEEE Transactions on PAMI, Vol. 12, No. 1, pp. 103-108, January 1990.
 - 2. M.A. Turk and A. Pentland, "Eigenfaces for Recognition," Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 71-86, 1991.
 - 3. H. Murase and S. Nayar, "Visual Learning and Recognition of 3-D Objects from Appearance," IJCV, 14, pp. 5-24, 1995.
 - 4. B. Moghaddam and A. Pentland, "Probabilistic Visual Learning for Object Recognition," IEEE PAMI Vol. 19 No. 7, pp. 696-710, 1997.
- \Box KPCA
- □ PPCA
- \Box GPCA
- \Box SPCA