The Kullback-Leibler Kernel as a Framework for Discriminant and Localized Representations for Visual Recognition

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Classification architectures for vision

- modern learning theory favors discriminant over generative architectures for classification
- for vision, a fundamental difference is the set of constraints imposed on the representation
 - discriminant classifiers favor holistic representations (image as a point in high-dimensional space)
 - generative classifiers favor localized representations (images as bags of local features)
- Iocalized representations have various advantages
 - more invariant
 - more robust to occlusion
 - lower dimensionality

Classification architectures for vision

- also, despite weaker guarantees, generative architectures have great practical appeal
 - better scalability in number of classes
 - encoding of prior knowledge in the form of statistical models
 - modular solutions, using Bayesian inference
- Q: can all this be combined with discriminant guarantees?
- we consider SVMs, and the Kullback-Leibler kernel
- investigate its ability to seamlessly combine discriminant recognition with generative models based on localized representations

Support vector machines

SVM: given training (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) , linear SVM is (\mathbf{w}, b)

$$\max_{\alpha} \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} (\mathbf{x}_{i} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{j}) \text{ s.t } \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} = 0, \ \alpha_{i} \ge 0$$

where $\{\alpha_i\}$ is a set of Lagrange multipliers, and

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} \qquad b = \left\langle y_{i} - \sum_{j} y_{j} \alpha_{j} (\mathbf{x}_{i} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{j}) \right\rangle_{i \mid \alpha_{i} > 0}$$

extension to non-linear boundaries via a feature transformation

$$\Phi:\mathcal{X}\to\mathcal{Z}$$

Kernels

exclusive dependence on dot-products allows implementation via a kernel function

$$\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{x}_j) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \cdot \Phi(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

standard dot product implies Euclidean metric.
 Kernel extends to non-Euclidean measures of similarity: K(x_i·x_j) is similarity between x_i, x_j.



Constraints on representation

- two possible image representations
 - holistic: ${\mathcal X}$ the space of all images, each image is a point in ${\mathcal X}$
 - localized: image broken into local windows, $\ensuremath{\mathcal{X}}$ the space of such windows
- SVM training is $O(N^2)$, N = number of examples
- ► holistic: N = I, dim(X) large (e.g. 5,000)

► localized:
$$N = k \times I$$
, $I = #$ images
 $k = windows/image$, k large (e.g. 5,000)
dim(\mathcal{X}) small (e.g. 8x8)

- complexity of localized ~ k² times that of holistic (e.g. 2.5 x10⁷ increase)
- no way to capture grouping of windows into images

Constraints on representation

- Iocalized not suited for traditional SVM
- holistic has been successful, but has limitations
- resolution:
 - images too high-dimensional, drastically down-sampled (e.g. from 240x360 to 20x20)
 - discarded information important for fine classification (near boundary)

▶ invariance:

 images as points span quite convoluted manifolds in X, when subject to transformations

► occlusion:

• a few occluded pixels can lead to a very large jump in X

Localized representations

- resolution is no issue (simply more points per image)
- greater robustness to invariance, e.g.





greater robustness to occlusion

- X% occluded pixels, means that x% of the probability mass changes
- the remaining (1-x)% should still be enough to obtain a good match
- when x% of a vector components change, matching is hard

Probabilistic kernels

since

- kernel captures similarities between examples
- bags of localized examples best described by their prob. density
- natural to make the kernel function a measure of distance between probability density functions
- various kernels proposed in the literature
 - Fischer Kernel (Jaakkola et al, 1999),
 - TOP kernel (Tsuda et al, 2002),
 - diffusion kernels (Lafferty and Lebanon, 2002),
 - generalized correlation kernel (Kondor, Jebara, 2003),
 - KL-kernel (Moreno et al, 2003)

Probabilistic kernels

three main advantages over holistic kernels

- enable representations of variable length
- enable a compact representation of a large sequence of vectors (through pdf)
- can exploit prior knowledge about the classification problem (selection of suitable probability models)
- Interpretation of the standard Gaussian kernel as

$$K(x,y) = e^{-\alpha d(x,y)}$$

where d is the Euclidean distance $d(x, y) = ||x - y||^2$

suggests a natural extension based on pdf distances

this leads to the KL kernel

The KL kernel

- relies on the (symmetric) Kullback-Leibler divergence as the measure of pdf distance
- Definition: given densities p(x) and q(x), the KL-kernel is

$$KLK = e^{-a\mathcal{J}[p(\mathbf{x}),q(\mathbf{x})]+b},$$
(1)

where $\mathcal{J}(p(\mathbf{x}), q(\mathbf{x})) = KL(p(\mathbf{x}), q(\mathbf{x})) + KL(q(\mathbf{x}), p(\mathbf{x}))$ is the symmetric KL divergence between $p(\mathbf{x})$ and $q(\mathbf{x})$,

$$KL(p(\mathbf{x}), q(\mathbf{x})) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{x}$$
(2)

the KL divergence between the two densities, and a and b constants.

A kernel taxonomy

- probabilistic kernels allow a great deal of flexibility over traditional counterparts
- KL kernel can be tuned to the problem in terms of:
 - 1. performance: choice of probability models that match the statistics of the data
 - 2. computation: using approximations to the KL that have been shown to work well in certain domains
 - 3. joint design of features and kernel
- here we focus on 1 and 2, stay tuned for 3
- it is possible to develop a taxonomy of kernels that implement various trade-offs between performance and computation

Parametric densities

- are good models or approximations for various problems
- the kernel can be tailored to the particular pdf family
- Property: For densities in exponential family

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \alpha(\mathbf{x}) \exp[a(\theta) + \mathbf{b}(\theta)\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{x})],$$

(Gaussian, Poisson, Binomial, Beta, etc),

$$KL(p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_i), p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_j)) =$$

$$= a(\theta_i) - a(\theta_j) + \left[\mathbf{b}(\theta_i) - \mathbf{b}(\theta_j)\right]^T E_{\theta_i}[\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{x})]$$
where E_{θ_i} is expectation with respect to $p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_i)$.

The Gaussian

▶ is a particularly popular case

$$\mathbf{\mathcal{G}}(\mathbf{x},\mu,\mathbf{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{2\pi^{d/2}|\mathbf{\Sigma}|} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\mu)^T \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\mu)\}\$$

for which (2) becomes

$$KL(\mathcal{G}(\mathbf{x},\mu_i,\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i),\mathcal{G}(\mathbf{x},\mu_j,\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)) = \frac{1}{2}\log\frac{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathbf{j}}|}{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i|} - \frac{d}{2} + \frac{1}{2}tr(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i) + (\mu_i - \mu_j)^T\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j^{-1}(\mu_i - \mu_j)$$

where d is the dimensionality of the x.

In general, it is possible to derive the kernel function for the parametric cases

Non-parametric densities

- non-parametric density models can be a lot trickier
- some have closed-form KL kernels, e.g. the histogram
- **Histogram:** $\pi = \{\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_b\}$, where π probability mass on partition of \mathcal{X} defined by $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathcal{C}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{C}_b\}$.
- KL-divergence between π^i and π^j is

$$KL(\pi^i, \pi^j) = \sum_{k=1}^b \pi^i_k \log \frac{\pi^i_k}{\pi^j_k}$$

extensions available for histograms defined on different partitions (Vasconcelos, Trans. Info. Theory, 2004)

Approximations

► various are possible for kernels without closed form ► χ^2 distance: linearizing log, $\log(x) \approx x - 1$,

$$KL(p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_i), p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_j)) = \int \frac{(p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_i) - p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_j))^2}{p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_j)} dx$$

the KL-divergence becomes the χ^2 distance commonly used in histogram matching.

- ▶ in some cases, even this has no closed-form, e.g.
- Gaussian mixtures:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\{\pi_k,\mu_k,\Sigma_k\}_{k=1}^c) = \sum_{k=1}^c \pi_k \mathcal{G}(\mathbf{x},\mu_k,\Sigma_k)$$

Approximations and sampling

- various specific approximations have been recently proposed for the Gauss mixture case
 - *log-sum bound* (Singer and Warmuth, NIPS 98)
 - asymptotic likelihood approximation (Vasconcelos, ICCV 2001, trans. IT, 2004)
 - *unscented transformation* (Goldberger et al, ICCV 2004)

finally, one can always use Monte Carlo sampling

$$KL[p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_i), p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_j)] \approx \frac{1}{s} \sum_{m=1}^{s} \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_m|\theta_i)}{p(\mathbf{x}_m|\theta_j)}$$

where $\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_s$ is a sample drawn according to $p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_i)$.

Experiments

- ▶ all on COIL-100, three resolutions: 32x32, 64x64, 128x128
- 4 different combinations of train/test:
 - I images of each object used as training set, I in {4, 8,18,36}
 - remaining used for test
 - dataset with I = n referred to as \mathcal{D}_n
- holistic representation:
 - each image one vector
- Iocalized representation:
 - image as feature bag: extract 8x8 windows, compute DCT, keep 32 first features
 - mixture of 16 Gaussians fit to each image

COIL-100

- 100 objects subject to 3D rotation
- ▶ one view every 5°





holistic: SVM with three different kernels

• linear (L-SVM), polynomial order 2 (P2-SVM), Gaussian (G-SVM)

Iocalized:

- standard maximum-likelihood Gauss mixture classifier
- KL kernel with Gauss mixture models (KL-SVM)

recognition rates (%)

	Resolution 32×32				Resolution 64×64				Resolution 128 × 128			
	\mathcal{D}_4	\mathcal{D}_8	\mathcal{D}_{18}	\mathcal{D}_{36}	\mathcal{D}_4	\mathcal{D}_8	\mathcal{D}_{18}	\mathcal{D}_{36}	\mathcal{D}_4	\mathcal{D}_8	\mathcal{D}_{18}	\mathcal{D}_{36}
L-SVM	67.24	82.67	92.98	97.31	67.54	82.84	92.85	97.39	67.85	82.80	92.89	97.50
P2-SVM	63.02	80.03	93.09	98.11	62.27	79.11	92.30	97.89	62.53	77.78	92.85	97.58
G-SVM	72.79	88.67	96.85	99.78	75.75	90.80	97.78	99.68	75.54	90.13	97.04	99.17
GMM	76.41	91.05	96.30	97.83	80.82	90.27	94.89	95.31	82.48	90.89	94.72	94.89
KL-SVM	79.56	93.20	97.32	98.28	83.69	94.36	98.89	98.83	84.32	95.22	98.65	98.67





Observations

- holistic kernels: G-SVM clearly better
 - excellent when *n* is large, but drops quickly
 - for small n weaker than GMM!
- ► overall:
 - localized + discriminant (KL-SVM) is best
 - differences between KL-SVM and G-SVM as high as 10%
 - localized + weak (GMM) learner better than holistic + strong (G-SVM)
- conclusions:
 - localized is more invariant, leads to easier classification problem: weaker classifier (GMM) has better generalization!
 - resolution (higher dimensionality vs more image info):
 - losses of about 5% at lower resolution
 - KL-SVM much more robust than GMM

Flexibility

- discriminant attributes for recognition depend on task (e.g. shape better for digits, texture better for landscapes)
- KL kernel supports multiple representations
- comparison of representations based on
 - support: point-wise vs local appearance vs global appearance
 - color: grayscale vs color
- ▶ all experiments on D_4 , 128x128, compared
 - point-wise: KL-kernel (X²)+ histogram (16 bins/channel) histogram intersection (Laplacian kernel, Chapelle et al, trans. Neural Nets, 1999)
 - local: KL-kernel with GMM (8x8 windows)
 - global: G-SVM

- color important cue for recognition on COIL
- the less localized the better: point-wise > local >> global
- Iocalization/invariance trade-off:
 - color so discriminant that even invariance loss of 8x8 is too much
 - loss of holistic is so large that it performs quite poorly
 - on grayscale (less discriminant) localized does best
- conclusion: different representations perform best on different tasks, flexibility of KL-kernel is a great asset

	histogram-bas	sed	local appearance	global appearance		
grayscale	χ^2 kernel:	71.72	KL-SVM: 84.32	G-SVM: 75.54		
	Laplacian kernel:	69.90				
color	χ^2 kernel:	98.12	KL-SVM: 96.74	G-SVM: 84.90		
	Laplacian kernel:	97.81				