Bundle Adjustment

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Bundle Adjustment - A modern Synthesis

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Overview

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Visual Reconstruction and Bundle Adjustment

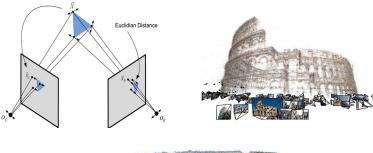


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Definitions

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- Visual Reconstruction: Recover a model of a 3D scene from multiple images.
- Scene Model: Collection of isolated 3D features, e.g., points, lines, etc.
- Bundle Adjustment: Problem of refining a visual reconstruction model to produce jointly optimal 3D structure and viewing parameter (camera pose/calibration) estimates.
- **jointly**: Solution is simultaneously optimal with respect to both structure and camera variations.
- optimal: Parameter estimates are found by minimizing some cost function that quantifies the model fitting error.
- Bundle in the name refers to the bundles of light rays leaving each 3D feature and converging on each camera center.

Why use Bundle Adjustment

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Reasons for using Bundle Adjustment over alternative adjustment methods

- Flexibility: handles very wide variety of sources of information (like priors).
- Accuracy: provide precise and easy to interpret results.
- Efficiency: Use rapidly convergent numerical methods and make good use of sparsity.

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Notations (abstract)

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- State Vector X: large vector of all parameters
 - 3D locations of the keypoints
 - Camera parameters
- <u>Z</u>: observations, measured image features.
- *Z* = *Z*(*X*): predicted values corresponding to the observation from parameters *X*.
- $\Delta Z(X) = \underline{Z} Z(X)$: residual prediction error.
- f(X) = f(predz(X)): cost function.
- $g = \frac{df}{dX}$: Gradient of the cost function.
- $H = \frac{d^2 f}{dX^2}$: Hessian of the cost function.
- $J = \frac{dZ}{dX}$: Jacobian of the observation w.r.t. states.

The Projection Model

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Camera Models

- Perspective Projection (Homography)
- Affine
- Orthographic Projection
- Pushbroom Models (for Pushbroom scanners)
- Scene Model
 - ∀p ∈ {1,..., n} X_p: Individual static 3D features. n is the total number of features in the scene.
 - ∀i ∈ {1,...,m} P_i: Camera pose and internal camera calibration parameters for image i. m is the total number of images taken.
 - $\forall c \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ C_c : Other calibration parameters.
 - \underline{x}_{ip} : Uncertain measurement of 3D feature X_p in image *i*.
 - $x_{ip}^{r} = x(C_c, P_i, X_p)$: x_{ip} is the true image of feature X_p in image *i* which can be constructed using a predictive model of the parameters.

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- Feature Prediction Error: $\underline{x}_{ip} x_{ip} = \underline{x}_{ip} x(C_c, P_i, X_p)$
- Other measurements in the 3D world can be included.
- Estimate unknown 3D features and camera parameters by minimizing some measure of total prediction error.

- Bundle Adjustment
 - Optimizing Nonlinear cost function
 - Over Nonlinear space of parameters

Prior knowledge

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Cost function and Error Modeling

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- Cost function
 - Quantifies total prediction error (reprojection error)
- Allow for presence of outliers
 - Robust statistically-based error metrics
 - Based on total (inlier+outlier) log likelihood
- Parameter estimation
 - optimal point estimator for cost function minimization

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- Maximum likelihood (ML)
- Maximum a posteriori (MAP)
 - Include priors

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- Nonlinear Least Squares
- Robustified Least Squares
- Intensity-based Methods

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Implicit Models

Nonlinear Least Squares

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$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \Delta Z_i(X)^\top W_i \Delta Z_i(X)$$

$$\Delta Z_i(X) = \underline{Z}_i - Z_i(X)$$

- *Z_i* = *Z_i*(*X*): predicted value of the feature *i* corresponding to the observation from parameters *X*.
- \underline{Z}_i : observed value of feature *i*.
- *W_i*: symmetric positive definite weights.
- Minimizes the weighted sum of squared error.
- Equivalent: observations perturbed by Gaussian noise with mean zero and covariance W_i^{-1} .

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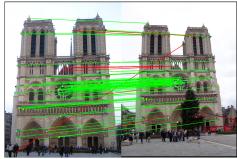
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- Nonlinear Least Squares are highly sensitive to outliers.
 We want to damper the effects of outliers.
- Example of outliers: incorrect SIFT matchings
- RANSAC
- observations are considered independent (independence groups)



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cost functions can have any form. One natural family of cost functions are radial distributions:

$$f_i(x) = \frac{1}{2} \rho_i (\Delta Z_i(X)^\top W_i \Delta Z_i(X)^2)$$

- ρ_i can be any increasing function with $\rho_i(0) = 0$ and $\frac{d}{ds}\rho_i(0) = 1$.
- Model the error distribution as a Gaussian central peak plus a uniform background of outliers.

$$f(x) = -\sum_{i} \log(e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\Delta Z_{i}(X)^{\top} W_{i} \Delta Z_{i}(X))^{2}} + \epsilon)$$



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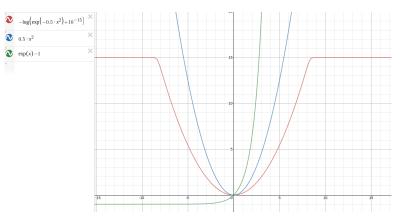
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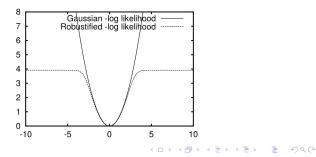
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$$f(x) = -\sum_{i}\sum_{p}log(e^{-rac{1}{2}(\Delta x_{ip}^{ op}W_{ip}\Delta x_{ip})^2} + \epsilon)$$

- Δx_{ip} = x_{ip} x_{ip}: difference of the observed and predicted feature locations.
- ϵ parametrizes the frequency of outliers.



Other Methods

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- Intensity-based Models: observables are intensities (of the patches of images)
- Implicit Models: Relations between predictions and parameters are not explicit.
 - We used to have Z = Z(X) in which Z is expressed explicitly in terms of the parameters.
 - Here we have h(X, Z) = 0.
 - two approaches to handle implicit models
 - Nuisance parameters: convert to a constrained optimization by adding Z as Nuisance parameters. Minimize f(<u>Z</u> - Z) over (X, Z) subject to h(X, Z) = 0.

Reduction: Consider $h(X, \underline{Z})$ instead of \underline{Z}

Numerical Optimization

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- Minimize cost function f(X) starting from some approximations for X.
- Not possible to minimize in closed form.
- Take steps in the directions of reducing cost function locally and possibly reducing it globally.

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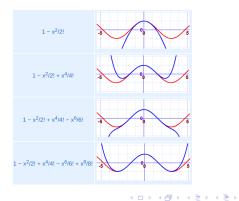
Take advantage of Taylor series.

Second Order Methods

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Taylor Series

$$f(x) \approx f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots$$



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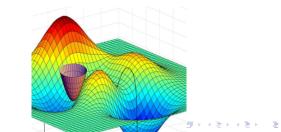
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Quadratic Taylor Approximation of the cost function

$$f(X + \delta X) \approx f(X) + g^{\top} \delta X + \frac{1}{2} \delta X^{\top} H \delta X$$

This is a local model with a global optimum.We proceed by taking the Newton's step:

$$\delta X = -H^{-1}g$$



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Remarks:

- Needs Step Control
- Computation Complexity of each step is $O(n^3)$.
- Calculating H is not easy.
- Starting point is very important. Convergence becomes difficult when starting point is far from global minimum.

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Step Control

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- Newton's method might fail
 - Converge to saddle point
 - Occasionally true cost might not decrease when approximate cost decreases
- Descent Direction
 - A direction with a non-negligible component down the local cost gradient.
 - Take a combination of Newton's step and gradient direction

 $(H + \lambda W)\delta X = -g$

- λ controls the combination and W is a PSD weight matrix.
- Trust Region Methods: Choose maximum size of the step dynamically
- Levenberg-Marquardt Methods: \u03c6 increases and decreases based on the whether the approximation gets better or worse.

Gauss-Newton

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Jacobian of the predictions w.r.t. the parameters

$$J = \frac{dZ}{dX} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{dZ_1}{dX_1} & \frac{dZ_1}{dX_2} & \cdots & \frac{dZ_1}{dX_n} \\ \frac{dZ_2}{dX_1} & \frac{dZ_2}{dX_2} & \cdots & \frac{dZ_2}{dX_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{dZ_m}{dX_1} & \frac{dZ_m}{dX_2} & \cdots & \frac{dZ_m}{dX_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Gradient and Hessian can be written in terms of Jacobian

$$g = \frac{df}{dX} = \Delta Z^\top W J$$

$$H = \frac{d^2 f}{dX^2} = J^{\top} W J + \sum_i \left(\Delta Z^{\top} W \right)_i \frac{d^2 Z_i}{dX^2}$$

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$$g = \frac{df}{dX} = \Delta Z^\top W J$$

$$H = \frac{d^2 f}{dX^2} = J^{\top} W J + \sum_i \left(\Delta Z^{\top} W \right)_i \frac{d^2 Z_i}{dX^2}$$

• We can drop
$$\sum_{i} (\Delta Z^{\top} W)_{i} \frac{d^{2} Z_{i}}{d X^{2}}$$
 if either
• Prediction Error ΔZ is small

- Model is nearly linear or $\frac{d^2 Z_i}{dX^2} \approx 0$
- Results would be Gauss-Newton approximation

$$\left(J^{\top}WJ\right)\delta X = -J^{\top}W\Delta Z$$

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Gauss-Newton

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Gauss-Newton is an approximation of the SSE

$$\left(J^{\top}WJ\right)\delta X = -J^{\top}W\Delta Z$$

• Very common specially in [bundle] adjustment methods.

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- Disadvantages
 - Sometimes discarded terms are not negligible
 - Very sensitive to saddle point

Robustified Gauss-Newton

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Recall Least Squares and Robustified Least Squares

$$f(X) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \Delta Z_i(X)^\top W_i \Delta Z_i(X)$$

$$f_i(X) = \frac{1}{2}\rho_i(\Delta Z_i(X)^\top W_i \Delta Z_i(X)^2)$$

- In robustified Least Squares we introduce nonlinearity at the level of individual features.
- Disadvantages of Gauss-Newton does not extend to the robust cost functions

$$g_i =
ho_i' J_i^ op W_i \Delta Z_i$$

$$H_i = J_i^{\top} (\rho_i' W_i + 2\rho'' (W_i \Delta Z_i) (W_i \Delta Z_i)^{\top}) J_i$$

Constrained Problems

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- Minimize the cost function f(X) w.r.t. a set of constraints
- Two approaches
 - Lagrange Multipliers: instead of minimizing f(X), minimize $f(X) + \lambda c(X)$
 - Reduce the Problem: Eliminate some of the variables by substitution and optimize over the rest.

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Implementation Tricks

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- Exploit the structure of the problem: Use Similarity/Affine whenever possible
- Use Factorization of the matrices: Instead of computing inverse of matrices, use matrix decomposition techniques

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- Use local parametrization
- Use variable scaling (like in Newton-like methods)

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- Use local parametrization
- Use variable scaling (like in Newton-like methods)

Network Structure



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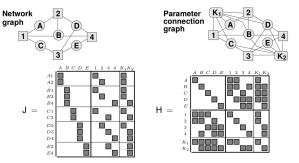
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- Structure of the problem
- Sparsity
- Relation between parameters

Experimental and Implementation Remarks

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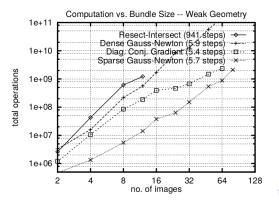
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- Take advantage of Matrix Decomposition techniques to speed up computation
- Take advantage of the sparsity of the problem
- Improve the first order methods (gradient descent) by applying multiple modifications



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Thank you for your attention

I will post the slides to my homepage at http://vision.cs.arizona.edu/ariyanzarei/

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