Principal Components Analysis MLE, EM and MAP

CMSC 828D Fundamentals of Computer Vision Fall 2000

Outline

- · Lagrange Multipliers
- · Principal Components Analysis
- · Review of parameter estimation.
- · Notation and Problem Definition
- Maximum Likelihood Estimation
- · Difficulties
- · Bayesian view
- Maximum A Posteriori Estimation
- Algorithms: Expectation Maximization

Lagrange Multipliers

- Find stationary points of a function $f(\mathbf{x})$ subject to one or more constraints $g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$
- Consider the surface $g(\mathbf{x})=0$
 - The direction of increase of f is ∇f
 - However moving this direction may take us away from the constraint surface
 - **Idea**: move along component of ∇f along the surface.
 - Denote this component as $\nabla_g f$
 - At the extremum point this function will be stationary

$$\nabla_{g} f = 0$$

- How to get $\nabla_{\sigma} f$?
- Take ∇f and subtract from it that part **a** which takes it out of the surface g

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{g}} f = \nabla f - \mathbf{a}$$

Finding the component of ∇f along g

- Now let us move by a distance δ along the surface g
 - $-g(\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{\delta})=g(\mathbf{x})+(\mathbf{\delta}\cdot\nabla\mathbf{g})$
 - But this still lies on the surface -- so $g(\mathbf{x}+\boldsymbol{\delta})=0$
 - $-\operatorname{So} \boldsymbol{\delta} \cdot \nabla g = 0$
 - $\Rightarrow \nabla g$ is perpendicular to motions along the surface
- But we wanted to remove any piece of ∇f that was perpendicular to $g(\mathbf{x})=0$
- · This will be a vector of the form

$$\nabla_{g} f = \nabla f + \lambda \nabla g$$

(For some λ)

Lagrangian

• Consider the Lagrangian function

$$L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) = f + \lambda g$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}} L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) = \nabla f + \lambda \nabla g, \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) = g$$

• Extremize the Lagrangian

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}} L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) = \nabla f + \lambda \nabla g = 0$$

Extremize the Lagrangian $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}} L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) = \nabla f + \lambda \nabla g = 0, \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) = g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$

• So this gives us both the constraint equation and the way to optimize the function on the surface.

Principal Components Analysis

Key technique in dealing with data

- Data Reduction
 - Experimental measurements produce lots of data
 - Scientists postulate lots of hypotheses as to what factors affect data. Create
 - Goal: find factors that affect data most and create small models
- Knowledge discovery
 - Collect lots of data
 - Are there patterns hidden in the collected data that can help us develop a model and understanding?
 - Can we use this understanding to classify a new piece of data?
- Applications: Almost all computer vision
 - Especially face recognition, tracking, pattern recognition... etc.

Basics

- · Record data
- d dimensional data vector x
- Record N observations
- Mean $\overline{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_{i}$ Covariance $\Sigma = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_{i} \overline{\mathbf{x}})' (\mathbf{x}_{i} \overline{\mathbf{x}})$ Problem: d can be very large
- - "megapixel camera" d>1 million (values of the intensity at the pixels)
 - Image is a point in a d dimensional space
- · Need a way to capture the information in the data but using very few "coordinates"

Principal Components Analysis

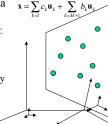
- Consider a vector x that lies in a d dimensional linear space.
- Let vectors \mathbf{u}_k , k=1,...,d define a basis in the space

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum c_{i} \mathbf{u}_{i}$$

- \mathbf{x} is characterized by d coordinates $\{c_k\}$ Different \mathbf{x}_i have different coordinates $\{c_k\}^i$
- Now consider a case that the vectors \mathbf{x} lie on a lower dimensional manifold
 - Smaller number of coordinates enough
 - For small d, if points are spread along the axes it may be easy to recognize the basis
 - For larger d and if points are not along axes it is harder
 - Need mathematical tools

Dimension Reduction

- Expressing the points using the basis vectors along the axes, we still need all the coordinates to describe the \mathbf{x}_i
- However if we had an alternate basis we need only two variables and a constant to describe the points.
- Complexity of most algorithms is a power of d
- Mathematical questions to answer:
 - · Best Basis: How to find out the basis that is best lined up with the data?
 - · Approximation question: If we only wanted the best k dimensional basis how do we select it?
 - · How do we account for noise?



Approximation

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- Given a dataset $\{\mathbf{x}^i\}$ with N members
- Write each vector in a basis {u_k}
- Coefficients
- Coefficients
 Approximate each xⁱ as sum of a variable part and a constant part and
- Dimension of variable part is $M^{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_{i} C^{i} \mathbf{u}^{k} \approx \sum_{i} C^{i} \mathbf{u}^{k} + \sum_{i} b^{i} \mathbf{u}^{k}$
- Error in approximting a particular vector

$$\mathbf{\epsilon}_{i} = \mathbf{x}^{i} - \mathbf{\Sigma}_{i} c^{k} \mathbf{u}^{k} - \mathbf{\Sigma}_{i} b^{k} \mathbf{u}^{k} = \mathbf{x}^{i} - \mathbf{\Sigma}_{i} c^{k} \mathbf{u}^{k} - \mathbf{\Sigma}_{i} b^{k} \mathbf{u}^{k} = \mathbf{\Sigma}_{i} c^{k} - b^{k} \mathbf{u}^{k}$$

$$\mathbf{\Sigma}_{i} = \mathbf{\Sigma}_{i} - \mathbf{\Sigma}_{i} c^{k} \mathbf{u}^{k} - \mathbf{\Sigma}_{i} b^{k} \mathbf{u}^{k} = \mathbf{\Sigma}_{i} c^{k} - b^{k} \mathbf{u}^{k}$$

• Define sum of squares error function C

$$C(b^{k}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\sum_{k=1}^{d} c^{i} - b^{k} \mathbf{u}^{k} \right]^{2}$$

Getting the parameters b_k and \mathbf{u}_k

• Evaluate b_k by setting $\frac{\partial C}{\partial b_k} = 0$ $b_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} c_k' = \mathbf{u'}_k \overline{\mathbf{x}}$

$$b_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} c_k^i = \mathbf{u'}_k \, \overline{\mathbf{x}}$$

• To get best basis vectors \mathbf{u}_k define cost function

$$E^{M} = \sum_{d} \sum_{k=1}^{M} \left[\left(\mathbf{x}^{i} - \mathbf{x} \right) \cdot \mathbf{u}^{k} \right]^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{M} \mathbf{u}^{k} \left[\sum_{k=1}^{M} \left[\left(\mathbf{x}^{i} - \mathbf{x} \right) \left(\mathbf{x}^{i} - \mathbf{x} \right) \right] \right] \mathbf{u}^{k}$$

- Minimize E with respect to \mathbf{u}_k
- However the expression is homogeneous in \mathbf{u}_k
 - Obvious solution is $\mathbf{u}_k = 0$

Finding the best basis

- · To avoid the trivial solution we need a constraint
- Basis vectors have unit magnitude $||\mathbf{u}_{i}||=1$, \mathbf{u}_{i} . $\mathbf{u}_{k} = \delta_{ik}$
- How do we optimize subject to constraints?
 - Lagrange Multipliers! Cost function with constraints:

$$E_{M} = \sum_{k=M+1}^{d} \mathbf{u}_{k} \sum \mathbf{u}_{k} - \sum_{j=M+1}^{N} \sum_{k=M+1}^{N} \mu_{jk} \left(\mathbf{u}_{j} \mathbf{u}_{k} - \delta_{jk} \right)$$

Can be written in the form:

$$E_{M} = Tr\{\mathbf{U'}\Sigma\mathbf{U}\} - Tr\{\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{U'}\mathbf{U}-\mathbf{I})\}$$

$$\mathbf{U} = \left[\mathbf{u}_{M+1} \mid \mathbf{u}_{M+2} \mid \dots \mid \mathbf{u}_{d}\right] \qquad \mathbf{M} = \left\lceil \mu_{jk} \right\rceil$$

Minimizing with respect to \mathbf{u}_k

$$(\Sigma + \Sigma')U - U(M + M') = 0 \Rightarrow \Sigma U = UM$$

- U is an orthonormal vector with columns as basis vectors
- So any set of Us and Ms that satisfy $U'\Sigma U = M$

PCA

- Choose the simplest solution
 - U vectors in the eigenbasis of Σ
 - M is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues.
- - Compute the mean of the data

$$\mathbf{x}^{-} = (\sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i})/N$$

2. Compute the covariance of the data,

$$\Sigma = \sum_{i} (\mathbf{x}^{i} - \mathbf{x}^{-}) (\mathbf{x}^{i} - \mathbf{x}^{-})^{T}$$

- $\mathbf{\Sigma} = \sum_{i} (\mathbf{x}^{i} \mathbf{x}^{*}) (\mathbf{x}^{i} \mathbf{x}^{*})^{*}$ Compute eigenvectors, \mathbf{u}_{i} and corresponding eigenvalues λ_{i} of $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ sorted according to the magnitude of λ_{i}
- 4. For a desired approximation dimension M, \mathbf{x}^{i} can be written as

$$\mathbf{x}^i \simeq \sum_{k=1}^M \boldsymbol{c}_k^i \mathbf{u}_k + \sum_{k=M+1}^d \overline{\mathbf{x}}_k$$

Selecting the approximation dimension *M*?

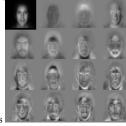
• The proportion of variance in the data captured when we truncate at a given M is

Proportion of variance captured =

- •Two strategies:
 - 1st: Specify the desired threshold e.g. 99%
 - 2nd: Look at the magnitudes of $\lambda_i / \lambda_{i+1}$
 - •In some problems it will exhibit a sharp value at some value of i
 - "Intrinsic dimension" of the problem

Application: Face/fingerprint recognition

- 128 faces at 64x64 resolution for training
 - -d = 4096
 - Perform PCA choosing 1st 20 modes (16 shown beside)
 - Approximate new faces using
- Greater than 95% accuracy claimed on a database of 7000 faces
- Also used for fingerprint storage and recognition
- If interested check http://c3iwww.epfl.ch/projects_activities/jmv/fingerprint_identification.html





Pedestrian shapes from PCA modes

- · Problem: track moving pedestrians from a moving
- Solution: generate PCA modes ("eigenvectors") from Pedestrian shapes
- · Track pedestrian shapes in new images by searching for variations in PCA modes



Movie



· From Philomin et al 2000

Summary

Principal Components Analysis (PCA) exploits the redundancy in multivariate data. Allows one to:

- Determine (relationships) in the variables
- Reduce the dimensionality of the data set without a significant loss of information

Parameter Estimation MLE and MAP

Problem Introduction

- Model characterized by values of a parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
- Have several observations of a process that we think follows this model
- Using this observation set as "training data" we want to find the most probable values of the parameters
- Observations have errors and are assumed to follow a probability distribution
- · Two Approaches:
 - Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)
 - Expectation Maximization Algorithm
 - Maximum A Priori Estimation (MAP)
 - · "Bayesian approach"
- Talk will only touch on a vast field, but hopefully will make you familiar with the jargon.

Notation

- parameter vector being estimated $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
- a test value to be compared
- E.g., if $N(\mu, \sigma)$ 1-D normal distribution

$$N(\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right)$$

- •Parameters to be estimated μ , σ
- •d dimensional data with mean μ and covariance matrix Σ

$$N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

- •Parameters to be estimated μ and Σ
- •Data set on which the estimation is based $\mathcal D$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

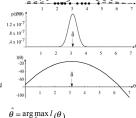
- Use a set of N data points \mathbf{x}^i belonging to a training set \mathcal{D} , and assumed to be drawn independently from the probability density $p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ to estimate $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
- Because observations are independent $p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(\mathbf{x}_i | \theta)$
- Likelihood of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ with respect to the samples in \mathcal{D} , is $p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$
 - probability that the set of observations in the dataset would have occurred, given the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
- Maximum likelihood estimate, θ^ˆ is the value of θ that maximizes this probability.
- Estimation problem: treat $p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ as a function of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and find value that maximizes it.

Log Likelihood Function

- Probabilities are positive.
- Logarithm is a monotonic increasing function
- So, maxima of the likelihood function will occur at the same values as its logarithm
- · Easier to work with
 - Converts products to sums
 - Shrinks big numbers and small numbers to O(1)
 - Easier to differentiate resulting cost function

 Denoted I(9)
- N

 $l(\theta) = \ln p(\mathcal{D} | \theta) = \sum_{k} \ln p(x^{k} | \theta)$



 $\theta = \arg \max_{\theta} \iota(\theta)$

Estimate can be a local minimum or a global minimum $\nabla \theta \ln p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \sum_{k} \nabla \theta \ln p(x^{k} \mid \theta) = 0$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- · Summary
 - Given a dataset whose elements are assumed to be distributed according to a probability distribution $p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$
 - Create the likelihood function for the data set that shows the probability that the data set could have come out of the assumed probability distribution with given parameters 6.
 - If observations in the dataset are independent the likelihood function is $p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(\mathbf{x}_i | \theta)$
 - Using the log of the likelihood function is often more convenient
 - Parameter estimated by maximizing the likelihood or the log with respect to $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

Expectation Maximization

- Algorithm for approximate maximum likelihood parameter estimation when features are missing
- · Situation:
 - Given a set of N data points \mathbf{x}^i belonging to a training set Δ
 - Data is d dimensional
 - Some of the data points is missing features, or has poorly measurec values
 - Good data point $\mathbf{x}_g = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$
 - Bad data point $\mathbf{x}_b = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_k, ..., x_N\}$
- Separate features into a good set \mathcal{D}_{g} and a bad set \mathcal{D}_{b}
- Using a guess \(\textit{\textit{\textit{0}}} \), fix some of the parameters, and form a likelihood function over the unknown features

$$Q(\theta; \theta^i) = \varepsilon \left[\ln p \left(D_g, D_b; \theta \mid D_g; \theta^i \right) \right]$$

Maximize Q with respect to the unfixed values.

Fix the found values

Repeat for the previously fixed values

Algorithm 1 (Expectation-Maximization)

 $\begin{array}{ll} t \ \underline{\mathbf{begin}} \ \underline{\mathbf{nitialize}} \ \theta^0, T, i = 0 \\ z \ \underline{\mathbf{do}} \ i - i + 1 \\ \bar{\mathbf{s}} \ \underline{\mathbf{E}} \ \mathrm{step} : \mathrm{compute} \ Q(\theta; \ \theta^i) \\ \bar{\mathbf{s}} \ \underline{\mathbf{K}} \ \mathrm{step} : \theta^{i+1} - \mathrm{arg\,max} \ Q(\theta; \ \theta^i) \\ \bar{\mathbf{s}} \ \underline{\mathbf{mitig}} \ (Q\theta^{i+1}; \ \theta^i) - Q(\theta^i; \ \theta^{i-1}) \leq T \\ \bar{\mathbf{s}} \ \underline{\mathbf{r}} \ \underline{\mathbf{mitig}} \ (Q\theta^{i+1}; \ \theta^i) - Q(\theta^i; \ \theta^{i-1}) \leq T \\ \bar{\mathbf{s}} \ \underline{\mathbf{send}} \ \underline{\mathbf{send}} \ \underline{\mathbf{send}} \ \underline{\mathbf{send}} \ . \end{array}$

•Sometimes we prefer to apply the EM, even when there are no missing features

•Q may be simpler to optimize

•Get an approx. MLE solution

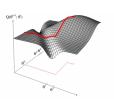


Figure 3.5. The search for the best model via the EM algorithm starts with som initial value of the model parameter, Θ . Then, via the M step the optimal θ is found. Next, θ^{\dagger} is held constant and the value θ^{\dagger} found which optimizes $Q(\cdot, \cdot)$. This process thereas until no values of θ on the found that will increase $Q(\cdot, \cdot)$ showing in particular that this is different from a gradient search. For example here θ^{\dagger} is the global optimum (given fixed θ^{\dagger}), and would not necessarily have been found via gradient search. (In this illustration, $Q(\cdot, \cdot)$ is shown ynametric in its arguments that

Maximum A Posteriori Estimation

- In MLE the estimated value of the parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is not taken to be a random variable.
- · This is against the philosophy of "Bayesian" methods
- · Everything is random
- We have an estimate of a "prior" probability
- · We make a measurement
- Based on this measurement we convert/update the prior probability to a "posterior" one.
- Thus we are given a prior probability for the parameters, $p(\theta)$
- In MAP methods instead of maximizing $l(\theta)$ we maximize $l(\theta)p(\theta)$
- In this context MLE can be viewed as finding the most likely values of **0**, assuming all values are equally likely

MAP methods

- The form of the density $p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is assumed to be known, but the value of the parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is not known exactly.
- \bullet Our initial knowledge about $\pmb{\theta}$ is assumed to be contained in a known a priori density $p(\pmb{\theta}).$
- The rest of our knowledge about θ is contained in a set $\mathcal D$ of n samples $\mathbf x_1,...,\mathbf x_n$ drawn independently according to the unknown probability density $p(\mathbf x)$.
- Goal: knowing a priori estimate p(θ) compute the posterior estimate p(θ|D)

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{D}) = \int p(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) \ d\boldsymbol{\theta}, = \int p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) \ d\boldsymbol{\theta}.$$

By Bayes' formula we have

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\int p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \; d\boldsymbol{\theta}}$$

and by the independence assumption

$$p(D|\theta) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} p(\mathbf{x}_{k}|\theta).$$

Sources

- Christopher Bishop, "Neural Networks for Pattern Recognition", Clarendon Press, 1995.
- R.O. Duda, Hart (and D. Stork), 1973 (new edition expected in 2000.)
 - A classic, but a bit heavy
- · Numerical Recipes
 - For general discussion of MLE
- · The web