

# Optimization - 1

CMSC828D  
Fundamentals of Computer Vision

## Outline - I

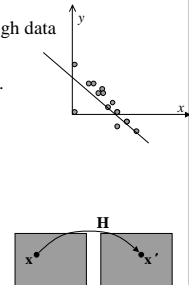
- Algebraic distance
  - Definition
  - Problems
  - Scaling and Normalization
- Different ways of computing the Cost function
  - Errors in both coordinates
  - Transfer Error and Reprojection Error
- “Physics/Geometry” based distances
  - General Examples
  - Examples in Vision
- Constraints
  - Equality constraints
    - Lagrange multipliers and Penalty function methods
  - Inequality Constraints

## Outline - II

- Other Metrics
  - Riemann Lebesgue lemma
  - Sobolev norms
- Statistical Cost Functions
  - Mahalanobis distance
  - Maximum Likelihood (ML), Expectation Maximization (EM) and Maximum a Posteriori (MAP)
- Robust Estimation
  - Outliers and Inliers
  - Median Estimators
  - RANSAC

## Typical Optimization Problems

- Model fitting
  - Fit a straight line or polynomial through data
 
$$y_i = \sum_j a_j x_i^j$$
  - Fit a sum of cosines, exponentials etc.
 
$$y_i = \sum_j a_j \phi_j(x_i)$$
- Determine a transformation
  - Determine a homography matrix
 
$$\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}$$
  - Determine the fundamental matrix
 
$$\mathbf{x}'^t \mathbf{F} \mathbf{x} = 0$$



## Least Squares

- Look for a solution to a linear system of equations
 
$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$$
- Number of equations and unknowns need not match
- Look for solution by minimizing  $\|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{b}\|$ 
  - minimize the distance between the vectors  $\mathbf{Ax}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$
- Differentiate  $(A_{ij}x_j - b_i) \cdot (A_{ik}x_k - b_i)$  with respect to  $x_l$
- Recall  $\frac{\partial x_i}{\partial x_i} = \delta_{ii}$ 

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_l} (A_{ij}x_j - b_i) \cdot (A_{ik}x_k - b_i) = 0$$

$$(A_{ij}\delta_{jl}) \cdot (A_{ik}x_k - b_i) + (A_{ij}x_j - b_i) \cdot (A_{il}\delta_{ll}) = 0$$

$$A_{il} \cdot (A_{ik}x_k - b_i) + (A_{ij}x_j - b_i) \cdot A_{il} = 2(A_{il}A_{ik}x_k - A_{il}b_i) = 0$$

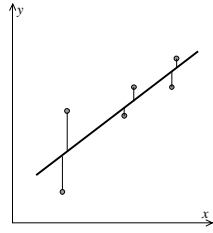
$$A_{il}A_{ik}x_k = A_{il}b_i$$
- Same as the solution of  $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{b}$

## Optimization – Physical Cost Function

- Adjust parameters of a system or model to maximize or minimize something
  - \$, Distance
- Ideally there is a real cost being minimized
  - E.g. Dollars or distance travelled
  - Then each equation makes sense
- Airlines: minimize costs, crew movement and plane takeoffs and landings, subject to regulatory constraints
- Traders: maximize returns for a given level of risk
- Some other physically measurable quantity

## Algebraic Distance

- Algebraic system  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$
- Approximate solution  $\mathbf{x}'$
- Residual  $\|\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{b}\|$
- Residual is also called algebraic distance
- Algorithms that seek to reduce the residual are called “minimum residual” algorithms



## Properties of the Algebraic Distance

- Each row in a linear equation can be multiplied by an arbitrary number

$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

is the same as

$$c(a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n) = cb_1$$

However given an approximate solution  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$

$$a_{11}\tilde{x}_1 + a_{12}\tilde{x}_2 + a_{13}\tilde{x}_3 + \dots + a_{1n}\tilde{x}_n - b_1$$

is not the same as

$$c(a_{11}\tilde{x}_1 + a_{12}\tilde{x}_2 + a_{13}\tilde{x}_3 + \dots + a_{1n}\tilde{x}_n - b_1)$$

## Scaling

- Try to avoid anyone equation being overly represented.
- Scale each equation
  - Scale by largest coefficient so that it becomes 1
$$a_{ij}/a_{i1}$$
  - Scale so that sum of coefficients is 1
$$a_{11}^2 + a_{12}^2 + \dots + a_{1n}^2 = 1$$
- Scaling also has the benefit of avoiding round-off.

## Weighted Least Squares

- Multiplying an equation by a number will increase its **weight** or **influence** in the cost function.
- Not always a bad thing
  - May want to weight different equations differently
- How to select weights?
  - Number of observations
  - Reliability of measurement
    - Measured variances
- How good is the least squares solution? How “probable” are the parameter estimates?
- **Bring in notions of statistics**

## Maximum Likelihood Parameter Estimation

- *likelihood* of the parameters given the data
- Least squares fit is a “maximum likelihood estimator”
- Assume
  - $y_i$  has a measurement error that is normally distributed around true  $y_i - y(x_i)$ .  $\exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y_i - y(x_i)}{\sigma}\right)^2\right]$ .
  - Assume errors are independent, and standard deviations  $\sigma$  of all these normal distributions are the same.
  - Then probability that the data set and the model predictions are within  $\Delta y$  the product of that of each other is
$$P \propto \prod_{i=1}^N \left\{ \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y_i - y(x_i)}{\sigma}\right)^2\right] \Delta y \right\}$$
- Maximize likelihood that parameters are correct by maximizing  $P$  with respect to model parameters.

## Least Squares = MLE

- Since logarithm is a monotonic increasing function maximum of  $\log P$  is the maximum of  $P$

$$\log P = \left[ \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{[y_i - y(x_i)]^2}{2\sigma^2} \right] - N \log \Delta y$$

- Maximizing  $\log P$  is equivalent to maximizing the least squares criterion  $(y_i - y(x_i))^2$  since the other terms are constants

- What to do when variances are not all the same?

- Maximize the Mahalanobis distance

$$\chi^2 \equiv \sum_{i=1}^N \left( \frac{y_i - y(x_i; a_1 \dots a_M)}{\sigma_i} \right)^2$$

- Here the errors were just assumed to be in the measured  $y$ s

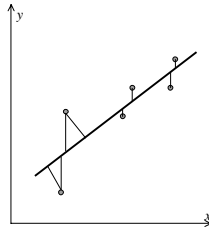
## Errors in both coordinates

- Often in computer vision measurements are made in both images and a relationship between them must be deduced.
- Consider the line fit example again
  - Intuitively distances should be perpendicular to the line
- Perpendicular distance between point  $(x_i, y_i)$  and a line  $y - a - bx = 0$  is

$$d(x_i, y_i; a, b) = \left[ \frac{(y_i - a - bx_i)^2}{1 + b^2} \right]^{1/2}$$

- If  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  are distributed normally with standard deviations  $\sigma_{x_i}$  and  $\sigma_{y_i}$ , we can show that  $\chi^2$  is
 
$$\chi^2(a, b) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(y_i - a - bx_i)^2}{\sigma_{y_i}^2 + b^2 \sigma_{x_i}^2}$$

- Makes the cost function nonlinear in parameters
  - Nonlinear in  $b$ . In general physical error functions are nonlinear.



## Cost functions for image based data

- Notation
  - Measured value of a point  $\tilde{x}$
  - True value of a point  $\mathbf{x}$
  - Estimated value of a point  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$
  - Transformation or model is denoted  $\mathbf{H}$ 
    - Model  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{H}^{-1}(\mathbf{y})$
- Symmetric error functions
  - Case 1: Error only in one image
    - Could arise if we are imaging a calibration pattern with known coordinates and trying to determine camera calibration
  - Appropriate error function is
    - Find  $\mathbf{H}^*$  that minimizes  $\sum_j d(\mathbf{x}_j^-, \mathbf{H}^* \mathbf{x}_j^-)^2$

## Cost functions for image data

- Errors in both images
  - Find  $\mathbf{H}^*$  that minimizes  $\sum_j d(\mathbf{x}_j^-, \mathbf{H}^* \mathbf{x}_j^-)^2 + d(\mathbf{H}^{*-1} \mathbf{x}_j^-, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_j^-)^2$
- Reprojection error
  - Instead of determining parameters of a transformation that minimizes distances on erroneous data, find corrections to the wrong data and find the transformation that maps corrected data.
  - Get estimates  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}^*$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}'^*$  such that
 
$$\sum_j d(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_j^-, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_j'^*)^2 + d(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_j'^*, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_j'^*)^2$$
 subject to  $\mathbf{H}^* \hat{\mathbf{x}}_j'^* = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_j^*$

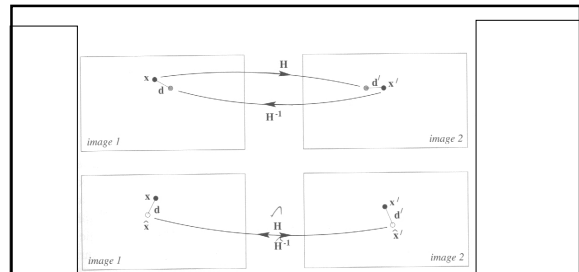


Fig. 3.2. A comparison between symmetric transfer error (upper) and reprojection error (lower) when estimating a homography. The points  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{x}'$  are the measured (noisy) points. Under the estimated homography the points  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}'$  do not correspond perfectly (and neither do the points  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{H}^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{x}}'$ ). However, the estimated points  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}'$  do correspond perfectly by the homography  $\hat{\mathbf{H}} = \mathbf{H}\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ . Using the notation  $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  for the Euclidean image distance between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ , the symmetric transfer error is  $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{H}^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{x}}')^2 + d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{H}\hat{\mathbf{x}})^2$ ; the reprojection error is  $d(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\mathbf{x}})^2 + d(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \hat{\mathbf{x}}')^2$ .

## Optimization Techniques

- Different problem here
  - Given a set of locations  $\mathbf{x}_i$  where one has measured a fitness function  $\chi^2 | f - \mathbf{x}$  find a vector of parameters  $\mathbf{x}$  that minimizes it
- For the case where the function was linear we already have methods such as SVD to solve the linear system
- Here we are concerned with systems where the equation is not so simple
  - In particular  $f$  may be a nonlinear function of parameters  $\mathbf{x}$
- Differential calculus provides us with ways of estimating extrema
  - The minimum  $\leftarrow \max \leftarrow$  of  $f$  occurs at  $\nabla f | \mathbf{x}$  or
  - $\nabla f$  is in the direction of increasing  $f$  or
  - Given an interval  $\nabla f$  has opposite signs at the boundary there must be a point inside where  $\nabla f$  must be zero
- However calculus is local
  - So these methods can only guarantee a local extremum

## Bisection methods

- Given a function  $f$  at three points  $a, b, c$  with  $[a < b < c]$ , and a way to evaluate  $f$  at a new point
  - Given 2 initial guesses  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , if  $f(a) > f(b)$  move in the direction  $a$  to  $b$  and choose a new parameter  $c$ .
  - Find a triplet  $[a, b, c]$  so that  $f(c) > f(b)$  and  $f(a) > f(b)$
  - Choose a new point between  $a$  and  $b$  or  $b$  and  $c$
  - Repeat until the points  $a, b$  and  $c$  are sufficiently close

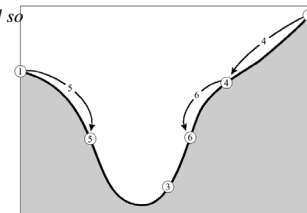


Figure 10.1.1. Successive bracketing of a minimum. The minimum is originally bracketed by points 1, 2. The function is evaluated at 4, which replaces 2; then at 5, which replaces 1; then at 6, which replaces 4. The rule at each stage is to keep a center point that is lower than the two outside points. After the steps shown, the minimum is bracketed by points 5, 6.

## Parabolic bracketing

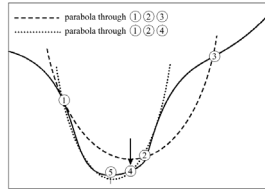


Figure 10.2.1. Convergence to a minimum by inverse parabolic interpolation. A parabola (dashed line) is drawn through the three original points 1,2,3 on the given function (solid line). The function is evaluated at the parabola's minimum, 4, which replaces point 3. A new parabola (dotted line) is drawn through points 1,4,2. The minimum of this parabola is at 5, which is close to the minimum of the function.