Maximum Likelihood Estimation for Multimodal Learning with Missing Modality

Abstract

Multimodal learning has achieved great successes in many scenarios. Compared with unimodal learning, it can effectively combine the information from different modalities to improve the performance of learning tasks. In reality, the multimodal data may have missing modalities due to various reasons, such as sensor failure and data transmission error. In previous works, the information of the modality-missing data has not been well exploited. To address this problem, we propose an efficient approach based on maximum likelihood estimation to incorporate the knowledge in the modality-missing data. Specifically, we design a likelihood function to characterize the conditional distributions of the modality-complete data and the modality-missing data, which is theoretically optimal. Moreover, we develop a generalized form of the softmax function to effectively implement maximum likelihood estimation in an end-to-end manner. Such training strategy guarantees the computability of our algorithm capably. Finally, we conduct a series of experiments on real-world multimodal datasets. Our results demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed approach, even when 95% of the training data has missing modality.

1 Introduction

Multimodal learning is an important research area, which builds models to process and relate information between different modalities (Ngiam et al., 2011; Srivastava & Salakhutdinov, 2014; Baltrušaitis et al., 2018). Compared with unimodal learning, multimodal learning can effectively utilize the multimodal data to achieve better performance. It has been successfully used in many applications, such as multimodal emotion recognition (Soleymani et al., 2011; Mittal et al., 2020), multimedia event detection (Li et al., 2020), and visual question-answering (Yu et al., 2019). With the emergence of big data, multimodal learning becomes more and more important to combine the multimodal data from different sources.

A number of previous works (Tzirakis et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017; Elliott et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020) have achieved great successes based on complete observations during the training process. However, in practice, the multimodal data may have missing modalities (Du et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2021a;b). This may be caused by various reasons. For instance, the sensor that collects the multimodal data is damaged or the network transmission fails. Examples of the multimodal data are shown in Figure 1.

In the past years, different approaches have been proposed to deal with modality missing. A simple and typical way (Hastie et al., 2009) is to directly discard the data with missing modalities. Since the information contained in the modality-missing data is neglected, such method often has limited performance. In addition, researchers (Tran et al., 2017; Chen & Zhang, 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2021b) have proposed approaches to heuristically combine the information of the modality-missing data. However, most of these works lack theoretical explanations, and these empirical methods are often implemented using multiple training stages rather than an end-to-end manner, which lead to the information of the modality-missing data not being well exploited.

To tackle above issues, we propose an efficient approach based on maximum likelihood estimation to effectively utilize the modality-missing data. To be specific, we present a likelihood function to characterize the conditional distributions of the modality-complete data and the modality-missing data, which is theoretically optimal. Furthermore, we adopt a generalized form of the softmax

Figure 1: Examples of the multimodal data: (a) complete observations, (b) observations which may have missing visual modality, and (c) observations which may have missing audio modality.

function to efficiently implement our maximum likelihood estimation algorithm. Such training strategy guarantees the computability of our framework in an end-to-end scheme. In this way, our approach can effectively leverage the information of the modality-missing data during the training process, Finally, we perform several experiments on real-world multimodal datasets, including eNTERFACE'05 (Martin et al., 2006) and RAVDESS (Livingstone & Russo, 2018). The results show the effectiveness of our approach in handling the problem of modality missing. To summarize, our contribution is three-fold:

- We design a likelihood function to learn the conditional distributions of the modality-complete data and the modality-missing data, which is theoretically optimal.

- We develop a generalized form of the softmax function to implement our maximum likelihood estimation framework in an end-to-end manner, which is more effective than previous works.

- We conduct a series of experiments on real-world multimodal datasets. The results validate the effectiveness of our approach, even when 95% of the training data has missing modality.

2 METHODOLOGY

Our goal is to deal with the problem of modality missing in multimodal learning based on maximum likelihood estimation. In the following, we first show the problem formulation, and then describe the details of our framework.

2.1 PROBLEM FORMULATION

In this paper, we consider that the multimodal data has two modalities. Here, the random variables corresponding to these two modalities and their category labels are denoted as X, Y, and Z, respectively. In the training process, we assume that there are two independently observed datasets: modality-complete and modality-missing. We use $D_{XYZ} = \left\{ (x_c^{(i)}, y_c^{(i)}, z_c^{(i)}) \mid z_c^{(i)} \in \mathcal{Z} = \{1, 2, \cdots, |\mathcal{Z}|\} \right\}_{i=1}^{n_c}$ to represent the modality-complete dataset, where $x_c^{(i)}$ and $y_c^{(i)}$ represent the two modalities of the i-th sample of D_{XYZ} respectively, $z_c^{(i)}$ is their corresponding category label, and the size of D_{XYZ} is n_c. We then use $D_{XZ} = \left\{ (x_m^{(i)}, z_m^{(i)}) \mid z_m^{(i)} \in \mathcal{Z} = \{1, 2, \cdots, |\mathcal{Z}|\} \right\}_{i=1}^{n_m}$ to represent the modality-missing dataset, where the size of D_{XZ} is n_m. In addition, we adopt $[D_{XYZ}]_{XY}$ to represent $\left\{ (x_c^{(i)}, y_c^{(i)}) \right\}_{i=1}^{n_c}$. $[D_{XYZ}]_Z$, $[D_{XZ}]_X$, and $[D_{XZ}]_Z$ are expressed in the same way. The multimodal data of D_{XYZ} and D_{XZ} are assumed to be i.i.d. generated from an unknown underlying joint distribution. By utilizing the knowledge of the modality-complete data and the modality-missing data, we hope our framework can predict the category labels correctly.

2.2 MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ESTIMATION FOR MISSING MODALITY

In this section, we first present how to design a likelihood function to learn the conditional distributions of the modality-complete data and the modality-missing data. Then, we show that by adopting a generalized form of the softmax function, we design a training strategy to implement our algorithm.

Figure 2: Our proposed framework for multimodal learning with missing modality. In the training process, we propose a log-likelihood function $\mathcal{L}$, as shown in Equation (2), to learn the conditional distributions of the modality-complete data and the modality-missing data. By developing a generalized form of the softmax function, we implement our maximum likelihood estimation algorithm in an end-to-end manner.

2.2.1 LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION ANALYSES

Maximum likelihood estimation is a statistical method of using the observed data to estimate the distribution by maximizing the likelihood function. The estimated distribution makes the observed data most likely (Myung, 2003). With this idea, we study the likelihood function on datasets D_{XYZ} and D_{XZ}. For the classification task, the conditional likelihood is commonly used. Inspired by this, we use a model Q_{XYZ} to learn the underlying joint distribution of D_{XYZ} and D_{XZ}. The conditional likelihood can be represented as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\ell &\triangleq \mathbb{P}\left([D_{XYZ}]_Z, [D_{XZ}]_Z \mid [D_{XYZ}]_{XY}, [D_{XZ}]_X; Q_{XYZ}\right) \\
&\overset{\mathbf{a}}{=} \mathbb{P}\left([D_{XYZ}]_Z \mid [D_{XYZ}]_{XY}; Q_{XYZ}\right) \cdot \mathbb{P}\left([D_{XZ}]_Z \mid [D_{XZ}]_X; Q_{XYZ}\right) \\
&\overset{\mathbf{b}}{=} \prod_{(x,y,z)\in D_{XYZ}} Q_{Z|XY}(z|xy) \cdot \prod_{(x,z)\in D_{XZ}} Q_{Z|X}(z|x)
\end{aligned}
\tag{1}
$$

where the step **a** follows from the fact that datasets D_{XYZ} and D_{XZ} are observed independently, and the step **b** is due to that samples in each dataset are i.i.d. $Q_{Z|XY}$ and $Q_{Z|X}$ are conditional distributions of Q_{XYZ}. In this way, we show the likelihood function using the information of D_{XYZ} and D_{XZ}. Then, we use the negative log-likelihood as the loss function to train our deep learning model, i.e.,

$$
\mathcal{L} \triangleq -\log \ell = -\sum_{(x,y,z)\in D_{XYZ}} \log Q_{Z|XY}(z|xy) - \sum_{(x,z)\in D_{XZ}} \log Q_{Z|X}(z|x)
\tag{2}
$$

It is worth noting that in (Daniels, 1961; Lehmann, 2004), maximum likelihood estimation is proved to be an asymptotically-efficient strategy, which guarantees the theoretical optimality of our method to deal with modality missing.

To optimize $\mathcal{L}$, we use deep neural networks to extract the k-dimensional feature representations from the observation (x, y, z), which are represented as $\boldsymbol{f}(x) = [f_1(x), f_2(x), \cdots, f_k(x)]^{\mathrm{T}}$, $\boldsymbol{g}(y) = [g_1(y), g_2(y), \cdots, g_k(y)]^{\mathrm{T}}$, and $\boldsymbol{h}(z) = [h_1(z), h_2(z), \cdots, h_k(z)]^{\mathrm{T}}$, respectively. We then utilize these features to learn $Q_{Z|XY}$ and $Q_{Z|X}$ in $\mathcal{L}$. Our framework is shown in Figure 2.

In this way, we show the log-likelihood function $\mathcal{L}$. By characterizing the conditional distributions of the modality-complete data and the modality-missing data, it leverages the underlying structure information behind the multimodal data, which constitutes the theoretical basis of our framework.

2.2.2 MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ESTIMATION IMPLEMENTATION

In fact, it is not easy to optimize the log-likelihood function $\mathcal{L}$ in Equation (2) by designing neural networks, which is mainly due to two reasons. Firstly, the representations of the high-dimensional data and the procedure to model them are complicated. Secondly, since $Q_{Z|XY}$ and $Q_{Z|X}$ in $\mathcal{L}$ are

(a) Addition   (b) Concatenation   (c) Outer product

Figure 3: Three forms of ϕ are studied: (a) addition (Wang et al., 2019), i.e., $\phi(\boldsymbol{f}, \boldsymbol{g}) \triangleq \boldsymbol{f} + \boldsymbol{g}$, (b) concatenation (Chandar et al., 2016), i.e., $\phi(\boldsymbol{f}, \boldsymbol{g}) \triangleq [\boldsymbol{f}^{\mathrm{T}}, \boldsymbol{g}^{\mathrm{T}}]^{\mathrm{T}}$, and (c) outer product (Zadeh et al., 2017), i.e., $\phi(\boldsymbol{f}, \boldsymbol{g}) \triangleq \mathbf{vec}(\boldsymbol{f} \otimes \boldsymbol{g})$, where $\mathbf{vec}$ represents the vectorization of outer product.

related, how to build models to learn their relationships is difficult. To address these two issues, we develop a generalized form of the softmax function to describe Q_{XYZ} as follows [1]:

$$Q_{XYZ}(x, y, z) = \frac{R_X(x)R_Y(y)R_Z(z)\exp(\phi^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{f}(x), \boldsymbol{g}(y))\boldsymbol{h}(z))}{\sum_{x',y',z'} R_X(x')R_Y(y')R_Z(z')\exp(\phi^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{f}(x'), \boldsymbol{g}(y'))\boldsymbol{h}(z'))} \tag{3}$$

where $\phi(\boldsymbol{f}, \boldsymbol{g})$ represents the function to fuse features $\boldsymbol{f}$ and $\boldsymbol{g}$. We study three forms of ϕ to investigate its effect in our framework, as shown in Figure 3. R_X, R_Y, and R_Z represent the underlying marginal distributions of the variables X, Y, and Z, respectively. Their use makes the denominator of Equation (3) expressed in the form of the mean over R_X, R_Y, and R_Z, which serves as the normalization to make Q_{XYZ} a valid distribution and is helpful for our further derivation. In the following, we will show that we use empirical distributions to implement these underlying marginal distributions in our algorithm. In addition, the generalized softmax function we propose can be regarded as a generalization of softmax learning in (Xu et al., 2018) from unimodal learning to multimodal learning.

In this way, we show the distribution Q_{XYZ} by adopting a generalized form of the softmax function, which has the following two benefits. Firstly, by depicting the representation of Q_{XYZ}, we can further derive $Q_{Z|XY}$ and $Q_{Z|X}$. It makes our approach a unified framework to combine the information of the modality-complete data and the modality-missing data. Secondly, it avoids modeling the relationship between $Q_{Z|XY}$ and $Q_{Z|X}$. In fact, the correlation between the high-dimensional data can be rather complex.

Then, we derive conditional distributions $Q_{Z|XY}$ and $Q_{Z|X}$ from Equation (3):

$$Q_{Z|XY}(z|xy) = R_Z(z)\frac{\exp(\phi^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{f}(x), \boldsymbol{g}(y))\boldsymbol{h}(z))}{\sum_{z'} R_Z(z')\exp(\phi^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{f}(x), \boldsymbol{g}(y))\boldsymbol{h}(z'))} \tag{4}$$

and

$$Q_{Z|X}(z|x) = R_Z(z)\frac{\sum_{y'} R_Y(y')\exp(\phi^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{f}(x), \boldsymbol{g}(y'))\boldsymbol{h}(z))}{\sum_{z'} R_Z(z')\sum_{y'} R_Y(y')\exp(\phi^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{f}(x), \boldsymbol{g}(y'))\boldsymbol{h}(z'))} \tag{5}$$

We can observe that by introducing R_X, R_Y, and R_Z into Q_{XYZ}, the derived $Q_{Z|XY}$ and $Q_{Z|X}$ are expressed in the form of the mean over R_Y and R_Z. In practice, we can use the empirical mean as an estimation. Correspondingly, by plugging Equations (4) and (5) into Equation (2), we can summarize the detailed steps to compute our objective function $\mathcal{L}$, as shown in Algorithm 1. It is worth pointing out that when we compute $Q_{Z|X}$, we need to use the information of the modality y. Since in the training process, the modality y of the dataset D_{XZ} is missing, we utilize samples of the modality y of the dataset D_{XYZ} to compute $Q_{Z|X}$.

Finally, we utilize neural networks to extract features $\boldsymbol{f}$, $\boldsymbol{g}$, and $\boldsymbol{h}$ from the modality-complete data and the modality-missing data to optimize our log-likelihood function $\mathcal{L}$. It performs classification directly,

---

[1]Strictly speaking, R_X and R_Y are probability density functions, and R_Z is a probability mass function. The denominator of Equation (3) should be integrated over R_X and R_Y. We use summation here for the simplicity of exposition.

Algorithm 1 Compute our objective function on a mini-batch.

Input:

A modality-complete batch $\left\{(x_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}, y_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}, z_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)})\right\}_{i=1}^{n_1}$, where n_1 is the batch size.

A modality-missing batch $\left\{(x_{\mathrm{m}}^{(i)}, z_{\mathrm{m}}^{(i)})\right\}_{i=1}^{n_2}$, where n_2 is the batch size.
Neural networks with k output units: $\boldsymbol{f}, \boldsymbol{g}$, and $\boldsymbol{h}$.

Output:

The value of our objective $\mathcal{L}$.

1: Compute empirical label distribution $\hat{R}_Z$:

$$\hat{R}_Z(z) \leftarrow \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \mathbb{1}(z_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}=z) + \sum_{i=1}^{n_2} \mathbb{1}(z_{\mathrm{m}}^{(i)}=z)}{n_1 + n_2}, z = 1, 2, \cdots, |\mathcal{Z}|$$

2: Compute $Q_{Z|XY}$:

$$Q_{Z|XY}(z_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}|x_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}, y_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}) \leftarrow \hat{R}_Z(z_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}) \frac{\exp(\boldsymbol{\phi}^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{f}(x_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}), \boldsymbol{g}(y_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}))\boldsymbol{h}(z))}{\sum_{z'=1}^{|\mathcal{Z}|} R_Z(z') \exp(\boldsymbol{\phi}^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{f}(x_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}), \boldsymbol{g}(y_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}))\boldsymbol{h}(z'))}, i = 1, \cdots, n_1$$

3: Compute $Q_{Z|X}$:

$$Q_{Z|X}(z_{\mathrm{m}}^{(i)}|x_{\mathrm{m}}^{(i)}) \leftarrow \hat{R}_Z(z_{\mathrm{m}}^{(i)}) \frac{\frac{1}{n_1}\sum_{j=1}^{n_1} \exp(\boldsymbol{\phi}^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{f}(x_{\mathrm{m}}^{(i)}), \boldsymbol{g}(y_{\mathrm{c}}^{(j)}))\boldsymbol{h}(z_{\mathrm{m}}^{(i)}))}{\sum_{z'=1}^{|\mathcal{Z}|} R_Z(z') \frac{1}{n_1}\sum_{j=1}^{n_1} \exp(\boldsymbol{\phi}^{\mathrm{T}}(\boldsymbol{f}(x_{\mathrm{m}}^{(i)}), \boldsymbol{g}(y_{\mathrm{c}}^{(j)}))\boldsymbol{h}(z'))}, i = 1, \cdots, n_2$$

4: Compute our empirical objective $\mathcal{L}$:

$$-\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \log Q_{Z|XY}(z_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}|x_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}, y_{\mathrm{c}}^{(i)}) - \sum_{i=1}^{n_2} \log Q_{Z|X}(z_{\mathrm{m}}^{(i)}|x_{\mathrm{m}}^{(i)})$$

---

which does not need to explicitly complement the modality-missing data before the classification task.

3 EXPERIMENTS

In this section, we first describe the real-world multimodal datasets used in our experiment, then explain the experimental settings and baseline methods, and finally give the experimental results to show the effectiveness of our approach.

3.1 DATASETS

We perform experiments on two public real-world multimodal datasets: eNTERFACE'05 (Martin et al., 2006) and RAVDESS (Livingstone & Russo, 2018). eNTERFACE'05 is an audio-visual emotion database in English. It contains 42 subjects eliciting the six basic emotions: anger, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness, and surprise. There are 213 videos for happiness, and 216 videos for each of the remaining emotions. Following (Ma et al., 2020), we extract 30 segment samples from each video and then obtain a processed dataset with 38,790 samples.

RAVDESS is a multimodal database of emotional speech and song, which consists of 24 professional actors in a neutral North American accent. Here, we use the speech part, which includes calm, happy, sad, angry, fearful, surprise, and disgust expressions. Each recording is also in the video form. Similar to the eNTERFACE'05 dataset, we only consider six basic emotions, each of which has 5,760 segment samples.

3.2 EXPERIMENTAL SETTINGS

We perform experiments on the processed eNTERFACE'05 and RAVDESS datasets. For each segment sample of these two datasets, we take the central frame as the visual modality and extract the log Mel-spectrogram as the audio modality. The spectrum representation is similar to the RGB image. We then feed these data into our framework to obtain the classification result. ResNet-50 (He et al., 2016) is used as the backbone of visual network **f** and audio network **g** to extract features from visual and audio modalities, respectively. In addition, we transform the corresponding label into the one-hot form and then extract the label feature using label network **h** with a fully connected layer. **f**, **g**, and **h** are trained together.

On each processed dataset, we split all data into three parts: training set, validation set, and test set. Their proportions are 70%, 15%, and 15%. In practice, modality missing often occurs with a high

Table 1: The classification performance with missing modality on the eNTERFACE'05 dataset.

Method		Visual Missing			Audio Missing		
		95%	90%	80%	95%	90%	80%
Lower Bound	Addition	26.39	35.26	46.91	27.53	35.26	50.93
	Concatenation	27.11	36.39	46.49	27.84	33.71	46.29
	Outer product	26.91	37.53	42.78	28.56	34.95	48.14
AE	Addition	41.24	47.11	50.31	42.78	45.77	51.75
	Concatenation	43.92	46.39	50.00	42.16	47.42	50.72
	Outer product	49.79	52.16	55.15	47.73	53.09	53.51
HGR MC	Addition	41.34	59.69	58.97	54.95	74.12	77.32
	Concatenation	41.34	57.84	63.51	57.42	75.67	79.18
	Outer product	49.90	59.69	64.64	55.46	76.29	77.94
ZP	Addition	58.66	67.84	69.07	76.49	78.35	80.41
	Concatenation	60.21	67.11	68.76	76.70	78.25	80.93
Ours	Addition	**66.29**	**71.65**	**72.37**	79.38	80.31	81.24
	Concatenation	64.74	70.82	72.27	79.79	80.21	81.24
	Outer product	66.08	71.13	72.06	**80.31**	**81.03**	**81.65**

missing rate (Suo et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2021b). Here, in the training stage, we study three kinds of missing rates: 80%, 90%, and 95%. The case where the audio modality is missing and the case where the visual modality is missing are investigated respectively. Following (Suo et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2020; Chen & Zhang, 2020; Du et al., 2021), we set modality missing arising during the training phase to show that a large amount of unimodal data can assist the training of our multimodal learning framework. In the inference phase, we use Equation (4) to predict the class label of the given test data.

Finally, we run each experiment five times and report average test accuracies to evaluate the performance of our approach and baseline methods. Adam optimizer (Kingma & Ba, 2015) is used to train neural networks with the learning rate of 0.0001. Both the size of modality-complete batch and the size of modality-missing batch are set to 90. The number of epochs is set to 100. All experiments are implemented by Pytorch (Paszke et al., 2019) on a NVIDIA TITAN V GPU card.

3.3 BASELINE METHODS

To show the effectiveness of our method, we compare our approach with the following methods which can also handle modality missing to some extent.

- Discarding Modality-incomplete Data (Lower Bound): One simple strategy to handle modality missing is to directly discard the modality-incomplete data, and then only use the modality-complete data for the classification task. This method does not use the information of the data with missing modalities. In our maximum likelihood estimation model, this is equivalent to calculating $Q_{Z|XY}$ without calculating $Q_{Z|X}$. Therefore, this method can also be used as the ablation study of our approach.

- Hirschfeld-Gebelein-Renyi Maximal Correlation (Hirschfeld, 1935; Gebelein, 1941; Rényi, 1959) (HGR MC): HGR MC is a statistical measure which calculates the dependence between different random variables. It has been successfully used for multimodal learning (Ma et al., 2021a; 2020; Wang et al., 2019; Xu & Huang, 2020). Here, we use it further to deal with modality missing. For the modality-complete data, we learn the maximal correlation between x, y, and z. For the modality-missing data, we learn the maximal correlation between x and z.

- Zero Padding (ZP): Padding the feature representation of the missing modality with zero is another widely used way to cope with incomplete modalities (Jo et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020; Shen et al., 2020). For ZP, we consider two forms of ϕ to fuse features $\boldsymbol{f}$ and $\boldsymbol{g}$: addition and concatenation. The reason why the form of outer product is not studied here is that if the feature of one modality is zero, the outer product of it and the non-zero feature of another modality is also zero, which makes the modality-missing data useless.

Table 2: The classification performance with missing modality on the RAVDESS dataset.

Method		Visual Missing			Audio Missing		
		95%	90%	80%	95%	90%	80%
Lower Bound	Addition	43.01	48.79	62.66	37.11	50.40	67.63
	Concatenation	41.27	49.94	62.66	35.61	49.48	67.63
	Outer product	37.34	45.90	63.35	36.87	47.86	68.32
AE	Addition	52.60	58.03	67.75	87.39	88.44	90.17
	Concatenation	53.29	58.03	67.75	87.39	88.21	90.29
	Outer product	53.53	57.34	66.24	87.86	89.25	90.52
HGR MC	Addition	38.49	48.78	64.51	42.43	53.87	73.75
	Concatenation	42.08	48.90	65.20	43.70	52.60	73.17
	Outer product	37.34	46.59	62.43	43.01	51.33	70.98
ZP	Addition	44.74	52.72	67.40	83.81	86.24	90.17
	Concatenation	43.70	52.02	65.89	82.31	86.47	90.63
Ours	Addition	56.64	60.34	**70.06**	89.72	90.52	91.33
	Concatenation	**58.84**	**61.27**	69.83	89.25	89.94	**91.91**
	Outer product	54.45	58.26	67.51	**90.06**	**91.21**	91.68

- Autoencoder (AE): An autoencoder is a neural network framework used to learn the representation from the training data. Some previous approaches apply autoencoders to complement the missing modality (Liu et al., 2021; Jaques et al., 2017; Pereira et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2019). Following these works, for the modality-complete data, we use modality x as the input of the autoencoder to reconstruct modality y. Then we use the trained autoencoder to predict the modality y to impute the modality-missing data. Then we use the imputed data to perform the classification task. It is noted that the AE method has several stages while our method is end-to-end.

For a fair comparison, we make that each method has the same network architecture and training strategy, and report the classification results of each method after the same number of repeated experiments.

3.4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We first conduct classification experiments on the eNTERFACE'05 and RAVDESS datasets by comparing our framework with other methods. The experimental setting is shown in Section 3.2. We report the classification accuracy of each method in each setting. The results are shown in Table 1 and Table 2.

We have the following summarizations from Table 1 and Table 2: (1) The methods of AE, HGR MC, ZP, and ours can improve the classification accuracy compared to the Lower Bound method which only uses the modality-complete data. Our method achieves the highest classification performance among all methods under different settings. The higher the missing rate, the more obvious the gap between other methods and our method. These show that our maximum likelihood estimation approach are more effective to tackle modality missing compared with other methods. (2) Different forms of ϕ will affect the classification performance. For example, for our approach, addition and outer product perform better than concatenation on the eNTERFACE'05 dataset. However, on the RAVDESS dataset, the concatenation form of ϕ achieves higher classification performance than the addition and outer product forms under some settings. This indicates that in different settings, the discrimination ability of the learned feature representations is different. We need to design the appropriate form of ϕ to fuse features of the multimodal data. (3) When the visual modality is missing, the classification accuracy is lower than that when the audio modality is missing, indicating that the visual modality has a more significant contribution to the classification performance, which is consistent with previous works (Zhang et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2020).

In addition, we show the classification confusion matrices using the methods of AE, HGR MC, ZP, and ours when the missing rate of visual modality reaches 95% on the eNTERFACE'05 dataset, as shown in Figure 4. It can be seen that the classification accuracy of each emotion using AE or HGR MC is not high, which indicates that they can only deal with modality missing to a certain extent.

(a) AE

(b) HGR MC

(c) ZP

(d) Ours

Figure 4: The confusion matrices of different methods on the eNTERFACE'05 dataset.

The overall classification performance of ZP is lower than ours, but the classification accuracy of "happiness" is slightly higher than ours. This shows that our method is more efficient to exploit the information from most categories for the classification task.

We then investigate the effect of the backbone in coping with modality missing. In the above experiments, we use ResNet-50 as the backbone of different methods to extract feature representations. Here, we replace ResNet-50 with ResNet-34 (He et al., 2016) and VGG-16 (Simonyan & Zisserman, 2015) respectively, and conduct experiments to compare the performance of different backbones when 95% of the training data has missing visual modality on the RAVDESS dataset, as shown in Figure 5. We can observe that compared with VGG-16 and ResNet-34, ResNet-50 achieves the highest performance. In addition, no matter what kind of backbone is based on, the classification accuracy using our method is the highest, followed by using AE, ZP and HGR MC, and the lowest using Lower Bound, which shows that our approach can take effect for different backbones.

4 RELATED WORKS

Multimodal learning has achieved great successes in many applications. An important topic in this field is multimodal representations (Baltrušaitis et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2020), which learn feature representations from the multimodal data by using the information of different modalities. How to learn good representations is investigated in (Ngiam et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2015). Another important topic is multimodal fusion (Atrey et al., 2010; Poria et al., 2017), which combines the information from different modalities to make predictions. Feature-based fusion is one of the most common types of multimodal fusion. It concatenates the feature representations extracted from different modalities. This fusion approach is adopted by previous works (Tzirakis

(a) VGG-16   (b) ResNet-34   (c) ResNet-50

Figure 5: The performance comparison of different backbones on the RAVDESS dataset.

et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017; Castellano et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2016). Modality missing is a key challenge in applying multimodal learning to the real world.

To cope with the problem of modality missing, a few methods have been proposed. For example, Ma et al. (2021b) propose a Bayesian meta learning framework to perturb the latent feature space so that embeddings of single modality can approximate embeddings of full modality. Tran et al. (2017) propose a cascaded residual autoencoder for imputation with missing modalities, which is composed of a set of stacked residual autoencoders that iteratively model the residuals. Chen & Zhang (2020) propose a heterogeneous graph-based multimodal fusion approach to enable multimodal fusion of incomplete data within a heterogeneous graph structure. Liu et al. (2021) propose an autoencoder framework to complement the missing data in the kernel space while taking into account the structural information of data and the inherent association between multiple views.

The above approaches can combine the information of the modality-missing data to some extent. Our work is significantly different from them. The reason lies in the following two facts. Firstly, by exploiting the likelihood function to learn the conditional distributions of the modality-complete data and the modality-missing data, our method has a theoretical guarantee, which is skipped by previous works. Secondly, the training process of our approach is in an end-to-end manner, while the training processes of most above methods are relatively cumbersome.

5   CONCLUSION

Multimodal learning is a hot topic in the academic and industry communities, of which a key challenge is modality missing. In practice, the multimodal data may not be complete due to various reasons. Most previous works cannot effectively utilize the modality-missing data for the learning task. To address this problem, we propose an efficient approach to leverage the knowledge in the modality-missing data during the training stage. Specifically, we present a framework based on maximum likelihood estimation to characterize the conditional distributions of the modality-complete data and the modality-missing data, which has a theoretical guarantee. Furthermore, we develop a generalized form of the softmax function to effectively implement our maximum likelihood estimation framework in an end-to-end way. We conduct experiments on the eNTERFACE'05 dataset and the RAVDESS dataset for multimodal learning to demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach. In the future, we can further extend our framework to other multimodal learning domains.

REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

We provide our code in "supplement.zip". In this folder, "eNTERFACE_preprocess.py" and "RAVDESS_preprocess.py" extract segment samples from the original videos of the eNTER-FACE'05 dataset and the RAVDESS dataset, respectively. "mle.py" shows the function to compute our maximum likelihood estimation algorithm.

REFERENCES

Pradeep K Atrey, M Anwar Hossain, Abdulmotaleb El Saddik, and Mohan S Kankanhalli. Multimodal fusion for multimedia analysis: a survey. *Multimedia systems*, 16(6):345–379, 2010.

Tadas Baltrušaitis, Chaitanya Ahuja, and Louis-Philippe Morency. Multimodal machine learning: A survey and taxonomy. *IEEE transactions on pattern analysis and machine intelligence*, 41(2): 423–443, 2018.

Ginevra Castellano, Loic Kessous, and George Caridakis. Emotion recognition through multiple modalities: face, body gesture, speech. In *Affect and emotion in human-computer interaction*, pp. 92–103. Springer, 2008.

Sarath Chandar, Mitesh M Khapra, Hugo Larochelle, and Balaraman Ravindran. Correlational neural networks. *Neural computation*, 28(2):257–285, 2016.

Jiayi Chen and Aidong Zhang. Hgmf: Heterogeneous graph-based fusion for multimodal data with incompleteness. In *Proceedings of the 26th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery & Data Mining*, pp. 1295–1305, 2020.

Zhengyang Chen, Shuai Wang, and Yanmin Qian. Multi-modality matters: A performance leap on voxceleb. *Proc. Interspeech 2020*, pp. 2252–2256, 2020.

HE Daniels. The asymptotic efficiency of a maximum likelihood estimator. In *Fourth Berkeley Symposium on Mathematical Statistics and Probability*, volume 1, pp. 151–163. University of California Press Berkeley, 1961.

Changde Du, Changying Du, Hao Wang, Jinpeng Li, Wei-Long Zheng, Bao-Liang Lu, and Huiguang He. Semi-supervised deep generative modelling of incomplete multi-modality emotional data. In *Proceedings of the 26th ACM international conference on Multimedia*, pp. 108–116, 2018.

Changde Du, Changying Du, and Huiguang He. Multimodal deep generative adversarial models for scalable doubly semi-supervised learning. *Information Fusion*, 68:118–130, 2021.

Desmond Elliott, Stella Frank, Loïc Barrault, Fethi Bougares, and Lucia Specia. Findings of the second shared task on multimodal machine translation and multilingual image description. In *Proceedings of the Second Conference on Machine Translation*, pp. 215–233, 2017.

Hans Gebelein. Das statistische problem der korrelation als variations-und eigenwertproblem und sein zusammenhang mit der ausgleichsrechnung. *ZAMM-Journal of Applied Mathematics and Mechanics/Zeitschrift für Angewandte Mathematik und Mechanik*, 21(6):364–379, 1941.

Trevor Hastie, Robert Tibshirani, and Jerome Friedman. *The elements of statistical learning: data mining, inference, and prediction*. Springer Science & Business Media, 2009.

Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In *2016 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pp. 770–778, 2016.

Hermann O Hirschfeld. A connection between correlation and contingency. In *Mathematical Proceedings of the Cambridge Philosophical Society*, volume 31, pp. 520–524. Cambridge University Press, 1935.

Natasha Jaques, Sara Taylor, Akane Sano, and Rosalind Picard. Multimodal autoencoder: A deep learning approach to filling in missing sensor data and enabling better mood prediction. In *2017 Seventh International Conference on Affective Computing and Intelligent Interaction (ACII)*, pp. 202–208. IEEE, 2017.

Dae Ung Jo, ByeongJu Lee, Jongwon Choi, Haanju Yoo, and Jin Young Choi. Cross-modal variational auto-encoder with distributed latent spaces and associators. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1905.12867*, 2019.

Eun-Sol Kim, Woo Young Kang, Kyoung-Woon On, Yu-Jung Heo, and Byoung-Tak Zhang. Hypergraph attention networks for multimodal learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 14581–14590, 2020.

Diederik P Kingma and Jimmy Ba. Adam: A method for stochastic optimization. In *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2015.

Erich Leo Lehmann. *Elements of large-sample theory*. Springer Science & Business Media, 2004.

Manling Li, Alireza Zareian, Qi Zeng, Spencer Whitehead, Di Lu, Heng Ji, and Shih-Fu Chang. Cross-media structured common space for multimedia event extraction. In *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pp. 2557–2568, 2020.

Yanbei Liu, Lianxi Fan, Changqing Zhang, Tao Zhou, Zhitao Xiao, Lei Geng, and Dinggang Shen. Incomplete multi-modal representation learning for alzheimer's disease diagnosis. *Medical Image Analysis*, 69:101953, 2021.

Steven R Livingstone and Frank A Russo. The ryerson audio-visual database of emotional speech and song (ravdess): A dynamic, multimodal set of facial and vocal expressions in north american english. *PloS one*, 13(5):e0196391, 2018.

Fei Ma, Wei Zhang, Yang Li, Shao-Lun Huang, and Lin Zhang. Learning better representations for audio-visual emotion recognition with common information. *Applied Sciences*, 10(20), 2020.

Fei Ma, Shao-Lun Huang, and Lin Zhang. An efficient approach for audio-visual emotion recognition with missing labels and missing modalities. In *2021 IEEE International Conference on Multimedia and Expo (ICME)*, 2021a.

Mengmeng Ma, Jian Ren, Long Zhao, Sergey Tulyakov, Cathy Wu, and Xi Peng. Smil: Multimodal learning with severely missing modality. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 35, pp. 2302–2310, 2021b.

O. Martin, I. Kotsia, B. Macq, and I. Pitas. The enterface' 05 audio-visual emotion database. In *22nd International Conference on Data Engineering Workshops (ICDEW'06)*, pp. 8–8, 2006.

Trisha Mittal, Pooja Guhan, Uttaran Bhattacharya, Rohan Chandra, Aniket Bera, and Dinesh Manocha. Emoticon: Context-aware multimodal emotion recognition using frege's principle. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 14234–14243, 2020.

In Jae Myung. Tutorial on maximum likelihood estimation. *Journal of mathematical Psychology*, 47 (1):90–100, 2003.

Jiquan Ngiam, Aditya Khosla, Mingyu Kim, Juhan Nam, Honglak Lee, and Andrew Y Ng. Multimodal deep learning. In *ICML*, 2011.

Yingwei Pan, Tao Mei, Ting Yao, Houqiang Li, and Yong Rui. Jointly modeling embedding and translation to bridge video and language. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pp. 4594–4602, 2016.

Adam Paszke, Sam Gross, Francisco Massa, Adam Lerer, James Bradbury, Gregory Chanan, Trevor Killeen, Zeming Lin, Natalia Gimelshein, Luca Antiga, et al. Pytorch: An imperative style, high-performance deep learning library. In *NeurIPS*, pp. 8026–8037, 2019.

Ricardo Cardoso Pereira, Miriam Seoane Santos, Pedro Pereira Rodrigues, and Pedro Henriques Abreu. Reviewing autoencoders for missing data imputation: Technical trends, applications and outcomes. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research*, 69:1255–1285, 2020.

Soujanya Poria, Erik Cambria, Rajiv Bajpai, and Amir Hussain. A review of affective computing: From unimodal analysis to multimodal fusion. *Information Fusion*, 37:98–125, 2017.

Alfréd Rényi. On measures of dependence. *Acta Mathematica Academiae Scientiarum Hungarica*, 10(3-4):441–451, 1959.

Guangyao Shen, Xin Wang, Xuguang Duan, Hongzhi Li, and Wenwu Zhu. Memor: A dataset for multimodal emotion reasoning in videos. In *Proceedings of the 28th ACM International Conference on Multimedia*, pp. 493–502, 2020.

Yuge Shi, Brooks Paige, Philip Torr, et al. Variational mixture-of-experts autoencoders for multi-modal deep generative models. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 32:15718–15729, 2019.

Karen Simonyan and Andrew Zisserman. Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition. *International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR)*, 2015.

Mohammad Soleymani, Maja Pantic, and Thierry Pun. Multimodal emotion recognition in response to videos. *IEEE transactions on affective computing*, 3(2):211–223, 2011.

Nitish Srivastava and Ruslan Salakhutdinov. Multimodal learning with deep boltzmann machines. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 15(84):2949–2980, 2014.

Qiuling Suo, Weida Zhong, Fenglong Ma, Ye Yuan, Jing Gao, and Aidong Zhang. Metric learning on healthcare data with incomplete modalities. In *IJCAI*, pp. 3534–3540, 2019.

Luan Tran, Xiaoming Liu, Jiayu Zhou, and Rong Jin. Missing modalities imputation via cascaded residual autoencoder. In *2017 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pp. 4971–4980, 2017.

Panagiotis Tzirakis, George Trigeorgis, Mihalis A Nicolaou, Björn W Schuller, and Stefanos Zafeiriou. End-to-end multimodal emotion recognition using deep neural networks. *IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Signal Processing*, 11(8):1301–1309, 2017.

Lichen Wang, Jiaxiang Wu, Shao-Lun Huang, Lizhong Zheng, Xiangxiang Xu, Lin Zhang, and Junzhou Huang. An efficient approach to informative feature extraction from multimodal data. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 33, pp. 5281–5288, 2019.

Zuxuan Wu, Yu-Gang Jiang, Jun Wang, Jian Pu, and Xiangyang Xue. Exploring inter-feature and inter-class relationships with deep neural networks for video classification. In *Proceedings of the 22nd ACM international conference on Multimedia*, pp. 167–176, 2014.

Ran Xu, Caiming Xiong, Wei Chen, and Jason Corso. Jointly modeling deep video and compositional text to bridge vision and language in a unified framework. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 29, 2015.

Xiangxiang Xu and Shao-Lun Huang. Maximal correlation regression. *IEEE Access*, 8:26591–26601, 2020.

Xiangxiang Xu, Shao-Lun Huang, Lizhong Zheng, and Lin Zhang. The geometric structure of generalized softmax learning. In *2018 IEEE Information Theory Workshop (ITW)*, pp. 1–5, 2018.

Guan Yu, Quefeng Li, Dinggang Shen, and Yufeng Liu. Optimal sparse linear prediction for block-missing multi-modality data without imputation. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 115(531):1406–1419, 2020.

Zhou Yu, Jun Yu, Yuhao Cui, Dacheng Tao, and Qi Tian. Deep modular co-attention networks for visual question answering. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 6281–6290, 2019.

Amir Zadeh, Minghai Chen, Soujanya Poria, Erik Cambria, and Louis-Philippe Morency. Tensor fusion network for multimodal sentiment analysis. In *Proceedings of the 2017 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 1103–1114, 2017.

Huaizheng Zhang, Linsen Dong, Guanyu Gao, Han Hu, Yonggang Wen, and Kyle Guan. Deepqoe: A multimodal learning framework for video quality of experience (qoe) prediction. *IEEE Transactions on Multimedia*, 22(12):3210–3223, 2020.

Shiqing Zhang, Shiliang Zhang, Tiejun Huang, and Wen Gao. Multimodal deep convolutional neural network for audio-visual emotion recognition. In *Proceedings of the 2016 ACM on International Conference on Multimedia Retrieval*, pp. 281–284, 2016.

Shiqing Zhang, Shiliang Zhang, Tiejun Huang, Wen Gao, and Qi Tian. Learning affective features with a hybrid deep model for audio–visual emotion recognition. *IEEE Transactions on Circuits and Systems for Video Technology*, 28(10):3030–3043, 2017.

Wenwu Zhu, Xin Wang, and Wen Gao. Multimedia intelligence: When multimedia meets artificial intelligence. *IEEE Transactions on Multimedia*, 22(7):1823–1835, 2020.