# Introduction to Computer Vision

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Lecture 11: Images as vectors. Sub-space methods.

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#### Goals

- Images as vectors in a high dimensional space
- Subspace methods (eigen analysis)
- Covariance and principal component analysis

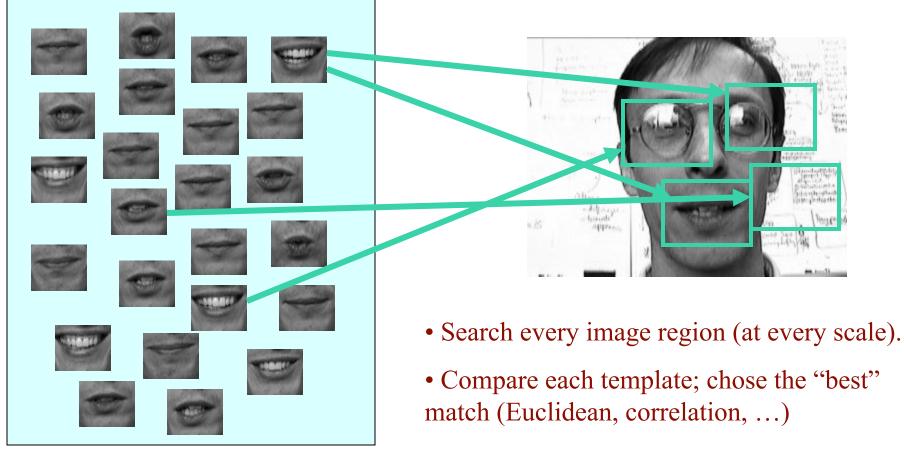
# Search and Recognition



- 1. How can we find the mouth?
- 2. How can we recognize the "expression"?

# Naïve Appearance-Based Approach

#### Database of mouth "templates"



# Appearance-Based Methods

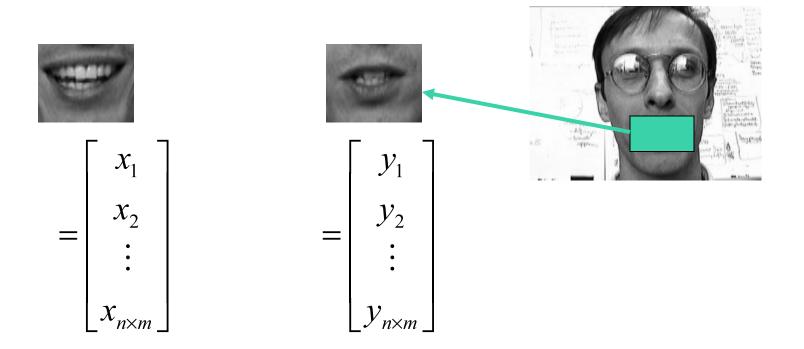
Represent objects by their appearance in an ensemble of images, including different poses, illuminants, configurations of shape, ...

Approaches covered here:

- Subspace (eigen) Methods
- Local Invariant Image Features

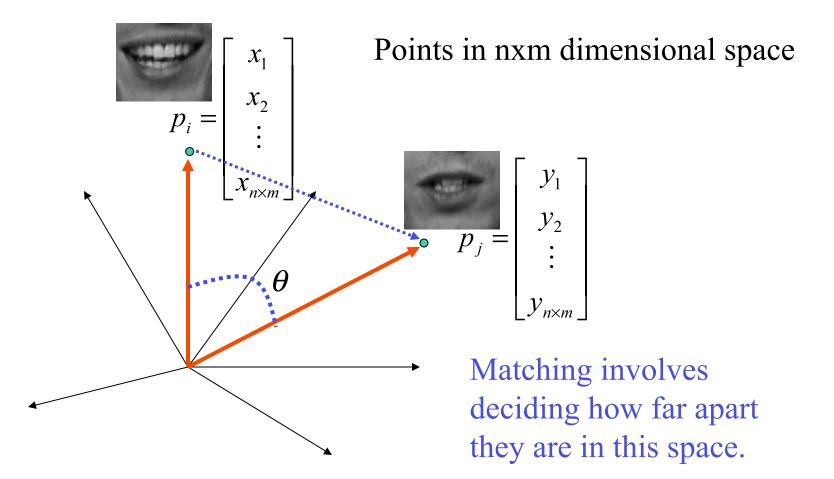
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#### Images as Vectors



#### e.g. standard lexicographic ordering

#### Images as Points



# SSD Matching

• An alternative to correlation is to minimize the Sum of Squared Differences (SSD)

$$E(p_1, p_2) = \sum_{i=1:n} (p_1(i) - p_2(i))^2$$

- Distance metric.
- Euclidean distance = sqrt(E)

# Template Methods

Image templates (simplest view-based method – straw man)

- keep an image of every object from different viewing directions, lighting conditions, etc.
- nearest neighbor cross-correlation matching with images in model database (or robust matching for clutter & occlusion)

Obvious problems:

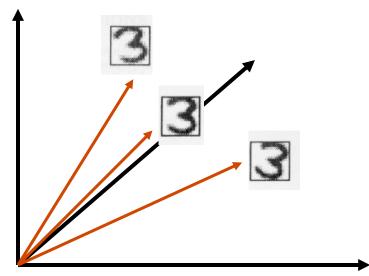
- storage and computation costs become unreasonable as the number of objects increases
- may require very large ensemble of 'training' images

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# Subspace Methods

How can we find more efficient representations for the ensemble of views, and more efficient methods for matching?

 Idea: images are not random... especially images of the same object that have similar appearance



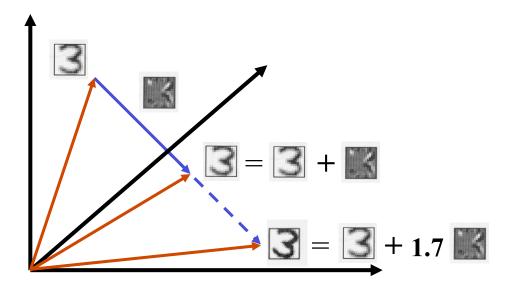
E.g., let images be represented as points in a high-dimensional space (e.g., one dimension per pixel)

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# Linear Dimension Reduction

Given that differences are structured, we can use *'basis images'* to transform images into other images in the same space.

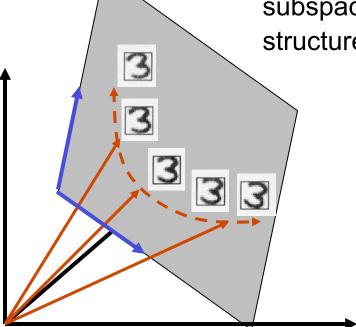


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# Linear Dimension Reduction

What linear transformations of the images can be used to define a lower-dimensional subspace that captures most of the structure in the image ensemble?



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# Approach

- Find a lower dimensional representation that captures the variability in the data.
- Search using this low dimensional model.

#### Goal

Data point *n*   $\bar{x}^n \in \mathfrak{R}^D$ Low dim representation:  $\bar{z}^n \in \mathfrak{R}^M$   $M \ll D$ 

#### Map $\vec{x}^n \to \vec{z}^n$

#### Observation

I can always write a vector as:

Kronecker delta =1 if i=j, 0 otherwise.

$$\vec{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{D} a_i \vec{u}_i$$
 where  $\vec{u}_i^T \vec{u}_j = \delta_{ij}$ 

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 7 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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#### Observation

$$\vec{x} = a_1 \vec{u}_1 + a_2 \vec{u}_2$$

$$a_1 = \vec{u}_1^T (\vec{x} - a_2 \vec{u}_2)$$

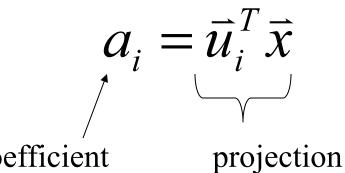
$$= \vec{u}_1^T \vec{x} - a_2 \vec{u}_1^T \vec{u}_2$$

$$= \vec{u}_1^T \vec{x}$$

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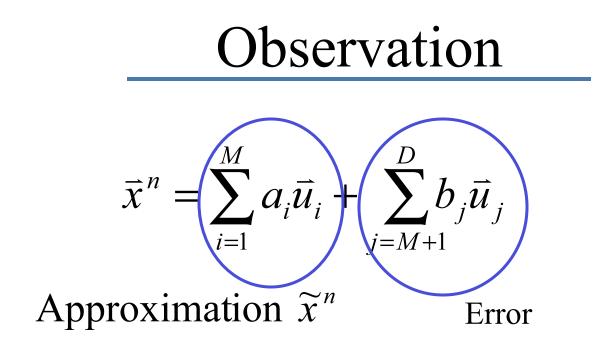
### Projection

More generally



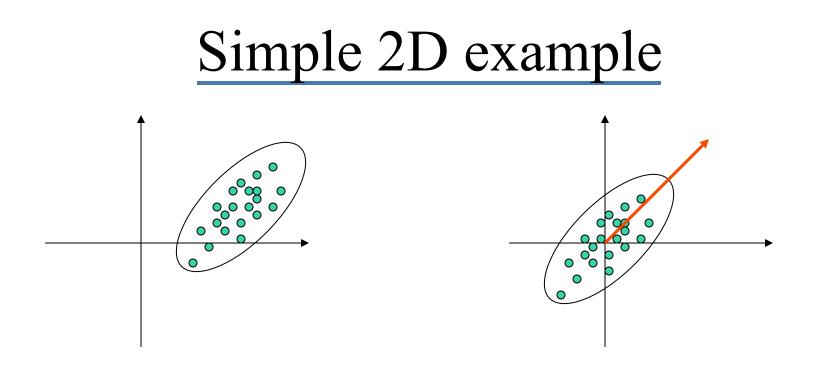
Scalar coefficient

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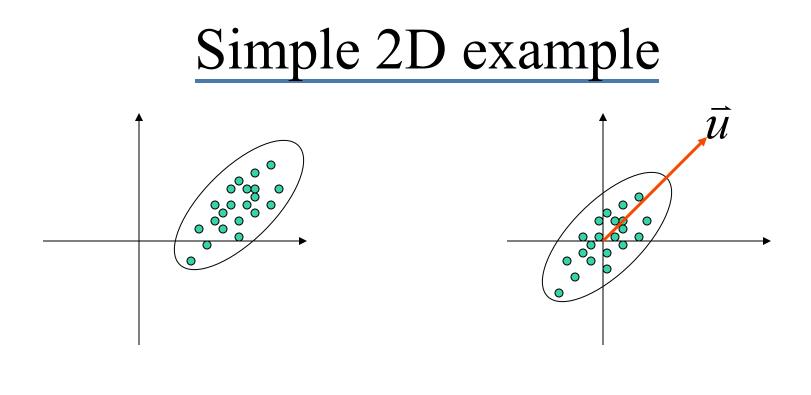
Want the M bases that minimize the mean squared error over the training data

$$\min E_M = \sum_{n=1}^N \left\| \vec{x}^n - \widetilde{x}^n \right\|^2$$

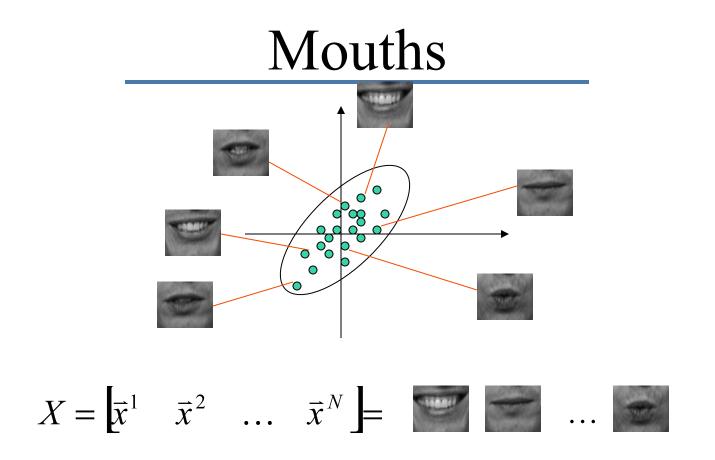


If I give you the mean and one vector to represent the data, what vector would you choose?

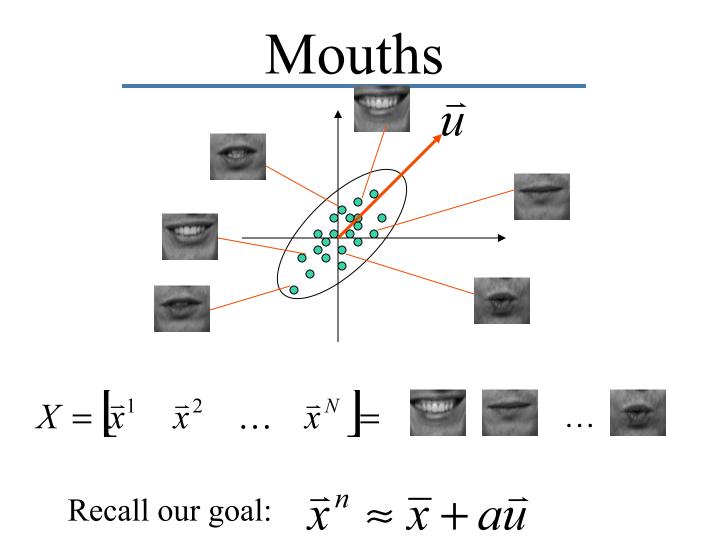
Why?



 $\bar{x}^n \approx \bar{x} + a\bar{u}$ 



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#### Statistics Review

Sample Mean  

$$\overline{x} = \langle x \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \overline{x}^{i}$$

#### Sample Variance

$$\sigma^2 = \left\langle (x - \overline{x})^2 \right\rangle = \operatorname{var}(\overline{x}) = \frac{1}{N - 1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \overline{x})^2$$

## Statistics Review

Multiple variables: covariance.

$$cov(x, y) = \sigma_{xy} = \langle (x - \overline{x})(y - \overline{y}) \rangle$$
  
=  $\langle xy \rangle - \langle x \rangle \langle \overline{y} \rangle - \langle y \rangle \langle \overline{x} \rangle + \langle x \rangle \langle y \rangle$   
=  $\langle xy \rangle - \langle x \rangle \langle y \rangle - \langle y \rangle \langle x \rangle + \langle x \rangle \langle y \rangle$   
=  $\langle xy \rangle - \langle x \rangle \langle y \rangle$ 

Special case: variance.

$$\operatorname{cov}(x,x) = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2 = \sigma_x^2$$

## Statistical Correlation

The covariance of two random variables X and Y provides a measure of how strongly correlated these variables are, and the derived quantity

$$\operatorname{cor}(x, y) = \frac{\operatorname{cov}(x, y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

(Same as correlation coefficient, *r*, defined earlier.)

#### Statistical Correlation

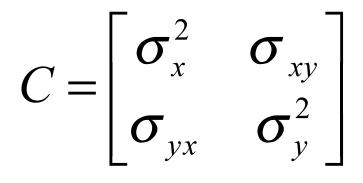
$$\operatorname{cor}(x, y) = \frac{\operatorname{cov}(x, y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

$$r = \frac{\sum_{k,l} (f(k,l) - \overline{f})(g(k,l) - \overline{g})}{\sqrt{\left(\sum_{k,l} (f(k,l) - \overline{f})^2 \int_{k,l} (g(k,l) - \overline{g})^2\right)}}$$

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#### Covariance Matrix

For two random variables *x* and *y* we have



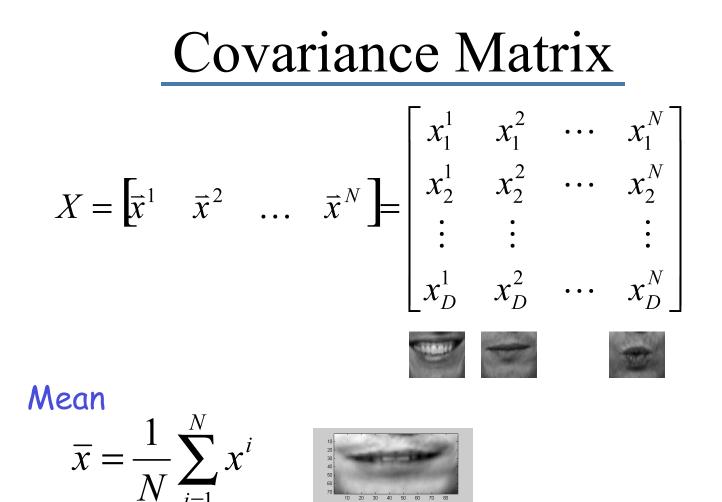
$$C = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\bar{x}^{n} - \bar{x}) (\bar{x}^{n} - \bar{x})^{T}$$

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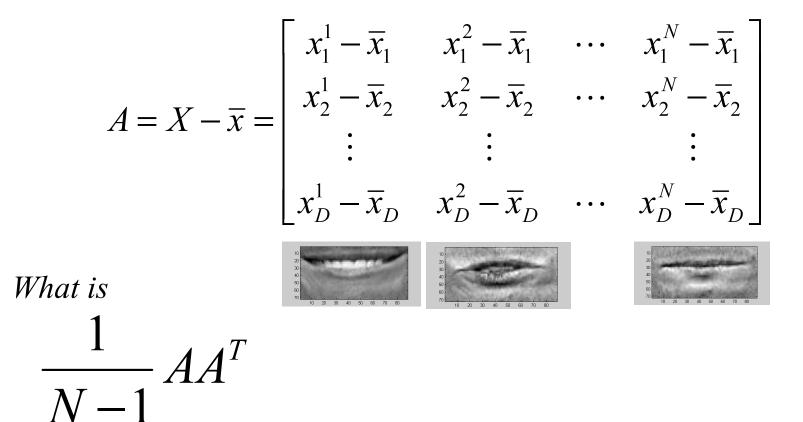
# Outer product

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 x_1 & x_1 x_2 \\ x_2 x_1 & x_2 x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

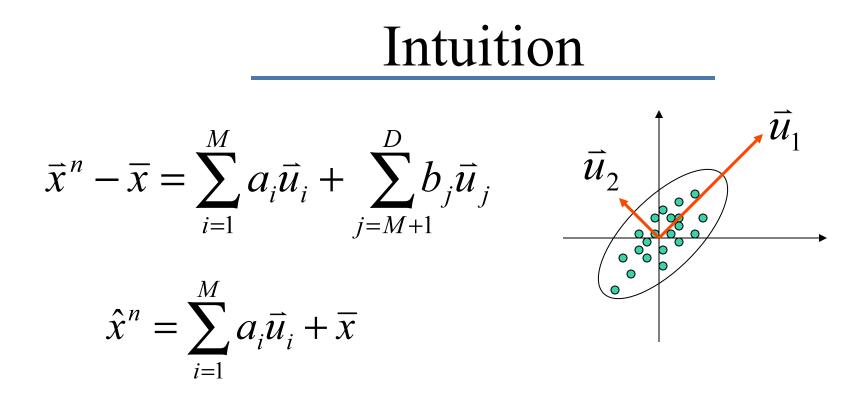
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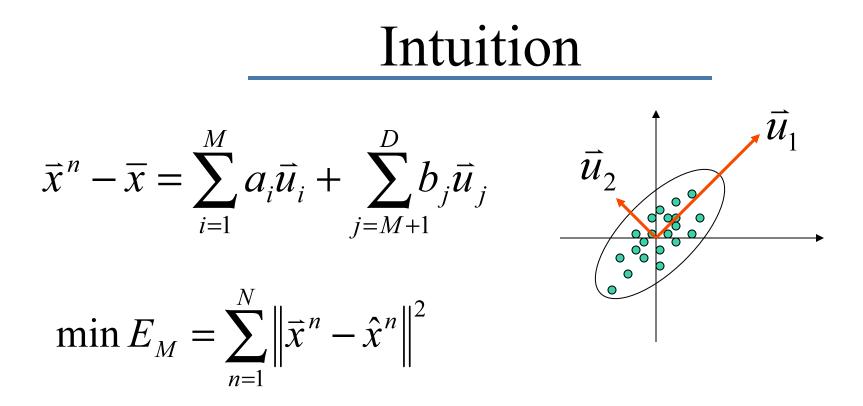
#### Covariance Matrix



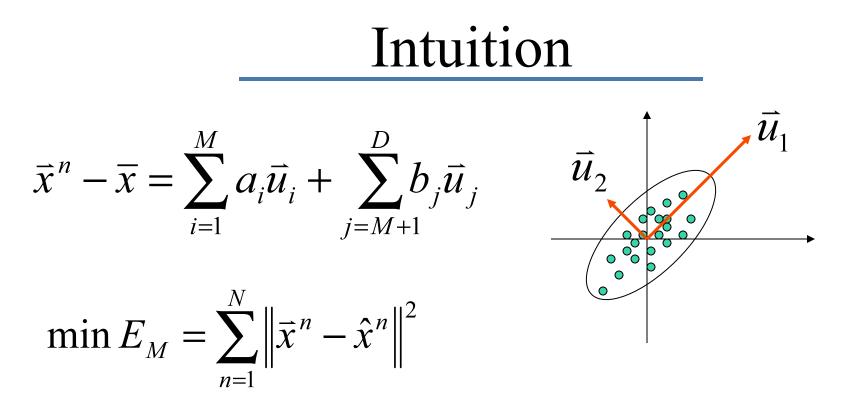
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Projecting onto  $\vec{u}_1$  captures the majority of the variance and hence projecting onto it minimizes the error



Note that these axes are orthogonal and decorrelate the data; ie in the coordinate frame of these axes, the data is uncorrelated.



So how do we find these directions of maximum variance? This is key.

# Principal Component Analysis Let $X = [\vec{x}^1 \cdots \vec{x}^N]$

Compute the mean column vector:  $\overline{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x^{i}$ 

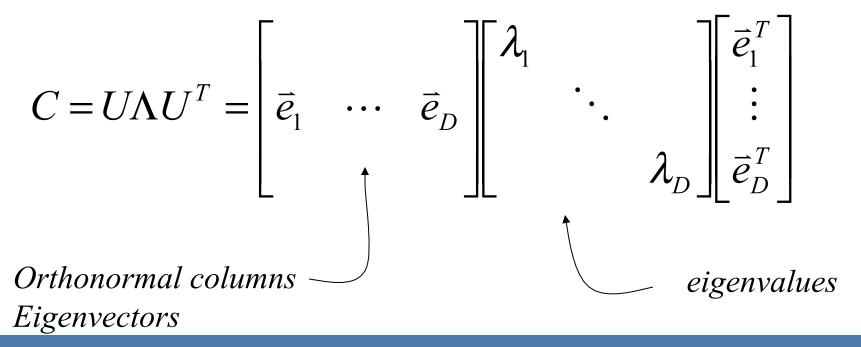
Subtract the mean from each column.

$$A = X - \overline{x} = [(\overline{x}^1 - \overline{x}) \cdots (\overline{x}^N - \overline{x})]$$

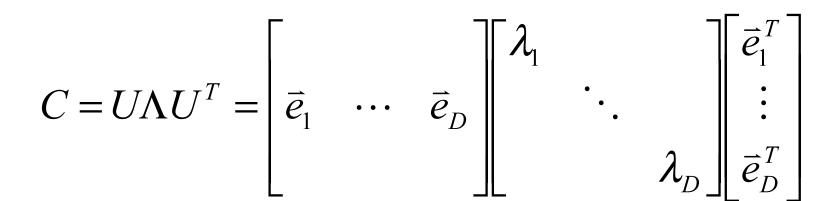
Covariance matrix can be written

$$C = \frac{1}{N-1} A A^{T}$$

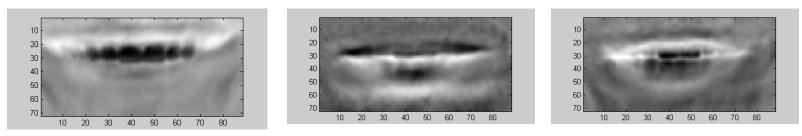
*C* is real, symmetric, positive definite. We can write it

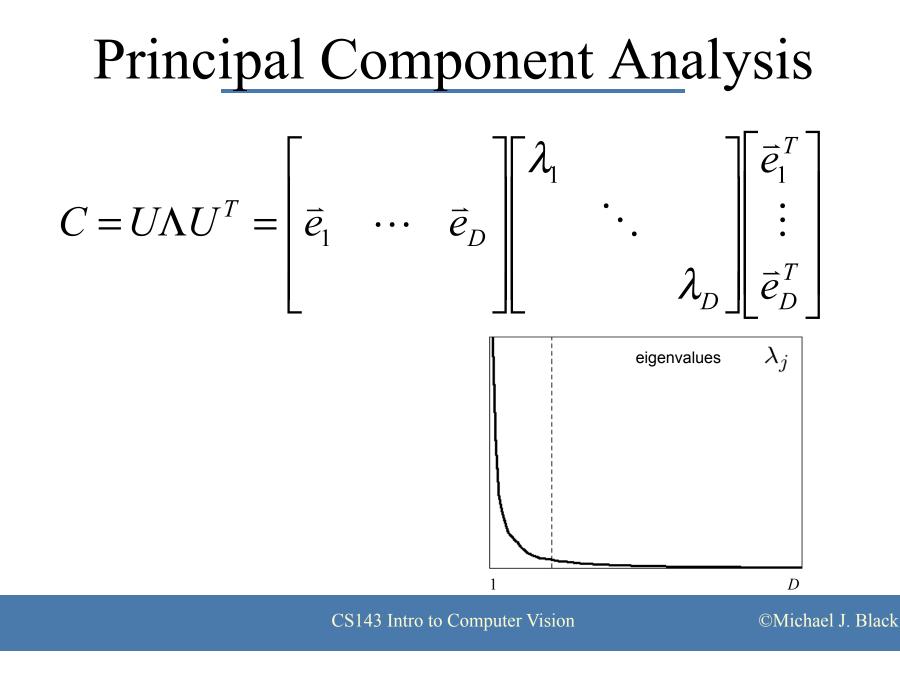


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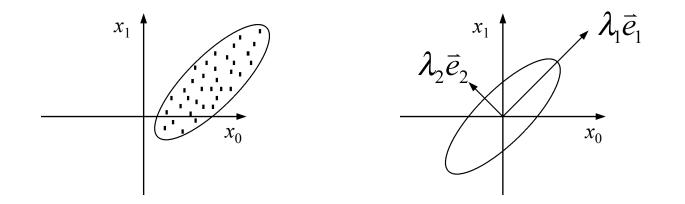


#### First three eigenvectors:





- Eigenvectors are the *principal directions*, and the eigenvalues represent the variance of the data along each principal direction
  - \*  $l_k$  is the marginal variance along the principal direction  $\vec{e}_k$



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• The first principal direction  $\vec{e}_1$  is the direction along which the variance of the data is maximal, i.e. it maximizes

$$ec{\mathbf{e}}^T C ec{\mathbf{e}}^{ ext{where}} \qquad ec{\mathbf{e}}^T ec{\mathbf{e}}^{ ext{mere}} = 1$$

- The second principal direction maximizes the variance of the data in the orthogonal complement of the first eigenvector.
- etc.

• PCA Approximate Basis: If  $\lambda_k \approx 0$  for k > M for some  $M \leq D$ , then we can approximate the data using only M of the principal directions (basis vectors):

- If 
$$\mathbf{B} = [\vec{e}_1, ..., \vec{e}_M]$$
, then for all points  
 $\vec{x}^n \approx \mathbf{B}\vec{a}^n + \vec{x}$   
where  $a_k^n = (\vec{x}^n - \vec{x})^T \vec{e}_k$ 

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