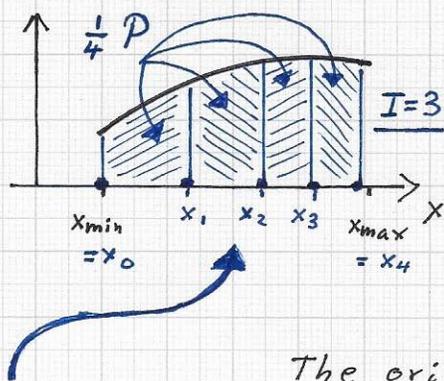
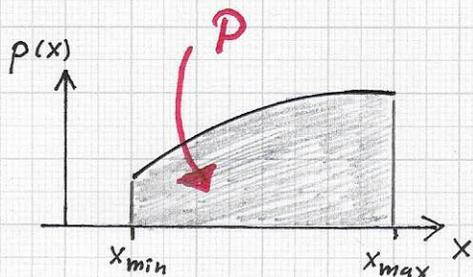


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■ GEOMETRIC MODELING AND DENSITY - Cont'd.

- Integrated Probability: We can also use "integrated probability" to determine where to place 'representative feature points' in feature space, and how to establish these points' (local) density - given an initial large and high-dimensional feature point sample set. We first consider the continuous univariate (1D) case. Assuming



that feature (point) values vary between x_{min} and x_{max} , an associated distribution or "probability" function $p(x)$ defines the relative occurrences of x -values. The goal is to subdivide the x -domain, i.e., $[x_{min}, x_{max}]$, into sub-intervals in such a way that **INTEGRATED PROBABILITY OVER EACH SUB-INTERVAL IS THE SAME.**

uniform distribution of integrated probability, i.e.:

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_1} p(x) dx = \dots = \int_{x_3}^{x_4} p(x) dx.$$

The original integrated probability is given as

$$P = \int_{x_{min}}^{x_{max}} p(x) dx.$$

(It can be advantageous to normalize: $P=1$.)

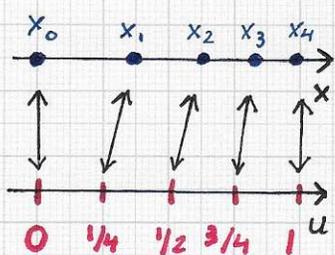
To subdivide $[x_{min}, x_{max}]$ into intervals $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$, $i=0 \dots I$, one must determine x_i -values as follows:

$$\underline{x_0 = x_{min}} ; \underline{\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x) dx = P/(I+1), i=0 \dots I.}$$

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■ GEOMETRIC MODELING AND DENSITY - Cont'd.

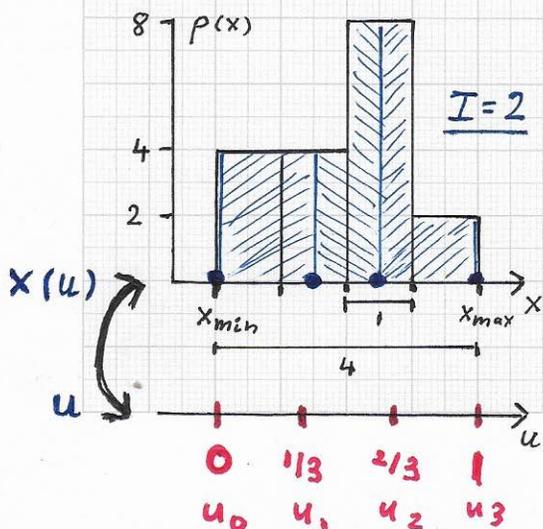
• Integrated Probability:



Mapping parameter space to feature space (u-space to x-space mapping)

Once the x_i -values are known, one can associate uniformly, equidistantly distributed parameter values u_i with them, where $u_i = i / (I+1)$, $i=0 \dots (I+1)$. The eventual goal is the computation of a low-degree (quadratic or piecewise quadratic) least-squares best approximation, subject to the mapping conditions $u_i \mapsto x_i$. The resulting best approximation serves as a model that - when evaluated at an arbitrary resolution of equidistant u-values - generates synthetic feature point distributions "of class $p(x)$ ".

→ Since the probability function $p(x)$ is not known analytically and is only approximately known via a discrete, binned histogram representation, the method must be adapted to the discrete setting. Consider the example (left):



→ $P = \int_{x_{min}}^{x_{max}} p(x) dx = 4 + 4 + 8 + 2 = 18$

→ wanted: 4 values x_i such that $\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x) dx = 6$

→ resulting x_i -values: $x_0 = x_{min}$, $x_1 = x_0 + \frac{3}{2}$,
 $x_2 = x_1 + 1$, $x_3 = x_2 + \frac{3}{2} = x_{max}$

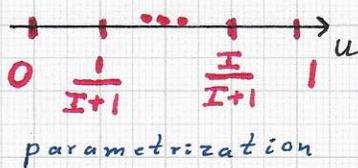
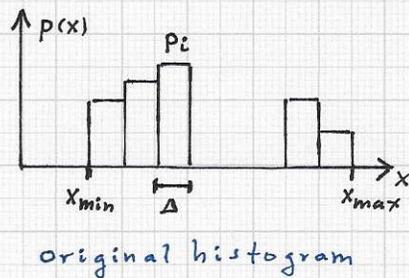
→ associated u_i -values: $u_i = i / (I+1) = i/3$, $i=0 \dots 3$.

→ The resulting model $x(u)$ generates "same-class histograms." BH

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■ GEOMETRIC MODELING AND DENSITY - Cont'd.

• Integrated Probability:



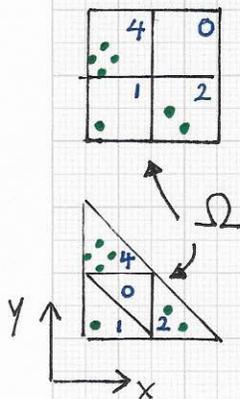
The general 1D discrete case is based on on a histogram, defined for a domain interval $[x_{min}, x_{max}]$ divided into bins of constant width Δ with bin values p_i .

Integrated probability is $\Delta \sum_i p_i = P$.

To split the domain interval into sub-intervals with the same integrated probability $P/(I+1)$

the x_i -values are obtained by the conditions $\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} p(x) dx = P/(I+1)$, $i = 0 \dots I$. The associated parameter values are $u_i = i/(I+1)$, $i = 0 \dots (I+1)$.

• 2D Case: In the bivariate case, feature points lie in the 2D xy -plane, defining a bivariate probability function $p(x, y)$. For example, a discrete representation of $p(x, y)$ could be represented via a tiling / binning of the xy -domain consisting of rectangles or triangles.



Tilings of xy -plane (feature space); feature points and their numbers are shown (per tile).

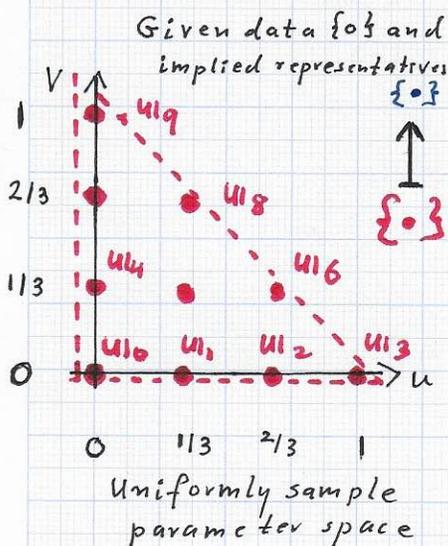
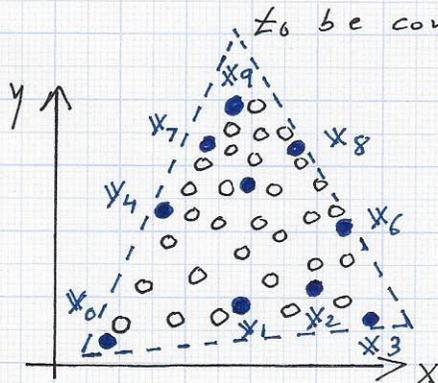
First, one computes the integrated probability as $P = \iint_{\Omega} p(x, y) dx dy$, where the integration domain Ω is assumed to consist of one region with a boundary "tightly enclosing" the feature points.

The goal is to subdivide the domain Ω into 2D sub-domains such that the integrated probability over each sub-domain is the same and the sum of all integrated probabilities over all sub-domains equals P .

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■ GEOMETRIC MODELING AND DENSITY - Cont'd.

• Algorithm: We consider the 2D, bivariate setting to describe the processing steps. Given is a set of scattered feature points in a region in the plane. These points define the distribution that the model to be constructed must be able to replicate.



The example (left) shows the original feature point set $\{x_i\}$ and the selected and/or constructed smaller data set $\{o_i\}$. The set $\{o_i\}$ has been constructed in such a way that $\{x_i\}$ and $\{o_i\}$ have (nearly) the same (normalized) point probability distribution in the xy -plane. The goal is to compute a (quadratic) mapping that is obtained by associating a parameter tuple $u_i = (u_i, v_i)$ of a set of uniformly, equidistantly placed parameter tuples $\{o_i\}$ to a corresponding constructed point $x_i = (x_i, y_i)^T$.

The best quadratic approximation obtained by mapping u_i to x_i has six coefficients c_{ij} : $x(u) = \sum_{\|j\| \leq 2} c_{ij} u^j = c_{0,0} + c_{1,0}u + c_{0,1}v + c_{1,1}uv + c_{2,0}u^2 + c_{0,2}v^2$.

The coefficients $c_{ij} = c_{ji}$ have an x - and y -coordinate component.

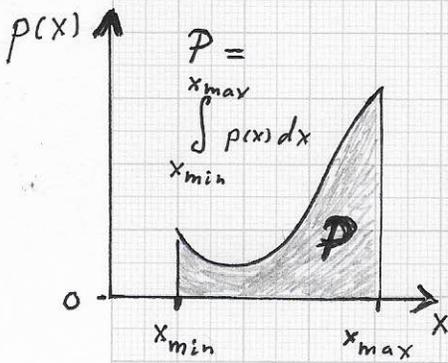
The mapping $u_i \mapsto x_i, i=0 \dots 9$ (here), defines the overdetermined system $\sum_{\|j\| \leq 2} c_{ij} (u_i)^j = x_i$, solved via the least-squares method. The model $x(u)$ has an associated error.

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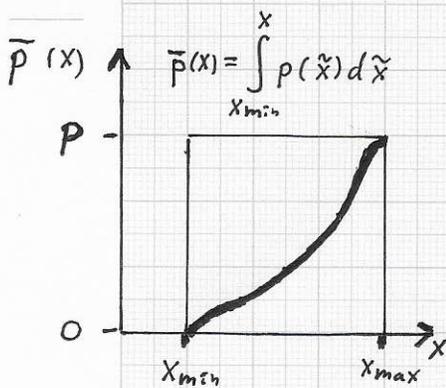
■ GEOMETRIC MODELING AND DENSITY - Cont'd.

• Best approximation (analytical case):

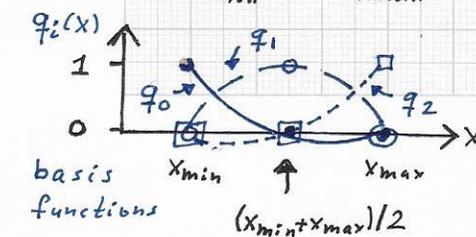
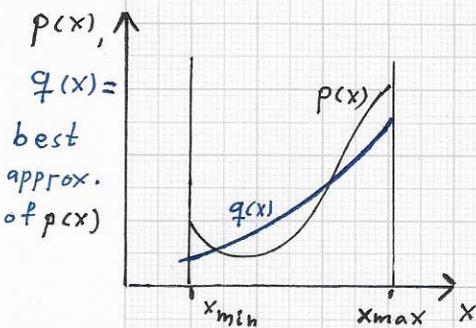
It is also possible to consider all feature points/vectors given in high-dimensional feature space for the computation of a (relatively) low-degree polynomial best approximation, capable of generating random, synthetic feature point distributions representing the same class. First, one must define and analytically represent



analytical form of $p(x)$



cumulative distribution



(simply!) the given discrete feature point data distribution (e.g., using an efficient piecewise constant definition). Second, one applies best approximation methods (analytical/continuous setting) to compute a best quadratic approximation of the given distribution, for example. The illustrations depict the case of a 1D feature space: (i) $p(x)$ is the given distribution function, having the associated cumulative distribution $\bar{p}(x)$. (ii) $q(x)$ is the best quadratic approximation of $p(x)$. (iii) The quadratic basis functions $q_i(x)$, defined for the 3 knots $x_0 = x_{min}$, $x_1 = \frac{1}{2}(x_{min} + x_{max})$, $x_2 = x_{max}$. They satisfy the condition $q_i(x_j) = \delta_{i,j}$. Thus, the best approximation is $q(x) = \sum_{i=0}^2 c_i q_i(x)$:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle q_0(x), q_0(x) \rangle & \dots & \langle q_0(x), q_2(x) \rangle \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \langle q_2(x), q_0(x) \rangle & \dots & \langle q_2(x), q_2(x) \rangle \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle p(x), q_0(x) \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle p(x), q_2(x) \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$