

Variational Methods for Computer Vision: Solution Sheet 1

Exercise: 23 October 2014

Part I: Theory

1. A metric expresses an intuitive notion of distance on an abstract set X .

(a) We verify all four conditions:

- Summands are all positive due to the absolute value $\Rightarrow d(x, y) \geq 0$.
- $x = y \Rightarrow d(x, y) = 0$ follows directly by substitution. For the other direction we assume $d(x, y) = 0$ which implies $|x_i - y_i| = 0$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$, which in turn implies $x_i = y_i$.
- Symmetry: Follows directly from symmetry of absolute value function.
- Subadditivity: Follows directly from the basic triangle inequality ($|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$):

$$|x_i - z_i| = |x_i - y_i + y_i - z_i| \leq |x_i - y_i| + |y_i - z_i|.$$

\Rightarrow We have verified that the Manhattan (or Taxicab) distance is a metric. Note that the Manhattan distance is induced by the standard ℓ^1 norm on \mathbb{R}^n : $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|_1$.

(b) Again we check the individual conditions:

- Follows from Q being positive definite. $\langle x, Qx \rangle \geq 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- $x = y \Rightarrow d(x, y) = 0$ again follows directly. Assume $\langle x - y, Q(x - y) \rangle = 0$ and $x \neq y$. Then we have $\langle z, Qz \rangle = 0$ for some $z = x - y \neq 0$. This violates positive definiteness of Q .
- Symmetry: $d(x, y) = \langle x - y, Q(x - y) \rangle = \langle y - x, Q(y - x) \rangle = d(y, x)$
- For subadditivity, let us start with the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \|x + y\|_Q^2 &:= \langle x + y, Q(x + y) \rangle = \left\langle Q^{\frac{1}{2}}(x + y), Q^{\frac{1}{2}}(x + y) \right\rangle \\ &= \|Q^{\frac{1}{2}}x\|^2 + 2 \left\langle Q^{\frac{1}{2}}x, Q^{\frac{1}{2}}y \right\rangle + \|Q^{\frac{1}{2}}y\|^2 \\ &\leq \|Q^{\frac{1}{2}}x\|^2 + 2\|Q^{\frac{1}{2}}x\|\|Q^{\frac{1}{2}}y\| + \|Q^{\frac{1}{2}}y\|^2 \\ &= (\|Q^{\frac{1}{2}}x\| + \|Q^{\frac{1}{2}}y\|)^2 = (\|x\|_Q + \|y\|_Q)^2. \end{aligned}$$

This implies $\|x + y\|_Q \leq \|x\|_Q + \|y\|_Q$. Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, y) &= \|x - y\|_Q = \|x - z + z - y\|_Q \\ &\leq \|x - z\|_Q + \|z - y\|_Q = d(x, z) + d(z, y). \end{aligned}$$

Note that it would also suffice to show that $\langle x, Qy \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle_Q$ defines a valid inner product on \mathbb{R}^n which in turn induces a norm $\|x\|_Q = \langle x, x \rangle_Q^{1/2}$ which in turn induces the Mahalanobis distance $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|_Q$.

The following relationships hold: Inner Product $\xrightarrow{\text{induces}}$ Norm $\xrightarrow{\text{induces}}$ Metric.

(c) The Kullback-Leibler divergence can be interpreted as a measure of dissimilarity between two probability distributions. It is however not symmetric, and we show that by constructing a counterexample. Let p_1, p_2 be probability distributions with

$$p_1(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } -0.5 \leq x \leq 0.5, \\ 0 & \text{else,} \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad p_2(x) = \begin{cases} 0.5 & \text{if } -0.5 \leq x \leq 0, \\ 1.5 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 0.5, \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

It can be verified that these are indeed probability distributions. Then we have

$$d(p_1, p_2) = 0.5(\ln 2 + \ln \frac{2}{3}) \approx 0.144,$$

$$d(p_2, p_1) = 0.5(0.5 \ln \frac{1}{2} + 1.5 \ln \frac{3}{2}) \approx 0.131.$$

Furthermore the Kullback-Leibler divergence does not satisfy the triangle inequality. Note that it can be shown that it still satisfies

- $d(x, y) \geq 0$,
- $d(x, y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y$.

A function $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which satisfies only these two conditions is sometimes called a *premetric*.

2. (a) Let us prove associativity of convolution first:

$$\begin{aligned} ((f * g) * h)(u) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} (f * g)(x) h(u - x) dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) g(x - y) dy \right) h(u - x) dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) g(x - y) h(u - x) dy dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) g(x - y) h(u - x) dx dy && \text{(Fubini's theorem)} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x - y) h(u - x) dx dy \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) \int_{\mathbb{R}} g((x + y) - y) h(u - (x + y)) dx dy && \text{(Translation invariance)} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x) h((u - y) - x) dx dy \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) (g * h)(u - y) dy \\ &= (f * (g * h))(u). \end{aligned}$$

- (b) For distributivity we have:

$$\begin{aligned} f * (g + h)(u) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) (g + h)(u - x) dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) g(u - x) + f(x) h(u - x) dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) g(u - x) dx + \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) h(u - x) dx \\ &= (f * g + f * h)(u). \end{aligned}$$

- (c) We start with the definition of the Fourier transform:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}\{f * g\}(\nu) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) g(x - y) dy \right) e^{-2\pi i x \nu} dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x - y) e^{-2\pi i x \nu} dx \right) dy. \end{aligned}$$

Introducing the substitution $z = x - y$, $dz = dx$ we arrive at

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x-y) e^{-2\pi i x \nu} dx \right) dy &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(z) e^{-2\pi i (z+y)\nu} dz \right) dy \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) e^{-2\pi i y \nu} \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(z) e^{-2\pi i z \nu} dz dy \\ &= \underbrace{\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) e^{-2\pi i y \nu} dy}_{=: \mathcal{F}\{f\}(\nu)} \underbrace{\int_{\mathbb{R}} g(z) e^{-2\pi i z \nu} dz}_{=: \mathcal{F}\{g\}(\nu)}. \end{aligned}$$

As the Fourier transform can be implemented to run in $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ time, convolutions can be computed efficiently by exploiting this property:

$$f * g = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\{\mathcal{F}\{f\} \cdot \mathcal{F}\{g\}\}.$$

(d) Let us consider the difference quotient

$$\frac{(f * g)(x+t) - (f * g)(x)}{t} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(y) \frac{g(x+t-y) - g(x-y)}{t} dy.$$

For $t \rightarrow 0$ it follows that

$$\frac{g(x+t-y) - g(x-y)}{t} \rightarrow \frac{dg}{dx},$$

which in turn yields

$$\frac{d}{dx}(f * g) = f * \frac{dg}{dx}.$$

The remaining equality can be shown analogously using commutativity of convolution.