

Bayesian Techniques in Vision and Perception

Dr. Olivier Aycard
E-Motion Research Group
GRAVIR-IMAG & INRIA RA
Grenoble, FRANCE

Dr. Luis Enrique Sucar
Computer Science Dept.
INAOE
Puebla, MEXICO

<http://emotion.inrialpes.fr/aycard>

<http://ccc.inaoep.mx/~esucar/>

Olivier.Aycard@imag.fr
esucar@inaoep.mx



Content

- Fundamentals of Bayesian Techniques (E. Sucar)
- Bayesian Filters (O. Aycard)
- Research activities in Vision (E. Sucar)
- Research activities in Perception (O. Aycard)

Content

- Fundamentals of Bayesian Techniques (E. Sucar)
 - Introduction
 - Fundamentals
 - Bayesian Classifiers
 - Bayesian Networks
- Bayesian Filters (O. Aycard)
- Research activities in Vision (E. Sucar)
- Research activities in Perception (O. Aycard)

What do you see?



What we see depends on our previous knowledge
(model) of the world

Contents

- Fundamentals of Bayesian Techniques
 - Introduction
 - Fundamentals
 - Bayesian Classifiers
 - Bayesian Networks

Bayesian visual perception

- The perception problem is characterized by two main aspects:
 - The properties of the world that is observed (prior knowledge)
 - The image data used by the observer (data)
- The Bayesian approach combines these two aspects which are characterized as probability distributions

Representation

- Scene properties – S
- Model of the world – prior probability distribution – $P(S)$
- Model of the image – probability distribution of the image given de scene (likelihood) – $P(I/S)$

Recognition

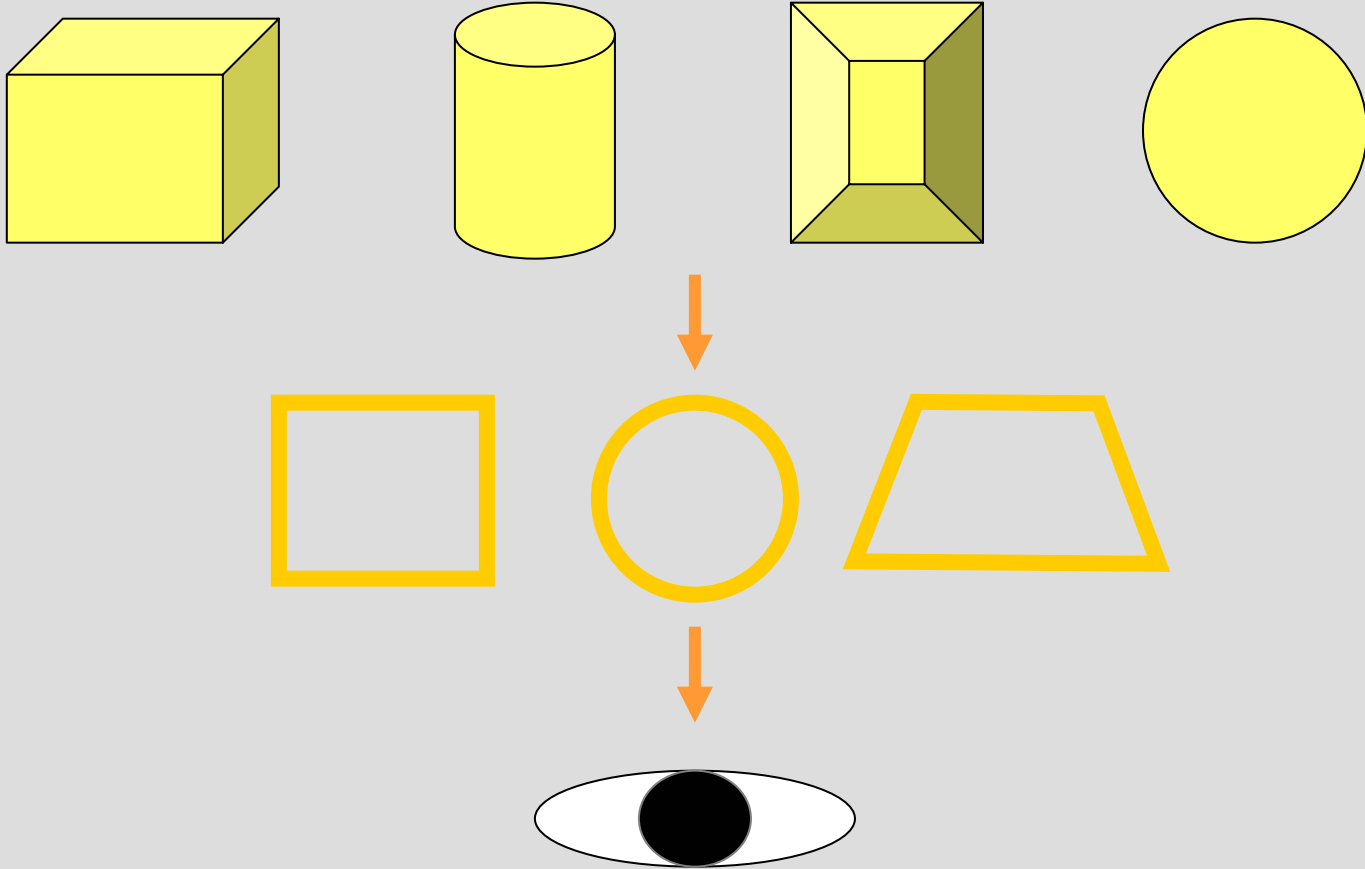
- The scene (object) is characterized by the posterior probability distribution – $P(S/I)$
- By Bayes theorem:

$$P(S/I) = P(S) P(I/S) / P(I)$$

- The denominator can be consider as a normalizing constant:

$$P(S/I) = k P(S) P(I/S)$$

Example



Example

- Prior distribution of objects – $P(O)$
 - Cube 0.2
 - Cylinder 0.3
 - Sphere 0.1
 - Prism 0.4

Example

- Likelihood function $P(\text{Silhouette}|\text{Object}) - P(S|O)$

	Cube	Cylinder	Sphere	Prism
Square	1.0	0.6	0.0	0.4
Circle	0.0	0.4	1.0	0.0
Trapezoid	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6

Example

- Posterior distribution $P(\text{Object}|\text{Silhouette}) - P(O|S)$
- Bayes rule:

$$P(O|S) = k P(O) P(S|O)$$

- For example, given $S=\text{square}$

$$P(\text{Cube} | \text{square}) = k 0.2 * 1 = k 0.2 = 0.37$$

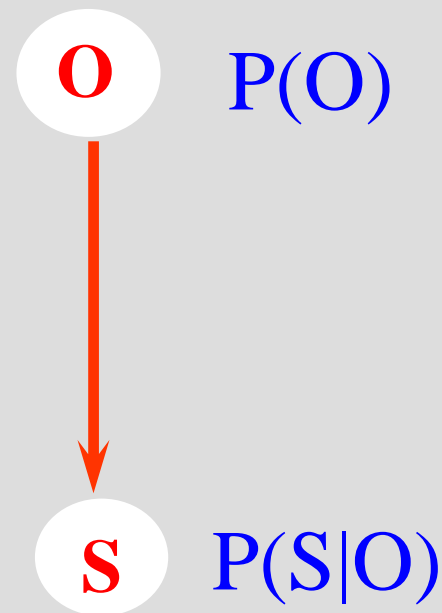
$$P(\text{Cylinder} | \text{square}) = k 0.3 * 0.6 = k 0.18 = 0.33$$

$$P(\text{Sphere} | \text{square}) = k 0.1 * 0 = 0$$

$$P(\text{Prism} | \text{square}) = k 0.4 * 0.4 = k 0.16 = 0.30$$

Graphical Model

- We can represent the dependence relation in this simple example graphically, with 2 variables and an arc



Graphical Models

- This graphical representation of probabilistic models can be extended to more complex ones.
- There are several types of probabilistic graphical models (PGMs) that can be applied to different problems in vision
- We first review PGMs and then introduce some models and their application in vision

Contents

- Fundamentals of Bayesian Techniques
 - Introduction
 - **Fundamentals**
 - Bayesian Classifiers
 - Bayesian Networks

Probabilistic Graphical Models

- Given a set of (discrete) random variables,

$$X = X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N$$

- The joint probability distribution,

$$P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N)$$

- specifies the probability for each combination of values (the joint space). From it, we can obtain the probability of a variable(s) (marginal), and of a variable(s) given the other variables (conditional)

Probabilistic Graphical Models

- A Probabilistic Graphical Model is a compact representation of a joint probability distribution, from which we can obtain marginal and conditional probabilities
- It has several advantages over a “flat” representation:
 - It is generally much more compact (space)
 - It is generally much more efficient (time)
 - It is easier to understand and communicate
 - It is easier to build (from experts) or learn (from data)

Probabilistic Graphical Models

- A graphical model is specified by two aspects:
 - A Graph, $G(V,E)$, that defines the structure of the model
 - A set of local functions, $f(Y_i)$, that defines the parameters (probabilities), where Y_i is a subset of X
- The joint probability is defined by the product of the local functions:

$$P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(Y_i)$$

Probabilistic Graphical Models

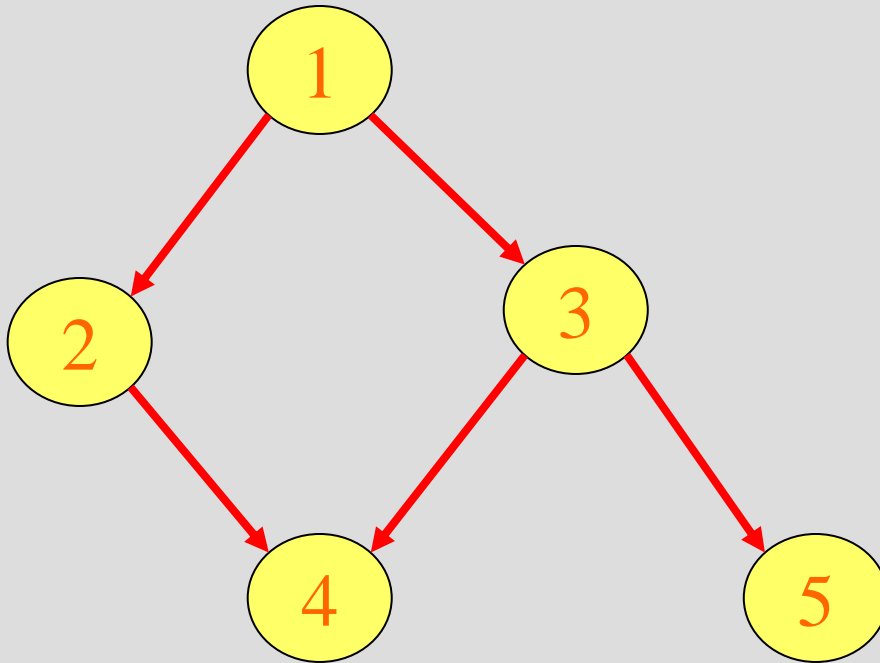
- This representation in terms of a graph and a set of local functions (called potentials) is the basis for *inference* and *learning* in PGMs
 - **Inference:** obtain the marginal or conditional probabilities of any subset of variables Z given any other subset Y
 - **Learning:** given a set of data values for X (that can be incomplete) estimate the structure (graph) and parameters (local function) of the model

Probabilistic Graphical Models

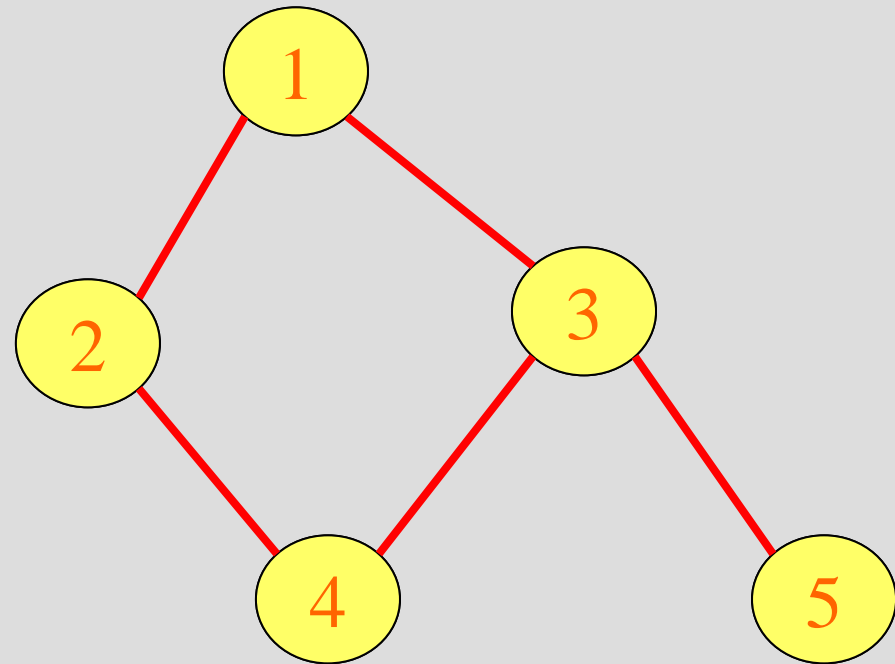
- We can classify graphical models according to 3 dimensions:
 - Directed vs. Undirected
 - Static vs. Dynamic
 - Generative vs. Conditional

Probabilistic Graphical Models

- Directed

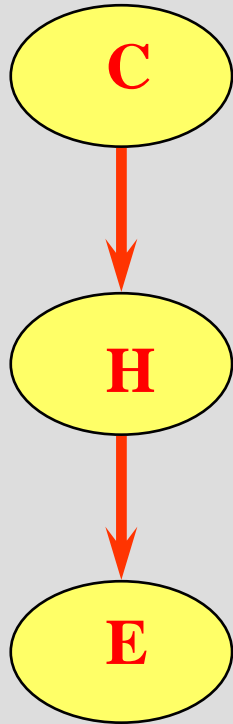


- Undirected

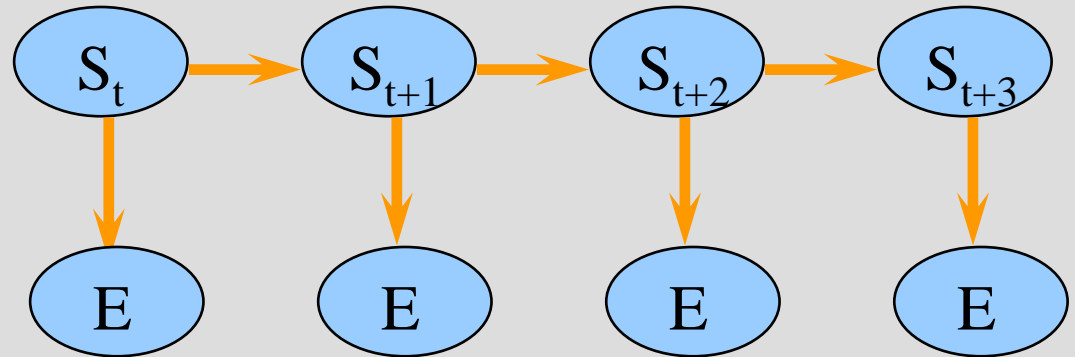


Probabilistic Graphical Models

- Static

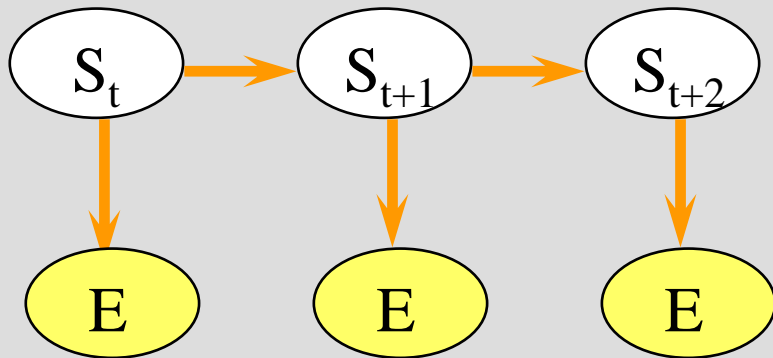


- Dynamic

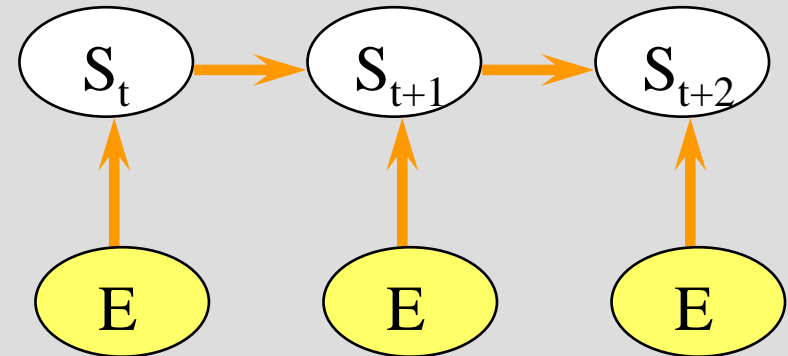


Probabilistic Graphical Models

- Generative



- Conditional



Types of PGMs

- We will consider the following models and their applications in vision and robotics:
 - Bayesian classifiers
 - Bayesian networks
 - Hidden Markov models
 - Dynamic Bayesian networks
 - Kalman filters
 - Particle filters

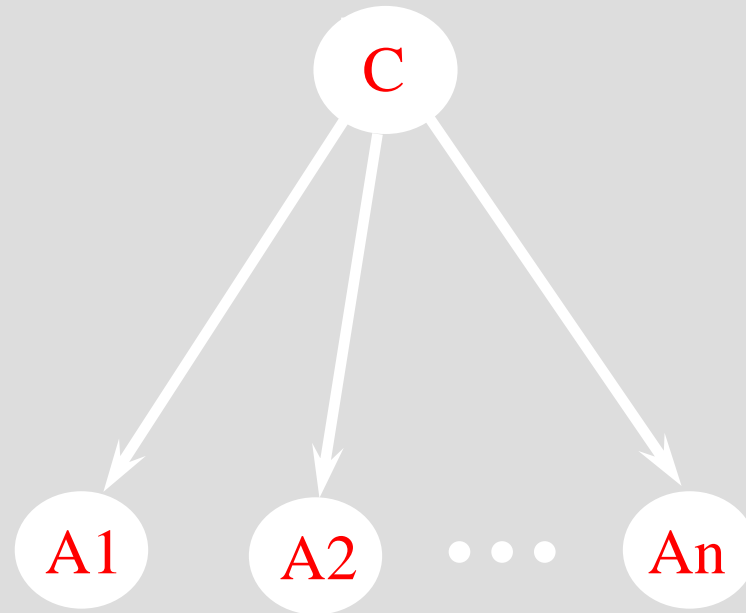
Contents

- Fundamentals of Bayesian Techniques
 - Introduction
 - Fundamentals
 - **Bayesian Classifiers**
 - Bayesian Networks

Bayesian Classifier

- A Bayesian classifier is used to obtain the probability of certain variable (the class or hypothesis, H) given a set of variables known as the attributes or evidence ($E = E_1, \dots, E_N$)
- It is usually assumed that the attributes are independent given the class – **Naive Bayesian Classifier** – so its PGM is represented as a “star” with the class as the root and the attributes as the leafs

Naive Bayesian Classifier



Bayesian Classifier

- The posterior probability of each hypothesis (**H**) based on the Evidence (**E**) is:

$$P(\mathbf{H} | \mathbf{E}) = P(\mathbf{H}) P(\mathbf{E} | \mathbf{H}) / P(\mathbf{E})$$

- Usually the exact value of $P(\mathbf{H}|\mathbf{E})$ is not required, just the most probable value of **H**

Naive Bayesian classifier

Inference

- Consider each attribute independent given the hypothesis:

$$P(\mathbf{E}_1, \mathbf{E}_2, \dots, \mathbf{E}_N | H) = P(\mathbf{E}_1 | H) P(\mathbf{E}_2 | H) \dots P(\mathbf{E}_N | H)$$

- So the posterior probability is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} P(H | \mathbf{E}_1, \mathbf{E}_2, \dots, \mathbf{E}_N) &= \\ & [P(H) P(\mathbf{E}_1 | H) P(\mathbf{E}_2 | H) \dots P(\mathbf{E}_N | H)] / P(\mathbf{E}) \\ & = k P(H) P(\mathbf{E}_1 | H) P(\mathbf{E}_2 | H) \dots P(\mathbf{E}_N | H) \end{aligned}$$

Naive Bayesian classifier

Learning

- Structure:
 - the structure is given by the naive Bayes assumption
- Parameters:
 - we need to estimate the prior probability of each class

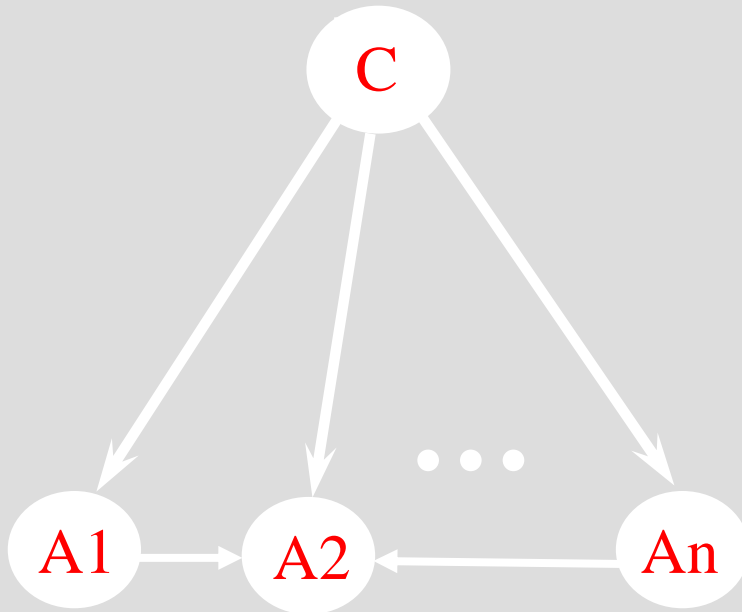
$$P(C_i)$$

- and the individual conditional probabilities of each attribute given the class

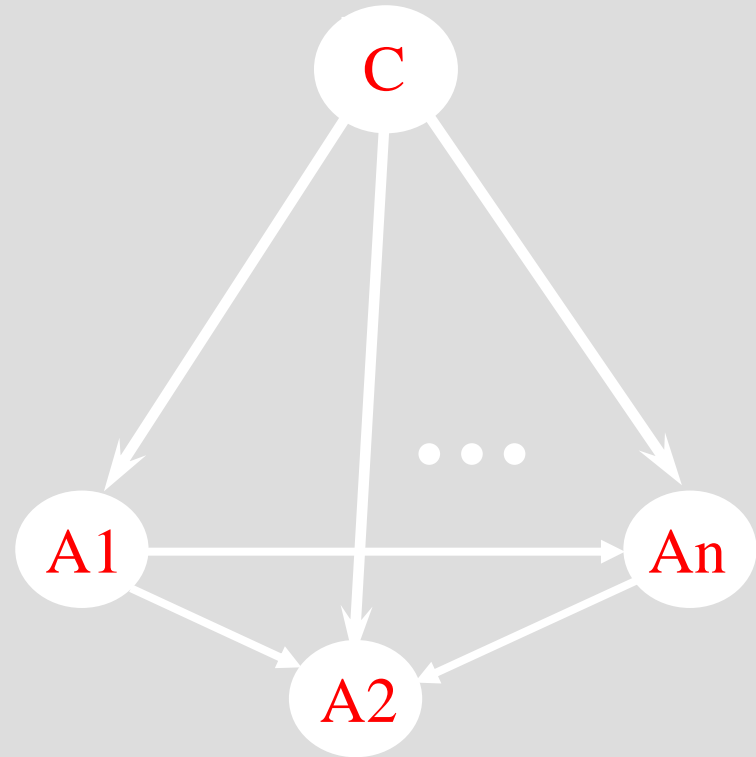
$$P(A_k / C_i)$$

Bayesian classifier - Extensions

- TAN



- BAN

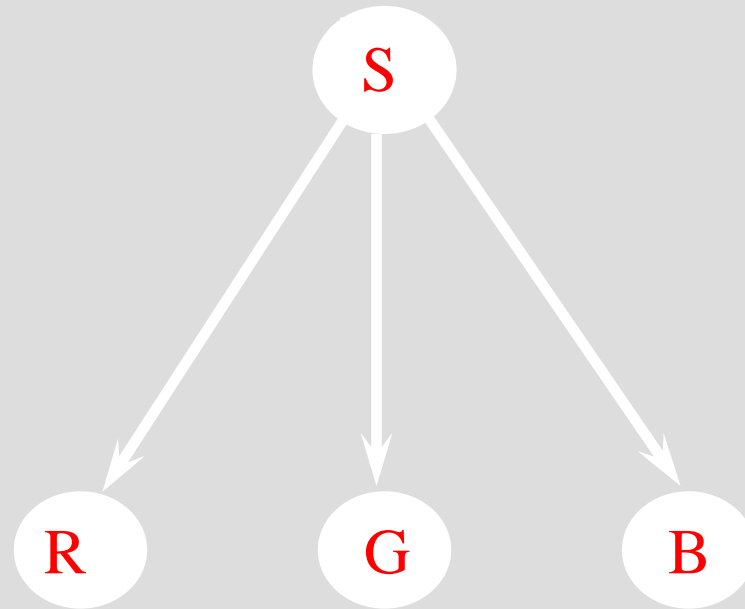


Example

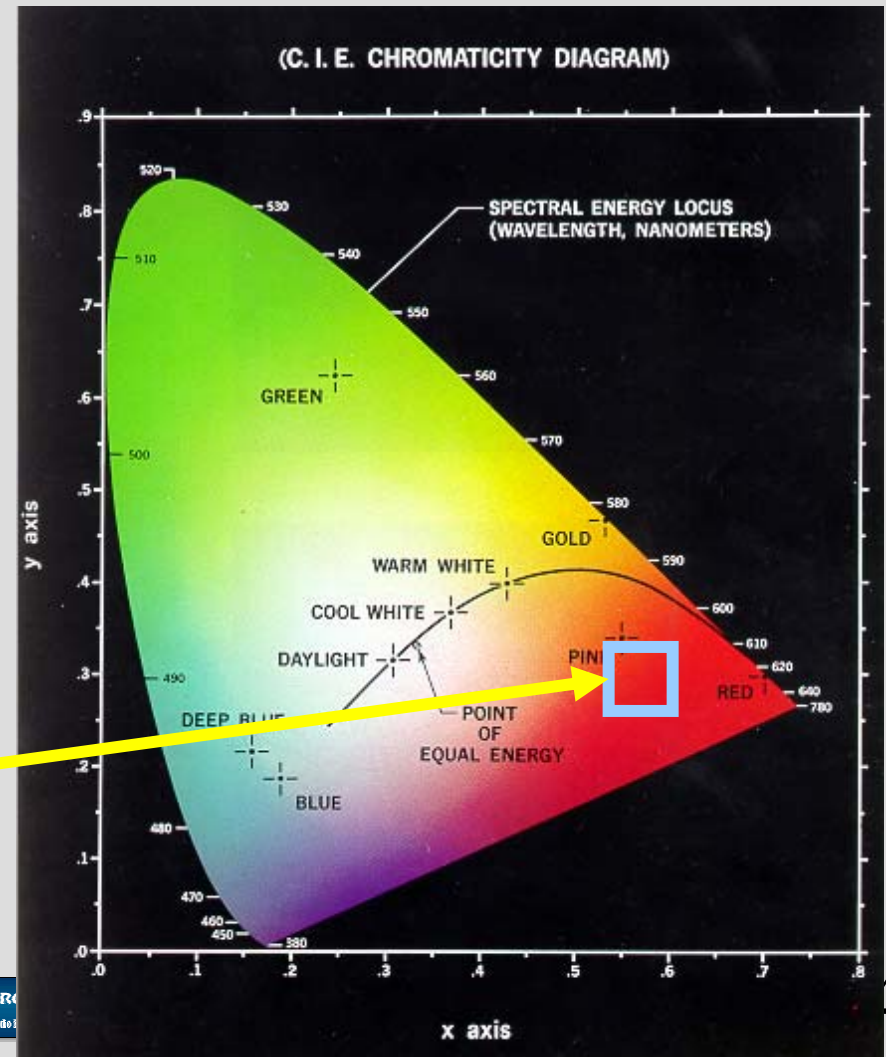
- Skin classification based on color
 - Hypothesis: skin, no-skin
 - Attributes: red, green, blue (256 values each)
- Probability function:

$$P(S|R,G,B) = k P(S) P(R| S) P(G| S) P(B| S)$$

Naive Bayes



Color based classification



“Skin” region in RGB space

Olivier.Aycard@imag.fr
esucar@inaoep.mx

Skin detection

Detection of skin pixels based on color information and a Bayesian classifier



Attribute Selection

- When there are many attributes, it can become impractical to include all in the classifier
- Also, redundant attributes (highly dependent), may reduce the accuracy
- A simple way to select relevant attributes is to select only those that provide information on the class, by measuring their mutual information: $I(C, A_x)$
- The attributes with low I are eliminated

Mutual information

- It is a measure of the dependency between a pair of variables given by:

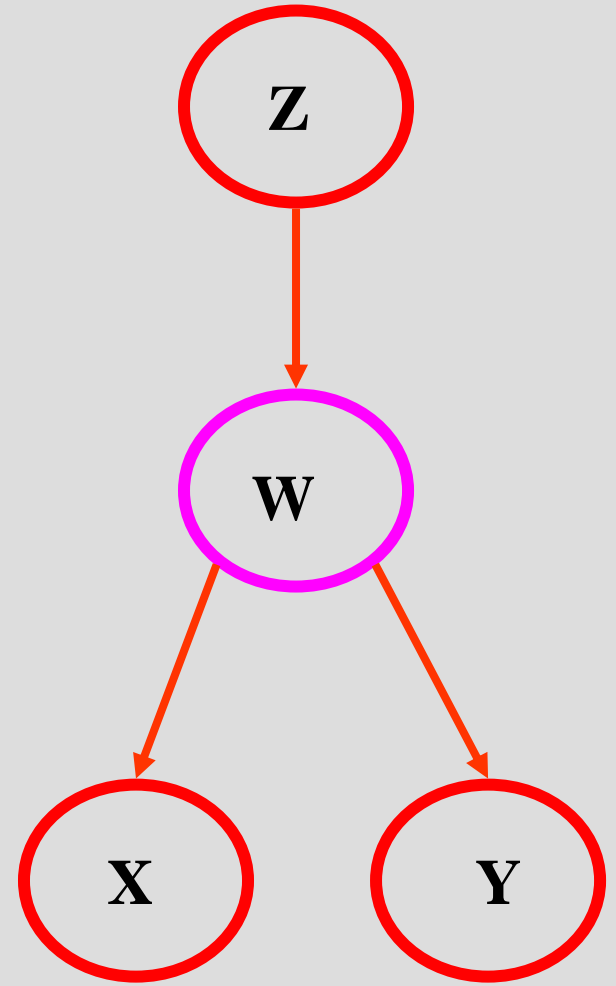
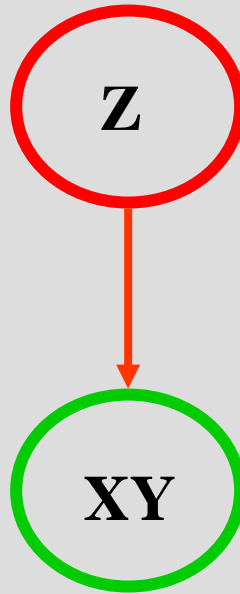
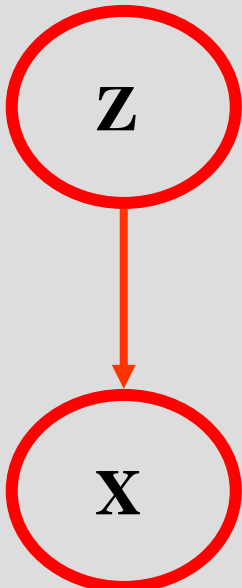
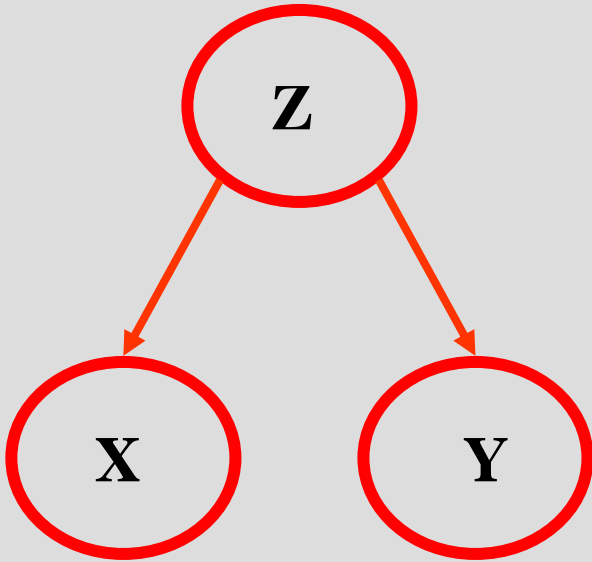
$$I(X_i, X_j) = \sum_{x_i, x_j} P(x_i, x_j) \log \frac{P(x_i, x_j)}{P(x_i)P(x_j)}$$

- It can be extended to consider the mutual information of two variables given a third one – conditional mutual information

Structural Improvement

- Start from a subjective structure and improve with data
- Verify conditional independencies:
 - Node elimination
 - Node combination
 - Node insertion

Structural improvement

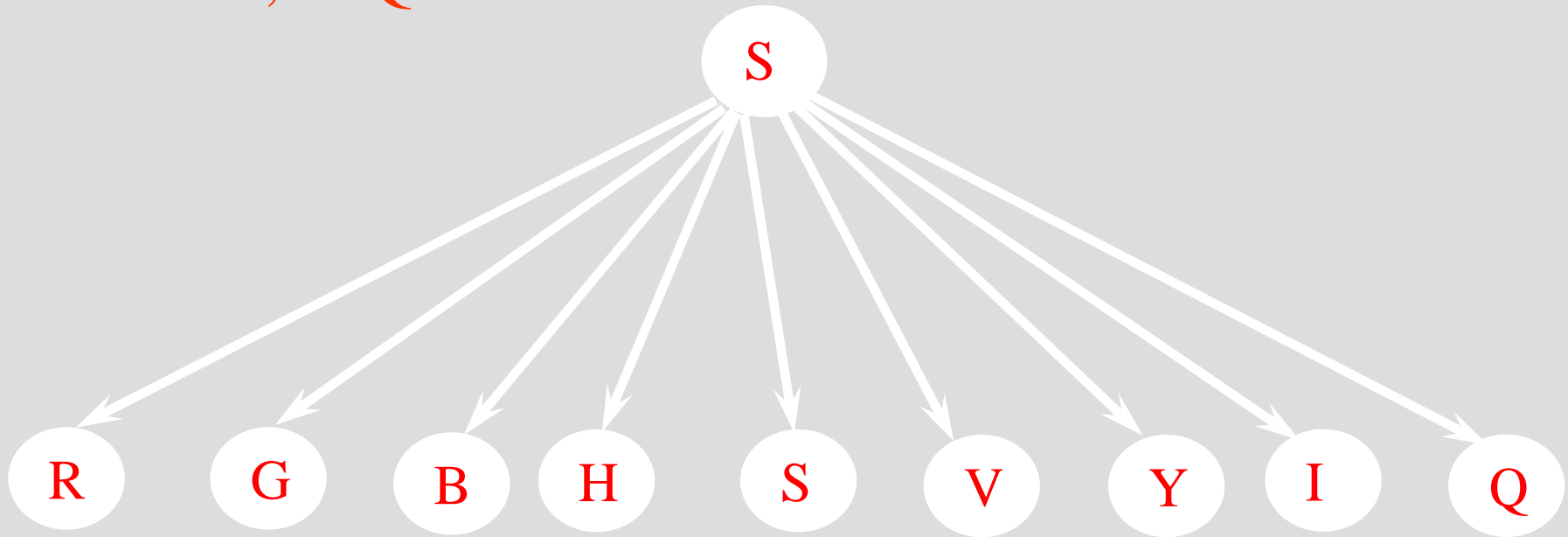


Learning an *optimal* naive Bayes classifier

1. Build an initial classifier with all the attributes
2. Repeat until the classifier can not be improved (based on the MDL principle):
 - a. Eliminate redundant attributes
 - b. Eliminate/Join dependant attributes
 - c. Improve discretization of continuous attributes
3. Test classifier on different data (cross validation)

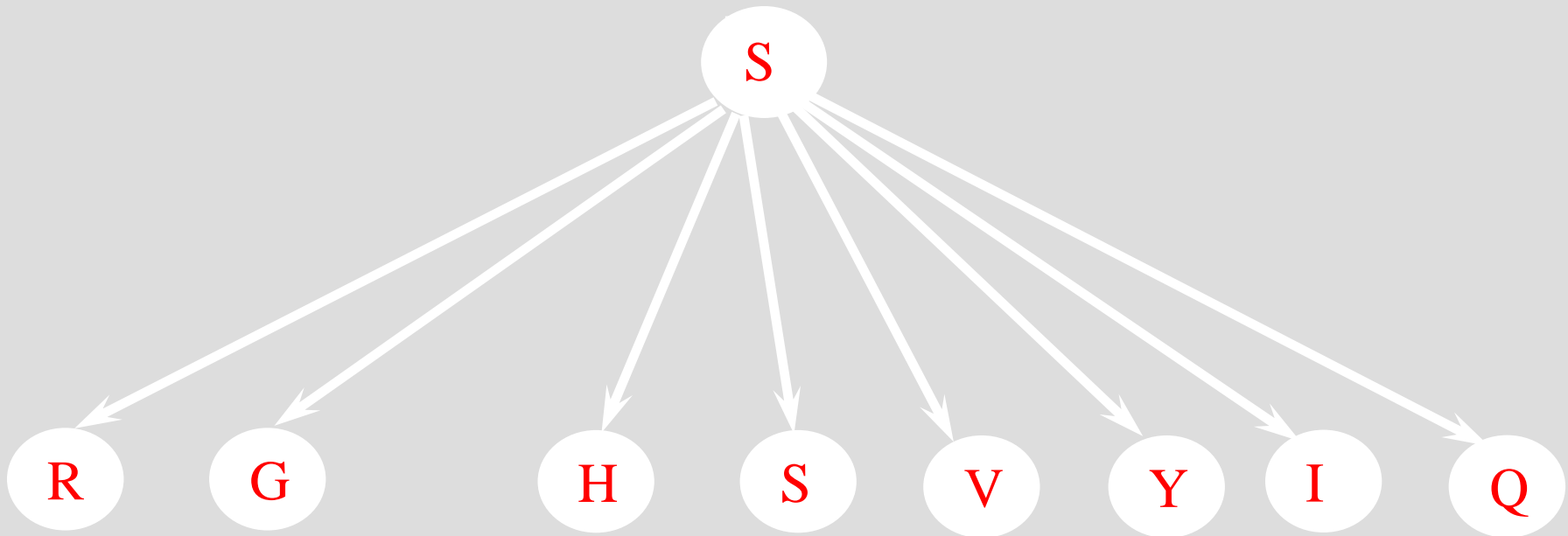
Improving skin classification

- Nine attributes combining 3 color models: **RGB**, **HSV**, **YIQ**



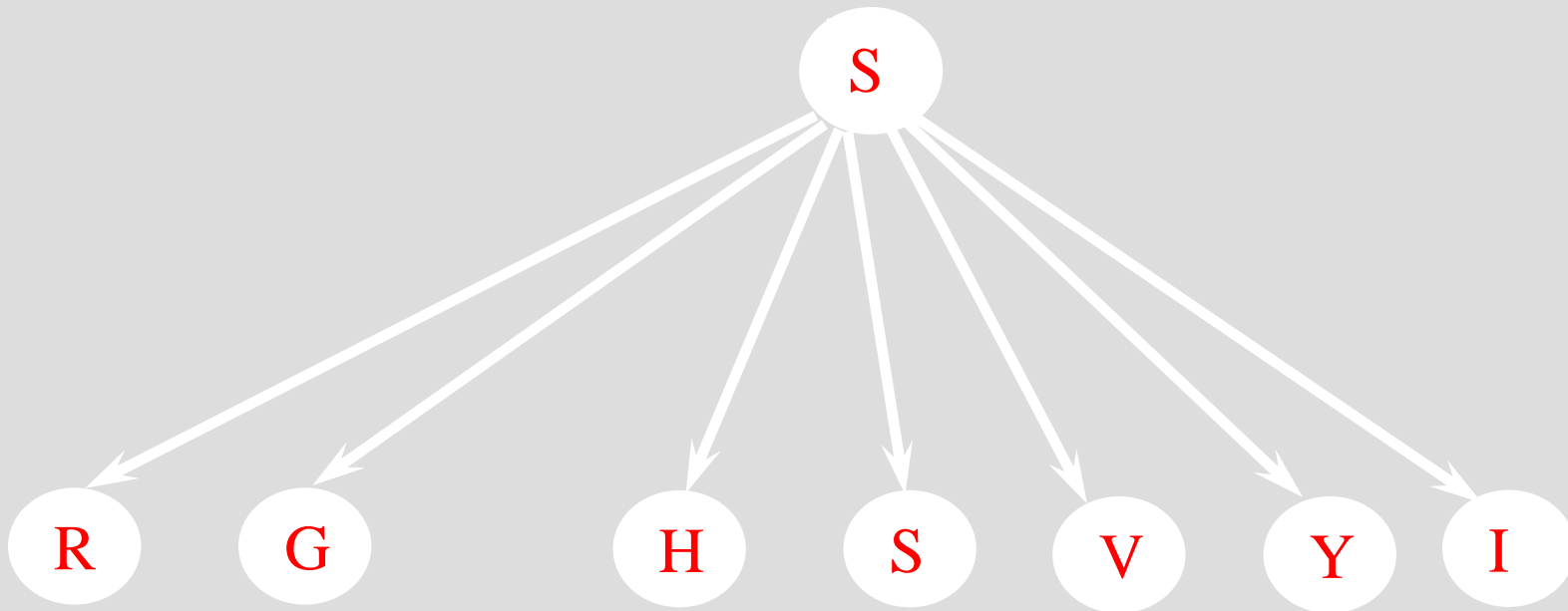
Structural Improvement

Eliminate B



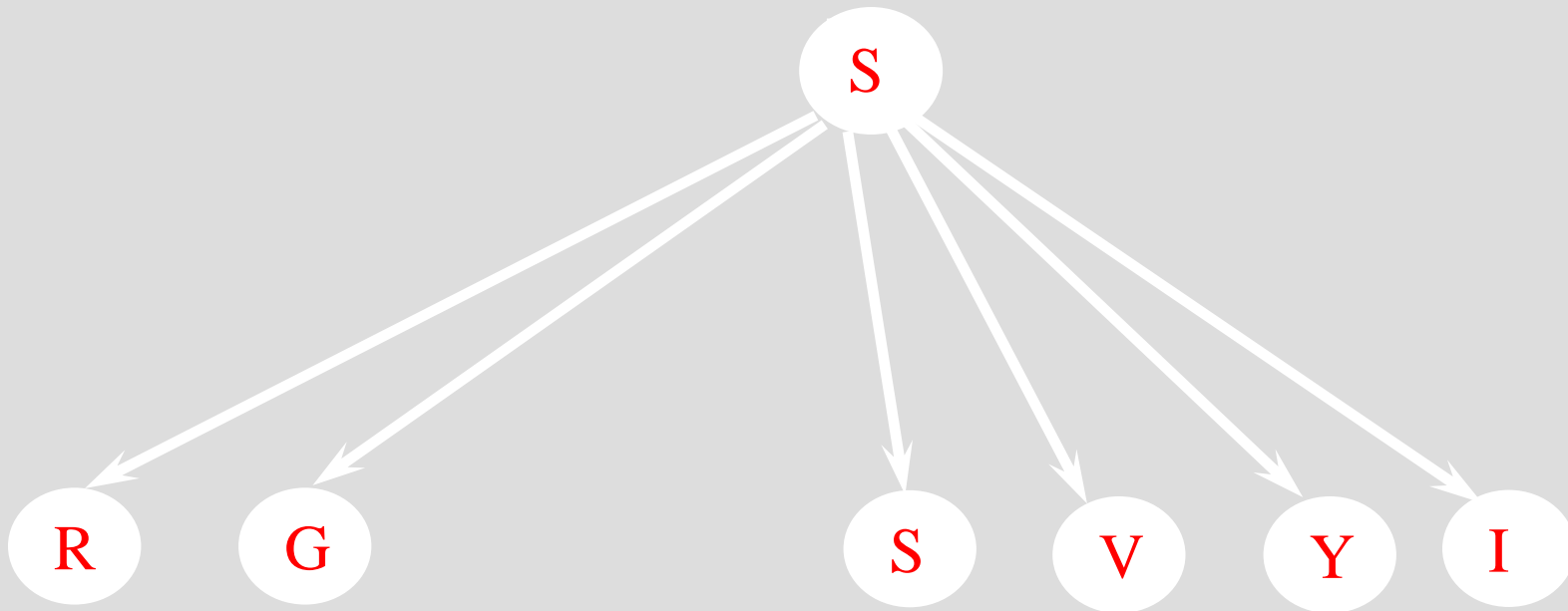
Structural Improvement

Eliminate Q



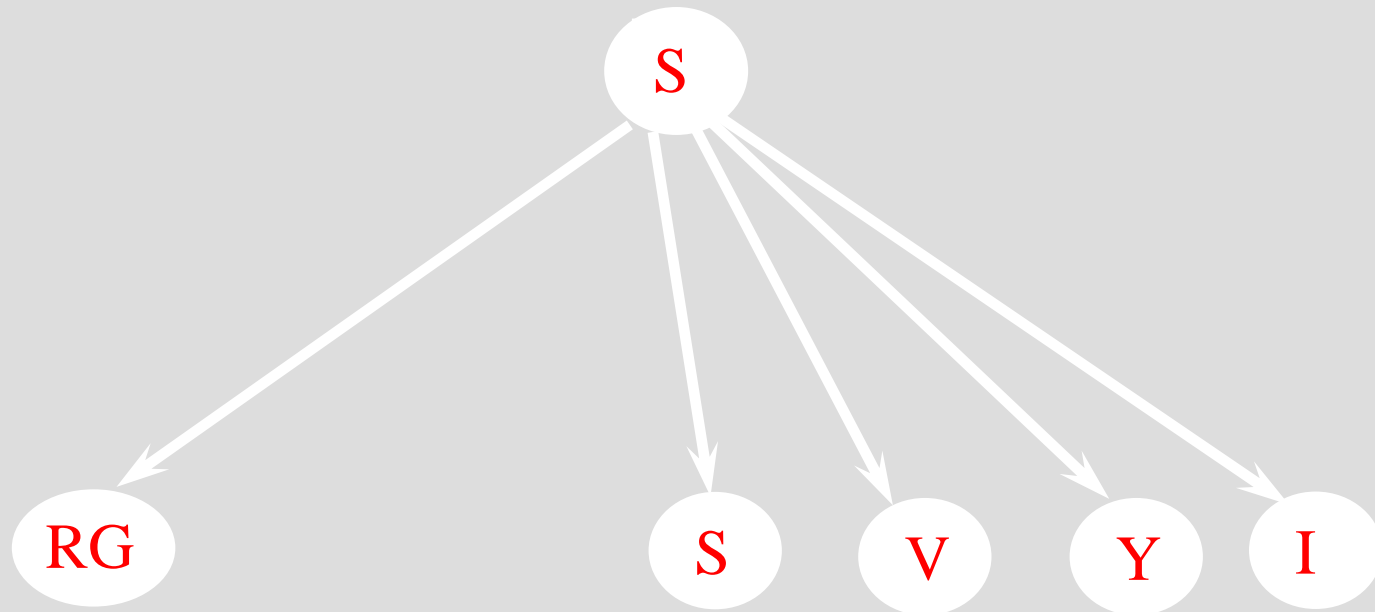
Structural Improvement

Eliminate H



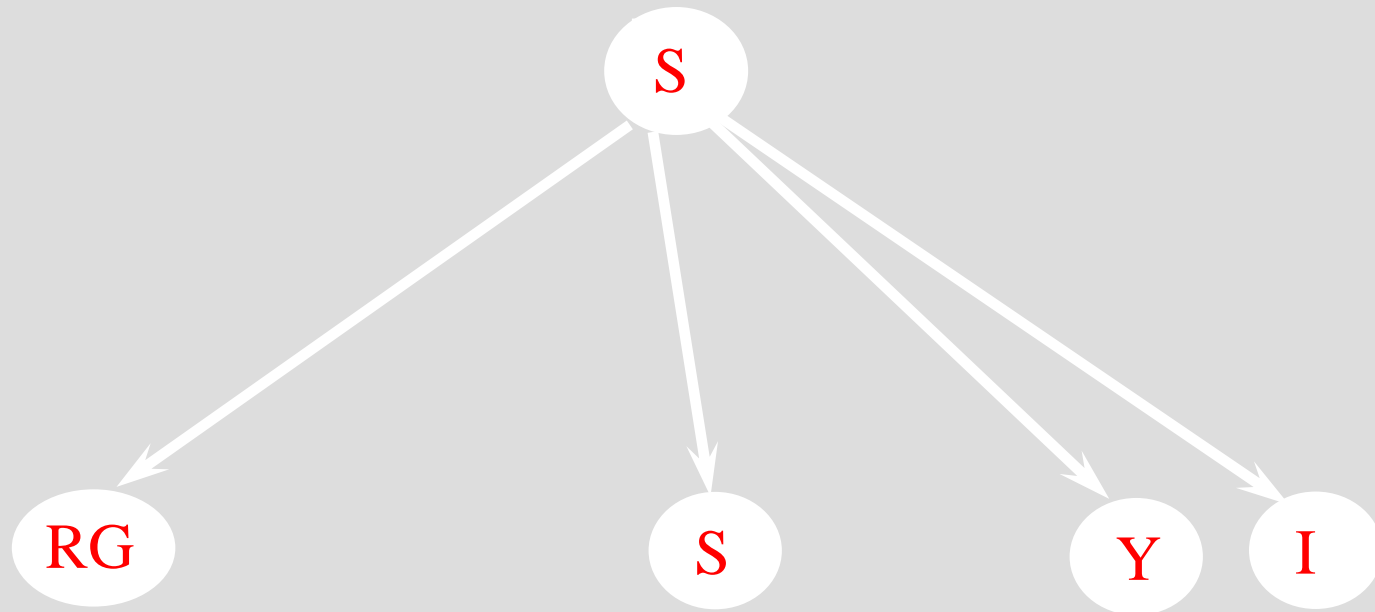
Structural Improvement

Join RG



Structural Improvement

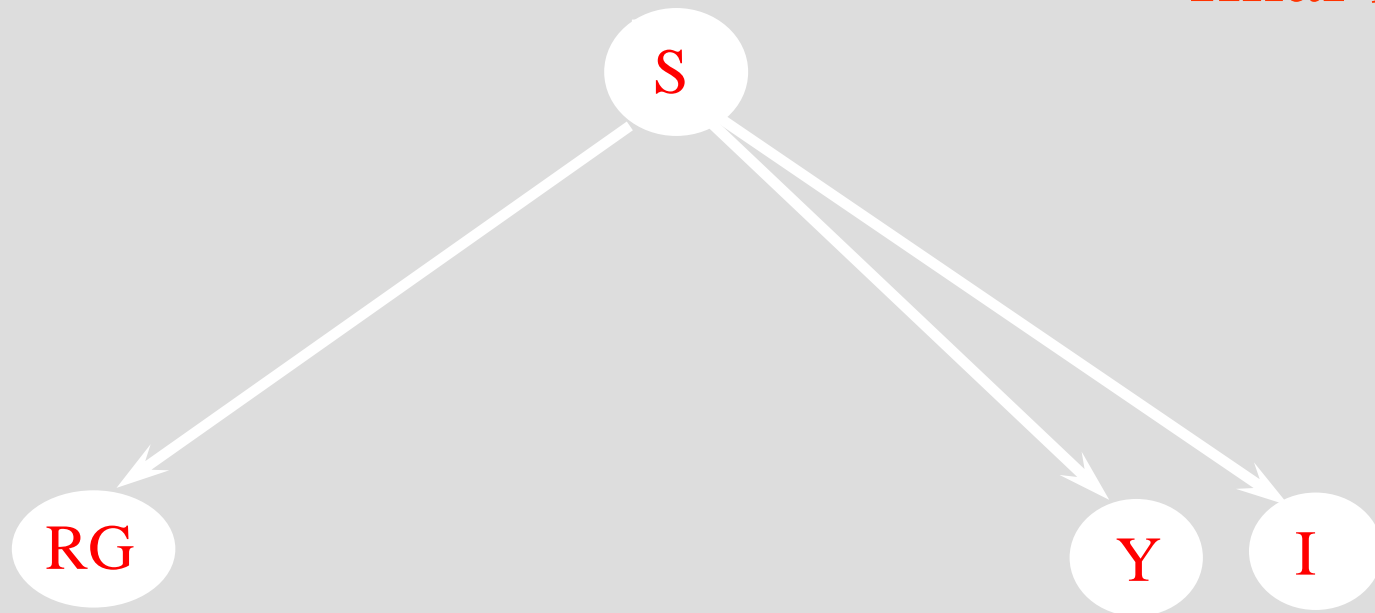
Eliminate V



Structural Improvement

Eliminate S

Accuracy: initial 94%
final 98%



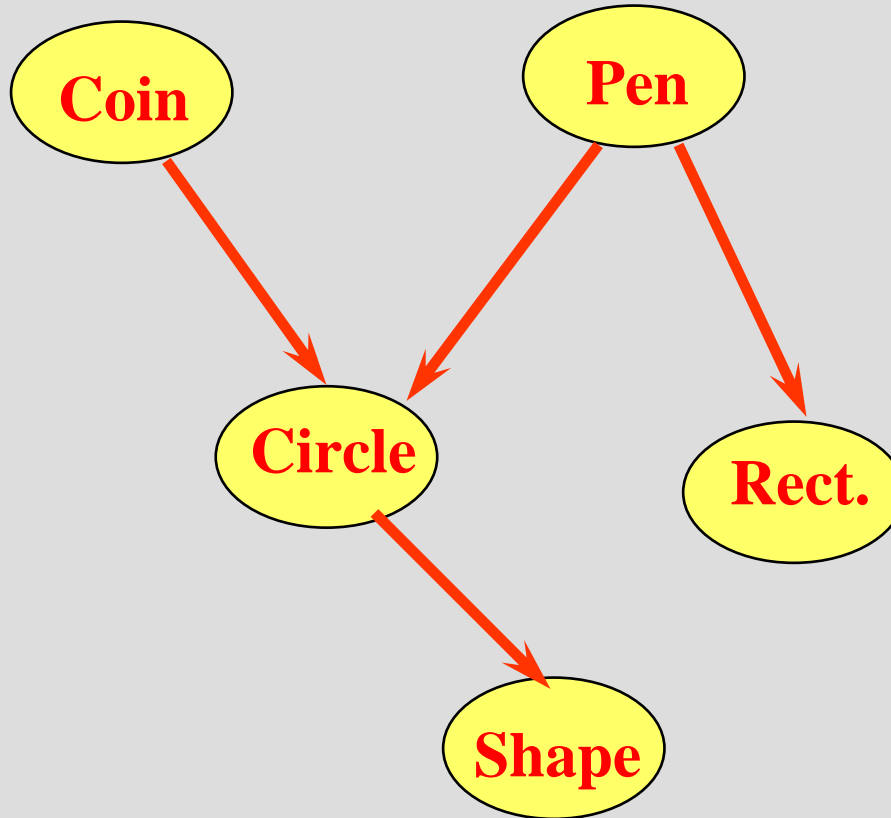
Contents

- Fundamentals of Bayesian Techniques
 - Introduction
 - Fundamentals
 - Bayesian Classifiers
 - Bayesian Networks

Representation

- Bayesian networks (BN) are a graphical representation of dependencies between a set of random variables. A Bayesian net is a Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG) in which:
 - Node: Propositional variable.
 - Arcs: Probabilistic dependencies.
- An arc between two variables represents a direct dependency, usually interpreted as a *causal* relation.

An example of a BN



Interpretation

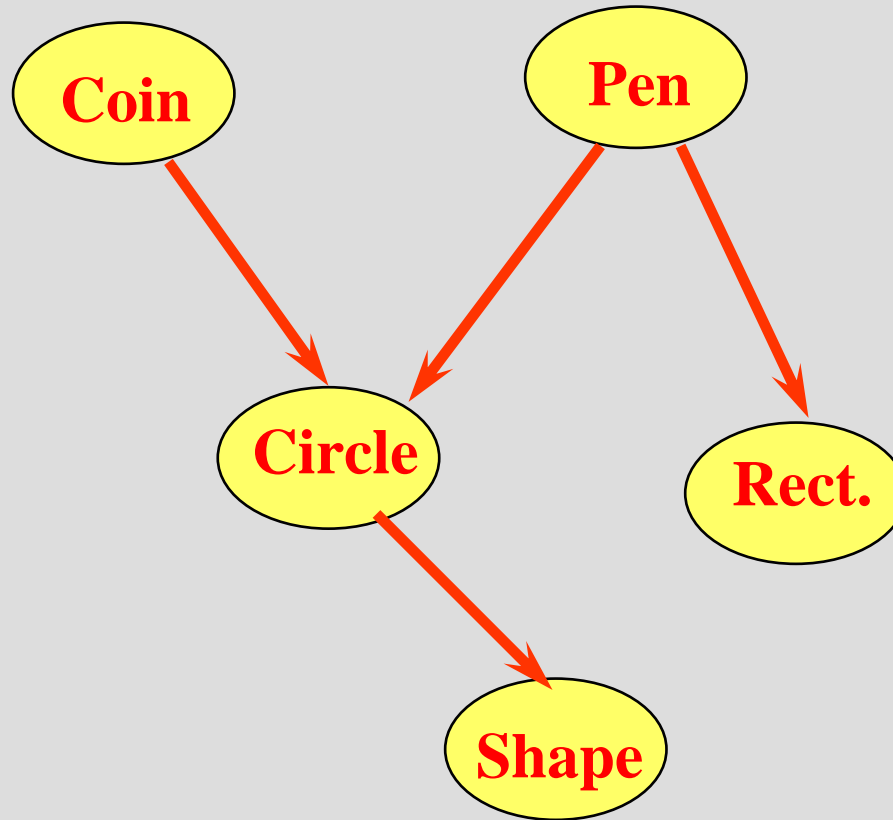
- Represents (in a compact way) the joint probability distribution of all the variables
- In the previous example:

$P(C_o, P, C_i, R, S) =$

$$\mathbf{P(C_o) P(P) P(C_i|C_o,P) P(R|P) P(S|C_i)}$$

Structure

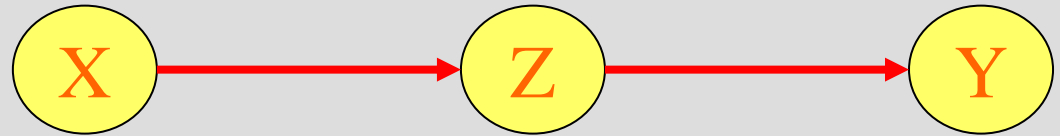
- The topology of the network represents the dependencies (and independencies) between the variables
- Conditional independence relations between variables or sets of variables are obtained by a criteria called D-separation



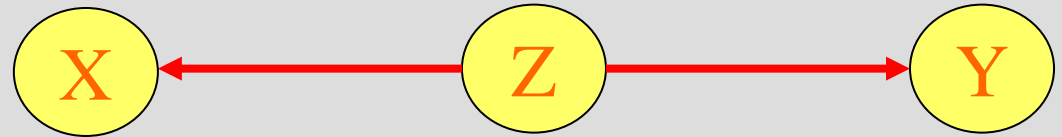
E.g.: $\{R\}$ is d -separated from $\{Co, Ci, S\}$ by $\{P\}$

Graphical separation – 3 basic cases

- “Markov”



- “common cause”



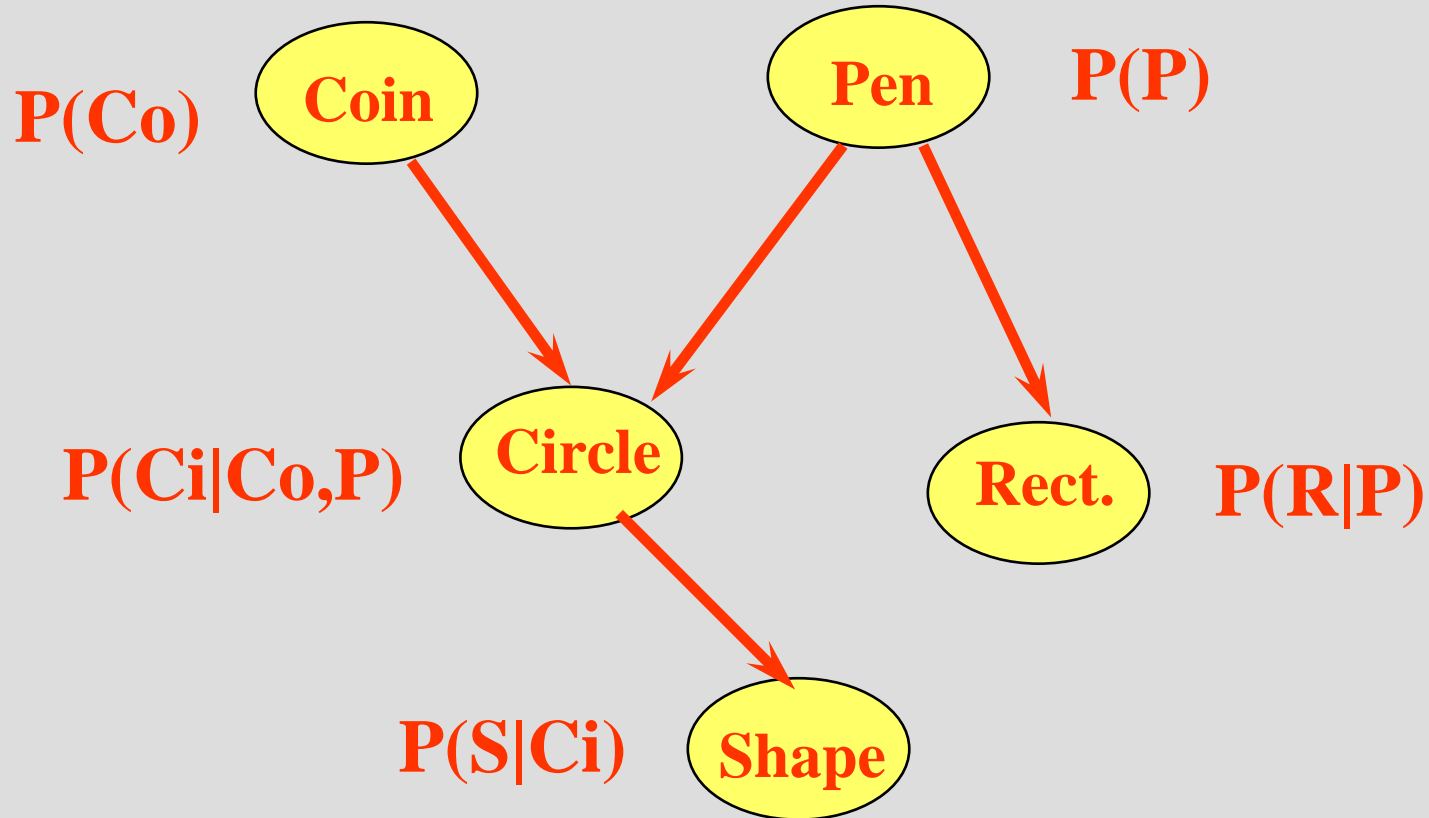
- “explaining away”



Parameters

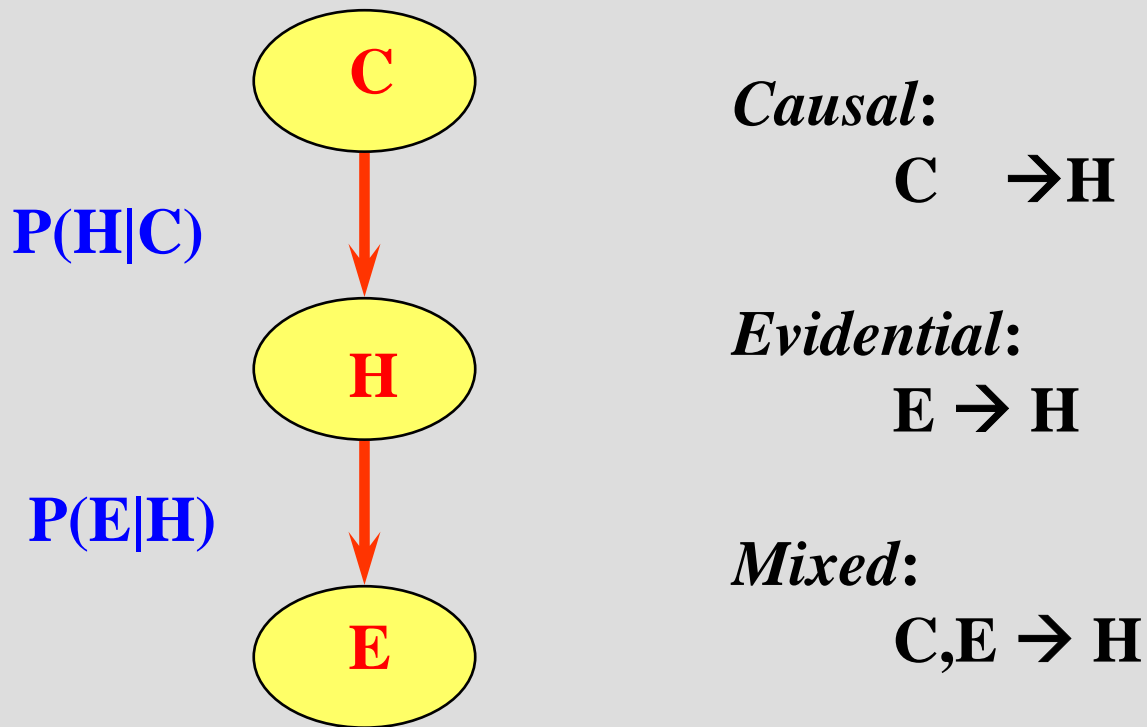
Conditional probabilities of each node given its parents.

- **Root nodes**: vector of prior probabilities
- **Other nodes**: matrix of conditional probabilities



$$P(\text{Co}, \text{P}, \text{Ci}, \text{R}, \text{S}) = P(\text{Co}) P(\text{P}) P(\text{Ci}|\text{Co},\text{P}) P(\text{R}|\text{P}) P(\text{S}|\text{Ci})$$

Inference



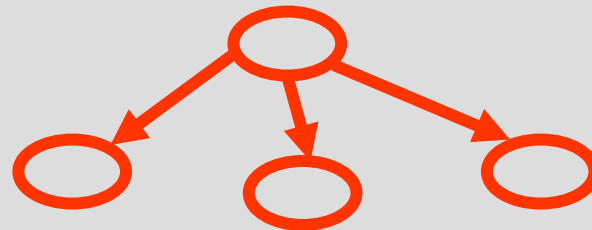
Inference

There are several inference algorithms:

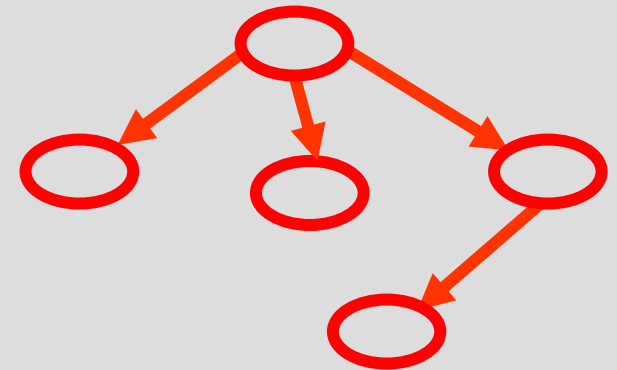
- One variable:
 - Variable elimination
- All the variables:
 - Polytrees:
 - Message passing (Pearl's algorithm)
 - General structure:
 - Junction Tree
 - Stochastic simulation

Types of structures

- **Trees**



- **Polytrees**



- **Singli-connected**

- **Multiconnected**

