

## Foveated Multiscale Models for Large-Scale Estimation

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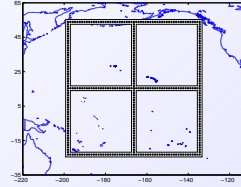
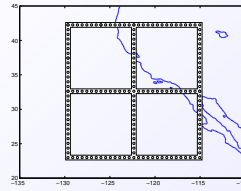
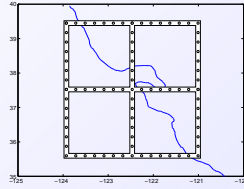
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## INTRODUCTION

### Goals:

- 3D statistical estimation:
  1. Static 3D — three space dimensions
  2. Dynamic 2D — two space & one time

### Challenge:



For how large a domain (local, meso, global) is divide-and-conquer computationally and numerically feasible ... ?

- Even for efficient methods, computational complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(n^{2d-3})$  per pixel, for  $n \times \dots \times n$  pixels in  $d$  dimensions
- Past approximate models have not changed asymptotic complexity

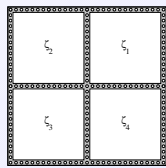
### Summary of Approach:

- Continue to use the divide-and-conquer, but in place of a single model with strict conditional-decorrelation assumptions, we propose multiple space-varying models with weaker assumptions.

## DIVIDE AND CONQUER

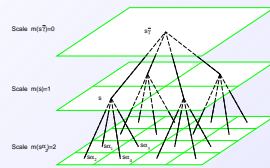
### Basic Principle:

Given: 2D process  $\zeta$  (e.g., ocean surface)  
Find a subset  $\zeta_o$  such that  $\zeta$  is separated into conditionally decorrelated regions  $\zeta_1, \dots, \zeta_n$ :  
 $E[\zeta_i | \zeta_o] = E[\zeta_i | \zeta_o] \cdot E[\zeta_j | \zeta_o]$   
For example, a 2D first-order Markov random field can be separated into four quadrants:



### Multiscale Model:

Can realize divide-and-conquer models in many forms (multiscale, nested-dissection). For purpose of discussion, we propose to realize  $\zeta$  on the finest scale of a multiscale quad-tree.



Similarly we can model a 3D process on an oct-tree etc.

### Tree Notation:

- $s$  Indexes nodes on the tree.
- $s\bar{r}$  Parent of tree node  $s$ .
- 0 Root node of the tree.

### Tree Process:

$$x(0) \sim \mathcal{N}(x_o, P_o)$$

$$x(s) = A(s)x(s\bar{r}) + B(s)w(s)$$

$$w(s) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$$

That is, we define a process  $x(s)$  which is autoregressive in scale.

### Measurements:

$$y(s) = C(s)x(s) + v(s)$$

$$v(s) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, R(s))$$

$$\langle v(s)v(s)^T \rangle = \delta_{s,r}R(s)$$

We will have only finest-scale measurements, but coarser-scale measurements are permitted.

### Conditional Decorrelation:

$$\text{State Model } x(s) = A(s)x(s\bar{r}) + B(s)w(s)$$

$w(s)$  is a white driving process  
So the parent state  $x(s\bar{r})$  must conditionally decorrelate its children  
(i.e., a Markov process in scale)

In 2D, column(s) of pixels are required to decorrelate halves of a plane.

In 3D, plane(s) of pixels are required for decorrelation etc.

## PROBLEMS:

### 1. Numerical Stability:

As the number of scales ( $= 1 + \log_2 n$ ) increases, the condition number of the covariance of boundary  $\zeta_o$  deteriorates:

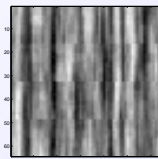
# Scales	1.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0
5	$10^4$	$10^5$	$10^6$	$10^9$	$10^9$	$10^9$
6	$10^5$	$10^7$	$10^7$	$10^9$	$10^9$	$10^{13}$
7	$10^5$	$10^6$	$10^{10}$	$10^{10}$	$10^{13}$	
8	$10^3$	$10^5$	$10^{10}$			
9	$10^3$	$10^7$	$10^{12}$			
10	$10^2$	$10^8$			Unstable	
11	$10^2$	$10^8$			Problems	
12	$10^3$	$10^9$				

As problem size increases, ever cruder reduced-state approximations are needed to keep the problem stable. i.e., asymptotically, no degree of state reduction is stable.

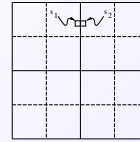
### 2. Statistical Fidelity:

The need to use approximate models (for computational and/or numerical stability reasons) may lead to unacceptable artifacts or statistical anomalies.

For example, a typical estimation of a random field clearly shows some of the coarser boundaries along which too little information was kept:



Problem: reduced-order models maintain an inadequate correlation across boundaries, such as between pixels  $s_1, s_2$ :



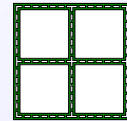
Sample table of adjacent-pixel desired / realized correlation ratios: a ratio of 1.0 is ideal:

# Scales	1.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0
5	6	7	6	6	6	6
6	22	10	9	7	7	6
7	41	9	8	6	6	
8	75	10	9			
9	97	9	8			
10	120	9				
11	120	8				
12	110	8				

### 3. Computational Complexity:

For an  $n \times \dots \times n$  block in  $d$  dimensions, number of pixels in coarsest boundary  $\zeta_o$  is  $\mathcal{O}(n^{d-1})$ .

Therefore, for any statistical model, the number of degrees of freedom in the boundary is  $\mathcal{O}(n^{d-1})$ ; so any reduced-order model, e.g.,



has the same asymptotic dimension  $\mathcal{O}(n^{d-1})$ .

Therefore the estimation complexity is at least  $\mathcal{O}(n^{3(d-1)})$ .

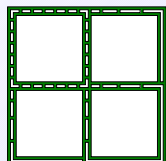
Therefore estimation complexity per pixel is  $\mathcal{O}(n^{2d-3})$ , prohibitive for even modest  $n, d$ .

## PROPOSED IDEA

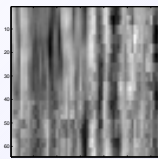
### Key Points:

1. The first step of divide-and-conquer — conditional division of the whole process — is too hard.
2. Reduced-order representations of the whole boundary  $\zeta_o$  are not effective approximations.

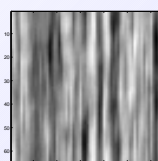
To estimate one quadrant, keeping details of another may be largely irrelevant; the following reduced state will perform very nearly as well:



The corresponding estimated random field ...

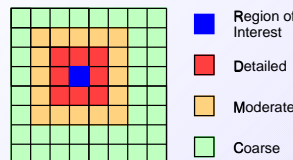


Several of these can be stitched together to produce smooth estimates of the entire field:



Using four models, one per quadrant, does not change asymptotic properties.

In general, we can consider  $p$  models, each representing  $1/p$  of the problem:



If  $p$  grows as  $n^d$  then the asymptotic properties can be changed. If  $p \propto n^d$  then the size  $1/p$  of the region of interest is constant, and the size of boundary  $\zeta_o$  is bounded or grows only very slowly with  $n, d$ .

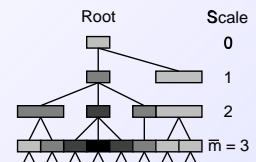
### Specific Approach:

Break the problem into  $2^{dm}$  regions of interest on scale  $\bar{m}$ . Let  $t_i$  be the node on scale  $\bar{m}$  representing the region of interest on the  $i$ th tree  $\mathcal{T}_i$ .

Each region of interest is surrounded by bands, represented in decreasing statistical detail.

Below scale  $\bar{m}$  the tree is regular.

Above scale  $\bar{m}$  the tree is adjusted to explicitly preserve the region of interest:



# MANY-ROOTED TREES

## 1. Numerical Stability:

Stability maintained independent of problem size:

States:	1.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0
Cond. #:	10 <sup>2</sup>	10 <sup>5</sup>	10 <sup>6</sup>	10 <sup>7</sup>	10 <sup>11</sup>	10 <sup>12</sup>

## 2. Statistical Fidelity:

Because stability is independent of size, accurate models can be chosen, even for large problems, to set the desired tolerance on statistical fidelity:

States:	1.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0
Fidel.:	400	45	6	5	1	1

## 3. Computational Complexity:

Fixed size of region of interest is  $q = n^d/p$ .  
 $p$  models, with root node of complexity  $q, n^d$   
 finest-scale elements, *per pixel* complexity of  
 $\approx \mathcal{O}\left[\frac{pn^d + pn^d}{n^d}\right] = \mathcal{O}\left[q^2 + \frac{n^d}{q}\right]$  ... not so good.

Many of the  $p$  trees are *very* similar, suggesting that redundancies are present which can be removed.

Let  $\mathcal{T}_i$  be the  $i$ th tree  
 Let  $\mathcal{T}_i(s)$  be the subtree below node  $s$   
 Let  $Y(\mathcal{T})$  to be the measurements on tree  $\mathcal{T}$ .  
 On each tree  $\mathcal{T}$ , estimates are computed:

**Upwards Pass:** Compute conditional estimates  
 $\hat{x}_v(s) = E[x(s)|Y(\mathcal{T}(s))]$   
 based on measurements in the subtree below  $s$ .

**Tree Root:**  $\hat{x}_v(0) = \hat{x}_v(0)$ .

**Downwards Pass:** Compute smoothed estimates  
 $\hat{x}_D(s) = f(\hat{x}_v(s), \hat{x}_D(s\bar{\gamma}))$ .  
 based on all measurements on tree.

We characterize each node  $s$  in terms of  
 $s\bar{\gamma}$  its parent  
 $s\alpha_i$  its children  
 $\rho(s)$  its sampling density (statistical fidelity)  
 $m(s)$  its scale  
 $\pi(s)$  its spatial extent.

Nodes  $s_i \equiv s_j$  are equivalent iff  
 $\rho(s_i) = \rho(s_j), \pi(s_i) = \pi(s_j), m(s_i) = m(s_j)$

Let  $\mathcal{T}_*$  be the union of the  $p$  models,  
 $\mathcal{T}_* = \mathcal{T}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{T}_p$ ,  
 that is, with redundant equivalent nodes removed.  $\mathcal{T}_*$  will have  $p$  root nodes.

**Claim:** Under the following conditions, the estimates on  $\mathcal{T}_*$  are identical to the mosaic of estimates from  $\mathcal{T}_1, \dots, \mathcal{T}_p$ .

## Upwards Pass:

For any  $s_i \in \mathcal{T}_i, s_j \in \mathcal{T}_j$ ,  
 $s_i \equiv s_j \Rightarrow \mathcal{T}_i(s) \equiv \mathcal{T}_j(s) \Rightarrow \hat{x}_v(s_i) = \hat{x}_v(s_j)$   
 That is, all of the estimates from the  $p$  upwards passes will be present on combined tree  $\mathcal{T}_*$ .

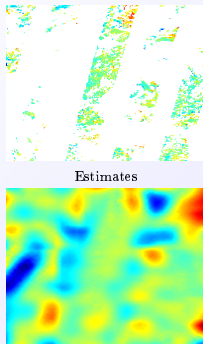
**Tree Root:** Let the  $p$  roots be  $0_1, \dots, 0_p$ .  
 We let  $\hat{x}_D(0_i) = \hat{x}_v(0_i)$ .

## Downwards Pass:

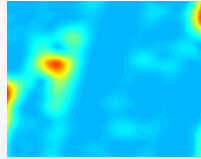
On scales  $\geq \bar{m}$ ,  $\mathcal{T}_*$  is regular and the downwards pass is unchanged.  
 On scales  $\leq \bar{m}$ , the downwards pass on tree  $\mathcal{T}_i$  proceeds only between ancestors  $t_i \gamma^k$  of the region of interest.  
 On  $\mathcal{T}_*$  a node  $s$  may have multiple parents. The desired parent for the downwards pass is the one with the same region:  
 $\hat{x}_D(s) = f(\hat{x}_v(s), \hat{x}_D(s')) \ni \begin{matrix} m(s') = m(s) - 1, \\ \pi(s') = \pi(s) \end{matrix}$

# RESULTS

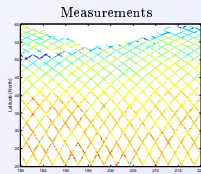
## Application 1: Temperature assimilation



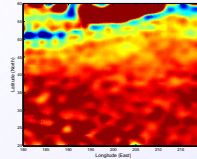
## Error Variances



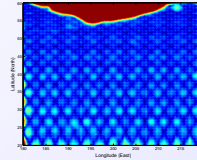
## Application 2: Altimetry estimation



## Estimates



## Error Variances



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