Probabilistic Graphical Models in Computer Vision (IN2329)

Csaba Domokos

Summer Semester 2015/2016

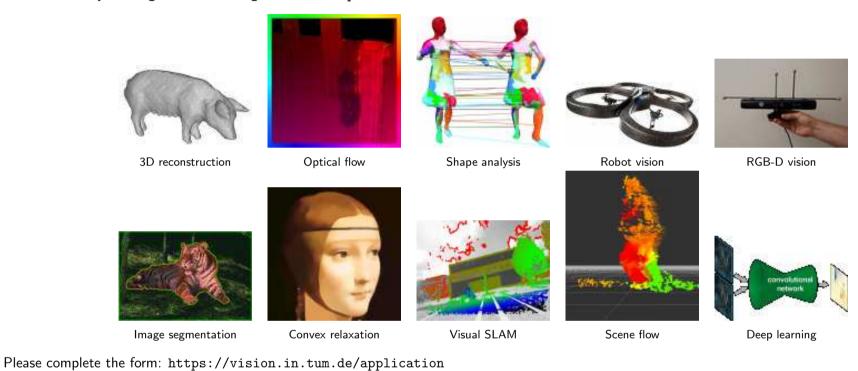
Innouncement: Computer Vision Group *	2
Introduction	:
Introduction	2
Administration	Ę
The course: IN2329 *	6
April *	7
May *	8
April *	ç
July * 1 Exam * 1	(
Fxam *	1
Bonus *	
Recommended literature & prerequisites *	:
Course Page *	
Overview 1	E
Overview of the lecture *	6
Human-pose estimation *	
Binary image segmentation *	,

Semantic image segmentation *	
Stereo matching *	 . 21
Object detection *	 . 22
Probability theory	23
Reasoning under uncertainty	 . 24
Experiment, event space, event	
Basic notations	
Discrete probability space	
Example: throwing two "fair dice" *	
σ -algebra, measure, measure space	
Probability space	
Example: throwing a dart *	
Some simple consequences of the axioms	
Conditional Probability	33
Conditional probability	
Example *	
The chain rule	
Bayes' rule	
Independence	
Conditional independence	
Summary *	
Literature *	
A brain teaser *	 . 42

Announcement: Computer Vision Group *

Inquiries for Bachelor and Master projects are always welcome!

We are currently working on the following research topics:



IN2329 - Probabilistic Graphical Models in Computer Vision

1. Introduction – 2 / 42

1. Introduction 3 / 42

Agenda for today's lecture $\ensuremath{^*}$

- 1. Administration
- 2. Overview of the course
- 3. Introduction to Probability theory
 - Basic definitions
 - Conditional probability, Bayes' rule
 - Independence, conditional independence

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1. Introduction – 4 / 42

Administration 5 / 42

The course: IN2329 *

The course Probabilistic Graphical Models in Computer Vision will be organized as follows:

■ Lectures: on Tuesdays at 10.00–12.00 in Room 00.13.036

■ Tutorials: on Tuesdays at 14.00–16.00 in Room 02.05.014

The tutorials combines theoretical and programming assignments:

■ Assignment distribution: Tuesday 11.00–11.15 in Room 00.13.036

■ Theoretical assignment due: Tuesday 11.00–11.15 in Room 00.13.036

■ Assignment presentation: Tuesday 14.00–16.00 in Room 02.05.014

Lecturer



Teaching assistant (TA)



Dr. Csaba Domokos (csaba.domokos@in.tum.de) Lingni Ma (lingni@in.tum.de)

Feel free to contact us!

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1. Introduction – 6 / 42

April *

April 2016						
Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
				1	2	3
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12 Lecture 1 Tutorial 1	13	14	15	16	17
18	19 Lecture 2 Tutorial 2	20	21	22	23	24
25	26 Lecture 3 Tutorial 3	27	28	29	30	

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1. Introduction – 7 / 42

May *

May 2016						
Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
2	3 Lecture 4 Tutorial 4	4	5	6	7	8
9	10 Lecture 5 Tutorial 5	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24 Lecture 6 Tutorial 6	25	26	27	28	29
30	31 Lecture 7 Tutorial 7					

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1. Introduction – 8 / 42

June *

June 2016						
Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
		1	2	3	4	5
6	7 Lecture 8 Tutorial 8	8	9	10	11	12
13	14 Lecture 9 Tutorial 9	15	16	17	18	19
20	21 Lecture 10 Tutorial 10	22	23	24	25	26
27	28 Lecture 11 Tutorial 11	29	30			

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1. Introduction – 9 / 42

July *

July 2016						
Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
				1	2	3
4	5 Lecture 12 Tutorial 12	6	7	8	9	10
11	12 Lecture 13 Tutorial 13	13	14	15	16	17
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
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1. Introduction – 10 / 42

Exam *

- The exam will be oral.
- According to our schedule, the exam will be held in the last week of July, 25th–29th.
- Students need to be registered prior to the exam: May, 16th-June, 30th via TUM online.

Participation at the tutorial:

■ Not mandatory, but highly recommended:

Theoretical assignments will help to understand the topics of the lecture. Programming assignments will help to apply the theory to practical Computer Vision problems.

■ Bonus: Active students who solve 60% of the assignments earn a bonus.

If someone receives a mark between 1.3 and 4.0 in the final exam, the mark will be improved by 0.3 and 0.4, respectively.

Note that marks of 1.0 and 5.0 cannot be improved!

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1. Introduction – 11 / 42

Bonus *

To achieve the bonus, the following requirements have to be fulfilled:

Theory

- 60% of all theoretical assignments have to be solved. (Note that submissions happen only on Tuesdays at 11.00–11.15)
- The theoretical exercises have to *be presented in front of the class*. (The TA randomly selects a student who presents an exercise.)

Programming

- 60% of all programming assignments have to be presented during the tutorial.
- The programming exercises should be explained to the TA.

To promote team work, please form groups of two or three students in order to solve and submit the assignments.

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1. Introduction - 12 / 42

Recommended literature & prerequisites *







- D. Koller, N. Friedman. Probabilistic Graphical Models: Principles and Techniques, MIT Press, 2009.
- S. Nowozin, C. H. Lampert. Structured Learning and Prediction in Computer Vision, Foundations and Trends in Computer Graphics and Vision, 2011. Download
- A. Blake, P. Kohli, C. Rother. Markov Random Fields for Vision and Image Processing, MIT Press, 2011.

In addition, we will mention recent conference and journal papers.

Prerequisites: the course is intended for *Master students*.

- Basic Mathematics: multivariate analysis and linear algebra.
- Basic Computer Science: dynamic programming and basic data structures.

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1. Introduction - 13 / 42

Course Page *

On the **internal site** of the course page you could access to extra course material:

https://vision.in.tum.de/teaching/ss2016/lecture_graphical_models/material

Password: PGMCV:SS16

Course materials:

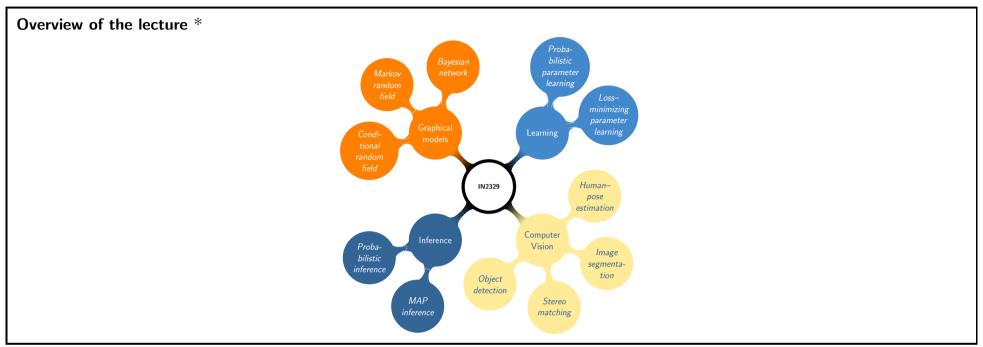
- Printer friendly **slides for each lecture** (available prior to the lecture)
- Assignment sheets (available after the lecture)
- **Solution sheets** (available after the tutorial)

The course page will also be used for extra announcements.

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1. Introduction - 14 / 42

Overview 15 / 42



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1. Introduction -16 / 42

Human-pose estimation *

The goal is to recognize an articulated object (i.e. human body) with different connecting parts (e.g., head, torso, left arm, ...).





Input image

Human pose estimation

An object is composed of a number of *rigid parts*, where each part is modeled as a **rectangle**. The *connections* encode generic relationships such as "close to", "to the left of".

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1. Introduction - 17 / 42

Binary image segmentation *

The goal is to give a binary label $y_i \in \mathbb{B} \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \{0,1\}$ for each pixel i, where 0 and 1 mean the *background* (a.k.a. ground) and the *foreground* (a.k.a. figure), respectively.



Input image



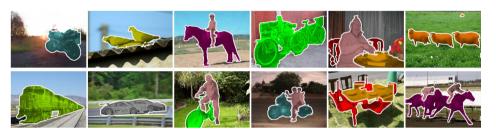
Figure-ground segmentation

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1. Introduction - 18 / 42

Semantic image segmentation *

The goal is to give a label $y_i \in \mathcal{L} = \{1, 2, \dots, c\}$ for each pixel i according to its semantic meanings.

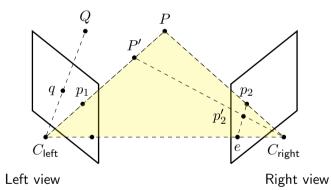


Exemplar semantic segmentations

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1. Introduction - 19 / 42

Stereo matching *



Given two images (i.e. left and right), an observed 2D point p_1 on the *left image*, corresponding to a 3D point P that is situated on a line in \mathbb{R}^3 . This line will be observed as a line on the *right image*.

The pixels p_1 and p_2 corresponding to P should should have similar intensities.

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1. Introduction – 20 / 42

Stereo matching \ast

Usually we assume rectified images (i.e. the directions of the cameras are parallel).



Left view



Right view



Ground truth (depth map)



Result (depth map)

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1. Introduction – 21 / 42

Object detection $\ensuremath{^*}$

We address the problem of *binary image segmentation*, where we also assume non-local **parameters** that are **known a priori**. For example, one can assume prior knowledge about the **shape** of the foreground.



Exemplar binary segmentation of cars assuming shape prior

You may realize that we will mainly deal with labelling problems.

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1. Introduction – 22 / 42

Probability theory 23 / 42

Reasoning under uncertainty

We often want to understand a system when we have *imperfect* or *incomplete* information due to, for example, noisy measurement.

There are two main reasons why we might reason under uncertainty:

- Laziness: modeling every detail of a complex system is costly.
- Ignorance: we may not completely understand.

Probability P(A) refers to a degree of confidence that an event A with uncertain nature will occur.

It is common to assume that $0 \le P(A) \le 1$:

- If P(A) = 1, we are certain that A occurs,
- \blacksquare while P(A) = 0 asserts that A will not occur.

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1. Introduction – 24 / 42

Experiment, event space, event

An **experiment** is a (random) process that can be infinitely many times repeated and has a well-defined set of possible **outcomes**. In case of repeated experiments the individual repetitions are also called **trials**.

Example: throwing two "fair dice" (i.e. we assume equally likely chance of landing on any face) with six faces.



The **event space**, denoted by Ω , is the set of possible outcomes.

Example: $\Omega = \{(i, j) : 1 \le i, j \le 6\}.$

A set of outcomes $A \subseteq \Omega$ is called an **event**. An **atomic event** is an event that contains a single outcome $\omega \in \Omega$.

Example: $A = \{(i, j) : i + j = 11\}$, i.e. the sum of the numbers showing on the top is equal to eleven.

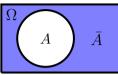
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1. Introduction – 25 / 42

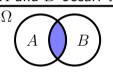
Basic notations

Let A and B be two events from an event space Ω . We will use the following notations:

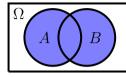
A does not occur: $\bar{A}=\Omega\backslash A$



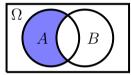
both A and B occur: $A \cap B$



either A or B occur: $A \cup B$



A occurs and B does not: $A \backslash B$



- \blacksquare The \varnothing is called the **impossible event**; and
- \blacksquare Ω is the sure event.

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1. Introduction - 26 / 42

Discrete probability space

A probability space represents our uncertainty regarding an experiment.

A triple (Ω, \mathcal{A}, P) is called a **discrete probability space**, if

- \blacksquare Ω is not empty and **countable** (i.e. $\exists S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ such that $|\Omega| = |S|$),
- \blacksquare \mathcal{A} is the **power set** $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ (i.e. the set of all subsets of Ω), and
- $P: A \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function, called a **probability measure**, with the following properties:
 - 1. $P(A) \ge 0$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$
 - 2. $P(\Omega) = 1$
 - 3. σ -additivity holds: if $A_n \in \mathcal{A}, n = 1, 2, ...$ and $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$, then

$$P(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n) .$$

The conditions 1-3. are called **Kolmogorov's axioms**.

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1. Introduction – 27 / 42

Example: throwing two "fair dice" *

For this case a discrete probability space (Ω, \mathcal{A}, P) is given by

- Event space: $\Omega = \{(i, j) : 1 \leq i, j \leq 6\}$.
- $\blacksquare \quad \mathcal{A} = \mathcal{P}(\Omega) = \{\{(1,1)\}, \dots, \{(1,1), (1,2)\}, \dots, \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,3)\}, \dots\}.$
- The probability measure

$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{36} = \frac{k}{36}$$
,

where k is the number of atomic events in A.

Example: Let A denote the event that "the sum of the numbers showing on the top is equal to eleven", that is

$$A = \{(i,j) : i+j=11\} = \{(5,6), (6,5)\}.$$

Hence

$$P(A) = P(\{(5,6),(6,5)\}) = \frac{2}{36}$$

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1. Introduction - 28 / 42

σ -algebra, measure, measure space

Assume an arbitrary set Ω and $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$. The set \mathcal{A} is a σ -algebra over Ω if the following conditions are satisfied:

- 1. $\emptyset \in \mathcal{A}$,
- 2. $A \in \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \bar{A} \in \mathcal{A}$ (i.e. it is closed under complementation),
- 3. $A_i \in \mathcal{A} \ (i \in \mathbb{N}) \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{A} \ (i.e. it is closed under countable union).$

It is a consequence of this definition that $\Omega \in \mathcal{A}$ is also satisfied. (See exercise.)

Assume an arbitrary set Ω and a σ -algebra \mathcal{A} over Ω . A function $P:\mathcal{A}\to [0,\infty]$ is called a **measure** if the following conditions are satisfied:

- 1. $P(\emptyset) = 0$,
- 2. P is σ -additive.

Let \mathcal{A} be a σ -algebra over Ω and $P: \mathcal{A} \to [0, \infty]$ is a measure. (Ω, \mathcal{A}) is said to be a measurable space and the triple (Ω, \mathcal{A}, P) is called a measure space.

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1. Introduction – 29 / 42

Probability space

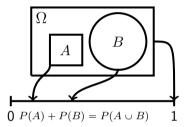
A probability space is a triple (Ω, \mathcal{A}, P) , where (Ω, \mathcal{A}) is a measurable space, and P is a measure such that $P(\Omega) = 1$, called a probability measure.

To summarize:

A triple (Ω, \mathcal{A}, P) is called **probability space**, if

- the **event space** Ω is *not empty*,
- \blacksquare \mathcal{A} is a σ -algebra over Ω , and
- $P: A \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function with the following properties:
 - 1. $P(A) \geqslant 0$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A}$
 - 2. $P(\Omega) = 1$
 - 3. σ -additive: if $A_n \in \mathcal{A}$, n = 1, 2, ... and $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$, then

$$P(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n) .$$



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1. Introduction – 30 / 42

Example: throwing a dart *

Suppose a dart is thrown at a round board modeled as a unit circle. The **event space** contains the location of the dart if it lands in the board only. Hence it is given by

$$\Omega = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \le 1\}$$
.



We denote the area of an the event $A \subseteq \Omega$ by $\mu(A)$, which is defined as the *Riemann-integral* of the characteristic function of A

$$\mu(A) := \int_{\Omega} \chi_A(x) \mathrm{d} x \;, \quad \text{where} \quad \chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0, & \text{if } x \notin A \end{cases}.$$

The σ -algebra \mathcal{A} over Ω is defined as follows

$$\mathcal{A} = \{ A \subseteq \Omega : \mu(A) \text{ exists} \}$$
.

The **probability measure** $P:\Omega \to [0,1]$ is given by $P(A) = \frac{\mu(A)}{\pi}$.

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1. Introduction – 31 / 42

Some simple consequences of the axioms

The following rules are frequently used in applications:

 $\blacksquare P(A) = 1 - P(\Omega \backslash A).$

Proof. Note that A and $\Omega \setminus A$ are disjoint. $1 = P(\Omega) = P(A \cup (\Omega \setminus A)) = P(A) + P(\Omega \setminus A)$.

 $\blacksquare P(\emptyset) = 0.$

Proof. $P(\emptyset) = 1 - P(\Omega \setminus \emptyset) = 1 - P(\Omega) = 1 - 1 = 0.$

- If $A \subseteq B$, then $P(A) \leq P(B)$.
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B).$
- $\blacksquare P(A \cup B) \leqslant P(A) + P(B).$
- $\blacksquare P(A \backslash B) = P(A) P(A \cap B).$
- **■** ...

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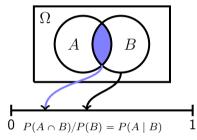
1. Introduction – 32 / 42

Conditional probability

Conditional probability allows us to reason with *partial information*. If P(B) > 0, the **conditional probability of** A **given** B is defined as

$$P(A \mid B) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$
.

This is the probability that A occurs, given we have observed B, i.e. we know the experiment's actual outcome will be in B.



Note that the axioms and rules of probability theory are fulfilled for the conditional probability. (e.g., $P(A \mid B) = 1 - P(\bar{A} \mid B)$).

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1. Introduction – 34 / 42

Example *

Consider two producing machines creating identical product in a factory. Assume we are given the following table with probabilities

	Machine I	Machine II	
The product is good	0.56	0.41	0.97
The product is waste	0.01	0.02	0.03
	0.57	0.43	1

Question: What is the probability of a product was created by Machine I, when it is good?

Let A denote the event that "the product was created by Machine I" and let B denote the event that "the product is good".

$$P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{0.56}{0.97} \approx 0.58$$
.

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1. Introduction - 35 / 42

The chain rule

Starting with the definition of *conditional probability* $P(B \mid A)$ and multiplying by P(A) we get the **product rule**:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B \mid A)$$
.

The chain rule is given by

$$P(\cap_{i=1}^{n} A_i) = P(A_1)P(A_2 \mid A_1)P(A_3 \mid A_1 \cap A_2) \cdots P(A_n \mid \cap_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i).$$
(1)

Proof. By induction. For n=2 we get the product rule. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be given and suppose Eq. (1) is true for $k \leq n$. Then

$$P(\cap_{i=1}^{n+1} A_i) = P(A_{n+1} \cap (\cap_{i=1}^n A_i)) = P(A_{n+1} \mid \cap_{i=1}^n A_i) P(\cap_{i=1}^n A_i).$$

The chain rule will become important later when we discuss conditional independence.

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1. Introduction – 36 / 42

Bayes' rule

By making use of the product rule we can get

$$P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B \mid A)P(A)}{P(B)}.$$

 $P(A \mid B)$ is often called the **posteriori probability**, and $P(B \mid A)$ is called the **likelihood**, and P(A) is called the **prior probability**.

A more general version of **Bayes' rule**, when we have a background event C:

$$P(A \mid B \cap C) = \frac{P(B \mid A \cap C)P(A \mid C)}{P(B \mid C)}.$$

Example: What is the probability that a product is good, if it was created by Machine I? We are given $P(A \mid B) = 0.58$, P(A) = 0.57 and P(B) = 0.97.

$$P(B \mid A) = \frac{P(A \mid B)P(B)}{P(A)} = \frac{0.58 \cdot 0.97}{0.57} \approx 0.98$$
.

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1. Introduction - 37 / 42

Independence

Two events A and B are **independent**, denoted by $A \perp B$, if

$$P(A \mid B) = P(A)$$

or, equivalently, iff

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B) .$$

If A and B are **independent**, learning that B happened does not make A more or less likely to occur.

Example: Suppose we roll a die. Let us consider the events A denoting "the die outcome is even" and B denoting "the die outcome is either 1 or 2".

If the die is fair, then $P(A)=\frac{1}{2}$ and $P(B)=\frac{1}{3}$. Moreover $A\cap B$ means the event that the outcome is two, so $P(A\cap B)=\frac{1}{6}$.

$$P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} = P(A)P(B) \Rightarrow A \text{ and } B \text{ are independent.}$$

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1. Introduction - 38 / 42

Conditional independence

Let A, B and C be events. A and B are conditionally independent given C, denoted by $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B \mid C$, iff

$$P(A \mid C) = P(A \mid B \cap C) ,$$

or, equivalently, iff

$$P(A \cap B \mid C) = P(A \mid C)P(B \mid C) .$$

A and B are conditionally independent given C means that once we learned C, learning B gives us no additional information about A.

Examples:

- The operation of a car's *starter motor* is conditionally independent its *radio* given the *status of the battery*.
- Symptoms are conditionally independent given the disease.

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1. Introduction – 39 / 42

Summary *

- **A probability space** is a triple (Ω, \mathcal{A}, P) , where (Ω, \mathcal{A}) is a *measurable space*, and P is a *measure* such that $P(\Omega) = 1$.
- Let P(B) > 0, then the **conditional probability of** A **given** B is defined as

$$P(A \mid B) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$
.

- If A and B are **independent** $(A \perp B)$, learning that B happened does not make A more or less likely to occur.
- A and B are **conditionally independent given** C, denoted by $A \perp \!\!\! \perp B \mid C$, means that once we learned C, learning B gives us no additional information about A.

In the next lecture we will learn about

- Random variables
- Probability distributions
- Expectation-maximization algorithm

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1. Introduction – 40 / 42

Literature *

- [1] Marek Capiński and Ekkerhard Kopp. Measure, Integral and Probability. Springer, 1998.
- [2] Daphne Koller and Nir Friedman. Probabilistic Graphical Models: Principles and Techniques. MIT Press, 2009.

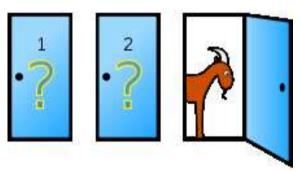
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1. Introduction - 41 / 42

A brain teaser *

Suppose you are on a game show and you are given the choice of three doors: Behind one door is a car; behind the others, goats.

You pick a door, say No. 1, and the host, who knows what is behind the doors, opens another door, say No. 3, which has a goat.



He then says to you, "Do you want to pick door No. 2?"

Question: Is it to your advantage to switch your choice?

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1. Introduction - 42 / 42