

Fitting Models to Data

BMVC 2015 Tutorial

Andrew Fitzgibbon, Microsoft

Finding Nemo: Deformable Object Class Modelling using Curve Matching

Mukta Prasad, Andrew Fitzgibbon, Andrew Zisserman, Luc Van Gool

CVPR '10

KinÊtre: Animating the World with the Human Body

Jiawen Chen, Shahram Izadi, Andrew Fitzgibbon

UIST '12

What shape are dolphins? Building 3D morphable models from 2D images

Tom Cashman, Andrew Fitzgibbon

PAMI '13

User-Specific Hand Modeling from Monocular Depth Sequences

Jonathan Taylor, Richard Stebbing, Varun Ramakrishna, Cem Keskin, Jamie Shotton, Shahram Izadi, Andrew Fitzgibbon, Aaron Hertzmann

CVPR '14

Real-Time Non-Rigid Reconstruction Using an RGB-D Camera

Michael Zollhöfer, Matthias Nießner, Shahram Izadi, Christoph Rhemann, Christopher Zach, Matthew Fisher, Chenglei Wu, Andrew Fitzgibbon, Charles Loop, Christian Theobalt, Marc Stamminger

SIGGRAPH '14

Learning an Efficient Model of Hand Shape Variation from Depth Images

Sameh Khamis, Jonathan Taylor, Jamie Shotton, Cem Keskin, Shahram Izadi, Andrew Fitzgibbon

CVPR '15

Towards Pointless Structure from Motion: 3D reconstruction from 3D curves

Irina Nurutdinova, Andrew Fitzgibbon

ICCV '15

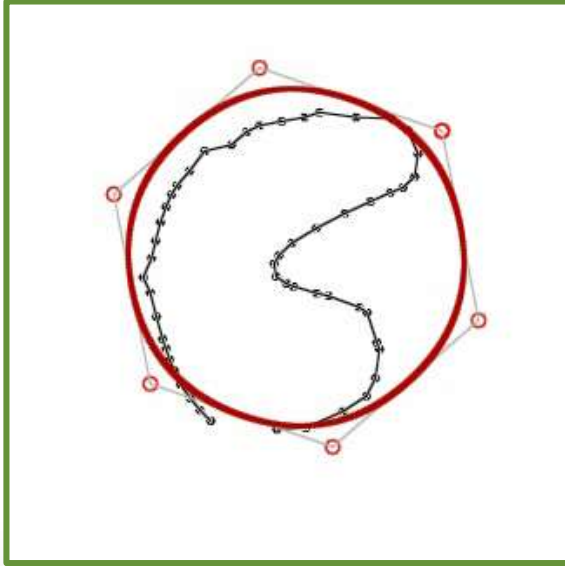
Secrets of Matrix Factorization: Approximations, Numerics and Manifold Optimization

Je Hyeong Hong, Andrew Fitzgibbon

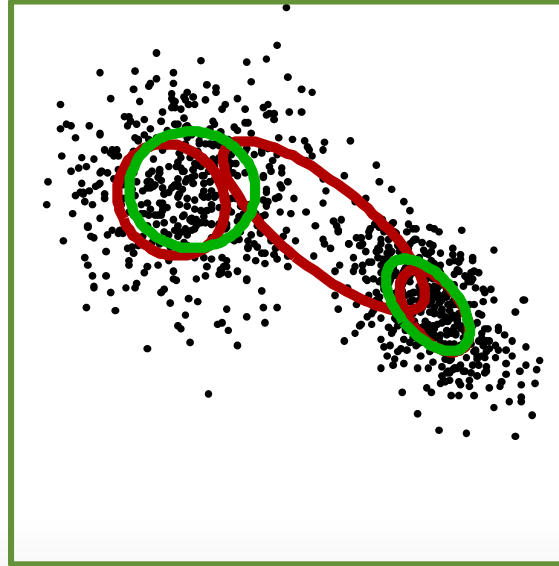
ICCV '15

Goal

LEARN HOW TO SOLVE HARD VISION PROBLEMS,
USING TOOLS THAT MAY APPEAR INELEGANT,
BUT ARE MUCH SMARTER THAN THEY LOOK.



Curve/surface fitting



Parameter estimation



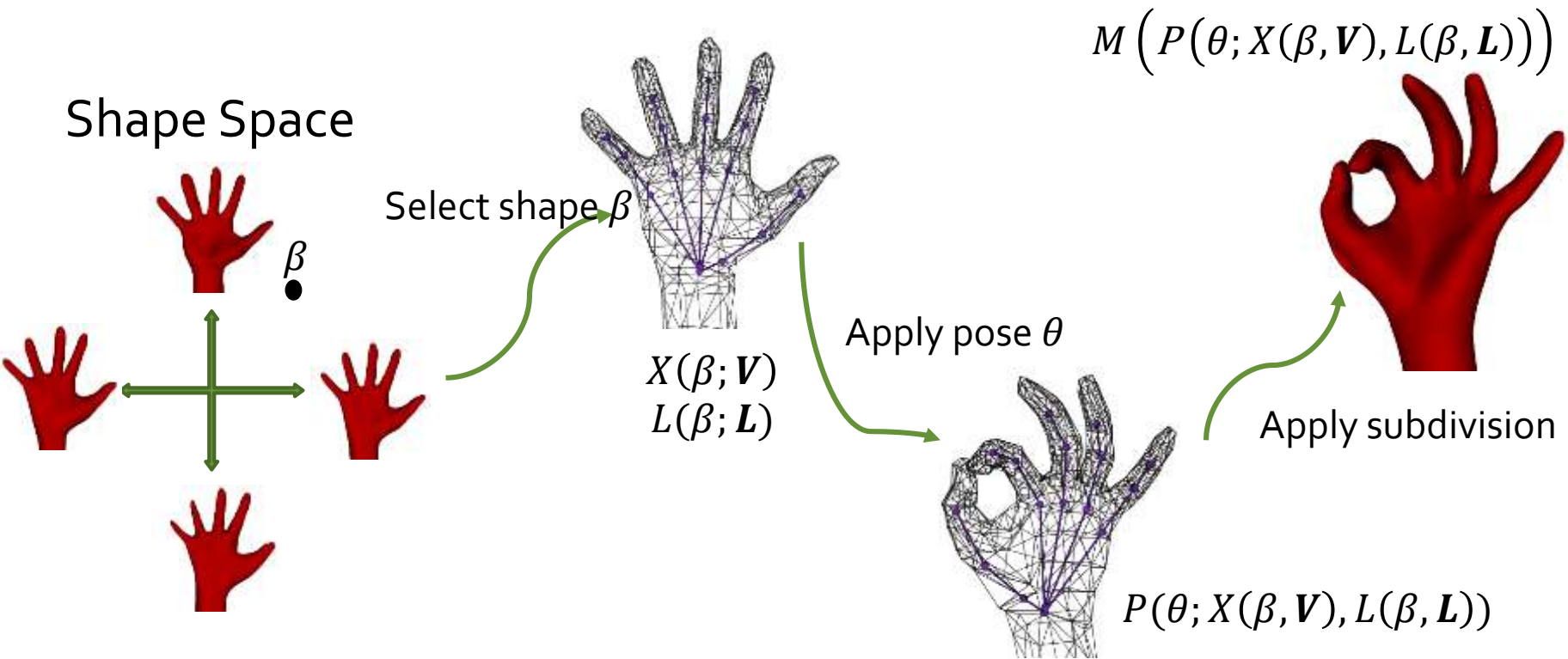
“Bundle adjustment”
(Video from our friends at Google)



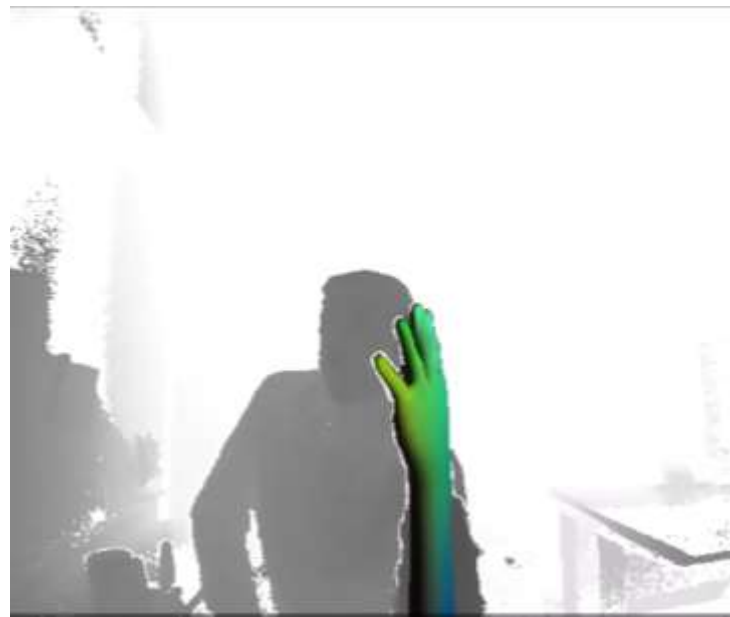
Blanz & Vetter
Siggraph 1999



Anguelov *et al.*
Siggraph 2005



Learning an Efficient Model of Hand Shape Variation from Depth Images
 Khamis et al, CVPR15



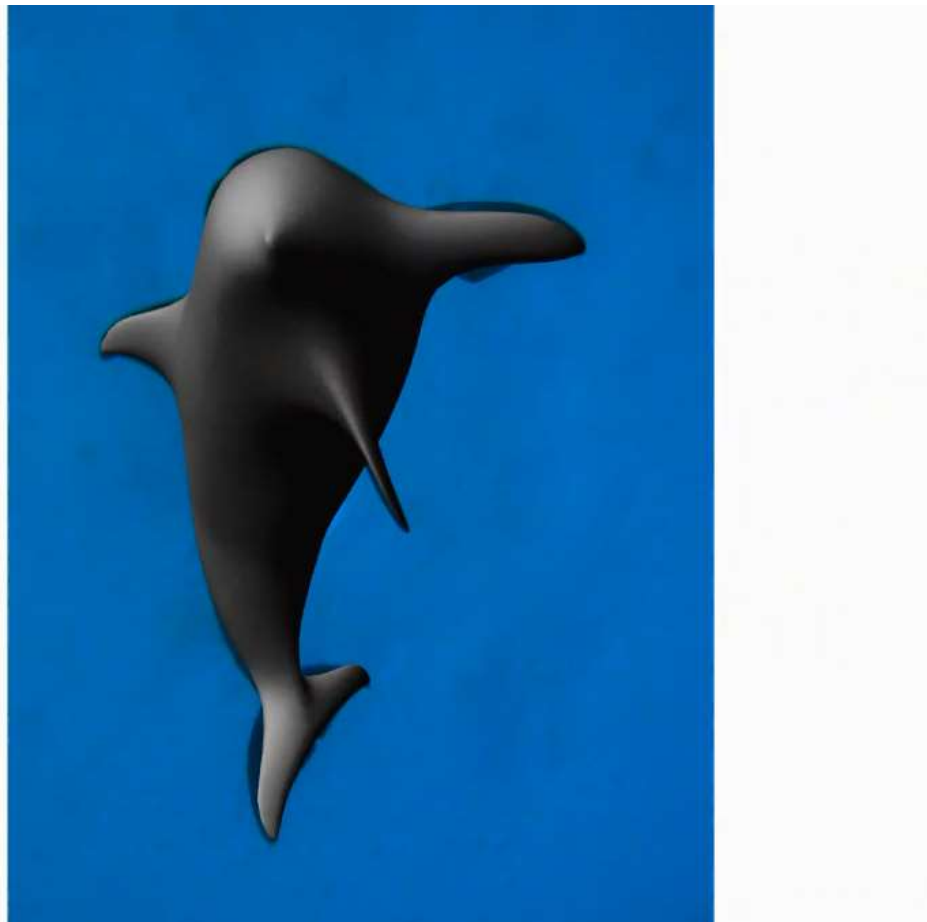
FITTING HAND TO 3D DATA







FITTING SUBDIVISION SURFACES TO 2D DATA



FITTING SUBDIVISION SURFACES TO 2D DATA



FITTING POLYGON MESHES TO VIDEO



Input Kinect Stream



KinectFusion

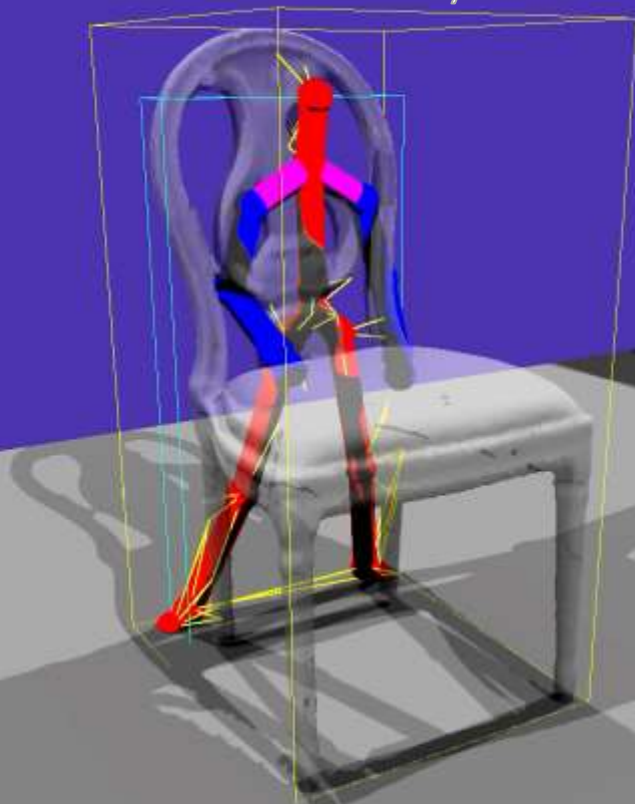


Deformable Fusion

[3D Scanning Deformable Objects with a Single RGBD Sensor, Dou et al, CVPR15]

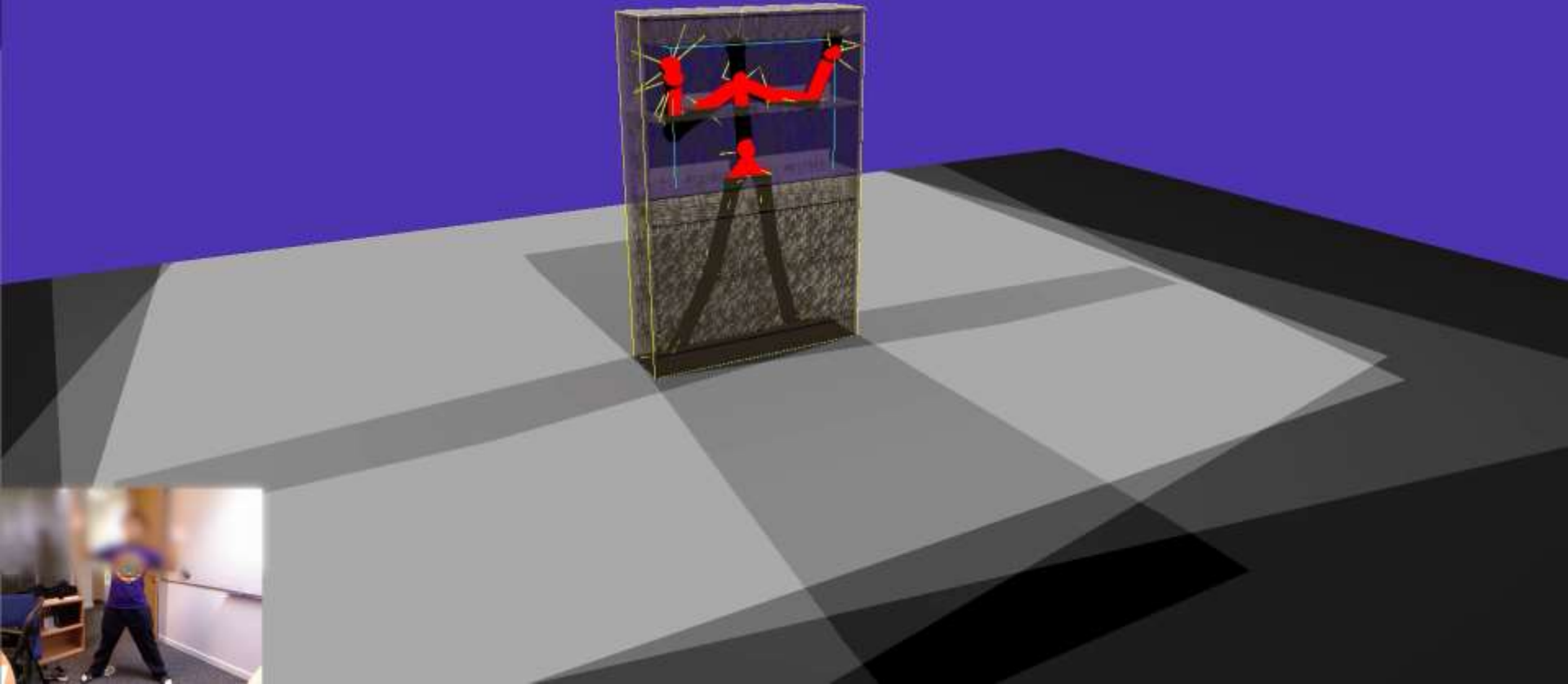
"KinEtre: Animating the World with the Human Body ^"

Chen et al. UIST 2012



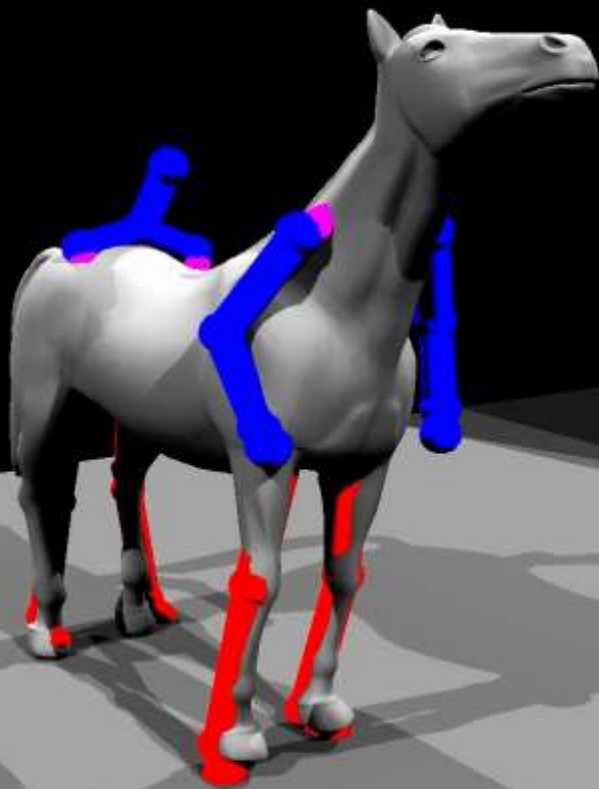
"KinEtre: Animating the World with the Human Body ^"

Chen et al. UIST 2012

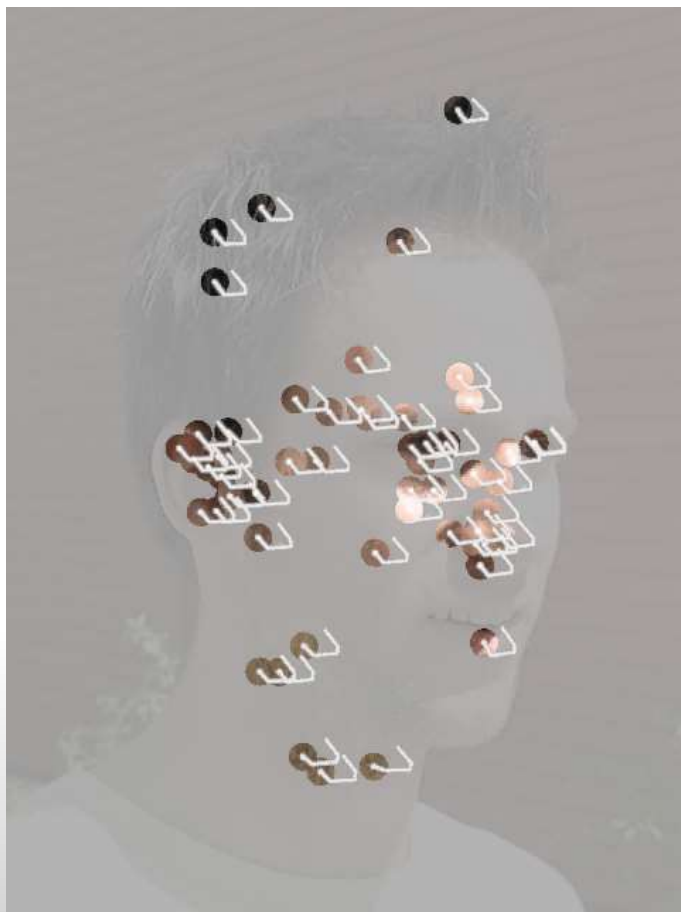


"KinEtre: Animating the World with the Human Body ^"

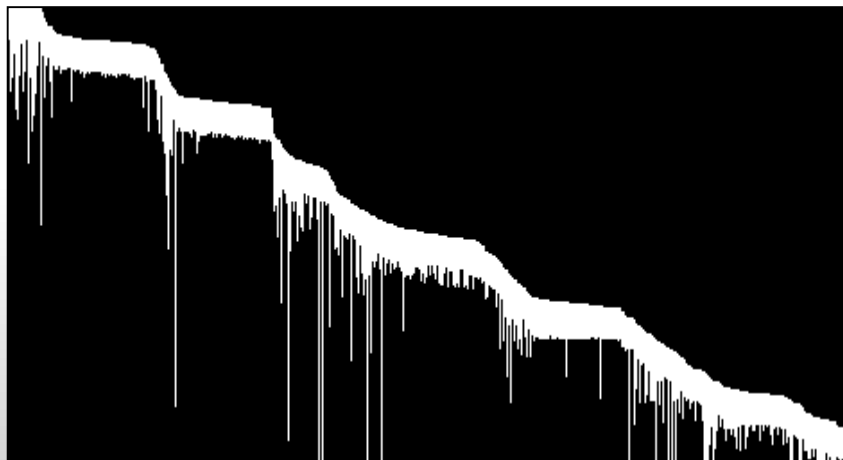
Chen et al. UIST 2012





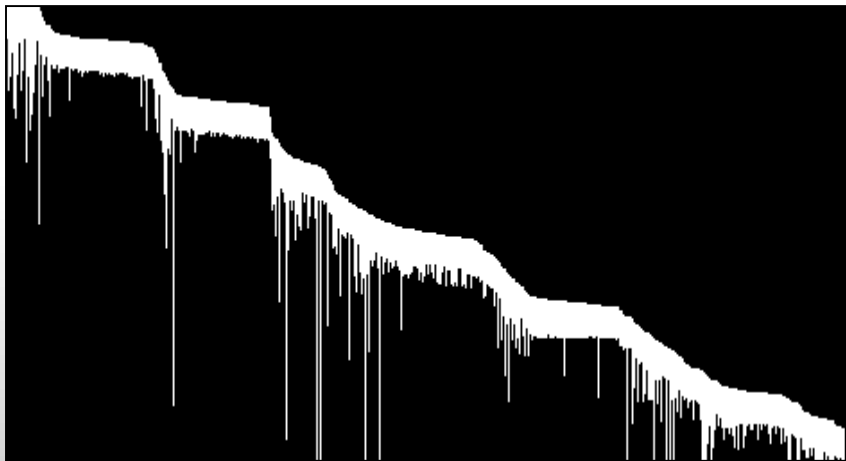


$$\begin{matrix} \leftarrow \text{Time} \\ \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_{11} & \mathbf{w}_{12} & \cdots & \mathbf{w}_{1n} \\ \mathbf{w}_{21} & \mathbf{w}_{22} & \cdots & \mathbf{w}_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}_{T1} & \mathbf{w}_{T2} & \cdots & \mathbf{w}_{Tn} \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$



NONRIGID STRUCTURE FROM MOTION

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_{11} & \mathbf{w}_{12} & \cdots & \mathbf{w}_{1n} \\ \mathbf{w}_{21} & \mathbf{w}_{22} & \cdots & \mathbf{w}_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}_{T1} & \mathbf{w}_{T2} & \cdots & \mathbf{w}_{Tn} \end{bmatrix}$$



- **Affine rigid:** linear embedding into \mathbb{R}^3 , solved with Wiberg / bundle adjustment
- **Perspective rigid:** (slightly) nonlinear embedding into \mathbb{R}^3 solved with bundle adjustment
- **Nonrigid:** linear embedding into \mathbb{R}^{3K} , [with nonlinear constraints]
- **Kernel nonrigid/Trajectory bases:** nonlinear/basis function embedding into \mathbb{R}^k
- **Unwrap mosaic:** nonlinear embedding into \mathbb{R}^2

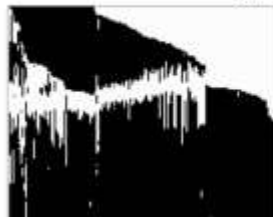


“UNWRAP MOSAICS”





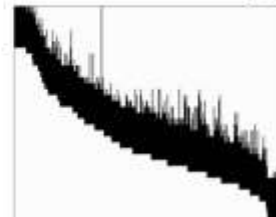
240×167
30% missing



20×2944
42% missing



72×319
72% missing



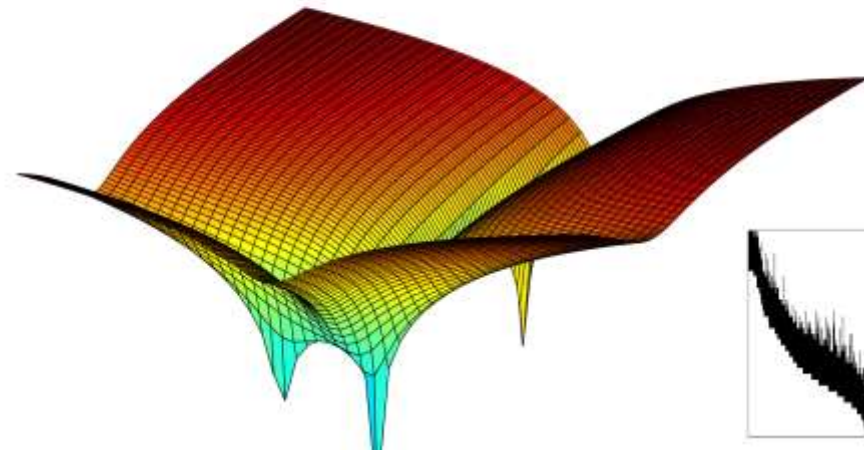
Task: Given noisy observation \mathbf{M} , and weight matrix \mathbf{W} , compute

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}} \|\mathbf{W} \odot (\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{AB}^\top)\|_F^2$$

where $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{P} \odot \mathbf{Q} \Leftrightarrow r_{ij} = p_{ij}q_{ij}$.

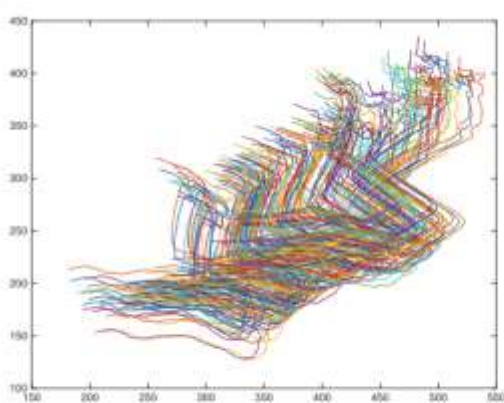
2D slice through $\log \epsilon(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B})$ where

$$\epsilon(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}) := \|\mathbf{W} \odot (\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{AB}^\top)\|_F^2$$

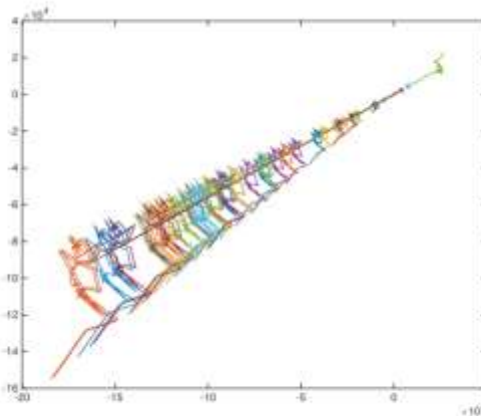


Algorithm	Framework	Manifold retraction
ALS [5]	RW3 (ALS)	None
PowerFactorization [5, 27]	RW3 (ALS)	q -factor
LM-S [8]	Newton + $\langle \text{Damping} \rangle$	orth (replaced by q -factor)
LM-S _{GN} [9, 13]	RW1 (GN) + $\langle \text{Damping} \rangle$ (DRW1 equiv.)	orth (replaced by q -factor)
LM-M [8]	Reduced _r Newton + $\langle \text{Damping} \rangle$	orth (replaced by q -factor)
LM-M _{GN} [8]	Reduced _r RW1 (GN) + $\langle \text{Damping} \rangle$	orth (replaced by q -factor)
Wiberg [18]	RW2 (Approx. GN)	None
Damped Wiberg [19]	RW2 (Approx. GN) + $\langle \text{Projection const.} \rangle_P + \langle \text{Damping} \rangle$	None
CSF [13]	RW2 (Approx. GN) + $\langle \text{Damping} \rangle$ (DRW2 equiv.)	q -factor
RTRMC [4]	Projected _p Newton + $\langle \text{Regularization} \rangle + \langle \text{Trust Region} \rangle$	q -factor
LM-S _{RW2}	RW2 (Approx. GN) + $\langle \text{Damping} \rangle$ (DRW2 equiv.)	q -factor
LM-M _{RW2}	Reduced _r RW2 (Approx. GN) + $\langle \text{Damping} \rangle$	q -factor
DRW1	RW1 (GN) + $\langle \text{Damping} \rangle$	q -factor
DRW1P	RW1 (GN) + $\langle \text{Projection const.} \rangle_P + \langle \text{Damping} \rangle$	q -factor
DRW2	RW2 (Approx. GN) + $\langle \text{Damping} \rangle$	q -factor
DRW2P	RW2 (Approx. GN) + $\langle \text{Projection const.} \rangle_P + \langle \text{Damping} \rangle$	q -factor

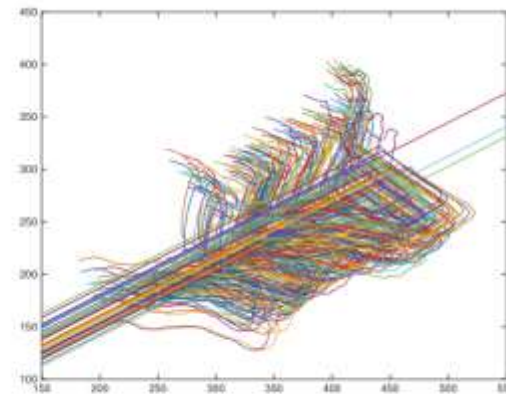
$$\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{H}^* = \mathbf{P}_r^\top (\tilde{\mathbf{V}}^{*\top} (\mathbf{I}_p - [\tilde{\mathbf{U}}\tilde{\mathbf{U}}^\dagger]_{RW2}) \tilde{\mathbf{V}}^* + [\mathbf{K}_{mr}^\top \mathbf{Z}^* (\tilde{\mathbf{U}}^\top \tilde{\mathbf{U}})^{-1} \mathbf{Z}^{*\top} \mathbf{K}_{mr}]_{RW1} \times [-1]_{FN} \\ + [\mathbf{K}_{mr}^\top \mathbf{Z}^* \tilde{\mathbf{U}}^\dagger \tilde{\mathbf{V}}^* \mathbf{P}_p + \mathbf{P}_p \tilde{\mathbf{V}}^{*\top} \tilde{\mathbf{U}}^\dagger \tilde{\mathbf{U}}^\top \mathbf{Z}^{*\top} \mathbf{K}_{mr}]_{FN} + \langle \alpha \mathbf{I}_r \otimes \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^\top \rangle_P + \langle \lambda \mathbf{I}_{mr} \rangle) \mathbf{P}_r$$



(a) Best known minimum (0.3228)



(b) Second best solution (0.3230)



(c) Second best, zoomed to image

Figure 1: Illustration that a solution with function value just .06% above the optimum can have significantly worse extrapolation properties. This is a reconstruction of point trajectories in the standard “Giraffe” sequence. Even when zooming in to eliminate gross outliers (not possible for many reconstruction problems), it is clear that numerous tracks have been incorrectly reconstructed.

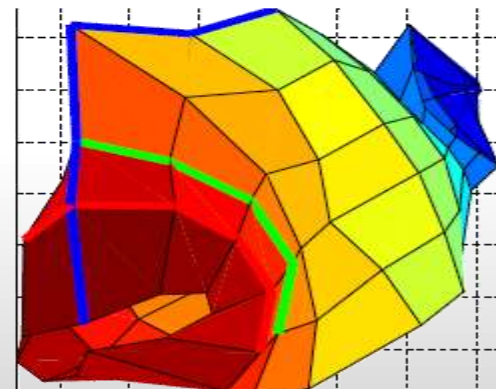
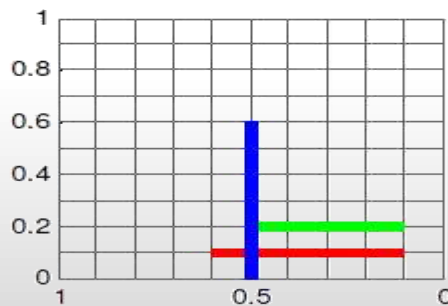
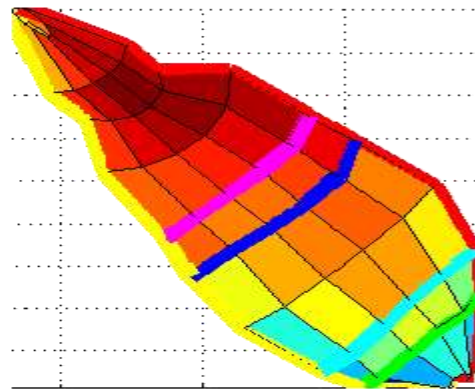
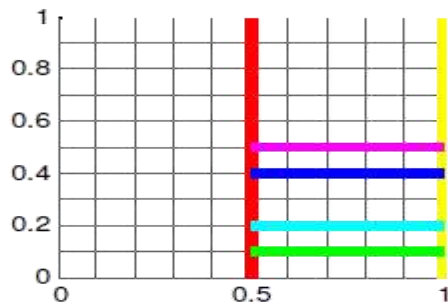
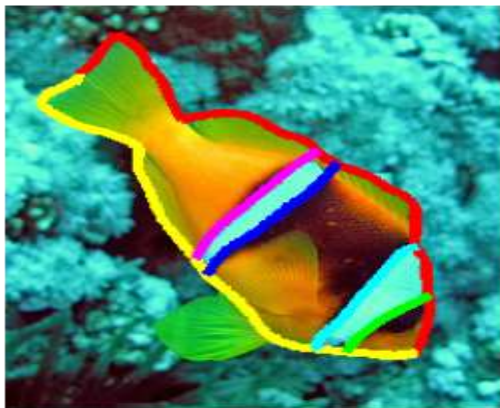
BUT POINTS ARE TOO EASY...

clownfish

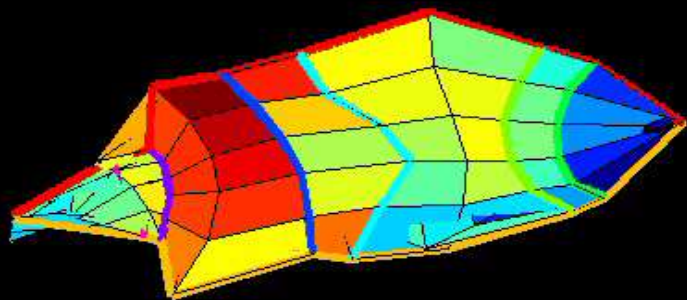




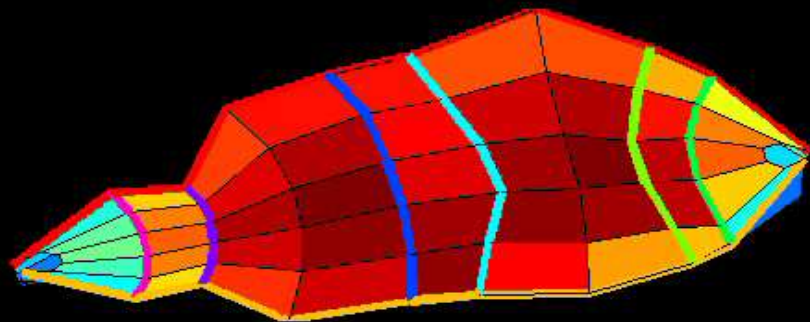
OBJECT CATEGORY MODELS



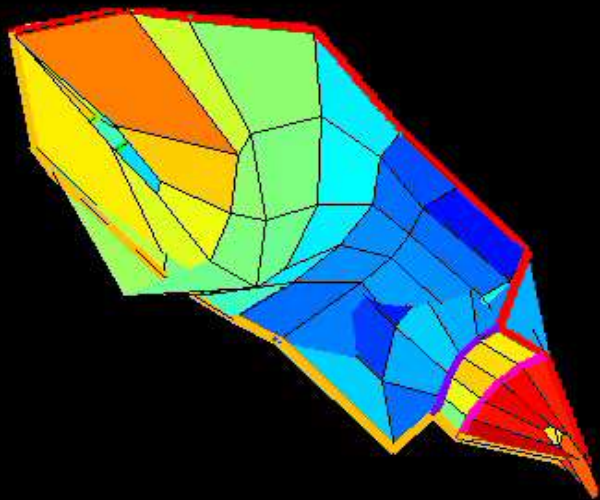
SHAPE FROM CURVES



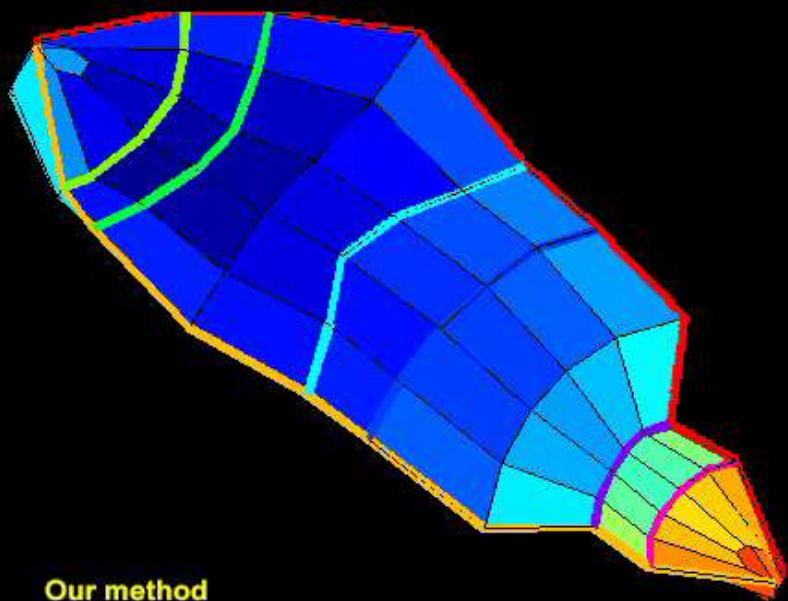
NRSfM



Our method

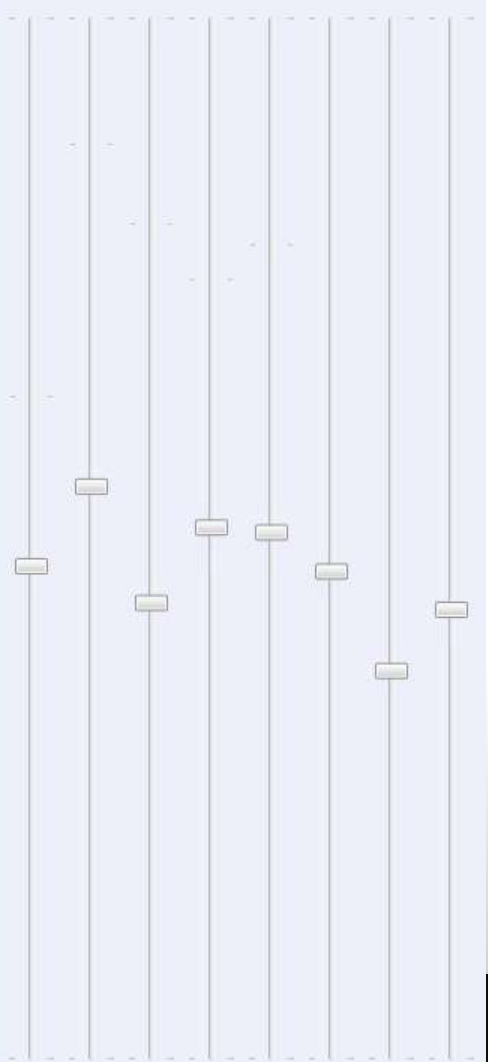
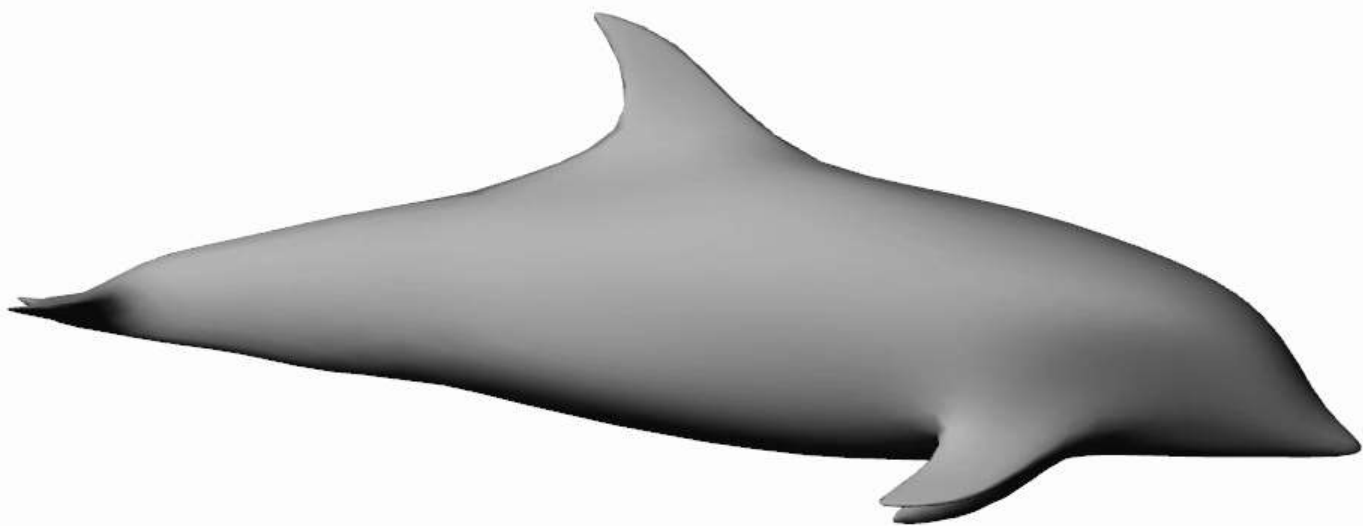


NRSfM



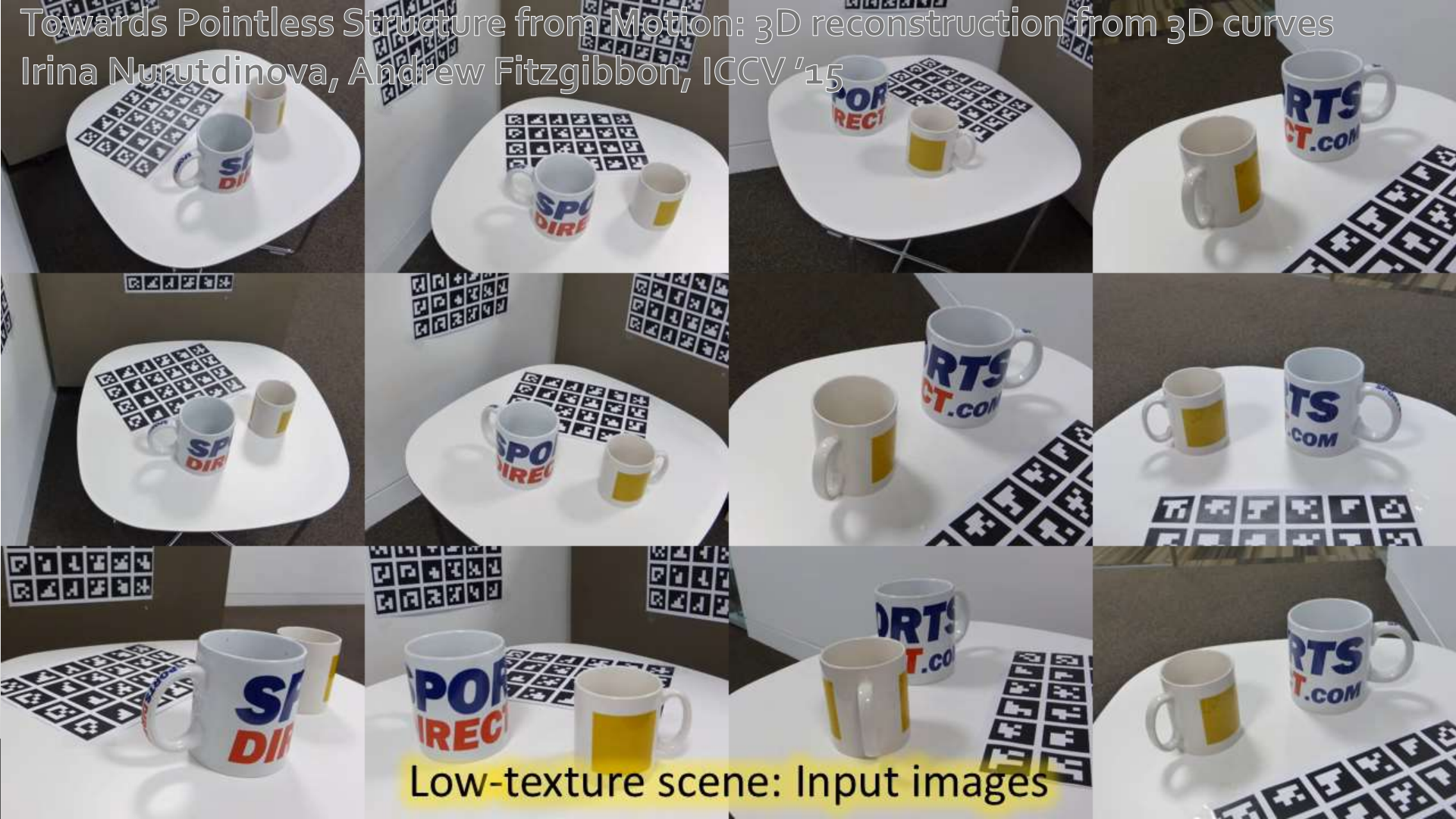
Our method





Towards Pointless Structure from Motion: 3D reconstruction from 3D curves

Irina Nurutdinova, Andrew Fitzgibbon, ICCV '15



Low-texture scene: Input images

Towards Pointless Structure from Motion: 3D reconstruction from 3D curves

Irina Nurutdinova, Andrew Fitzgibbon, ICCV '15



[Zoom]

Dense reconstruction (PMVS) using
cameras estimated from points only



[Zoom]

Dense reconstruction (PMVS) using
cameras estimated from points and curves

- The shape from silhouette problem, even for multiple images of the same structure, was not adequately solved before
- Why?
 1. The discovery of the fundamental matrix and closed form solutions to various geometry problems revolutionized computer vision...
 2. ...and distracted us from easy problems like this one.
- Behind every “closed form” solution (ellipse fitting, F+radial), there’s a perfectly good nonlinear minimization solution you could have used instead
 - unless you are in the extreme speed domain [see Kukelova et al]

Write energy describing the image collection

$$\sum_{f=1}^F E_{\text{data}}(I_f, \boldsymbol{\theta}_f) + E_{\text{reg}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_f, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{core}})$$

Where:

$\boldsymbol{\theta}_f$ are (unknown) parameters of surface model in frame f

$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text{core}}$ are (unknown) parameters of some shape model (e.g. linear combination) and E_{reg} measures distance, e.g. ARAP

And optimize it using Levenberg-Marquardt

- (i.e. any Newton-like algorithm, making maximum use of problem structure)

- So, you can do lots of things by “fitting models to data”.
- How do you do it right?
- Let’s look at some examples.

EXAMPLE: SHAPE FITTING

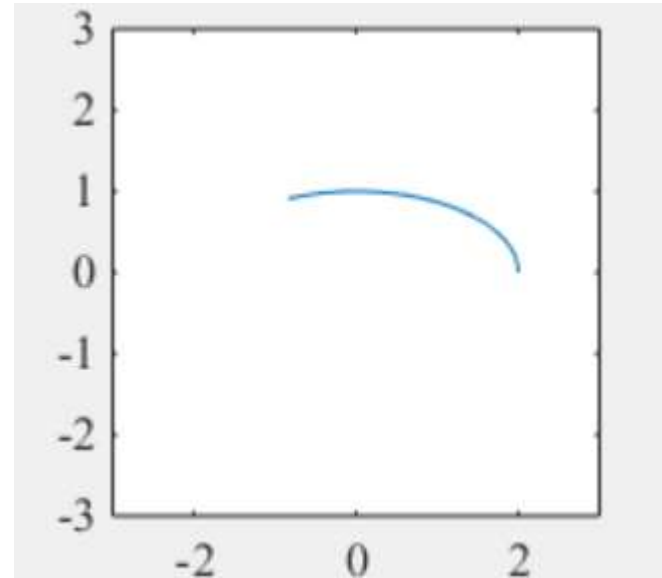
```
t = 0:.01:2;
```

```
plot(cos(t)*2, sin(t));
```



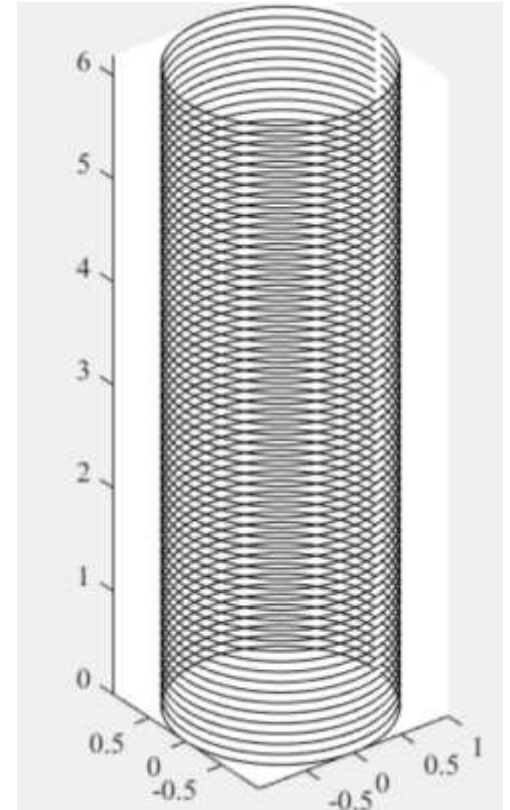
```
t = 0:.01:2;
```

```
plot(cos(t)*2, sin(t));
```



```
>> u = 0:.1:2*pi; v = 0:.1:2*pi;  
>> l = ones(size(v));  
>> u = u'*l;  
>> v = l*v;  
>> plot3(cos(u), sin(u), v, 'k.')
```

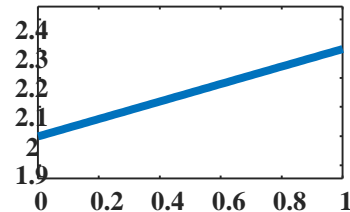
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>> l = ones(size(v));  
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```



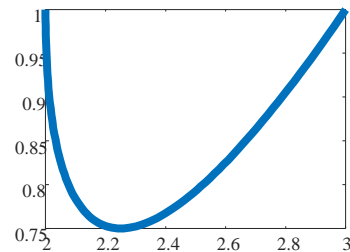
What is a shape?

- Functions
- Curves
- Surfaces

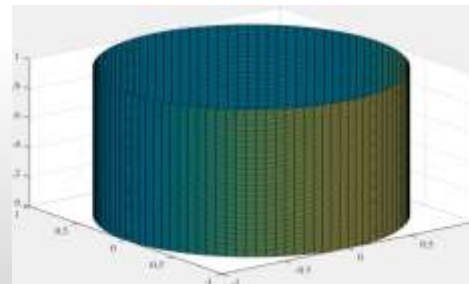
```
function y(x::Real)::Real = .3*x + 2
```



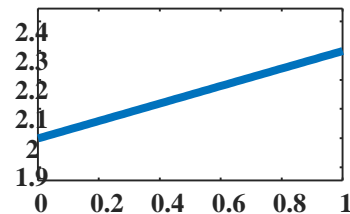
```
function C(t::Real)::Point2D =  
    Point2D(t^2 + 2, t^2 - t + 1)
```



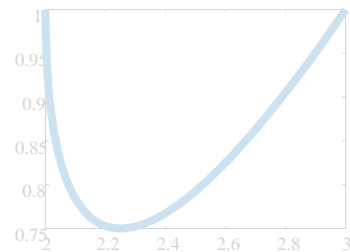
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function S(u::Real, v::Real)::Point3D =  
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```



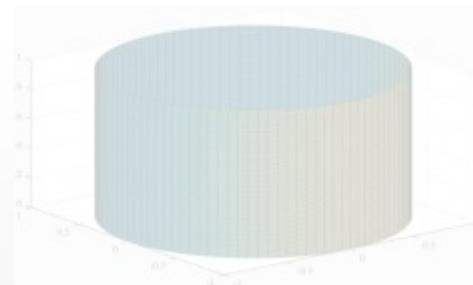
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```

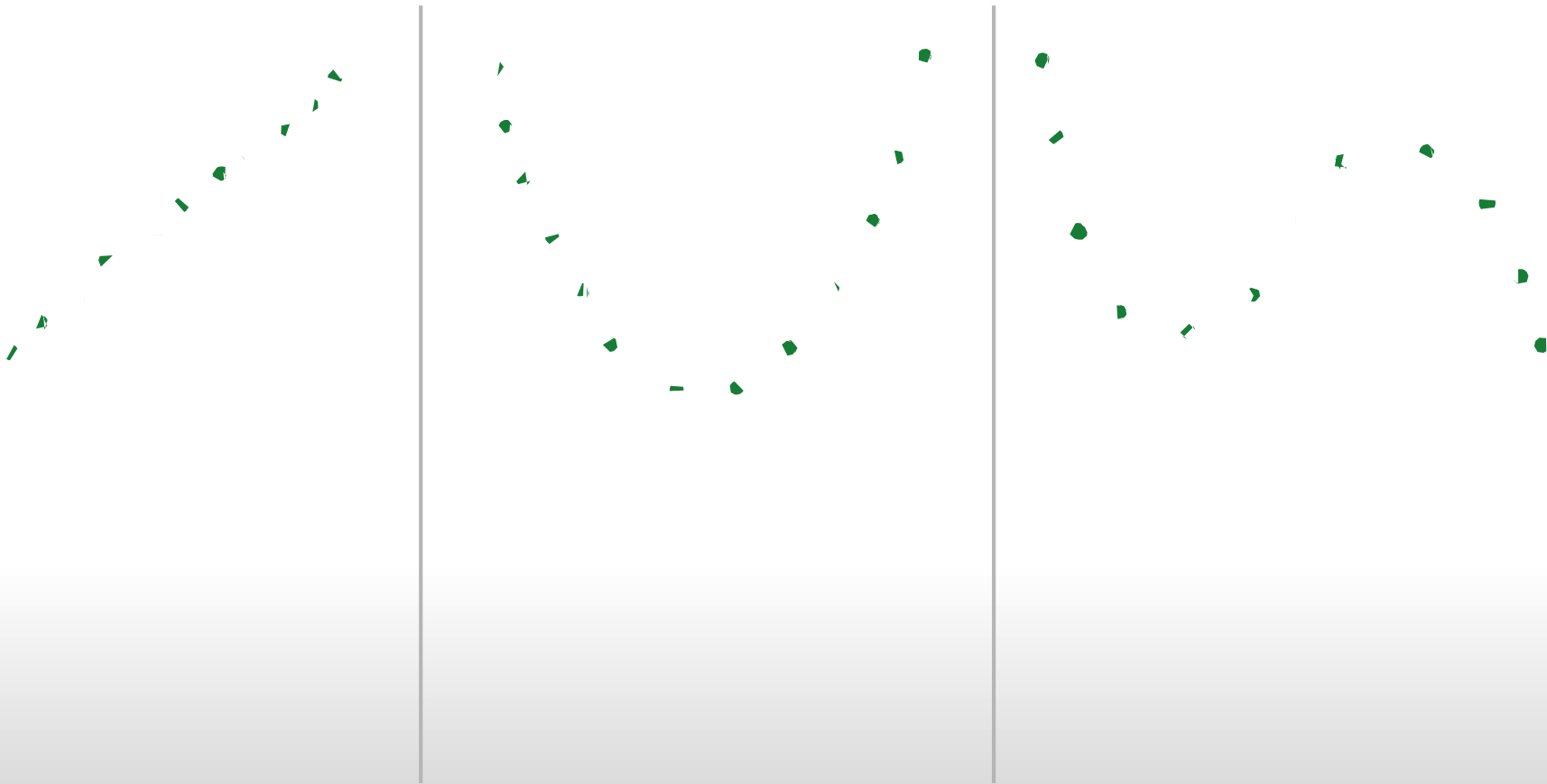


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```



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function S(u::Real, v::Real)::Point3D =  
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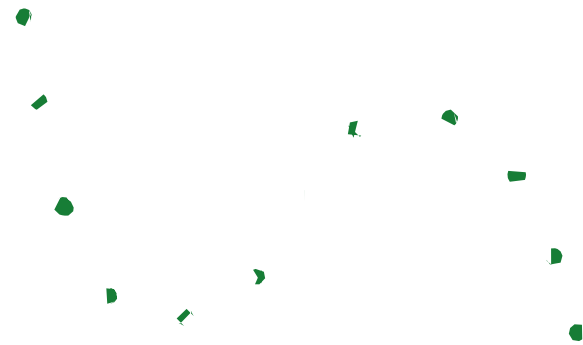
47 SHAPES DESCRIBE DATA



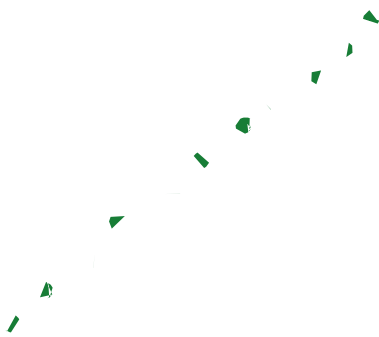
$$y = ax + b$$



$$y = ax^2 + bx + c$$



$$y = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$$



$$y = ax + b$$



$$y = ax^2 + bx + c$$



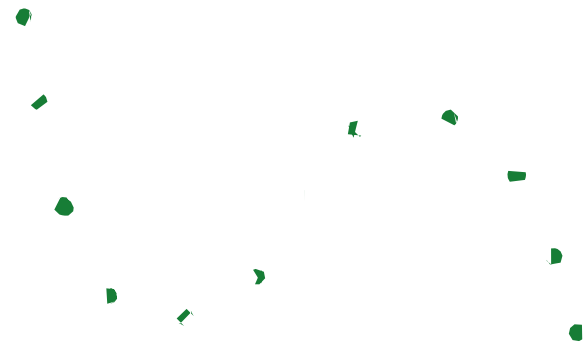
$$y = \sin(x) + ax + b$$



$$y = ax + b$$

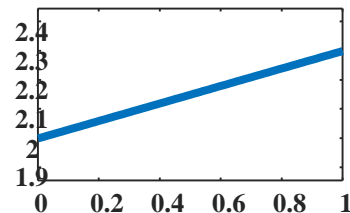


$$y = ax^2 + bx + c$$

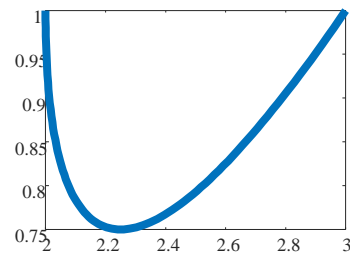


$$y = \begin{cases} \text{if } x < a \\ (x - b)^2 + c \\ \text{else} \\ -(x - d)^2 + e \end{cases}$$

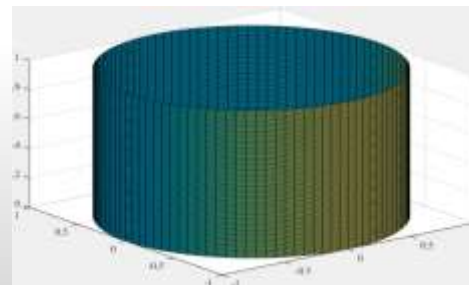
```
function y(x::Real)::Real = .3*x + 2
```



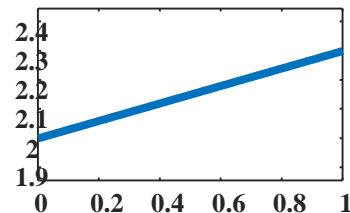
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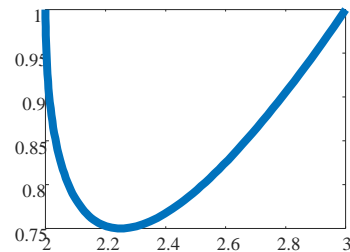
```
function S(u::Real, v::Real)::Point3D =  
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```



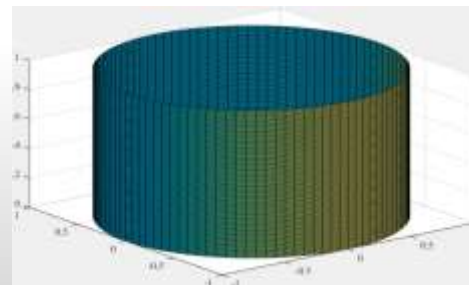
```
function y(x::Interval)::Real = .3*x + 2
```



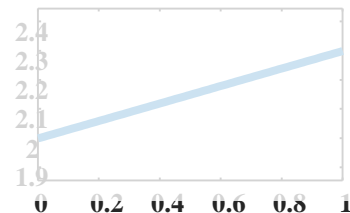
```
function C(t::Interval)::Point2D =  
    Point2D(t^2 + 2, t^2 - t + 1)
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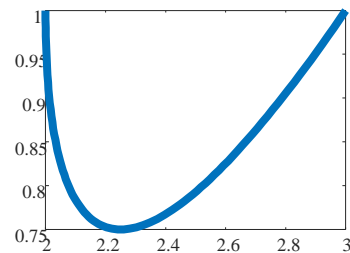
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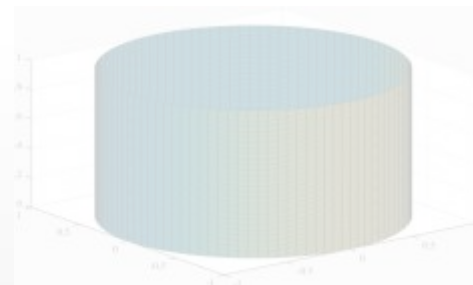
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function y(x::Interval)::Real = .3*x + 2
```



```
function C(t::Interval)::Point2D =  
    Point2D(t^2 + 2, t^2 - t + 1)
```



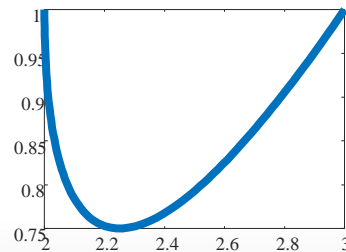
```
function S(u::Interval, v::Real)::Point3D =  
    Point3D(cos(u), sin(u), v)
```



```
abstract Curve {  
    method eval(t::Interval)::Point2D  
};
```

```
abstract Curve {  
    method eval(t::Interval)::Point2D  
};
```

```
type Conic < Curve {  
    eval(t) =  
        Point2D(t^2 + 2, t^2 - t + 1)  
};
```



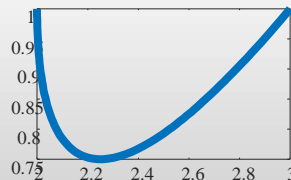

```

abstract Curve {
    method eval(t::Interval)::Point2D
};

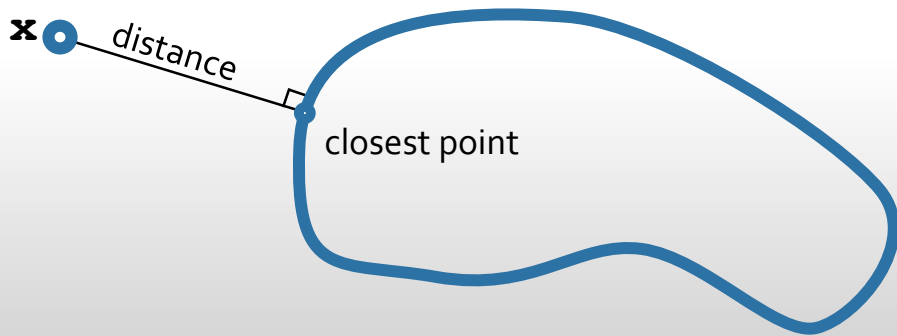
type Conic < Curve {
     $\theta$ ::Real[]; // Shape parameters
    eval(t) =
        Point2D(  $\theta[0]*t^2 + \theta[1]*t + \theta[2]$ ,
                   $\theta[3]*t^2 + \theta[4]*t + \theta[5]$  )
};

Conic([1,0,2,1,-1,1])

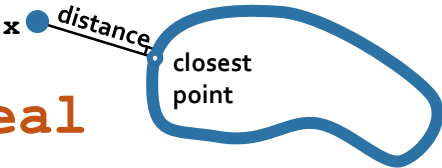
```



```
abstract Curve {  
    method eval(t :: Interval) :: Point2D  
  
    method distance(x :: Point2D) :: Real  
    method closest_point(x :: Point2D) :: Point2D  
};
```



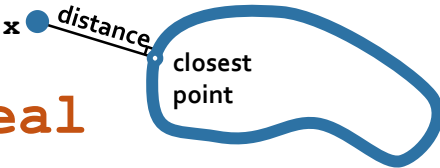
```
abstract Curve {  
    method eval(t::Interval)::Point2D  
  
    method distance(x::Point2D)::Real  
    method closest_point(x::Point2D)::Point2D  
};
```



A diagram illustrating the concept of distance from a point to a curve. A point labeled 'x' is shown to the left of a blue, irregular closed curve. A line segment connects 'x' to the curve, labeled 'distance'. The point on the curve is labeled 'closest point'.

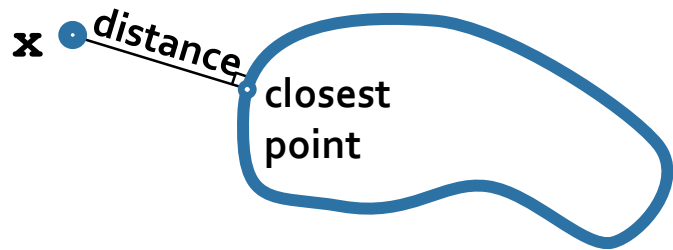
```
distance(x) = norm(x - this.closest_point(x))
```

```
abstract Curve {  
  method eval(t :: Interval) :: Point2D  
  
  method distance(x :: Point2D) :: Real  
  method closest_point(x :: Point2D) :: Point2D  
};
```



```
distance(x) =  
  minimize( $\lambda$ (t) norm(this.eval(t) - x), 0.0)
```

```
abstract Curve {  
    method eval(t::Interval)::Point2D  
    method distance(x::Point2D)::Real  
    ...  
}
```



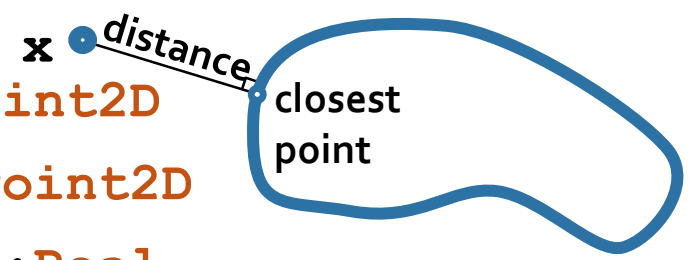
```
function f(t) = norm(this.eval(t) - x)^2  
distance(x) = minimize(f, Interval::Min)
```

```
function minimize(f, t)  
    while not converged  
        t -=  $\alpha$  * f'(t) // Compute derivative
```

```

abstract Curve {
  method eval (t :: Interval) :: Point2D
  method eval' (t :: Interval) :: Point2D
  method distance (x :: Point2D) :: Real
  method closest_point (x :: Point2D) :: Point2D
};

```



A diagram illustrating the concept of distance from a point x to a curve. A blue dot labeled x is shown above a blue curve. A line segment labeled "distance" connects x to a point on the curve. This point on the curve is labeled "closest point" and is enclosed in a blue hand-drawn oval.

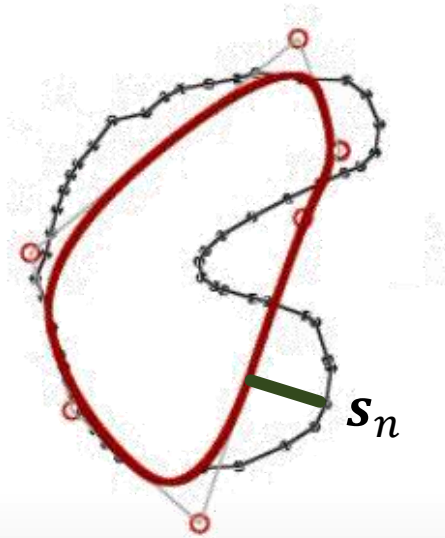
$$\begin{aligned}
 y &= \text{if } t < a \\
 &\quad (t - b)^2 + c \\
 &\text{else} \\
 &\quad f(t - d)^2 + e
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 y' &= \text{if } t < a \\
 &\quad 2(t - b) \\
 &\text{else} \\
 &\quad 2f(t - d)
 \end{aligned}$$

Shape, meet thy data

Sum-of-min problems

$$\min_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^N C(\theta). \text{closest_point}(\mathbf{s}_n)$$

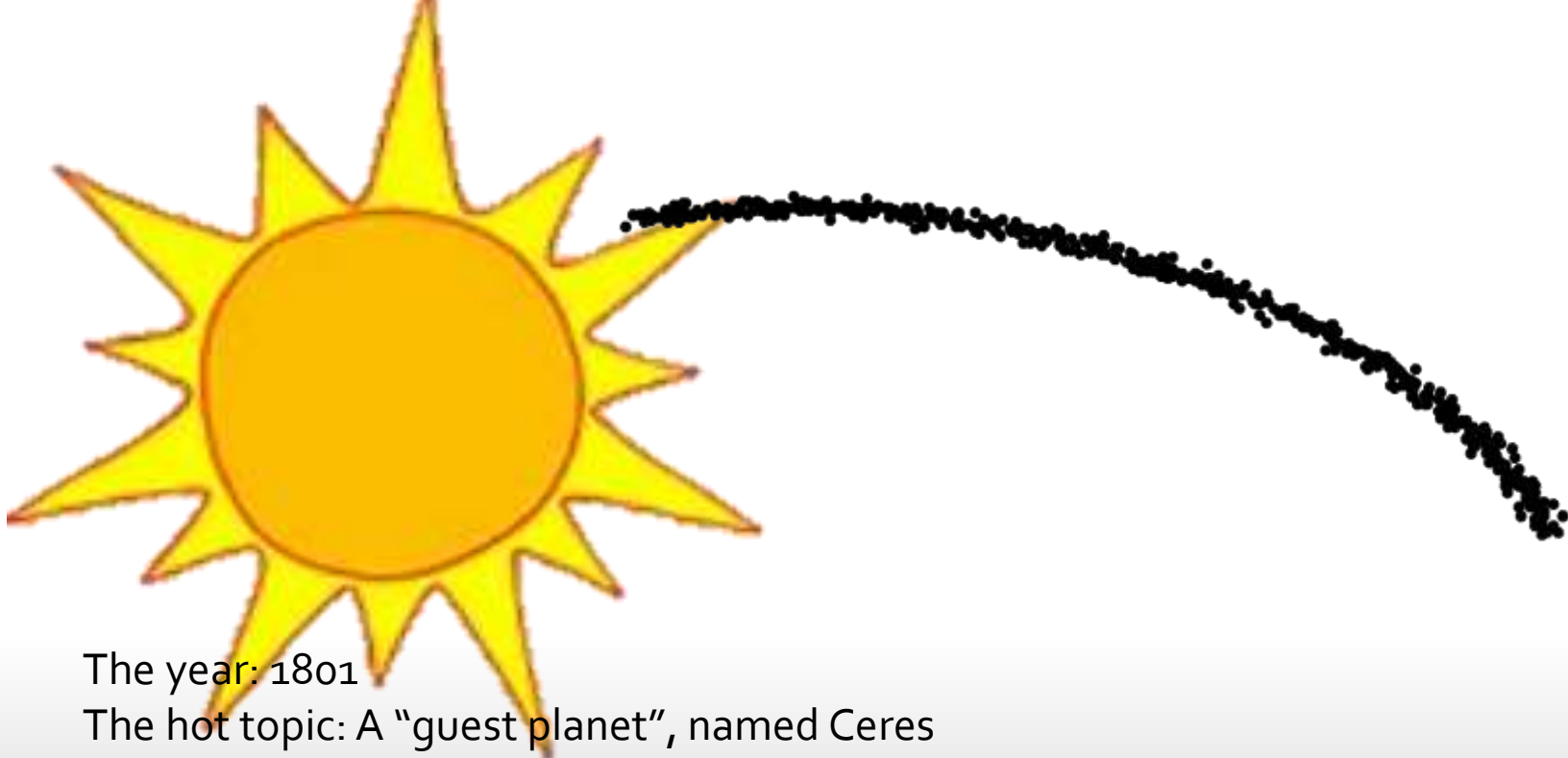


AN EXEMPLARY PROBLEM

“Based on a true story”, not necessarily historically accurate

Note well: this problem is a good proxy for much more realistic problems:

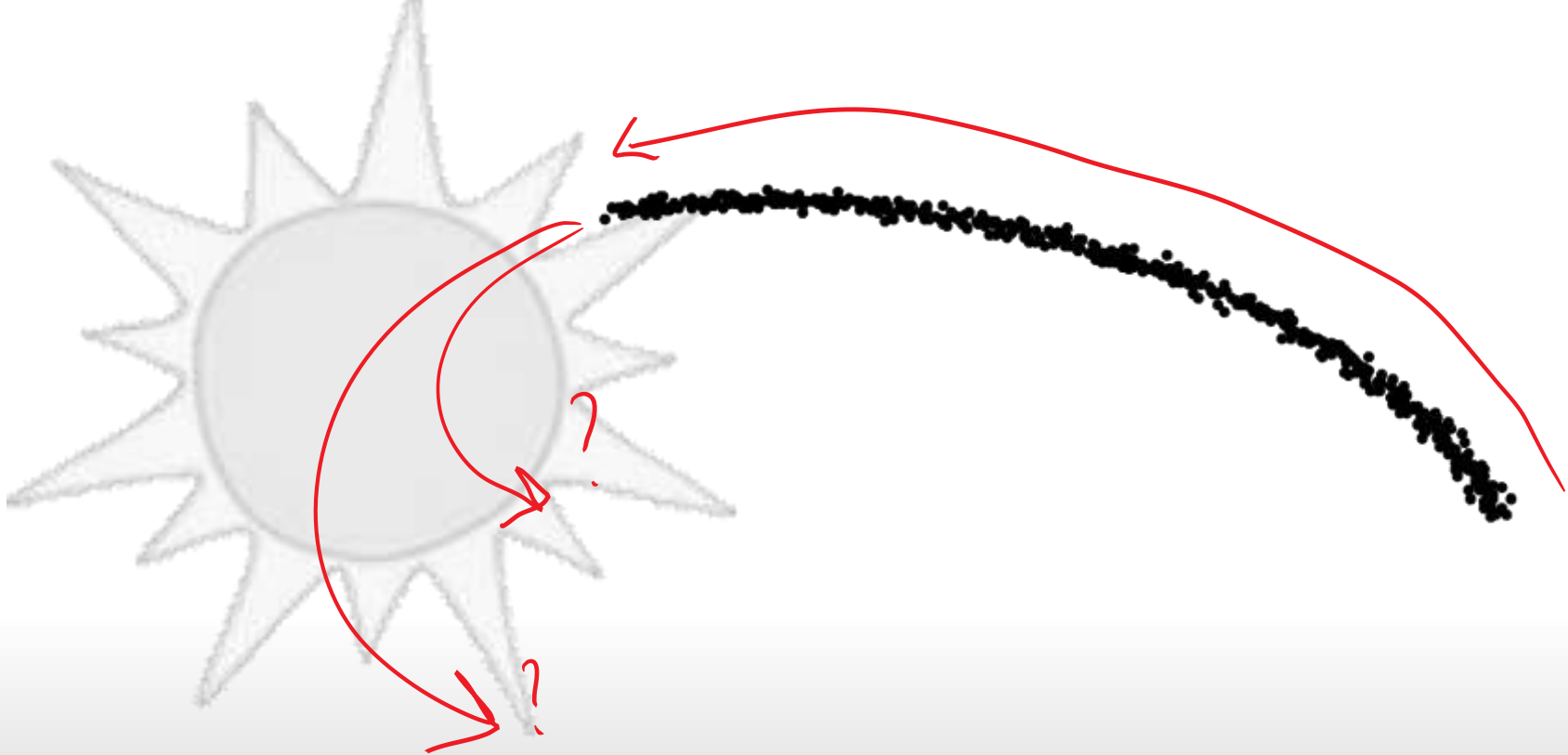
1. Stereo camera calibration
2. Multiple-camera bundle adjustment
3. Surface fitting, e.g. subdivision surfaces to range data, realtime hand tracking
4. Matrix completion
5. Image denoising.



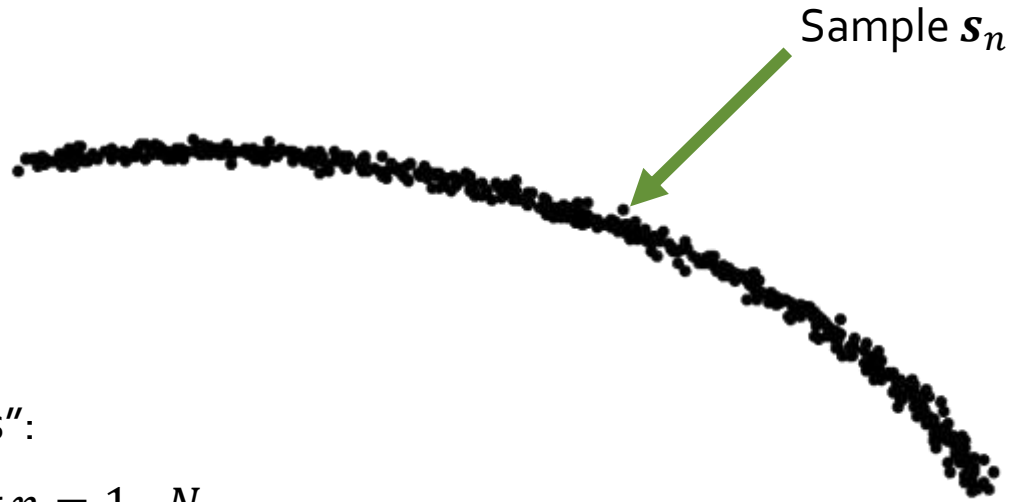
The year: 1801

The hot topic: A “guest planet”, named Ceres

The big question: Where will it reappear?

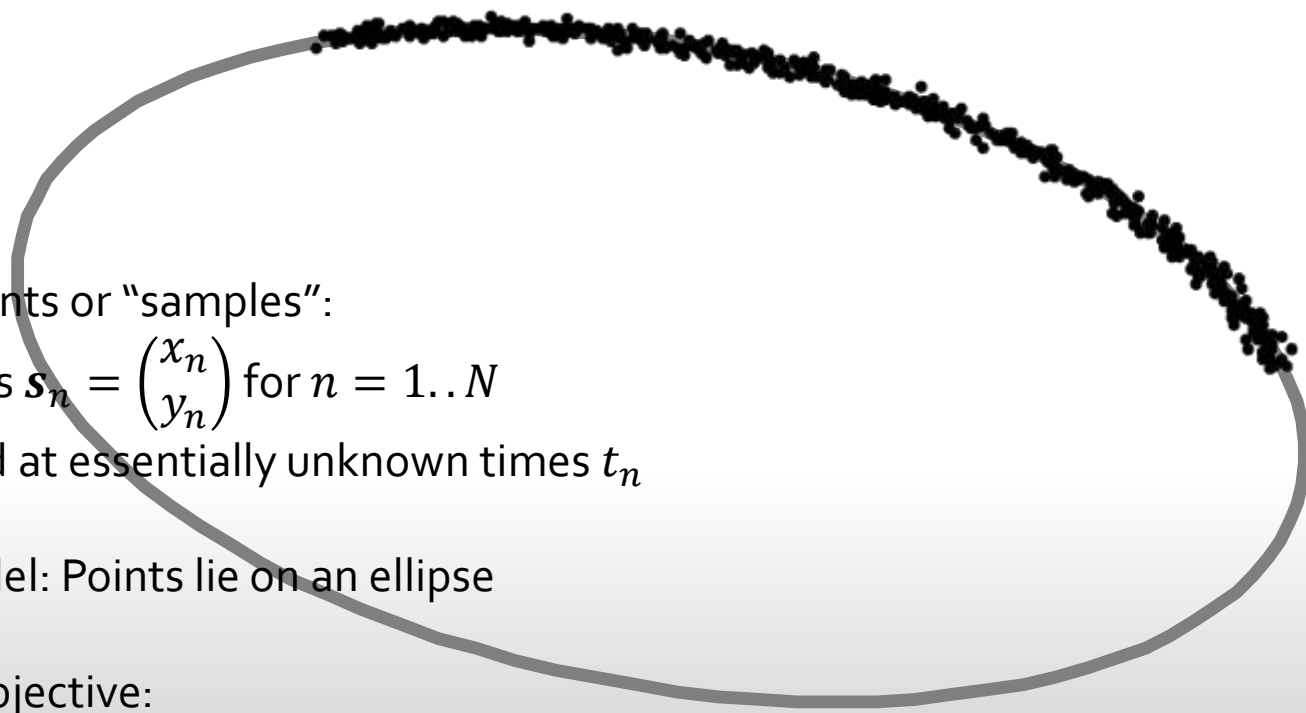


AN EXEMPLARY PROBLEM



Measurements or “samples”:

- 2D points $s_n = \begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$ for $n = 1..N$
- Captured at essentially unknown times t_n



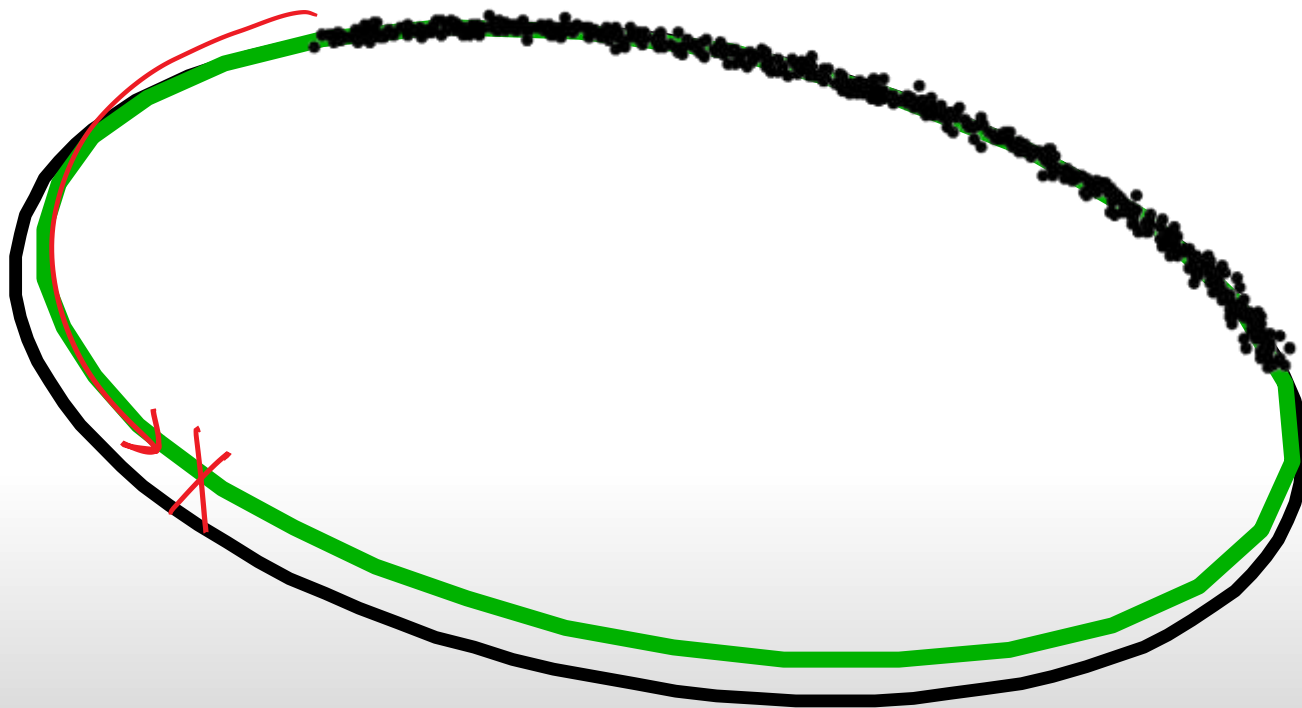
Measurements or “samples”:

- 2D points $\mathbf{s}_n = \begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$ for $n = 1..N$
- Captured at essentially unknown times t_n

Known model: Points lie on an ellipse

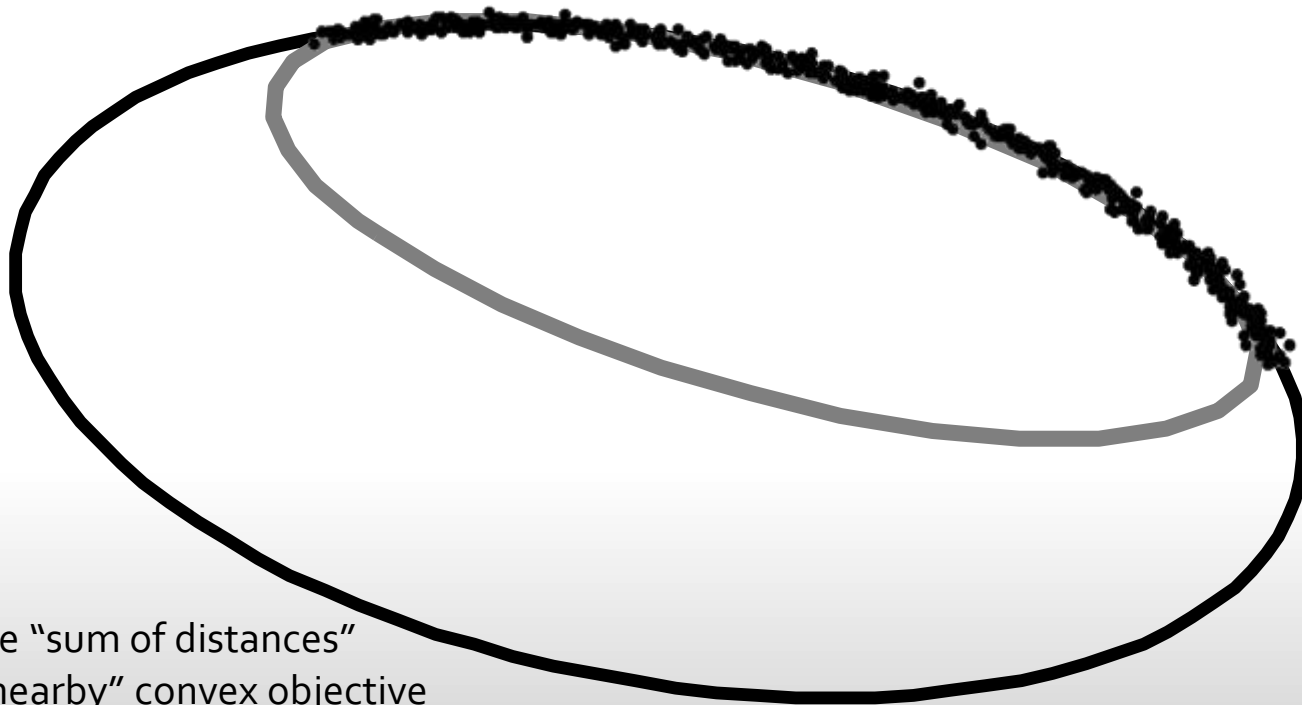
Clear(ish) objective:

Estimate the ellipse parameters, intersect with circle of sun, achieve fame



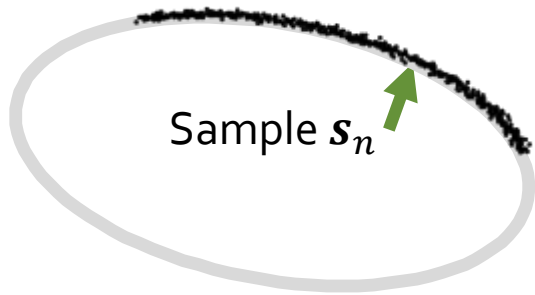
AND ESTIMATING IT WELL GETS US CLOSE...

“Direct least squares fitting of ellipses”
[Fitzgibbon et al, 1999]



Does not minimize “sum of distances”
objective, but a “nearby” convex objective

RUNNING AN OFF-THE-SHELF FITTER DOES NOT.



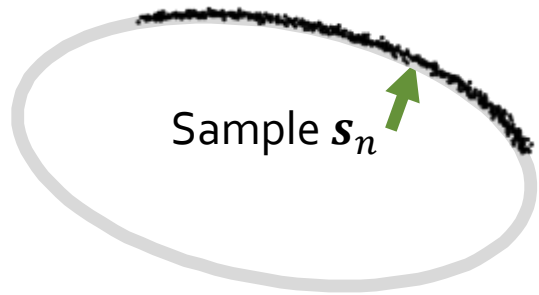
Measurements or “samples”:

- 2D points $s_n = \begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$ for $n = 1..N$
- Captured at unknown times t_n

Known model: Points lie on an ellipse

$$s_n = c(t_n; \theta) + \text{Noise}$$

$$c(t; \theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \cos t + \theta_2 \sin t + \theta_3 \\ \theta_4 \cos t + \theta_5 \sin t + \theta_6 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$\mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \cos t + \theta_2 \sin t + \theta_3 \\ \theta_4 \cos t + \theta_5 \sin t + \theta_6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{s}_n = \mathbf{c}(t_n; \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \text{Noise}$$

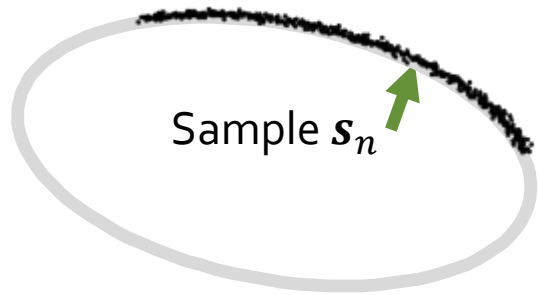
A parametric description

$$\mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \cos t + \theta_2 \sin t + \theta_3 \\ \theta_4 \cos t + \theta_5 \sin t + \theta_6 \end{pmatrix}$$

Defines a **curve** (a set of points in \mathbb{R}^2)

$$\mathcal{C}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \{\mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \mid 0 < t \leq 2\pi\}$$

Potential confusion: curve parameter t and shape parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. This should be ok for this talk.



$$\mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \cos t + \theta_2 \sin t + \theta_3 \\ \theta_4 \cos t + \theta_5 \sin t + \theta_6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{s}_n = \mathbf{c}(t_n; \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \text{Noise}$$

$$C(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \{\mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \mid 0 < t \leq 2\pi\}$$

All our algorithms will start with a guess of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and refine it.

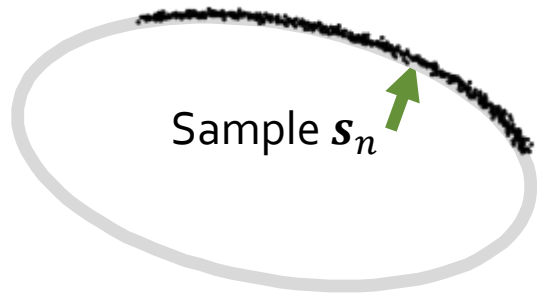
We will often want to think about the *distance* of a sample \mathbf{s} from the curve $C(\boldsymbol{\theta})$.

Often, *closest point* is appropriate.

[Others easily handled too.]

$$D(\mathbf{s}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) := \min_{\mathbf{x} \in C(\boldsymbol{\theta})} \|\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{x}\|^2$$

$$D(\mathbf{s}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) := \min_t \|\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta})\|^2$$



$$\mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \cos t + \theta_2 \sin t + \theta_3 \\ \theta_4 \cos t + \theta_5 \sin t + \theta_6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{s}_n = \mathbf{c}(t_n; \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \text{Noise}$$

$$\mathcal{C}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \{\mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \mid 0 < t \leq 2\pi\}$$

$$D(\mathbf{s}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) := \min_t \|\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta})\|^2$$

Minimize over all ellipses $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* := \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_n D(\mathbf{s}_n, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Just using an off-the-shelf optimizer.

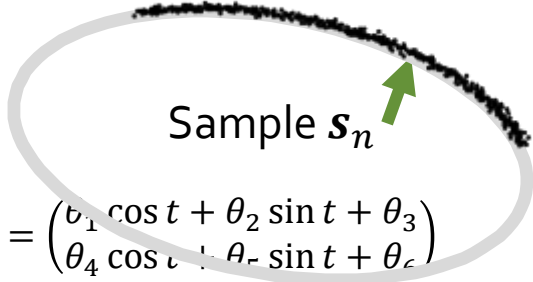
```
% Objective function for fminunc
% Distance of N data samples 'S' to
% curve 'theta'
function err = objective(theta, S)
    err = 0;
    for n=1:size(S,2)
        err = err + D(S(:,n), theta);
    end
end
```

```
% initial estimate 'theta_0'
theta_star = fminunc(@ (theta) objective(theta, S), theta_0);
```

```

% Sample from curve 'theta' at 't'
function out = c(t, theta)
    out = [
        theta(1)*cos(t) + theta(2)*sin(t) + theta(3)
        theta(4)*cos(t) + theta(5)*sin(t) + theta(6)
    ];
end

```



$$c(t; \theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \cos t + \theta_2 \sin t + \theta_3 \\ \theta_4 \cos t + \theta_5 \sin t + \theta_6 \end{pmatrix}$$

```

% Closest point to 's' on curve 'theta'
% Algorithm: discretize t and search.
function d_min = D(s, theta)
    d_min = Inf;
    for t_test = 0:0.01:2*pi
        d = norm(c(t_test, theta) - s);
        d_min = min(d, d_min);
    end
end

```

```

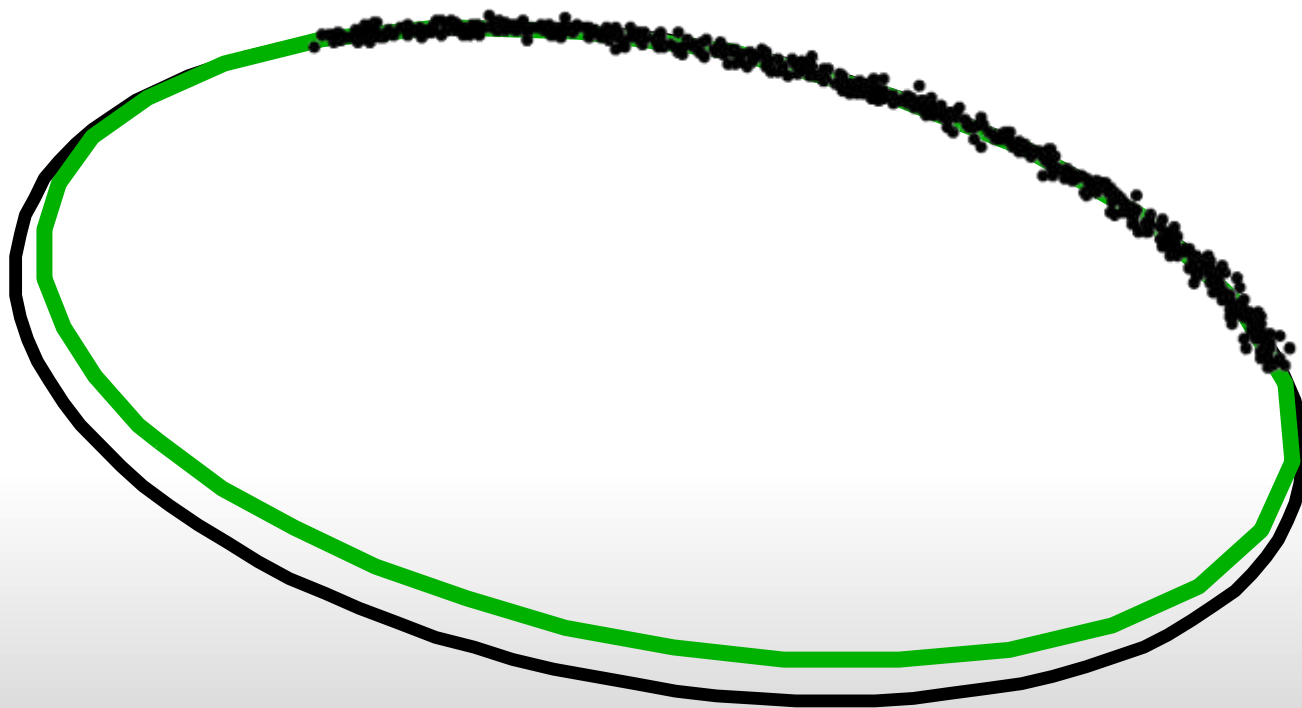
% Objective function for fminunc
% Distance of N data samples 'S' to
% curve 'theta'
function err = objective(theta, S)
    err = 0;
    for n=1:size(S,2)
        err = err + D(S(:,n), theta);
    end
end

```

```

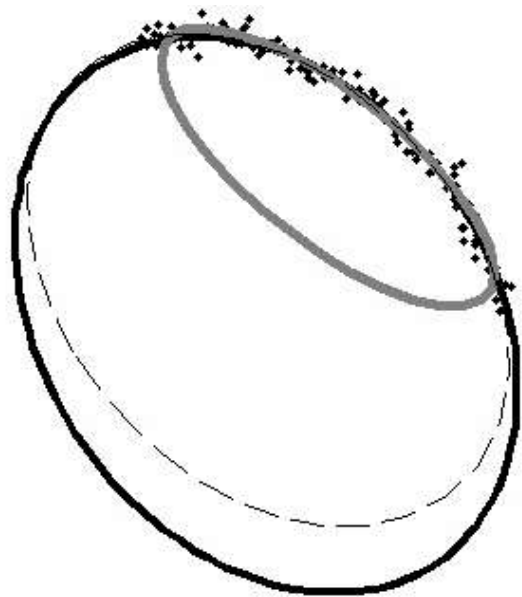
% initial estimate 'theta_0'
theta_star = fminunc(@ (theta) objective(theta, S), theta_0);

```

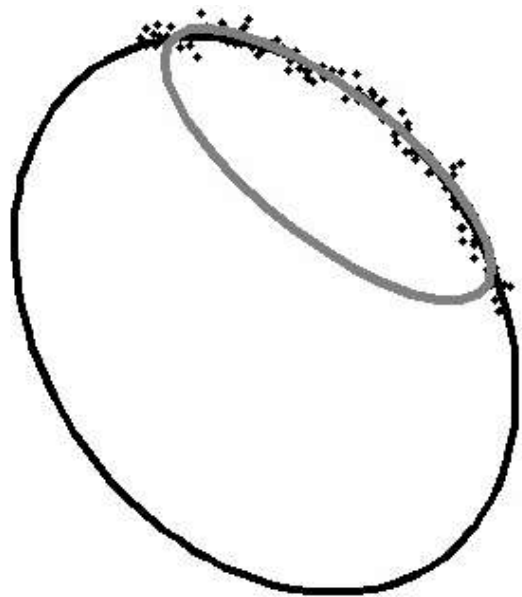


AND ESTIMATING IT WELL GETS US CLOSE...

- We have an accurate solution
 - Certainly better than the “closed form” algorithm, which minimized a “nearby” convex objective.
- All we need to worry about now is speed...
 - If you take 3 weeks to make a prediction, someone else will get the fame.
 - Speed *is* everything. If speed didn't matter, you would just use random search.
- Strategies to speed it up
 - Attack the inner loop
 - Remove discrete minimization in $D(\mathbf{s}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$
 - Analyse the problem again
 - Understand our tools: 'fminunc', or whatever we're using
 - Compute analytic derivatives



A slow method



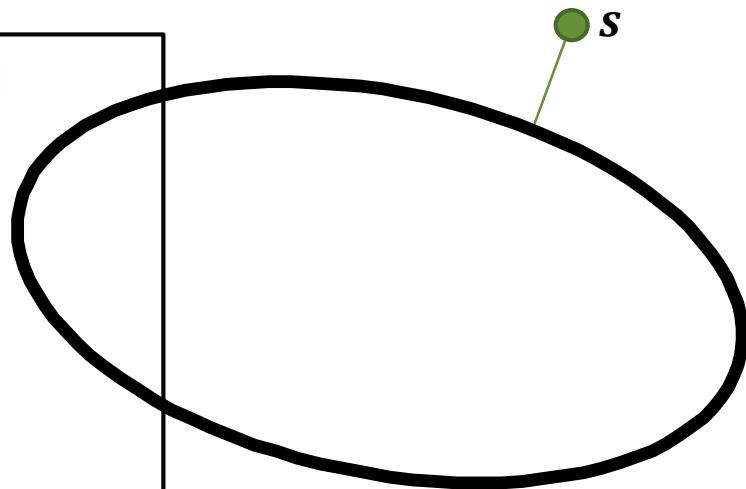
A fast method, slowed down 10x

SPEEDUP ₁: ATTACK THE INNER LOOP

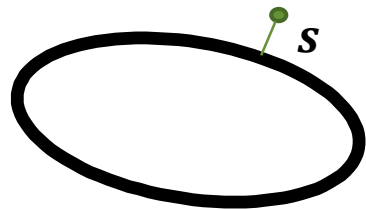
```
% Sample from curve 'theta' at 't'
function out = c(t, theta)
    out = [
        theta(1)*cos(t) + theta(2)*sin(t) + theta(3)
        theta(4)*cos(t) + theta(5)*sin(t) + theta(6)
    ];
end
```

```
% Closest point to 's' on curve 'theta'
% Algorithm: discretize t and search.
function d_min = D(s, theta)
    d_min = Inf;
    for t_test = 0:0.01:2*pi
        d = norm(c(t_test, theta) - s);
        d_min = min(d, d_min);
    end
end
```

```
theta_star = fminunc(@(theta) objective(theta, S), theta_0);
```



```
% Sample from curve 'theta' at 't'
function out = c(t, theta)
    out = [
        theta(1)*cos(t) + theta(2)*sin(t) + theta(3)
        theta(4)*cos(t) + theta(5)*sin(t) + theta(6)
    ];
end
```



$$\mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \cos t + \theta_2 \sin t + \theta_3 \\ \theta_4 \cos t + \theta_5 \sin t + \theta_6 \end{pmatrix}$$

Define $E(t) = \|\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta})\|^2$

Set $\frac{dE}{dt} = 0$

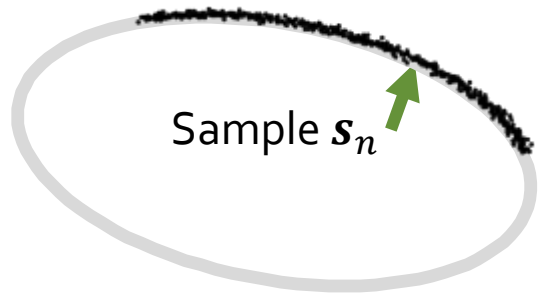
Yields 4th order polynomial, extract 4 roots.

Much cheaper than previous implementation.

```
% Closest point to 's' on curve 'theta'
% Algorithm: discretize t and search.
function d_min = D(s, theta)
    d_min = Inf;
    for t_test = 0:0.01:2*pi
        d = norm(c(t_test, theta) - s);
        d_min = min(d, d_min);
    end
end
```

$$D(\mathbf{s}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \min_t \|\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta})\|^2$$

SPEEDUP 2: ANALYSE THE PROBLEM



$$\mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \cos t + \theta_2 \sin t + \theta_3 \\ \theta_4 \cos t + \theta_5 \sin t + \theta_6 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{s}_n = \mathbf{c}(t_n; \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \text{Noise}$$

$$\mathcal{C}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \{\mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \mid 0 < t \leq 2\pi\}$$

$$D(\mathbf{s}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) := \min_t \|\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta})\|^2$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* := \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_n D(\mathbf{s}_n, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Minimize over all ellipses $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

$$\sum_n D(\mathbf{s}_n, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_n \min_t \|\mathbf{s}_n - \mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta})\|^2$$

Notice $\mathbf{c}(t; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is linear in $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, so function is

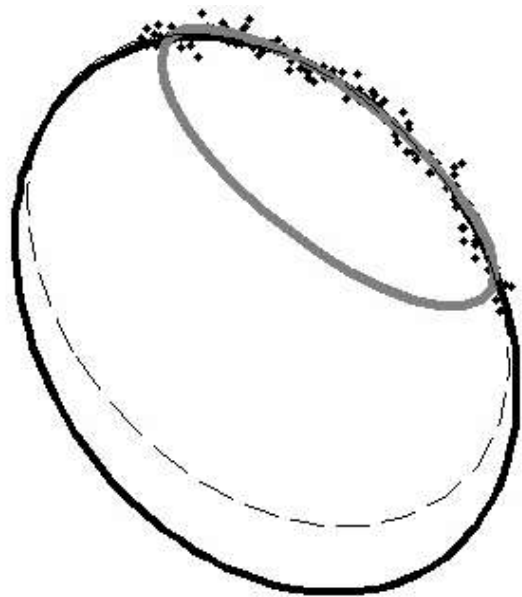
$$= \sum_n \min_{t_n} \|\mathbf{s}_n - A(t_n)\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2$$

And we can solve in closed form:

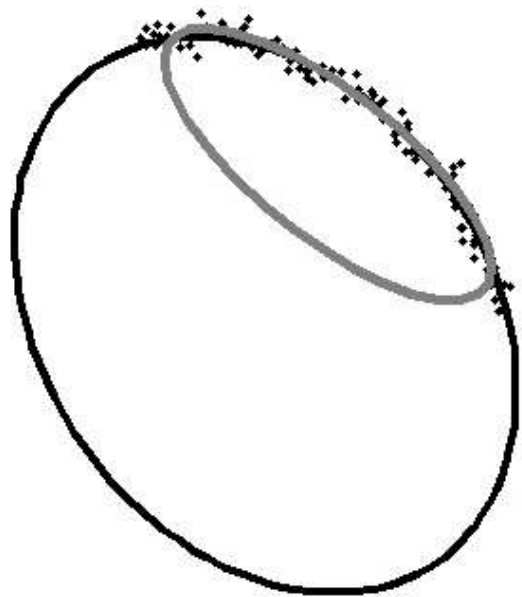
- for $T = \{t_n\}_{n=1}^N$ given $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. Cost N RootOfs.
- and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ given T . Cost one linear solve.

So alternate—"ICP", "EM", "Block Coordinate Descent"

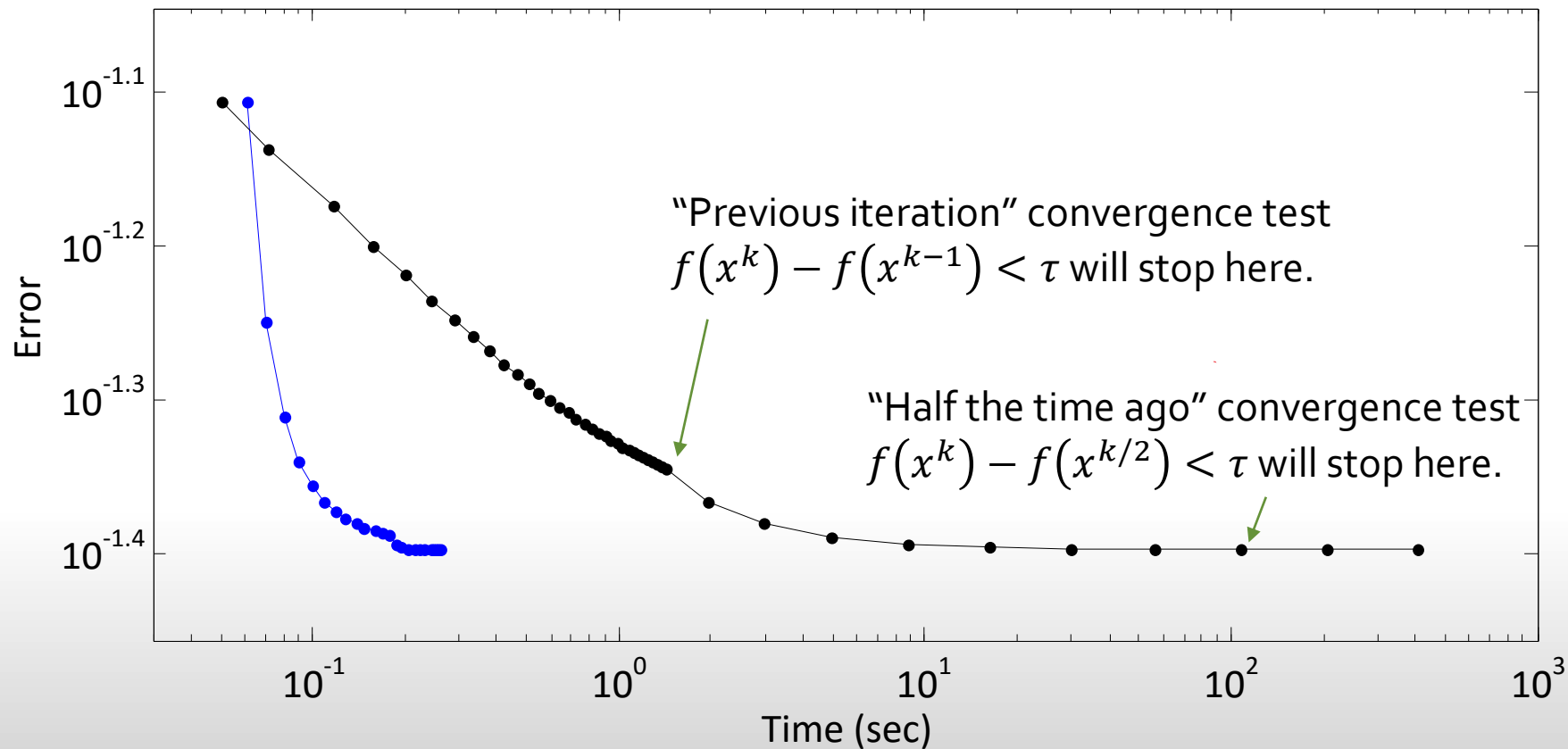
bad decision...

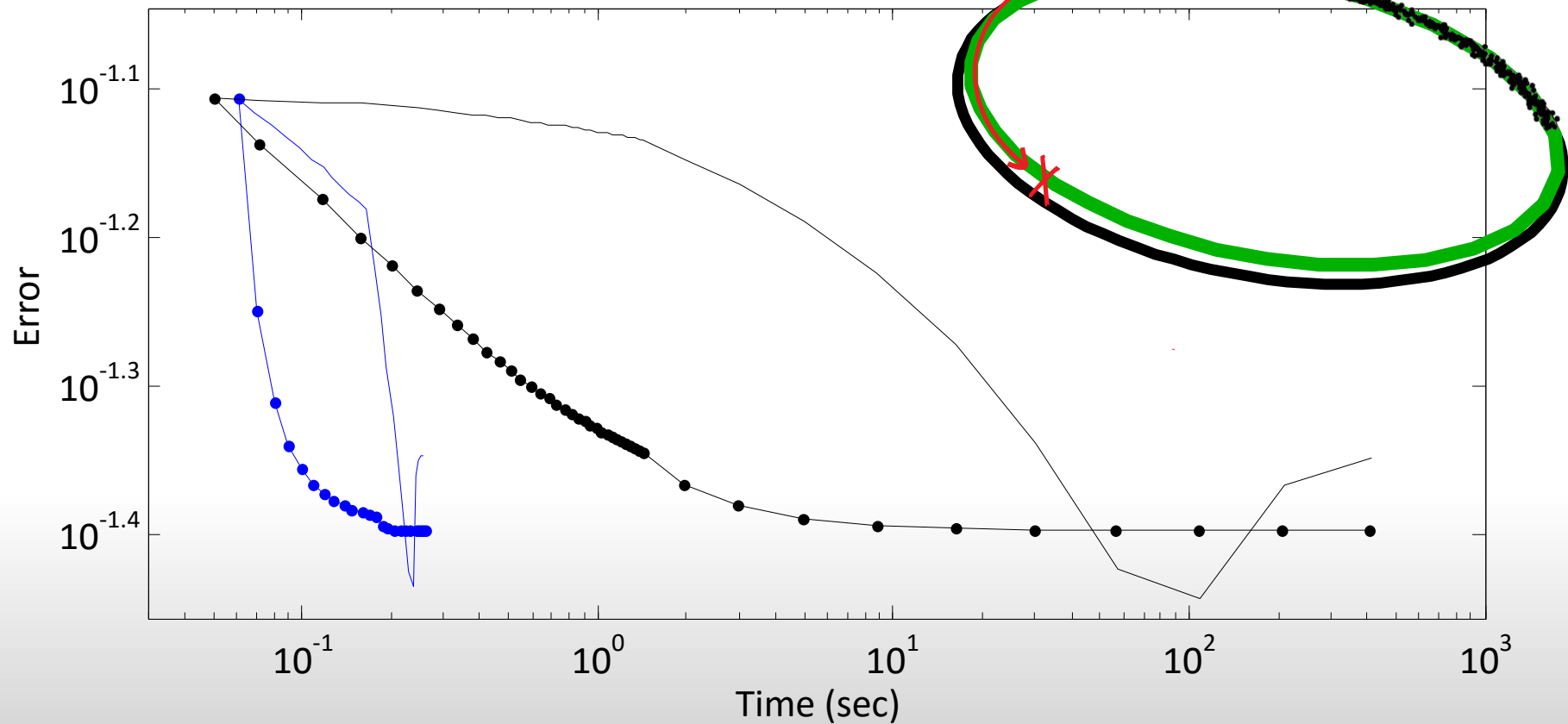


ICP, a bad 1st-order method



A second order method, slowed down 10x





AH, BUT WHAT ABOUT TEST ERROR?

$$\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^N \min_u f_n(u, \theta)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\theta} &= \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^N \min_u f_n(u, \theta) \\ &= \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \sum_n \min_{u_n} f_n(u_n, \theta)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{\theta} &= \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^N \min_t f_n(u, \theta) \\
&= \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \sum_n \min_{u_n} f_n(u_n, \theta) \\
&= \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \min_{u_{1..N}} \sum_n f_n(u_n, \theta)
\end{aligned}$$

[Recall that: $\min_x f(x) + \min_y g(y) = \min_{x,y} f(x) + g(y)$]

$$\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^N \min_u f_n(u, \theta)$$

- Nasty objective
- M parameters
- Cost per iteration $O(N)$

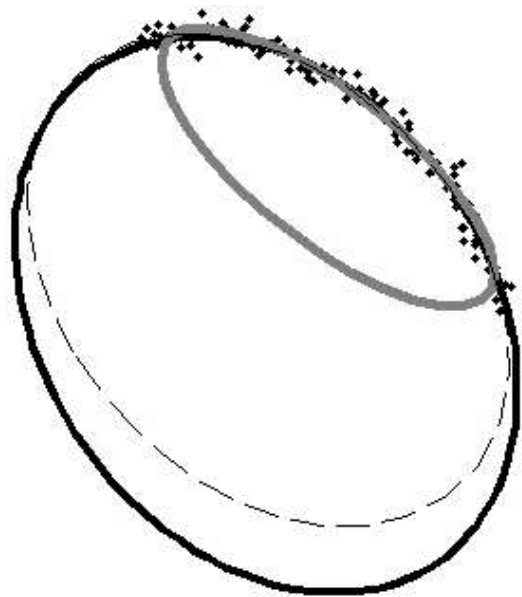
Slow

$$\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \min_{u_{1..N}} \sum_n f_n(u_n, \theta)$$

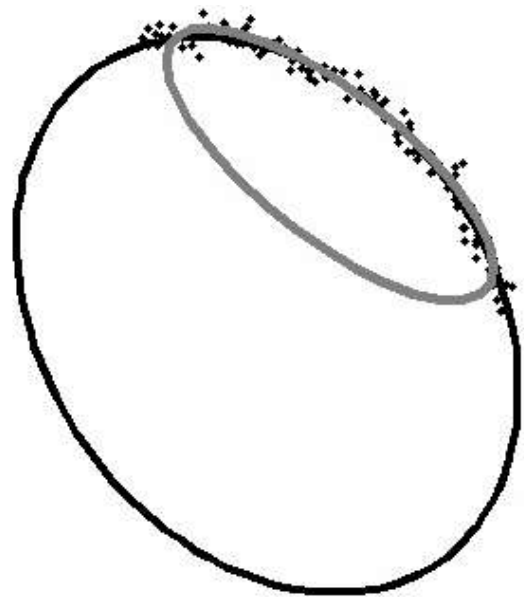
- Simple objective (no “min”)
- $M + N$ parameters
- Cost per iteration $O(NM^r)$

Fast

(in actual real-world wall clock time, even for very large N)



ICP, a bad 1st-order method



A second order method, slowed down 10x

SPEEDUP ₃: UNDERSTAND OUR TOOLS


```
% initial estimate 'theta_0'  
theta_star = fminunc(@(theta) objective(theta, S), theta_0);
```

Matlab's `fminunc` is one of many nonlinear optimizers.

Takes function $f(\mathbf{x}): \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, initial estimate \mathbf{x}_0

General “trust-region” class of strategies repeats:

- Compute update δ_k to current guess \mathbf{x}_k
 - Using function, derivatives, “trust region radius”, herbs, spices, ...
- If update produces lower f value
 - “**accept**”: update $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \delta_k$

Else

- “**reject**”: fiddle with “trust region radius”

ASIDE...

CONTINUOUS OPTIMIZATION

Andrew Fitzgibbon

Microsoft Research Cambridge



Given function

$$f(x): \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R},$$

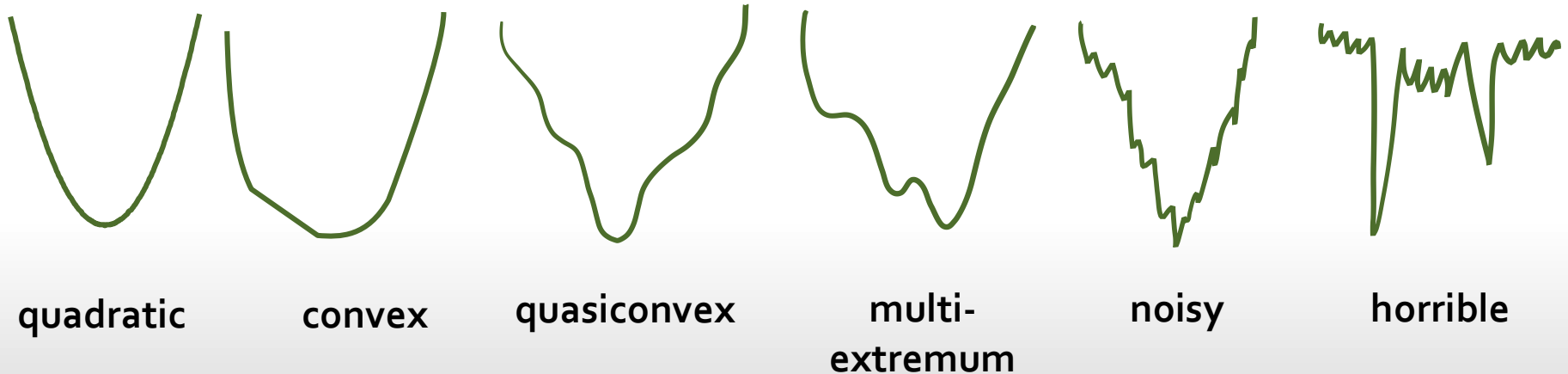
Devise strategies for finding x which minimizes f

- Gradient descent++: Stochastic, Block, Minibatch
- Coordinate descent++: Block
- Newton++: Gauss, Quasi, Damped, Levenberg Marquardt, dogleg, Trust region, Doublestep LM, [L-]BFGS, Nonlin CG
- Not covered
 - Proximal methods: Nesterov, ADMM...

Given function

$$f(x): \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}$$

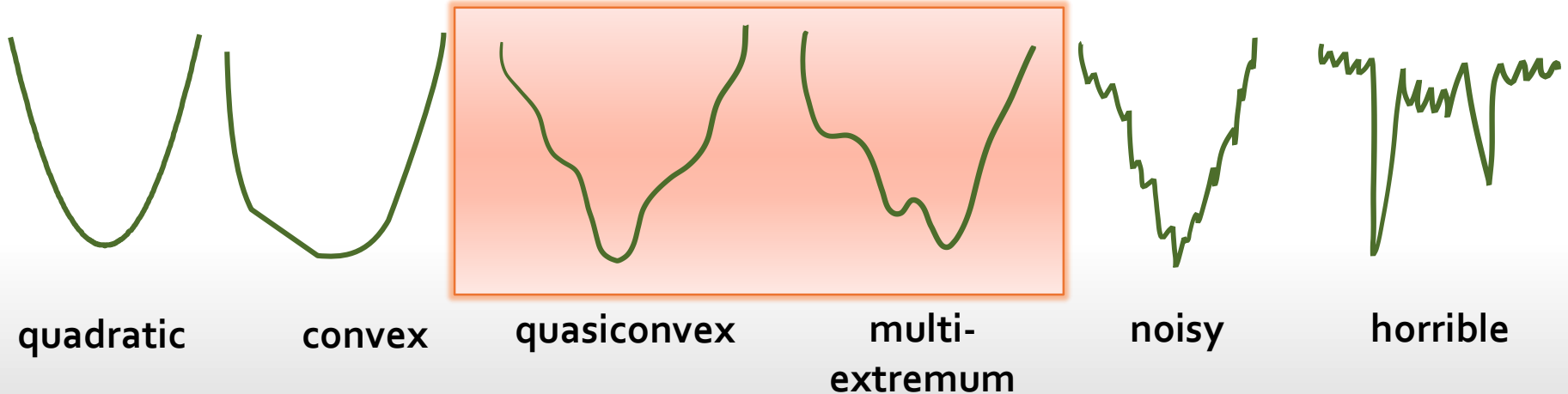
Devise strategies for finding x which minimizes f

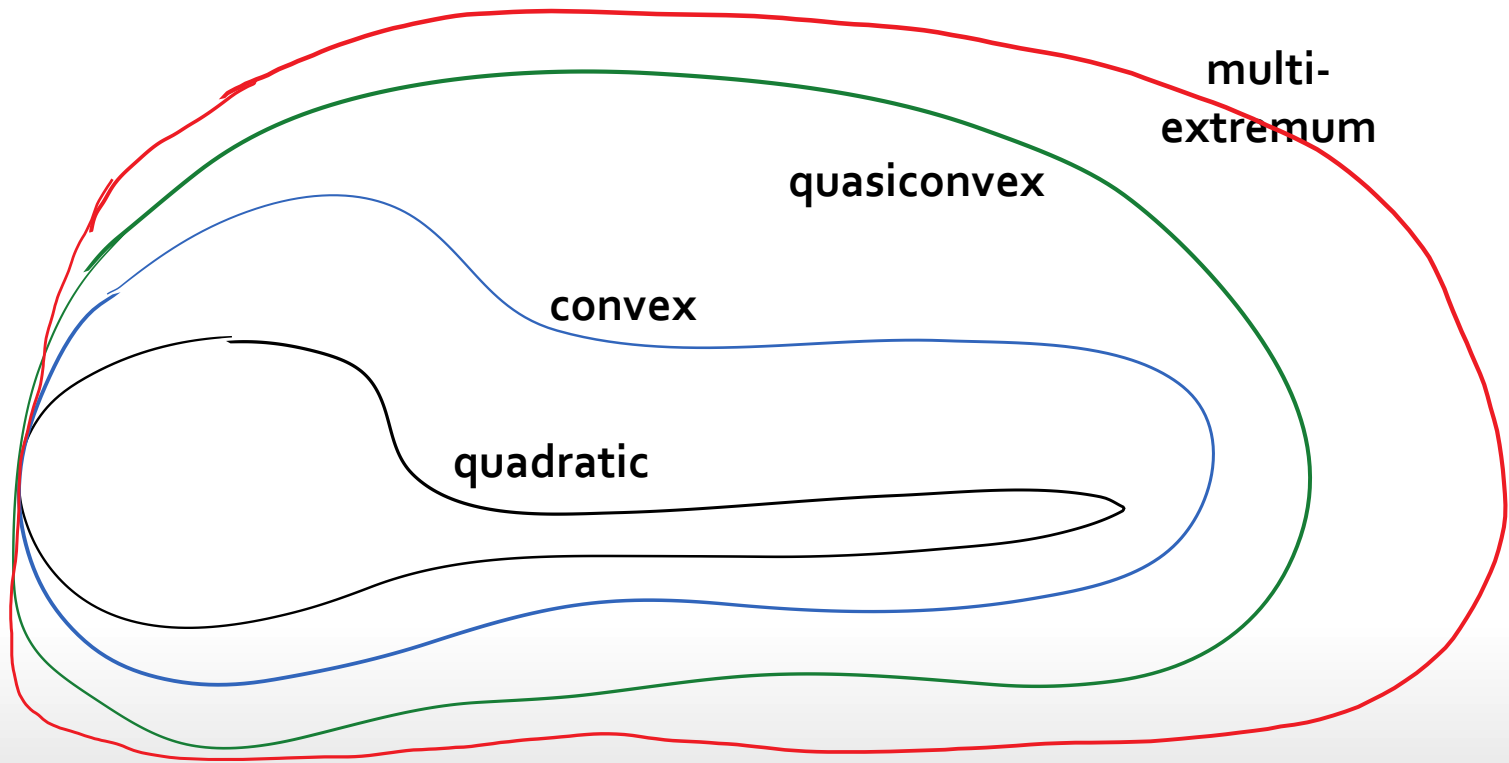


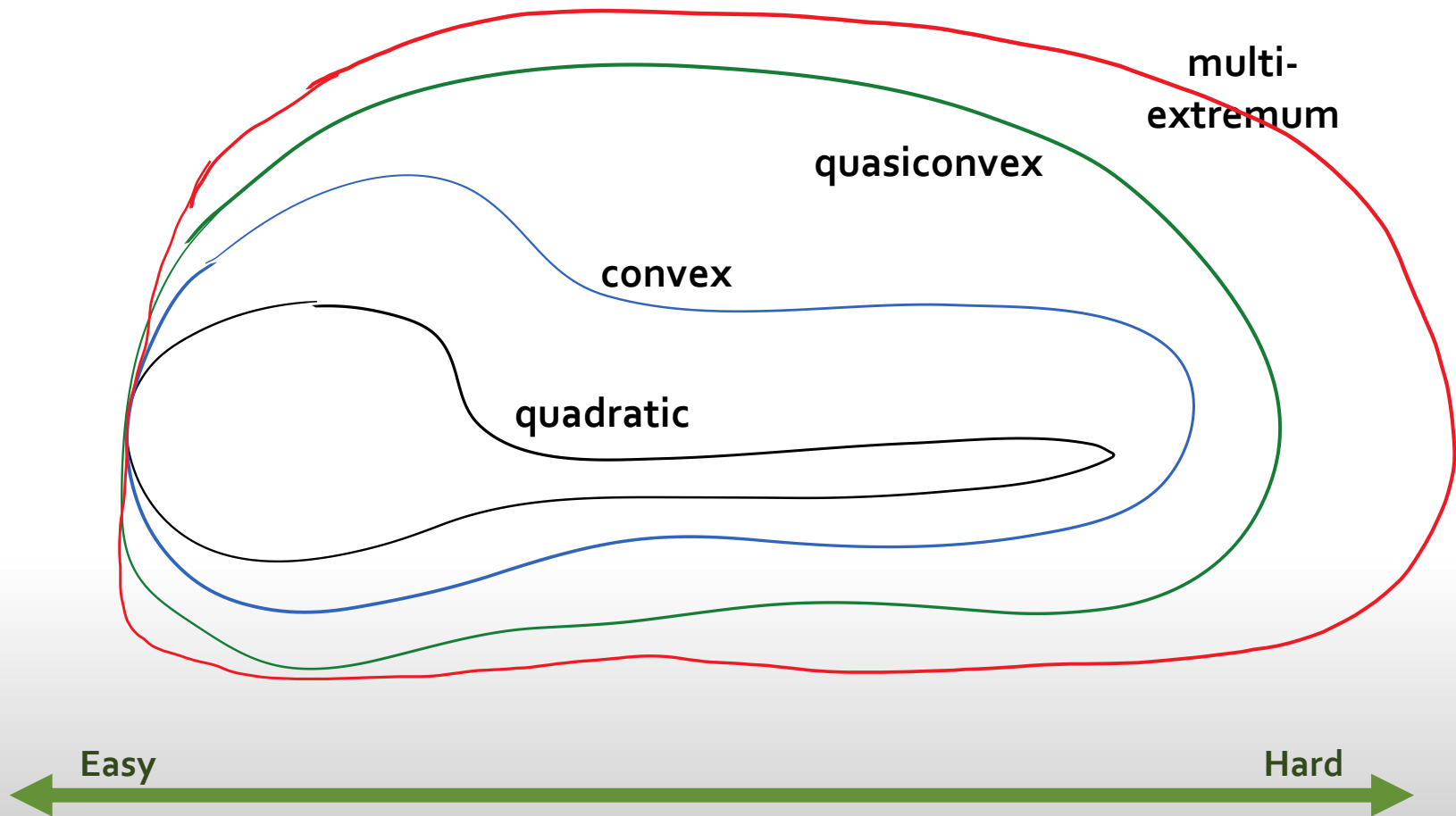
Given function

$$f(x): \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}$$

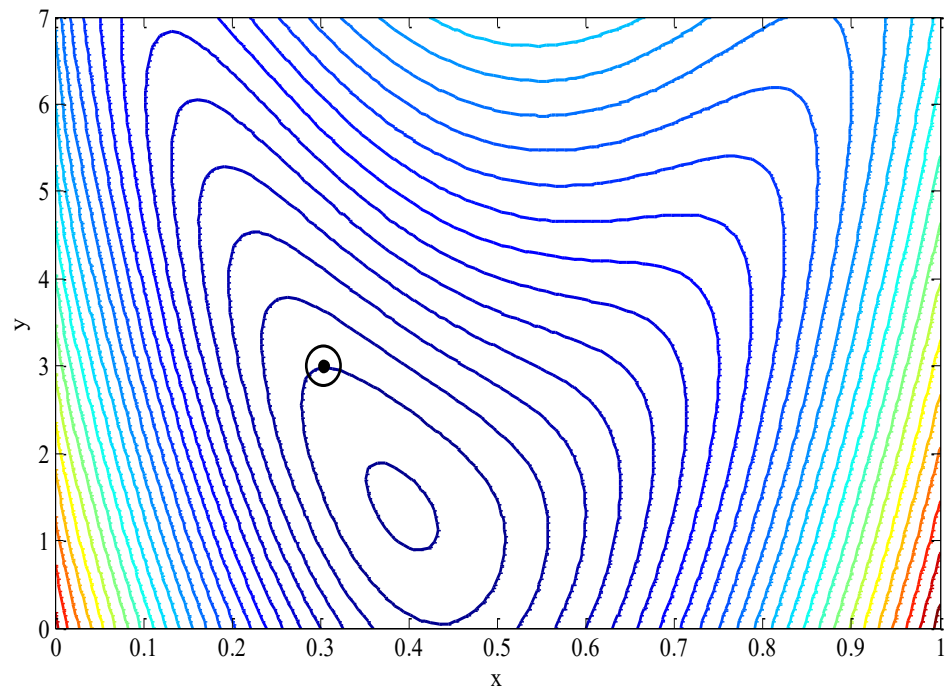
Devise strategies for finding x which minimizes f



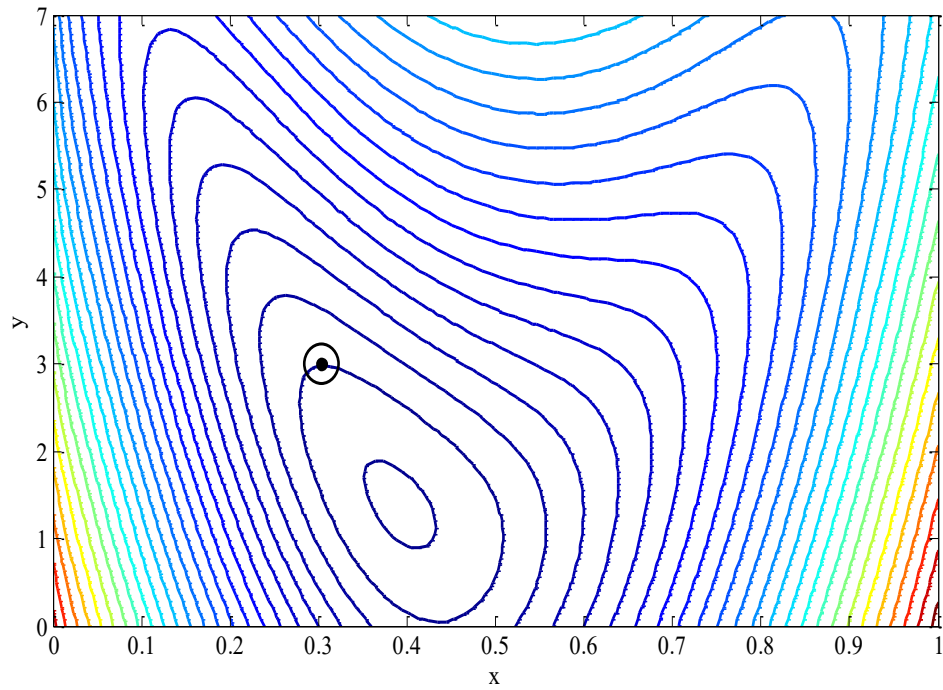




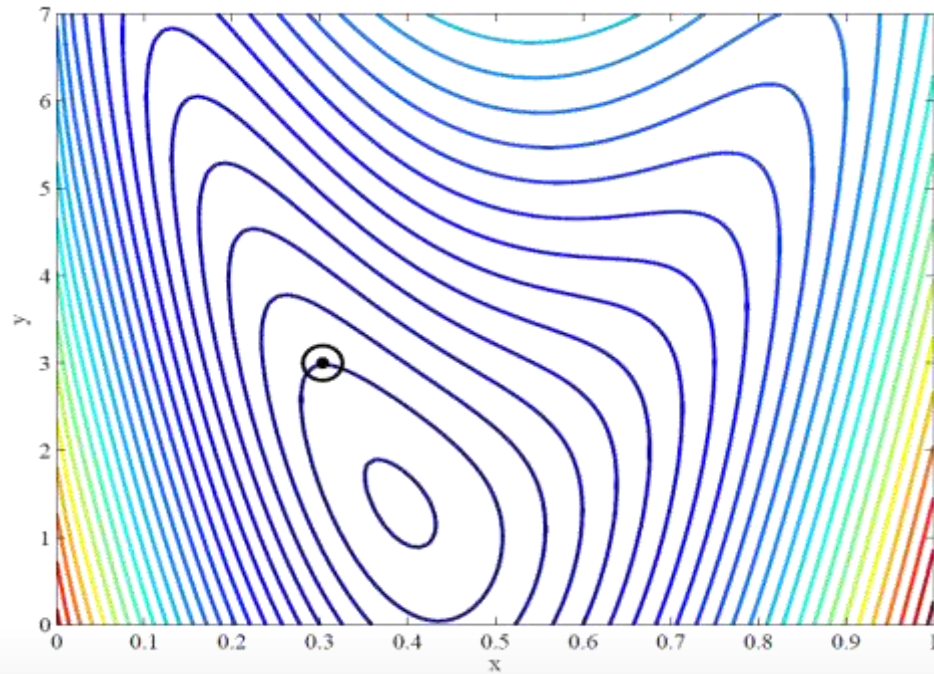
- Fast minimization depends on derivatives



EXAMPLE



```
>> print -dmeta
```

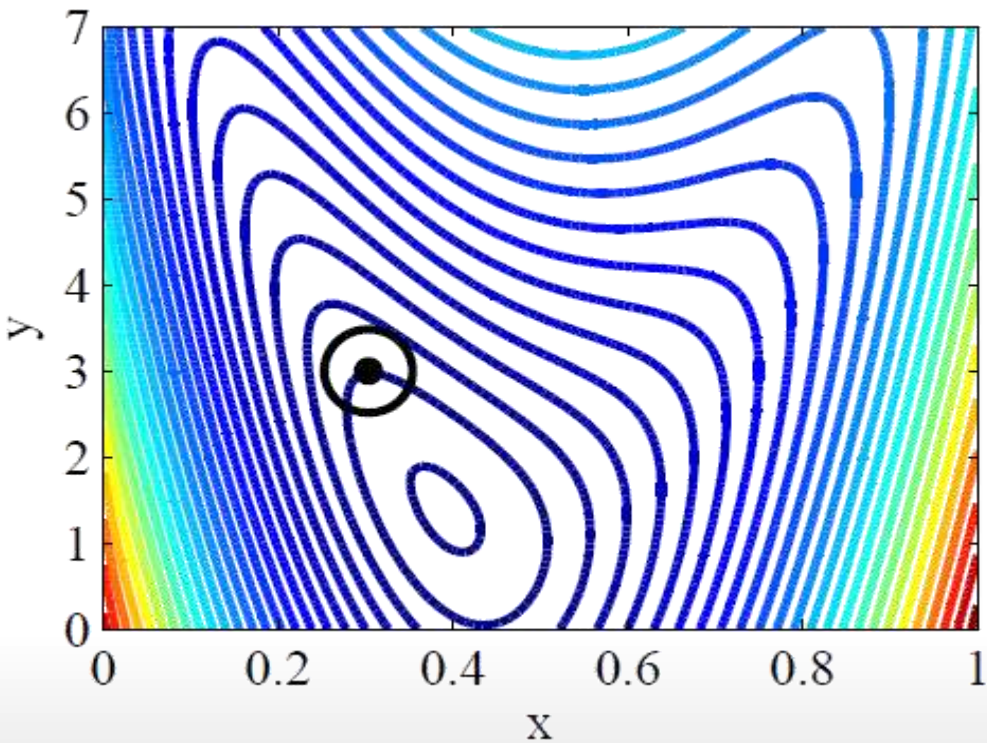


>> print -dpdf % then go to pdf and paste

OR

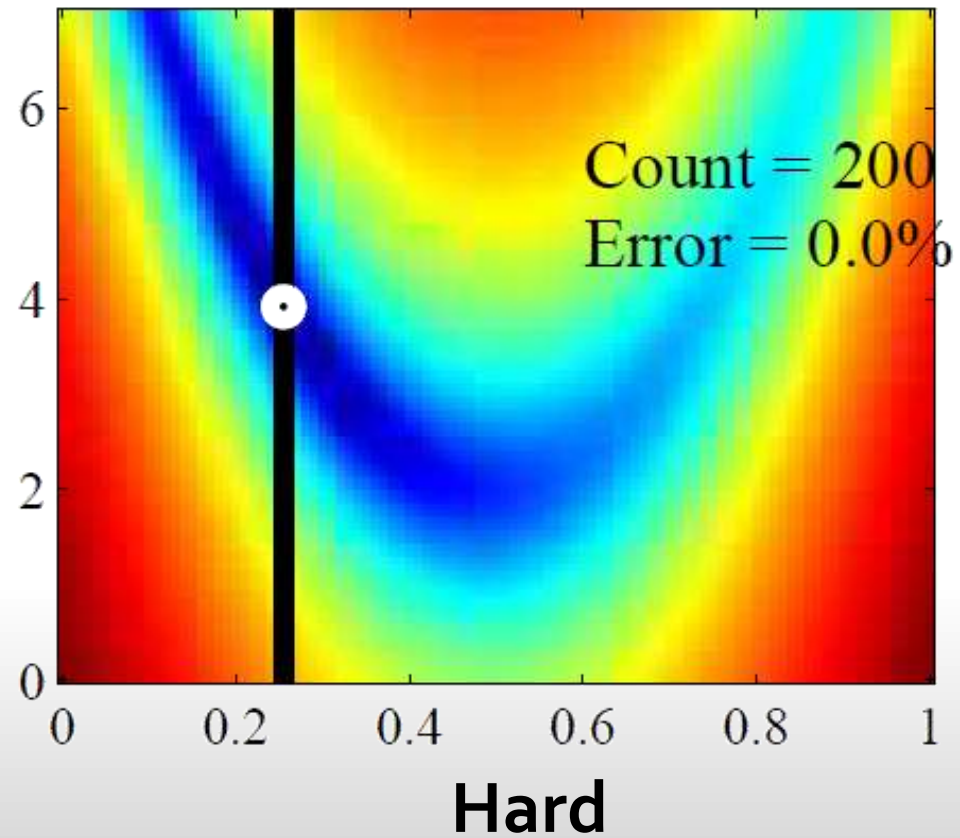
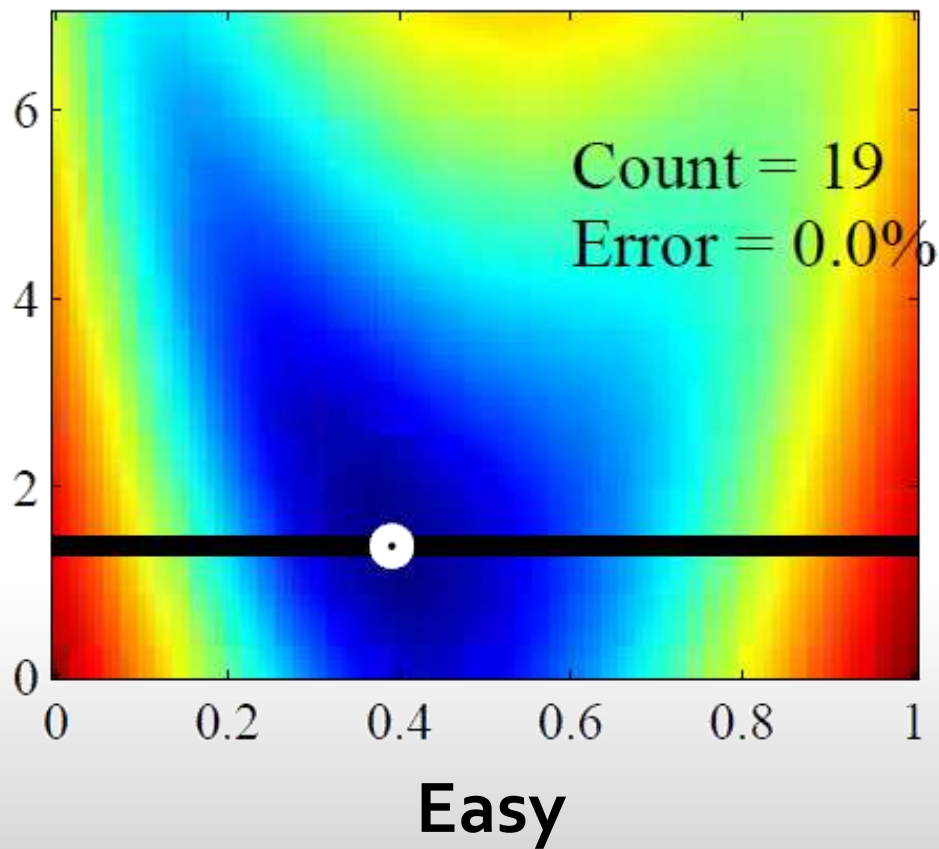
>> set(findobj(1, 'type', 'line'), 'linesmoothing', 'on') % then screengrab

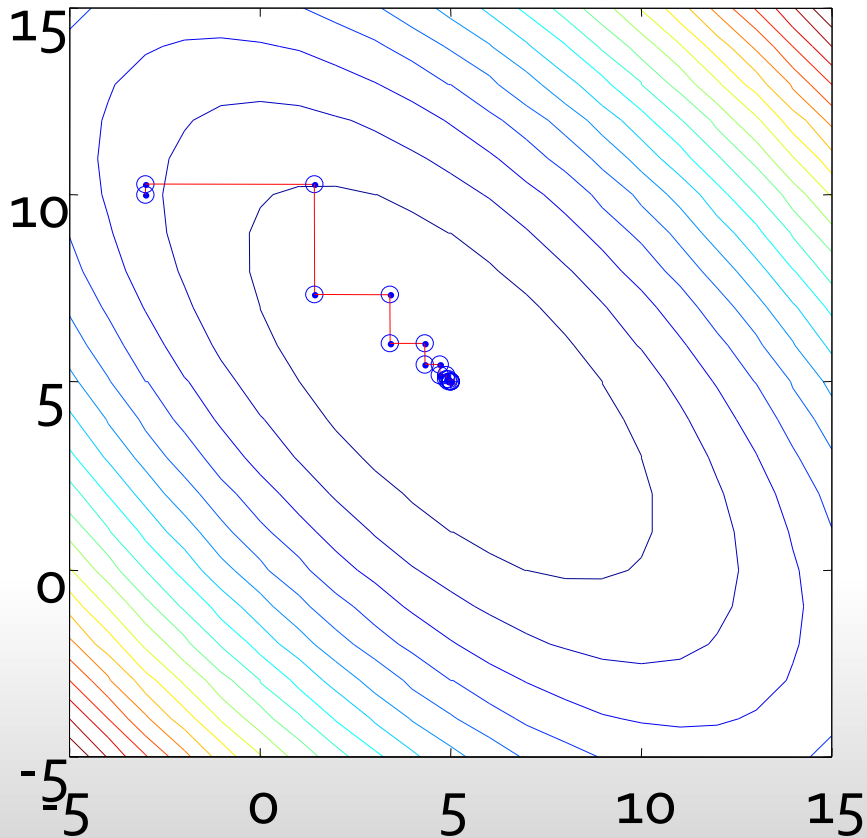
EXAMPLE



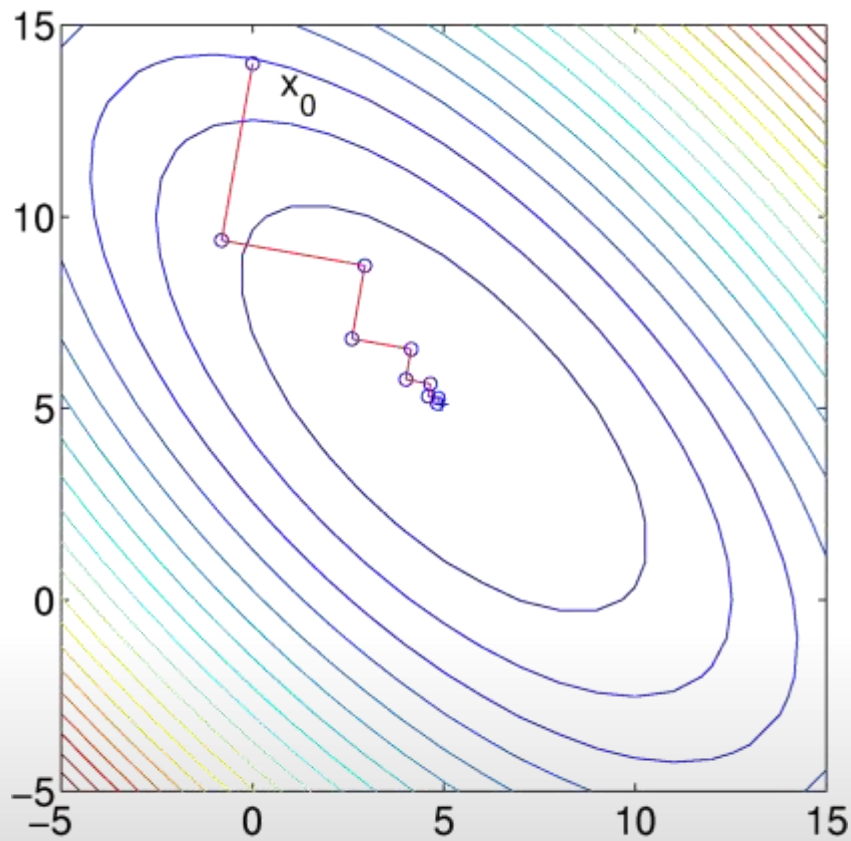
```
>> set(gcf, 'paperUnits', 'centimeters', 'paperposition', [1 1 9 6.6])  
>> print -dpdf % then go to pdf and paste
```

SWITCH TO MATLAB...



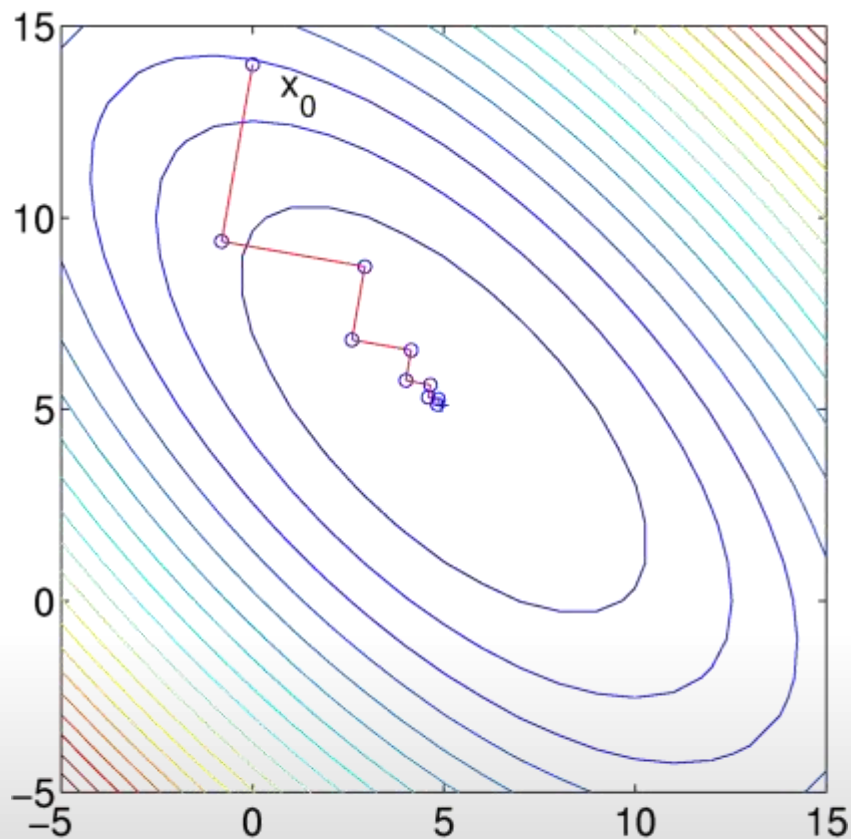


- Alternation is slow because valleys may not be axis aligned
- So try gradient descent?



Steepest descent ($x_0 = [0, 14]$)

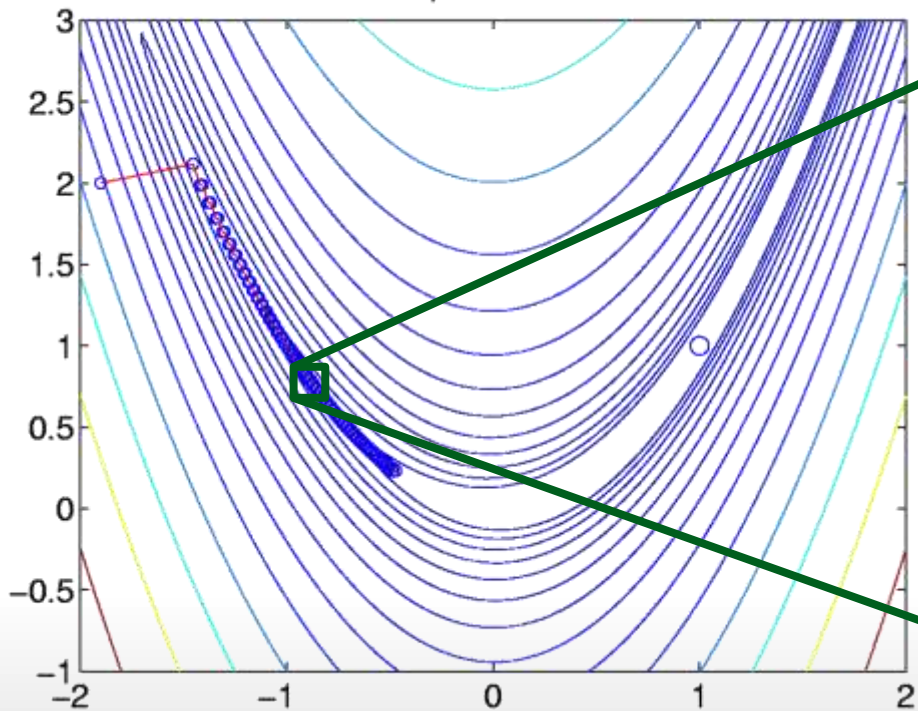
- Alternation is slow because valleys may not be axis aligned
- So try gradient descent?



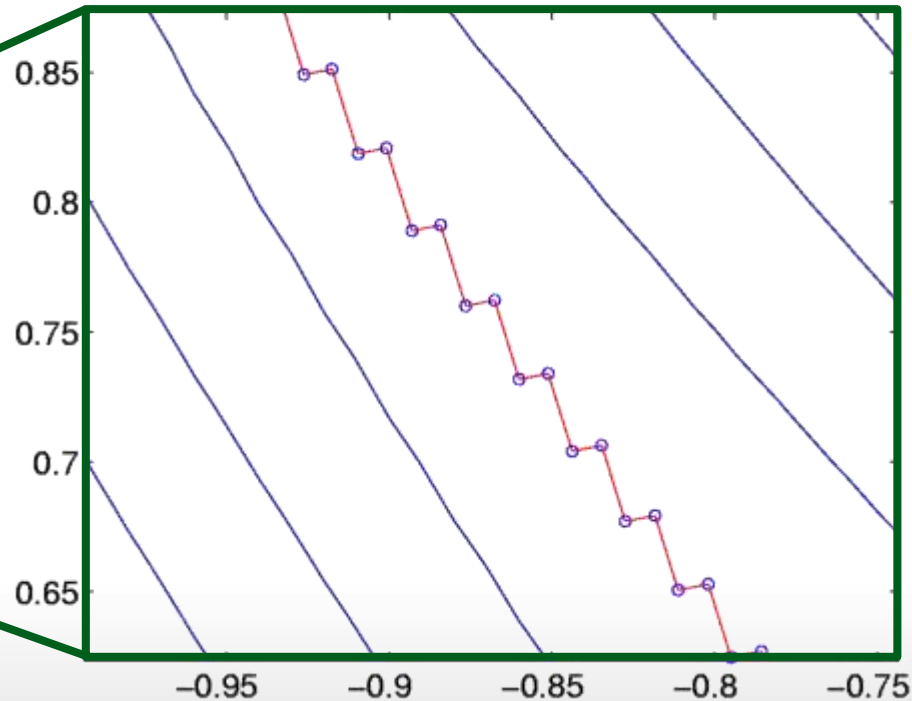
Steepest descent ($x_0 = [0, 14]$)

- Alternation is slow because valleys may not be axis aligned
- So try gradient descent?
- Note that convergence proofs are available for both of the above
- But so what?

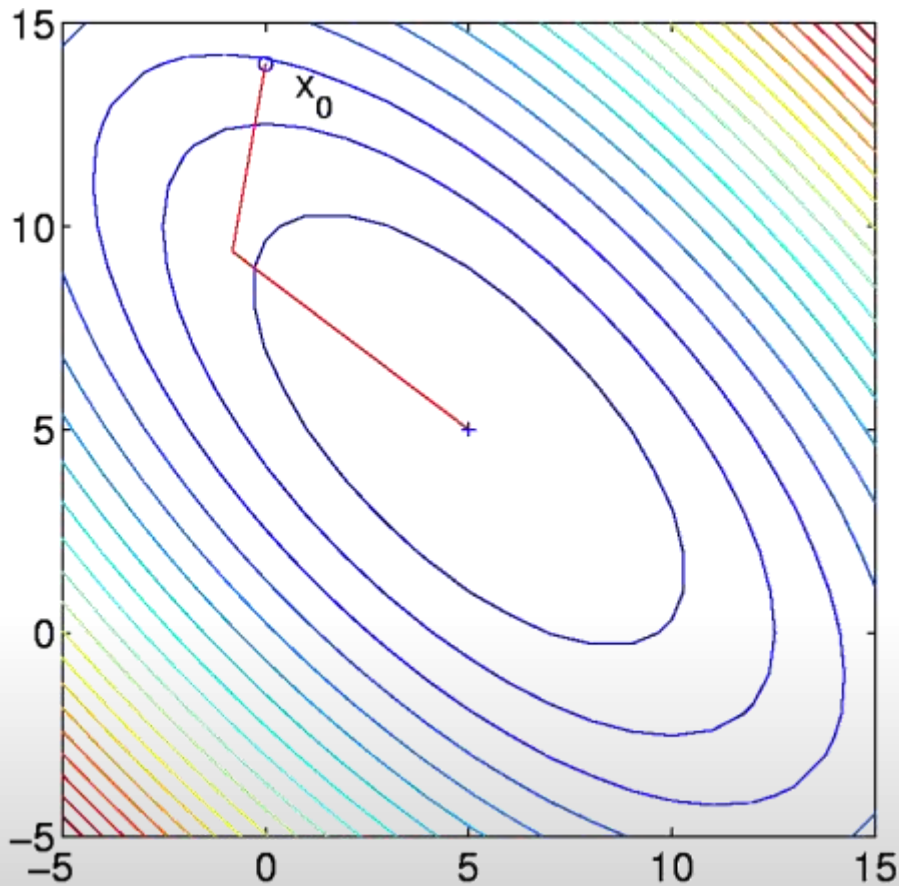
Steepest Descent



Steepest Descent

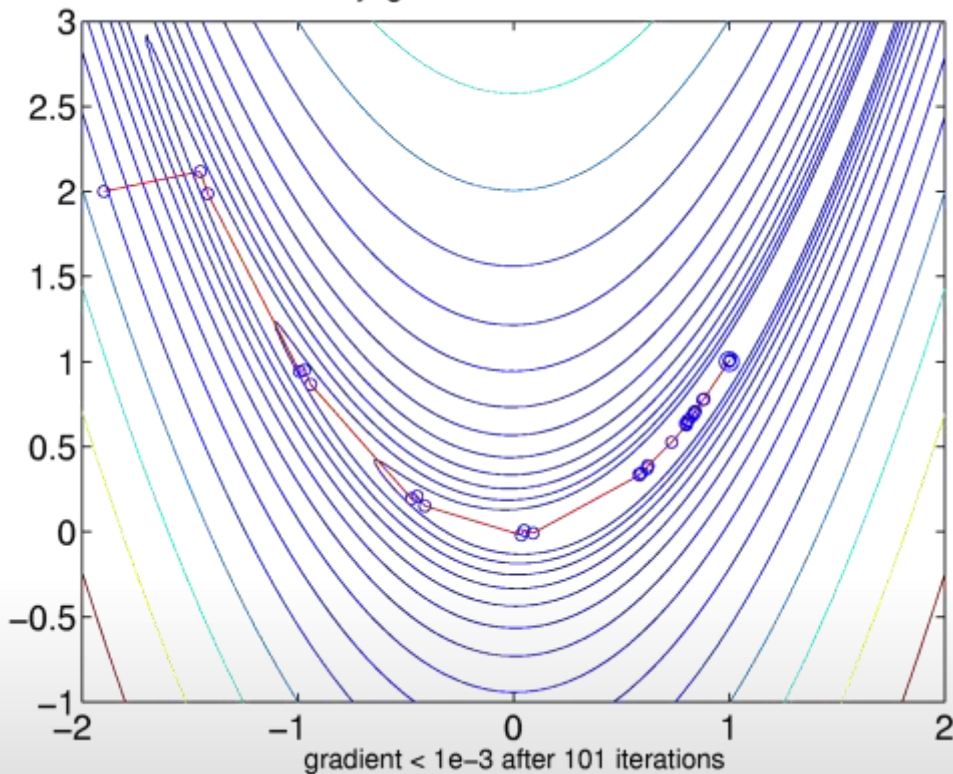


AND ON A HARD PROBLEM



- (Nonlinear) conjugate gradients
- Uses 1st derivatives only
- Avoids “undoing” previous work

Conjugate Gradient Descent



- (Nonlinear) conjugate gradients
- Uses 1st derivatives only
- And avoids “undoing” previous work
- 101 iterations on this problem

BUT WE CAN DO BETTER...

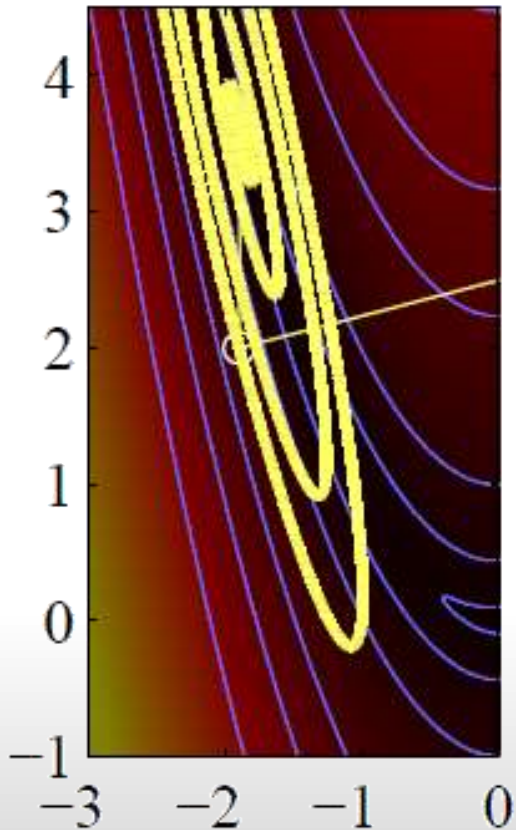
- Starting with \mathbf{x} how can I choose $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ so that $f(\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\delta})$ is better than $f(\mathbf{x})$?
- So compute

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\delta} \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\delta})$$

- But hang on, that's the same problem we were trying to solve?

- Starting with x how can I choose δ so that $f(x + \delta)$ is better than $f(x)$?
- So compute

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{\delta} f(x + \delta) \\ & \approx \min_{\delta} f(x) + \delta^{\top} g(x) + \frac{1}{2} \delta^{\top} H(x) \delta \\ & \quad g(x) = \nabla f(x) \\ & \quad H(x) = \nabla \nabla^{\top} f(x) \end{aligned}$$



- How does it look?

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

$$g(x) = \nabla f(x)$$

$$H(x) = \nabla \nabla^\top f(x)$$

- Choose δ so that $f(x + \delta)$ is better than $f(x)$?
- Compute

$$\min_{\delta} f + \delta^{\top} g + \frac{1}{2} \delta^{\top} H \delta$$

[derive]

- Choose δ so that $f(x + \delta)$ is better than $f(x)$?
- Compute

$$\min_{\delta} f + \delta^{\top} g + \frac{1}{2} \delta^{\top} H \delta$$

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

```
>> use demos
```

```
>> demo_taylor_2d(0, 'newton', 'rosenbrock')
```

```
>> demo_taylor_2d(0, 'newton', 'sqrt_rosenbrock')
```

```
>> demo_taylor_2d(1, 'damped newton ls', 'rosenbrock')
```

- Choose δ so that $f(x + \delta)$ is better than $f(x)$?
- Updates:

$$\delta_{\text{Newton}} = -H^{-1}g$$

$$\delta_{\text{GradientDescent}} = -\lambda g$$

- Updates:

$$\delta_{\text{Newton}} = -H^{-1}g$$

$$\delta_{\text{GradientDescent}} = -\lambda g$$

- So combine them:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_{\text{DampedNewton}} &= -(H + \lambda^{-1}I_d)^{-1}g \\ &= -\lambda(\lambda H + I_d)^{-1}g\end{aligned}$$

- λ small \Rightarrow conservative gradient step
- λ large \Rightarrow Newton step

$\lambda = 10^{-3}; \lambda' = 3;$

while $\lambda < 10^9$

$[f, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{H}] = \text{error_function}(\mathbf{x}_k)$

$\boldsymbol{\delta} = -(\mathbf{H} + \lambda \mathbf{I}) \backslash \mathbf{g}$

$\mathbf{x}_{new} = \mathbf{x}_k + \boldsymbol{\delta}$

if $\text{error_function}(\mathbf{x}_{new}) < f$:

$\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{x}_{new}$

$\lambda = \lambda / \lambda'; \lambda' = 3$

else

$\lambda = \lambda \lambda'; \lambda' = 3\lambda'$

% Perhaps Gauss-Newton for H

% Many ways to do this efficiently

% Decreased error, accept the new x

% Doing well—decrease λ

% Doing badly—increase λ quick

Levenberg-Marquardt

- Just damped Newton with approximate H
- For a special form of f

$$f(x) = \sum_i f_i(x)^2$$

- where $f_i(x)$ are
 - zero-mean
 - small at the optimum

Levenberg Marquardt

- Just damped Newton with approximate H
- For a special form of f

$$f(x) = \sum_i f_i(x)^2$$

$$\nabla f(x) =$$

$$\nabla \nabla^\top f(x) =$$

Levenberg Marquardt

- Just damped Newton with approximate H
- For a special form of f

$$f(x) = \sum_i f_i(x)^2$$

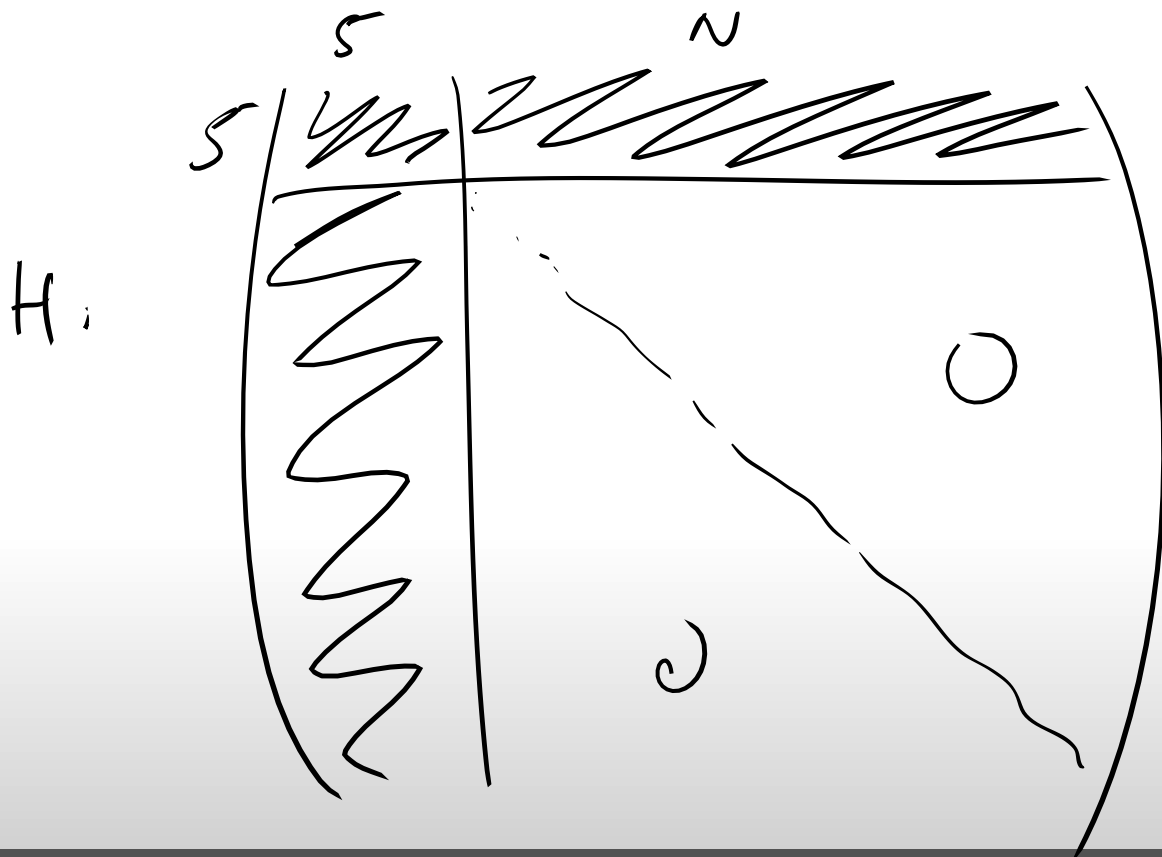
$$\nabla f(x) = \sum_i 2f_i(x) \nabla f_i(x)$$

$$\nabla \nabla^T f(x) = 2 \sum_i \left(\cancel{f_i(x) \nabla \nabla^T f_i(x)} \right) + \underbrace{\nabla f_i(x)}_{\mathbb{R}^d} \nabla^T f_i(x)$$

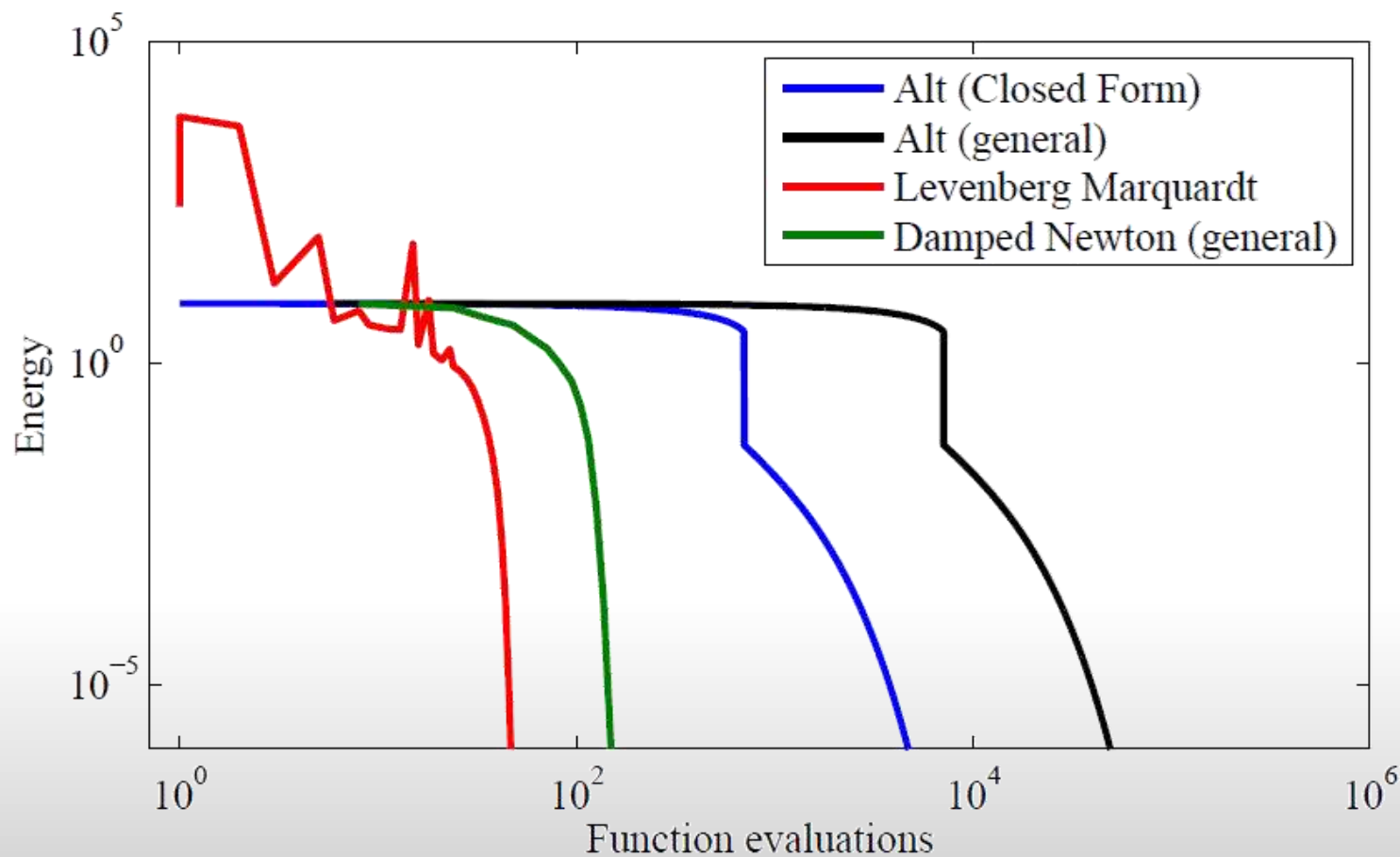
Handwritten red annotations: A large red 'X' is drawn over the term $f_i(x) \nabla \nabla^T f_i(x)$. A red arrow points from the word "approx 0" to the 'X'. A red box is drawn around $\nabla f_i(x)$, with a red arrow pointing from the label \mathbb{R}^d to the box.

- Not $O(n^3)$ if you exploit sparsity of Hessian or Jacobian

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ \nabla f_n(x) \end{bmatrix}$$



$$O(n^s) \rightarrow O(n)$$





GIRAFFE

$$\min_{A, B} \| (M - A B^T) \odot W \|^2$$

$$\left(\begin{bmatrix} \square & \square \\ \square & \square \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \square & \square \\ \square & \square \end{bmatrix} \right) \odot \begin{pmatrix} \text{|||||} \\ \text{|||||} \\ \text{|||||} \\ \text{|||||} \end{pmatrix}$$

for k=1:500

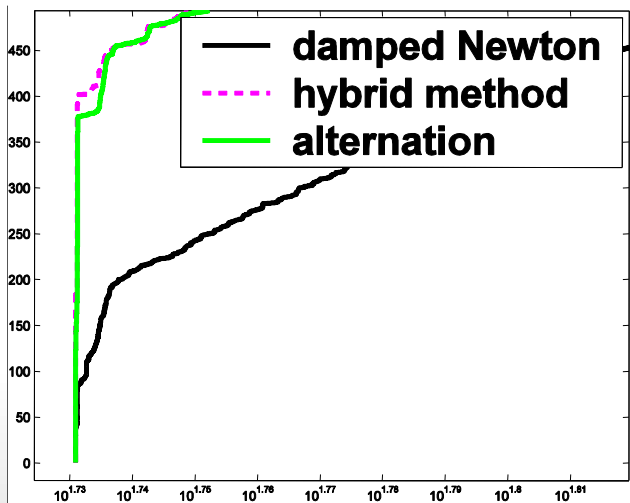
$x_0 = \text{randn}(n, 1);$

$x^* = \text{minimize}(f, x_0);$

$E[k] = f(x^*)$

end

plot(sort(E));



500 runs

CONCLUSION: YMMV



GIRAFFE

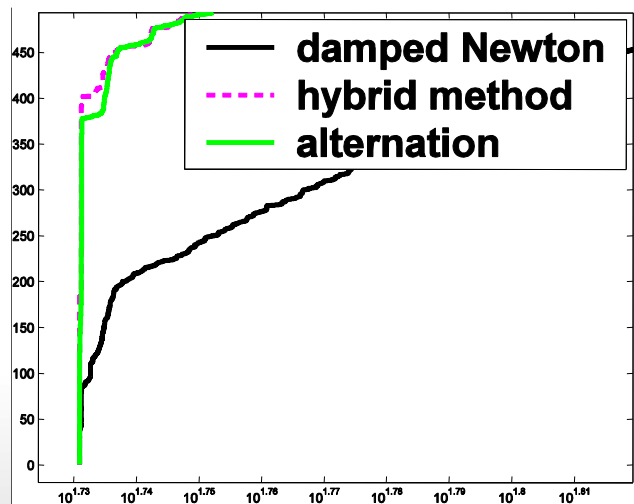


FACE

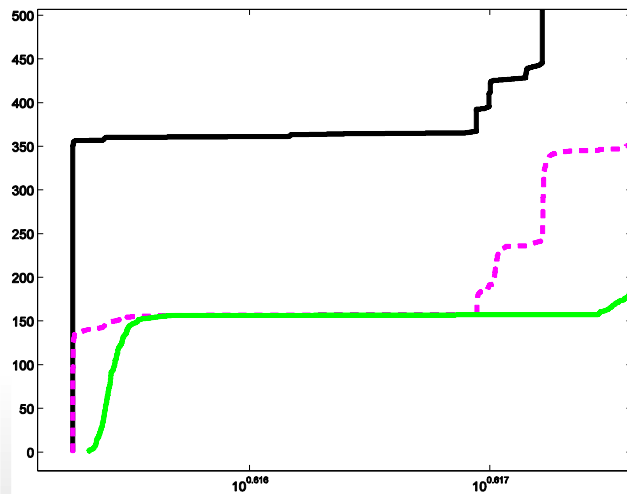


DINOSAUR

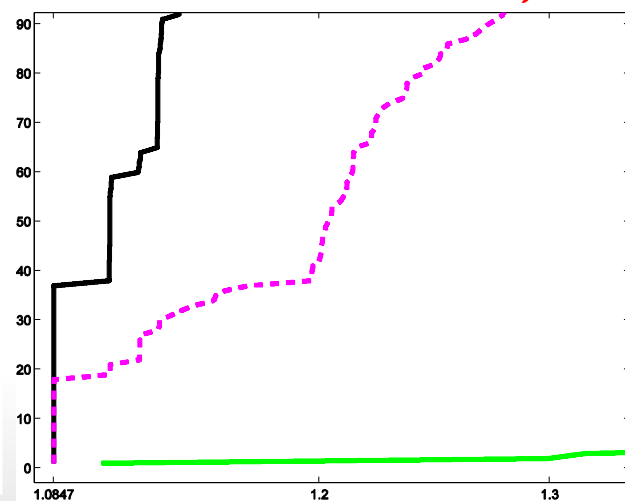
(14 million)



500 runs



1000 runs



1000 runs

CONCLUSION: YMMV

- On many problems, alternation is just fine
 - Indeed always start with a couple of alternation steps
- Computing 2nd derivatives is a pain
 - But you don't need to for LM
- But just alternation is not
 - Unless you're willing to problem-select
- Convergence guarantees are fine, but practice is what matters
- Inverting the Hessian is rarely $O(n^3)$

There is no universal optimizer

- $\nabla f = \frac{1}{\mu} \begin{bmatrix} f(x + e_1) - f(x) \\ \vdots \\ f(x + e_d) - f(x) \end{bmatrix}$
- Surprisingly accurate for e.g. $\mu = 10^{-5}$ (in double prec.)
- Incredibly slow.. Unless (see next slide)
- Useful for checking your analytic derivatives
- Incredibly slow. Try Powell or Simplex instead.
- Central differences twice as slow, somewhat more accurate

- Normally try e_1 to e_d sequentially
- But if we know the nonzero structure of the Jacobian, can go rather faster.

- We're minimizing $f(x)$
- Many algorithms will be happier if entries of x are all "around 1".
 - E.g. don't have angle in degrees and distances in km
- Many algorithms may want f values to be "close to x or close to zero at the optimum".
 - Specifically, think about roundoff in quantities like $f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)$ being compared to numbers like 10^{-6}

- What about stochastic gradient descent?
 - You can do analogous 2nd order things.
- What about LBFGS?
 - I haven't had much success with it, other folk love it...
- I tried lsqnonlin and it was really slow—why?
 - Wrong derivatives (e.g. finite-differences)
 - Didn't use sparsity correctly
 - Didn't set "options.Algorithm" or "options.LargeScale".

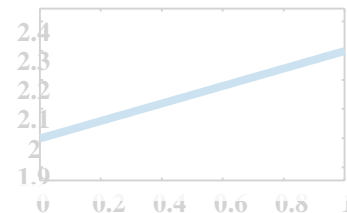
■ Resources:

1. Matlab fminsearch and fminunc documentation
2. awful.codeplex.com au_optimproblem
3. Tom Minka webpage on matrix derivatives
4. Google “ceres” solver
5. UToronto “Theano” system for Python

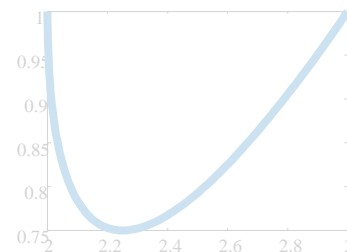
- Gotchas with Isqnonlin
 - `opts.LargeScale = 'on';`
 - `opts.Jacobian = 'on';`
- Need non-rank-def J?
- Need to implement JacobMult?

WHAT IS A SURFACE?

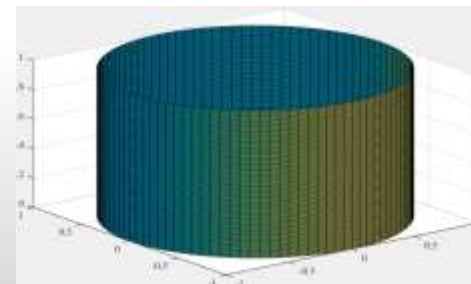
```
function y(x::Interval)::Real = .3*x + 2
```



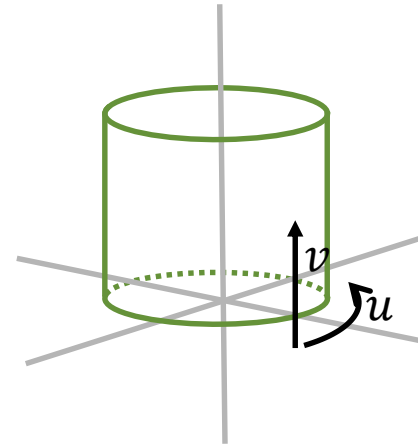
```
function C(t::Interval)::Point2D =  
    Point2D(t^2 + 2, t^2 - t + 1)
```



```
function S(u::Interval, v::Real)::Point3D =  
    Point3D(cos(u), sin(u), v)
```

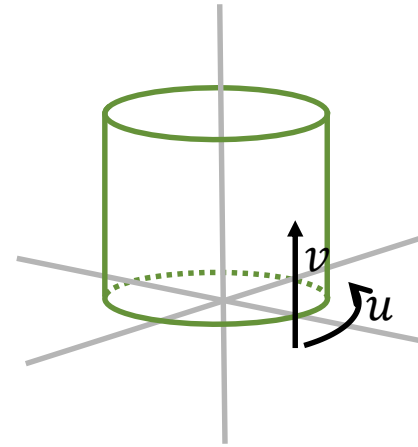


- Surface: mapping $S(\mathbf{u})$ from $\mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}^3$
 - E.g. cylinder $S(u, v) = (\cos u, \sin u, v)$



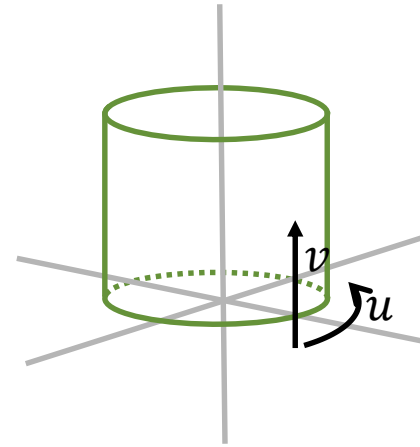
*the surface is actually the set $\{M(u; \theta) | u \in \Omega\}$

- Surface: mapping $S(\mathbf{u})$ from $\mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}^3$
 - E.g. cylinder $S(u, v) = (\cos u, \sin u, v)$
- Probably not all of \mathbb{R}^2 , but a subset Ω
 - E.g. square $\Omega = [0, 2\pi) \times [0, H]$
 - But also any union of **patch domains** $\Omega = \bigcup_p \Omega_p$



*the surface is actually the set $\{M(u; \theta) | u \in \Omega\}$

- Surface: mapping $S(\mathbf{u})$ from $\mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}^3$
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 - E.g. square $\Omega = [0, 2\pi) \times [0, H]$
 - But also any union of **patch domains** $\Omega = \bigcup_p \Omega_p$
- And we'll look at **parameterised** surfaces $S(\mathbf{u}; \Theta)$
 - E.g. Cylinder $S(u, v; R, H) = (R \cos u, R \sin u, Hv)$ with $\Omega = [0, 2\pi) \times [0, 1]$
 - E.g. subdivision surface $S(\mathbf{u}; X)$ where $\Theta = X \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times n}$ is matrix of **control vertices**

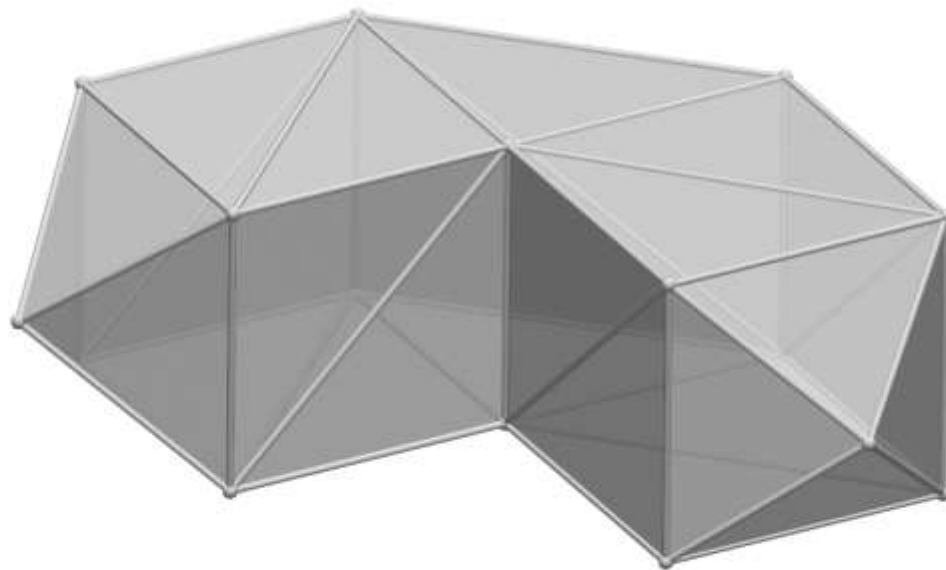


*the surface is actually the set $\{M(u; \Theta) | u \in \Omega\}$

TOOL: SUBDIVISION SURFACES

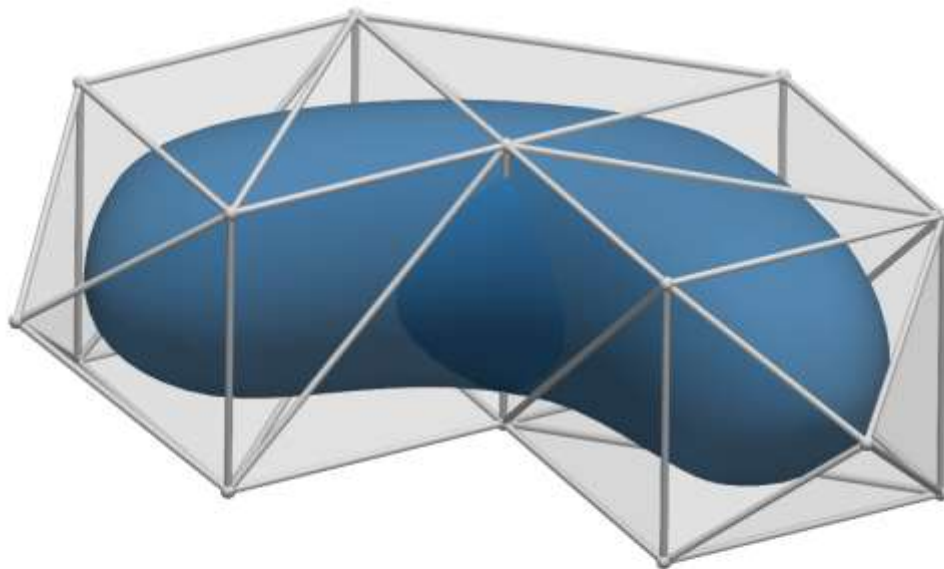
Control mesh vertices $X \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times m}$

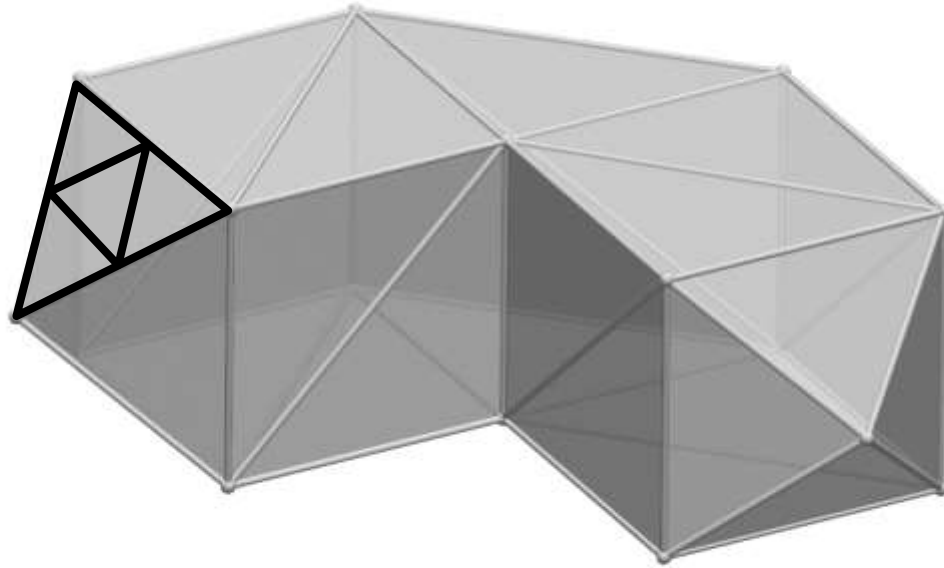
Here $m = 16$



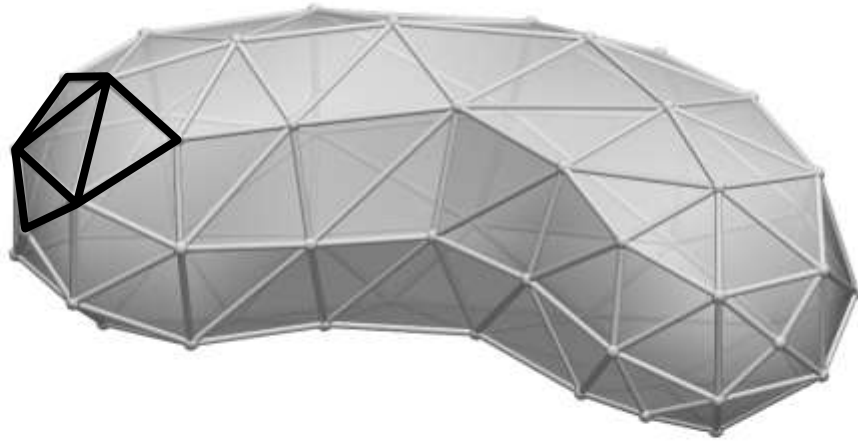
Control mesh vertices $X \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times m}$

Here $m = 16$

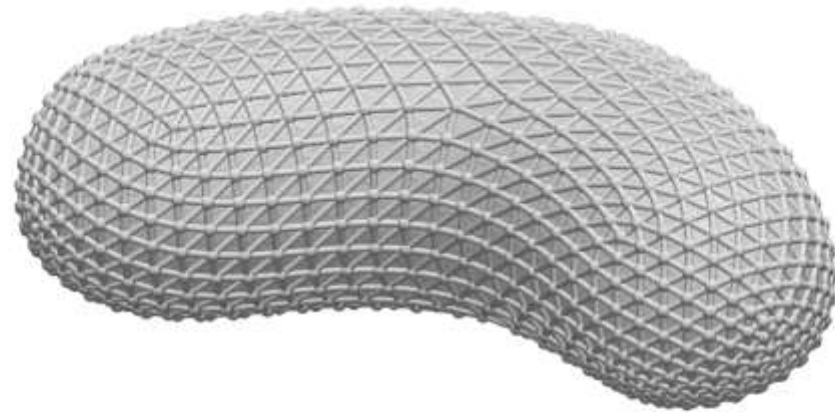




SUBDIV RULE: STEP 1. ADD NEW VERTICES





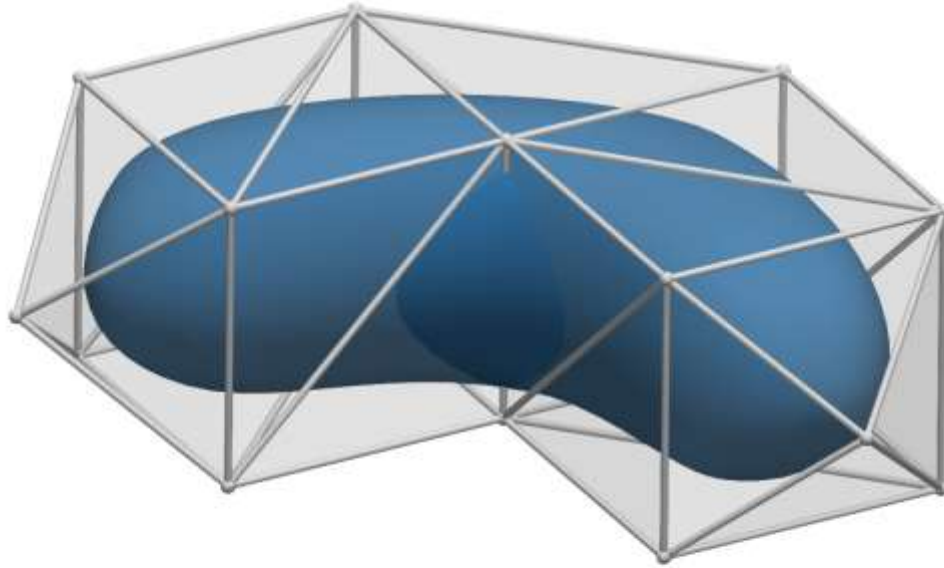


Control mesh vertices $V \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times m}$

Here $m = 16$

Blue surface is $\{M(\mathbf{u}; V) \mid \mathbf{u} \in \Omega\}$

Ω is the grey surface

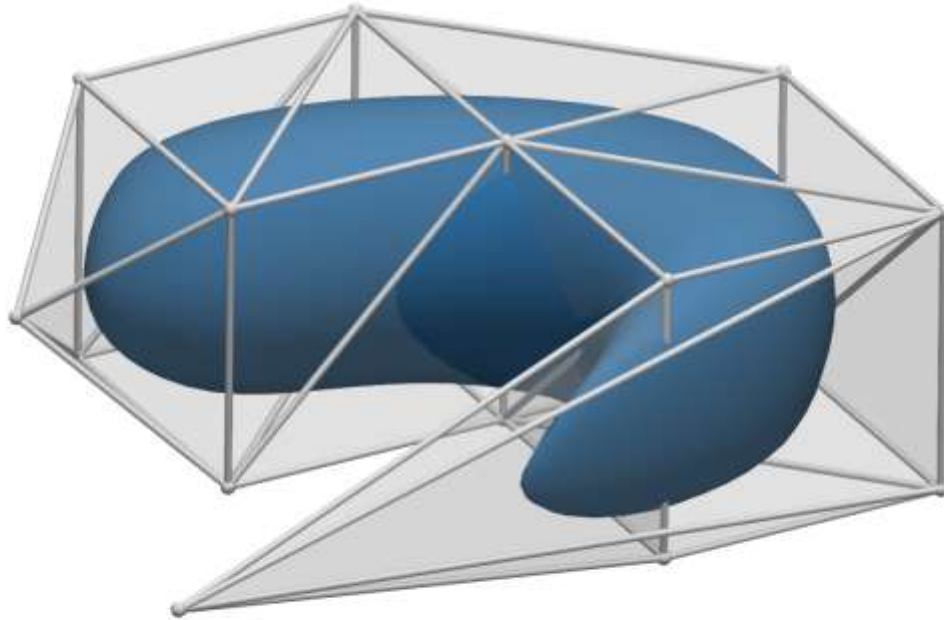


Control mesh vertices $V \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times n}$

Here $n = 16$

Blue surface is $\{M(\mathbf{u}; V) \mid \mathbf{u} \in \Omega\}$

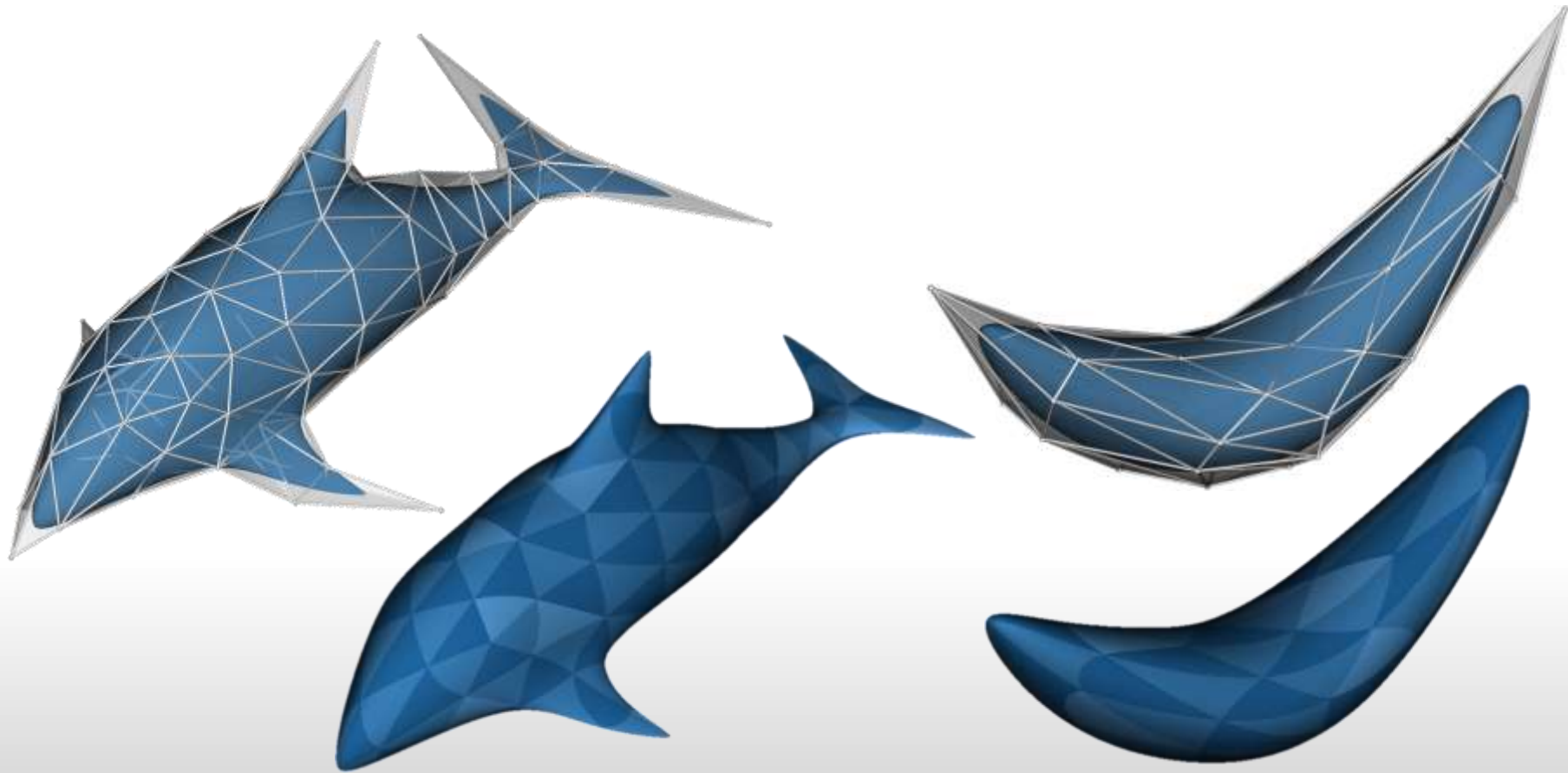
Ω is the grey surface



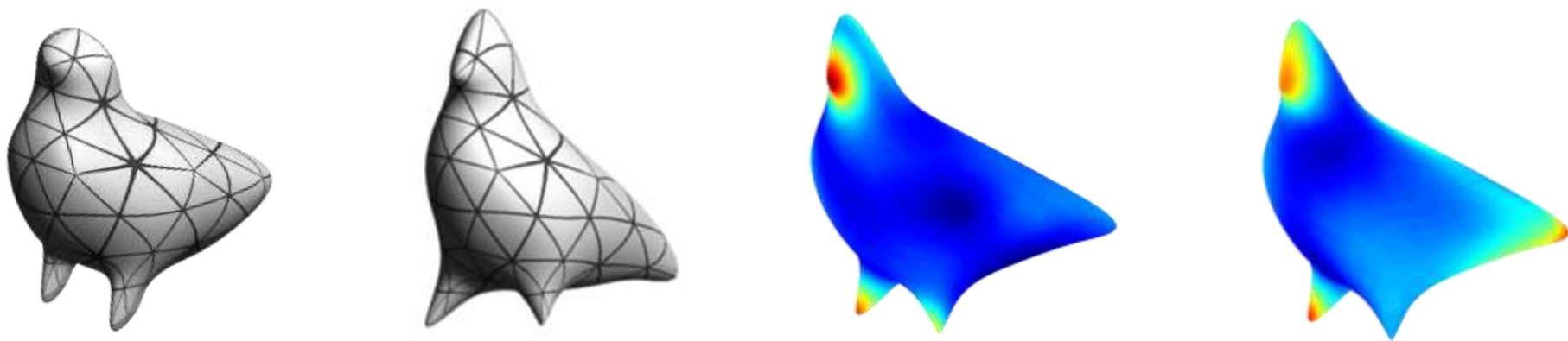
- Mostly, M is quite simple:

$$M(\mathbf{u}; X) = M(t, u, v; \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) = \sum_{\substack{i+j \leq 4 \\ k=1..n}} A_{ijk}^t u^i v^j \mathbf{x}_k$$

- Integer triangle id t
- Quartic in u, v
- Linear in X
- Easy derivatives
- But...
 - 2nd Derivatives unbounded although normals well defined
 - Piecewise parameter domain



BACK TO DOLPHINS



$$X_i = \mathcal{B}_0 + \alpha_{i1} \mathcal{B}_1 + \alpha_{i2} \mathcal{B}_2$$

$$X_n = \sum_{k=0}^K \alpha_{ik} \mathcal{B}_k$$

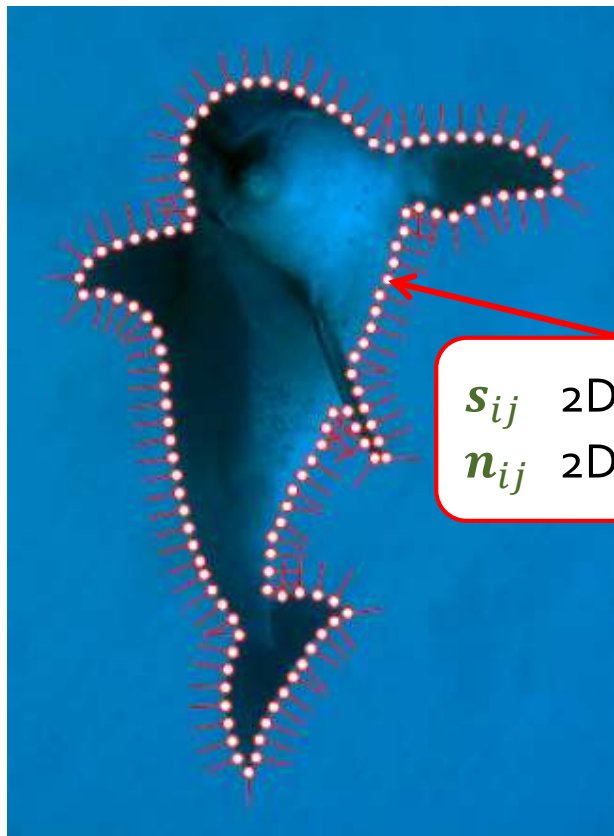
Linear blend shapes:
Image i represented by coefficient
vector $\alpha_i = [\alpha_{i1}, \dots, \alpha_{iK}]$



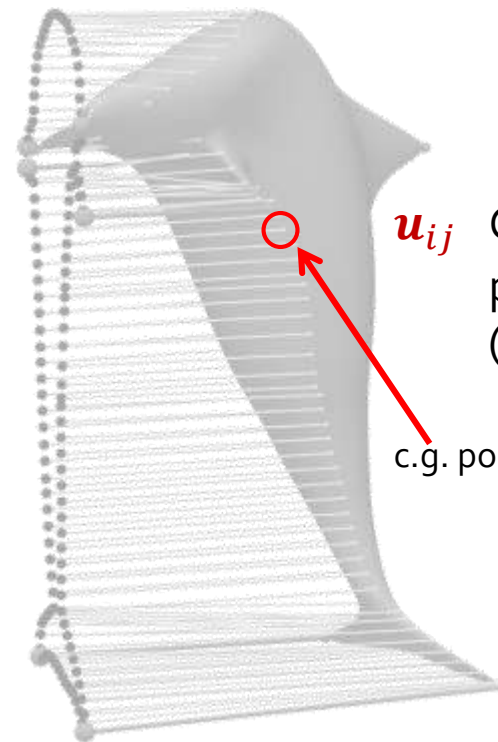




Image i



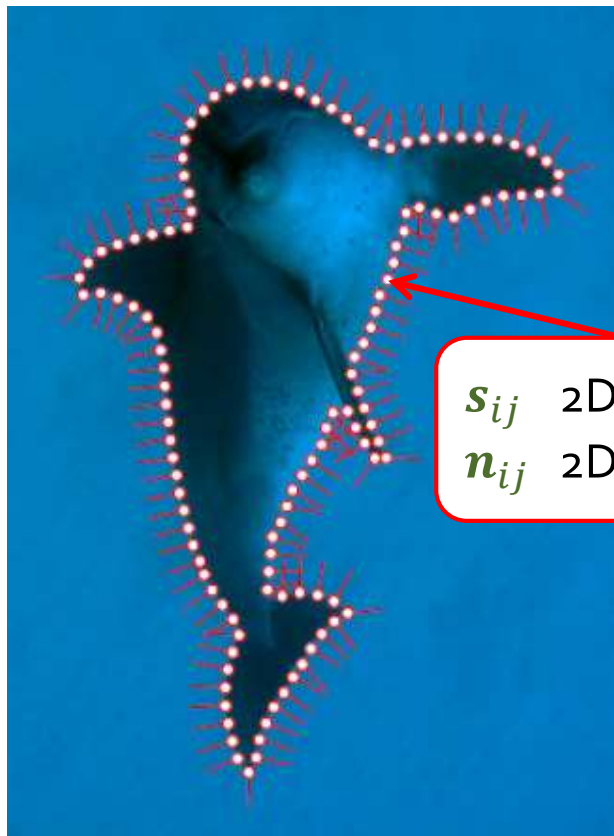
s_{ij} 2D point
 n_{ij} 2D normal



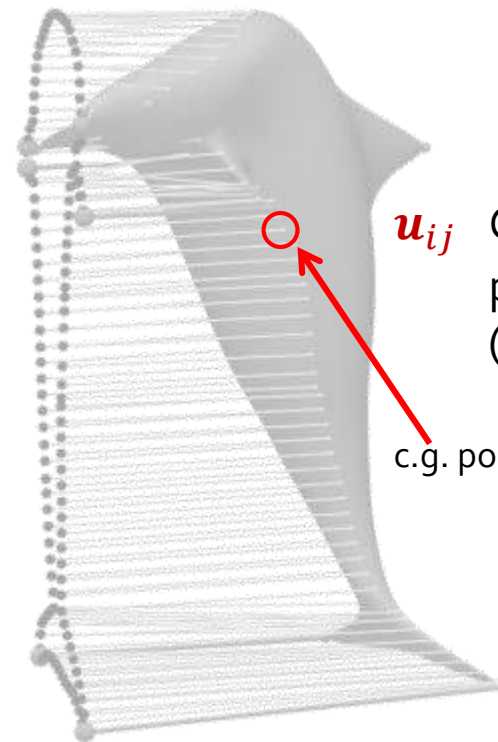
u_{ij} Contour generator
preimage in Ω
(unknown)

c.g. point in 3D is $M(u_{ij}; X_i)$

Image i



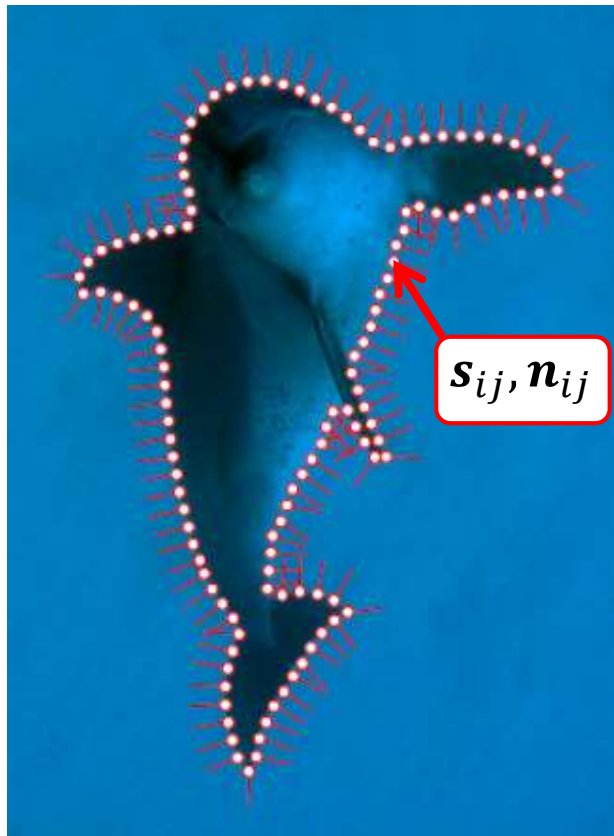
s_{ij} 2D point
 n_{ij} 2D normal



u_{ij} Contour generator
preimage in Ω
(unknown)

c.g. point in 3D is $M(u_{ij}; X_i)$

Image i



Projection
e.g. Perspective

Camera
position

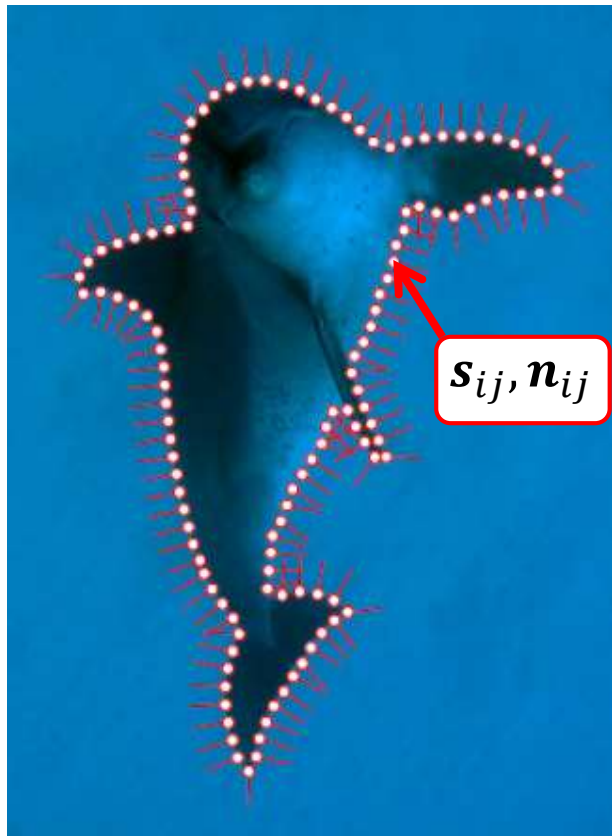
Silhouette:

$$E_i^{sil} = \sum_{j=1}^{S_i} \left\| s_{ij} - \pi \left(\theta_i, M(u_{ij}, \mathbf{X}_i) \right) \right\|^2$$

Normal:

$$E_i^{sil} = \sum_{j=1}^{S_i} \left\| \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{n}_{ij} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - R(\theta_i) N(u_{ij}, \mathbf{X}_i) \right\|^2$$

Image i



Linear Blend Shapes (PCA) Model:

$$\mathbf{X}_i = \sum_k \alpha_{ik} \mathbf{B}_k$$

Silhouette:

$$E_i^{sil} = \sum_{j=1}^{S_i} \left\| \mathbf{s}_{ij} - \pi \left(\theta_i, M(u_{ij}, \mathbf{X}_i) \right) \right\|^2$$

Normal:

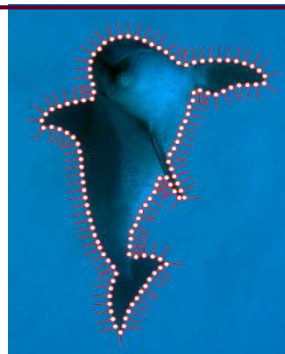
$$E_i^{sil} = \sum_{j=1}^{S_i} \left\| \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{n}_{ij} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - R(\theta_i) N(u_{ij}, \mathbf{X}_i) \right\|^2$$

Data fidelity
terms

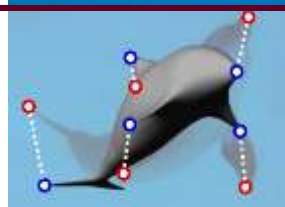
$p(I|X_i; U)$

$$E_i^{\text{sil}} = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{\text{sil}}^{-2} \sum_{j=1}^{S_i} \|s_{ij} - \pi_i(M(\dot{u}_{ij}|X_i))\|^2$$

$$E_i^{\text{norm}} = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{\text{norm}}^{-2} \sum_{j=1}^{S_i} \left\| \begin{bmatrix} n_{ij} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - \nu(R_i N(\dot{u}_{ij}|X_i)) \right\|^2$$



$$E_i^{\text{con}} = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{\text{con}}^{-2} \sum_{k=1}^{K_i} \|c_{ik} - \pi_i(M(\dot{\mu}_{ik}|X_i))\|^2$$



Smooth Basis
 $p(\Theta)$

$$E_m^{\text{tp}} = \frac{\bar{\lambda}^2}{2} \int_{\Omega} \|M_{xx}(\dot{u}|B_m)\|^2 + 2 \|M_{xy}(\dot{u}|B_m)\|^2 + \|M_{yy}(\dot{u}|B_m)\|^2 \, d\dot{u}$$

Gaussian shape
weights

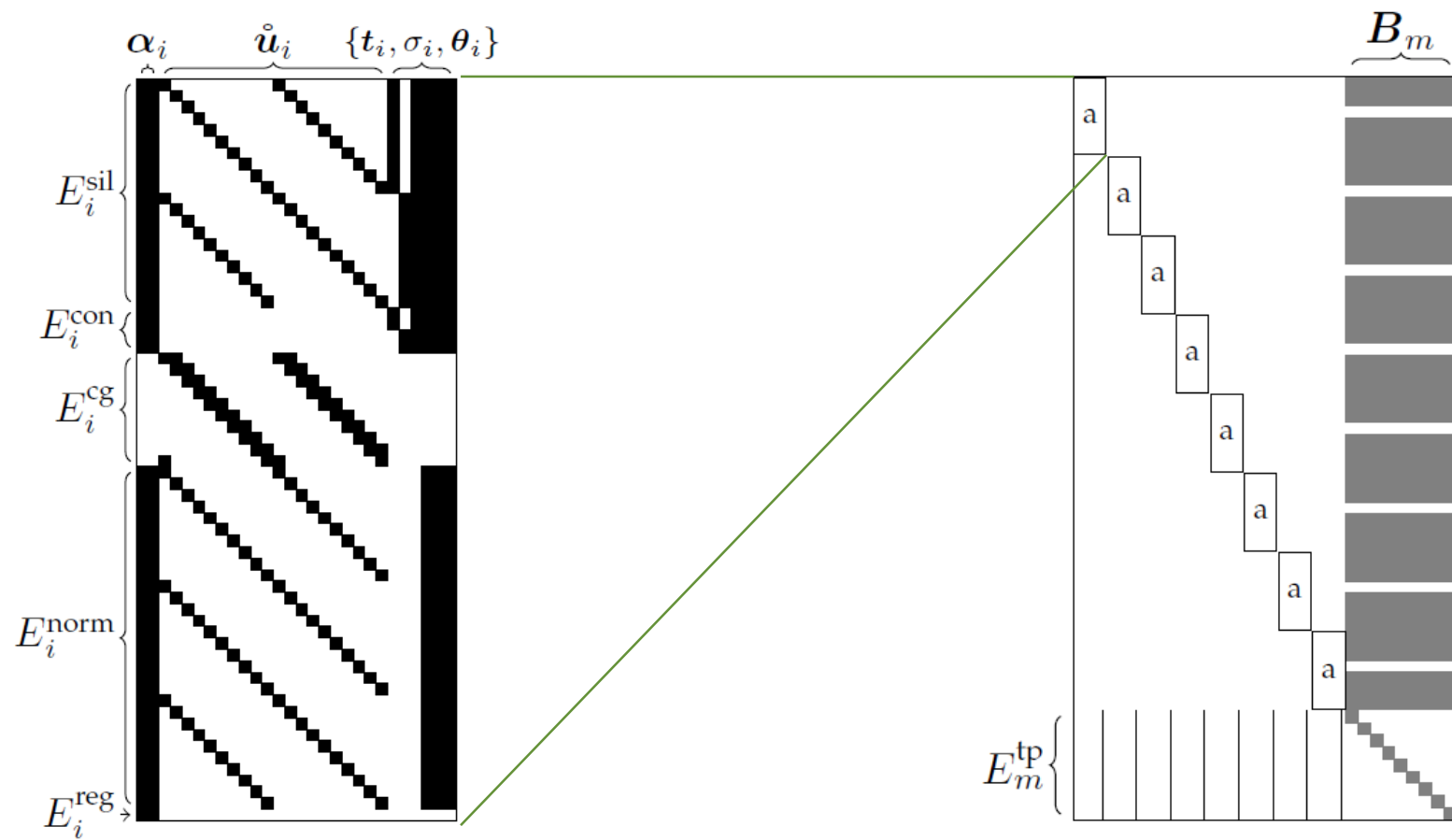
$$E_i^{\text{reg}} = \beta \sum_{m=1}^D \alpha_{im}^2$$

$$X_i = \sum_{m=0}^D \alpha_{im} B_m$$

Smooth
contour

$$E_i^{\text{cg}} = \gamma \sum_{j=1}^{S_i} \tau(d(\dot{u}_{ij}, \dot{u}_{i,j+1}))$$

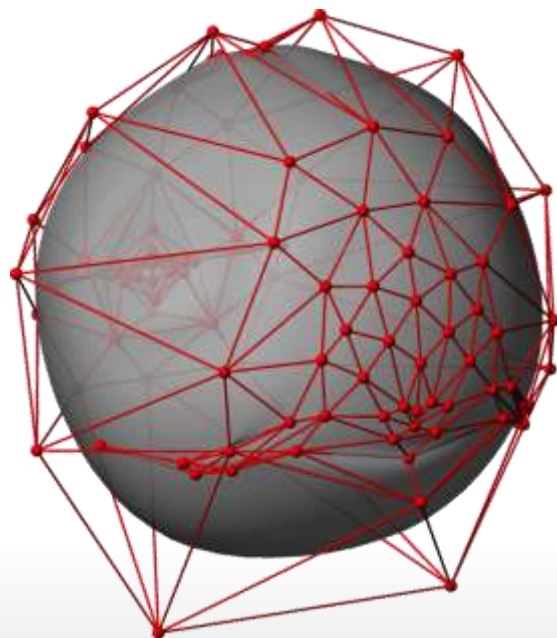




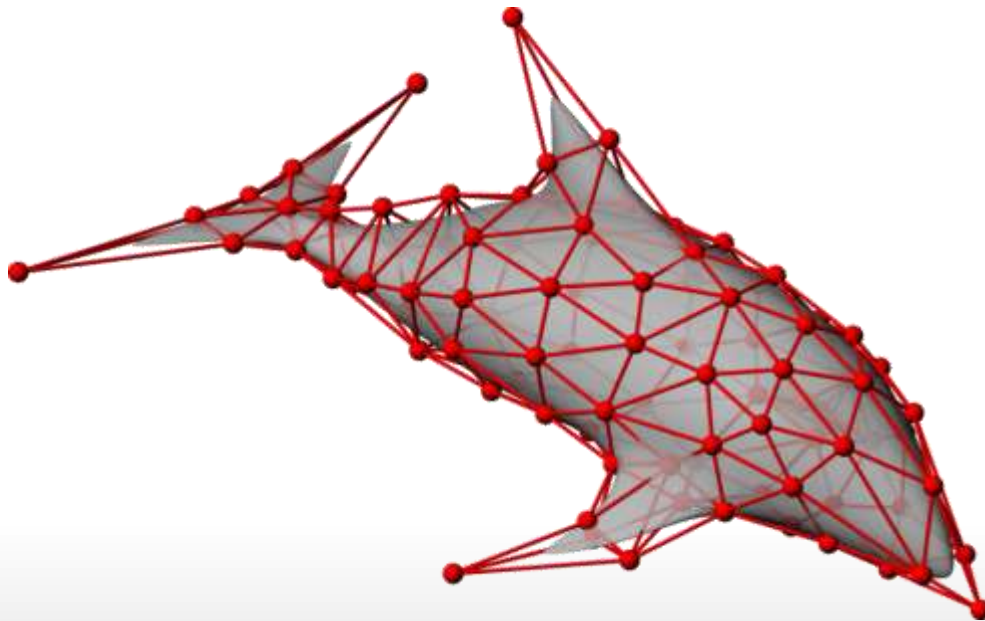
$$E_i^{\text{sil}} = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_{\text{sil}}^{-2} \sum_{j=1}^{S_i} \|s_{ij} - \pi_i(M(u_{ij} | X_i))\|^2$$

$\sum \alpha_{ik} B_k$

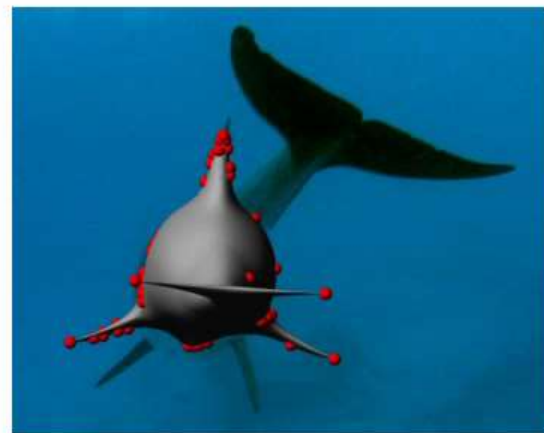
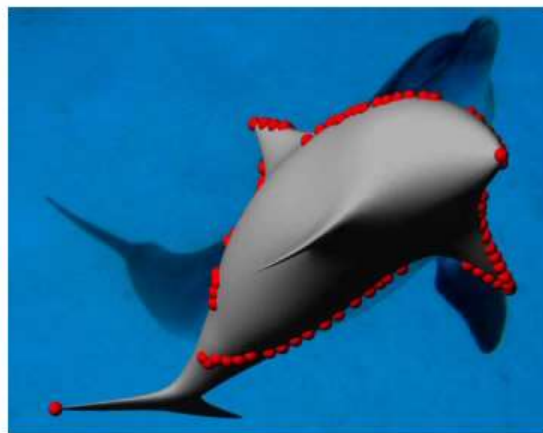
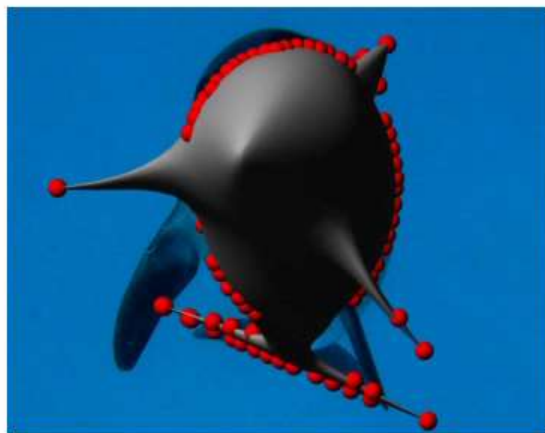
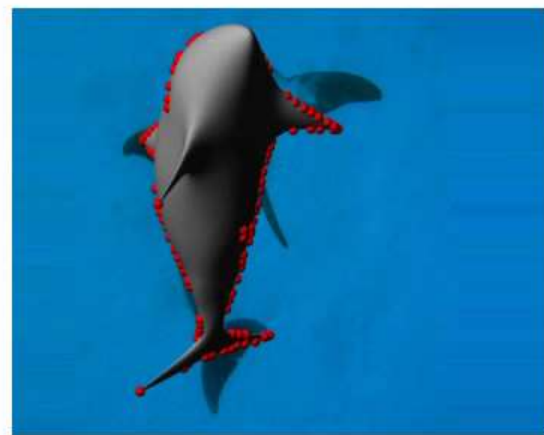
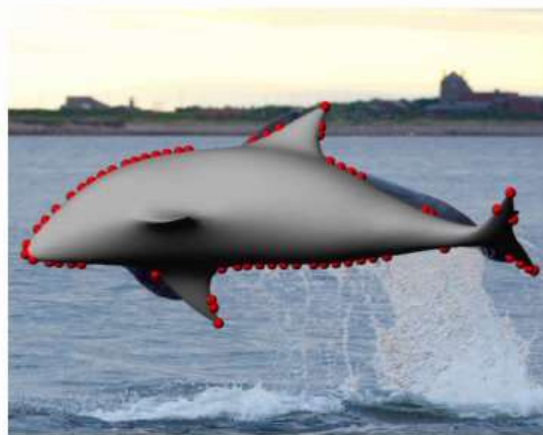
- Can focus on this term to understand entire optimization.
 - Total number of residuals n = number of silhouette points.
Say $300N$ (N = number of images) $\approx 10,000$
 - Total number of unknowns $2n + KN + m$ where
 $m \approx 3K \times \text{number of vertices} \approx 3,000$

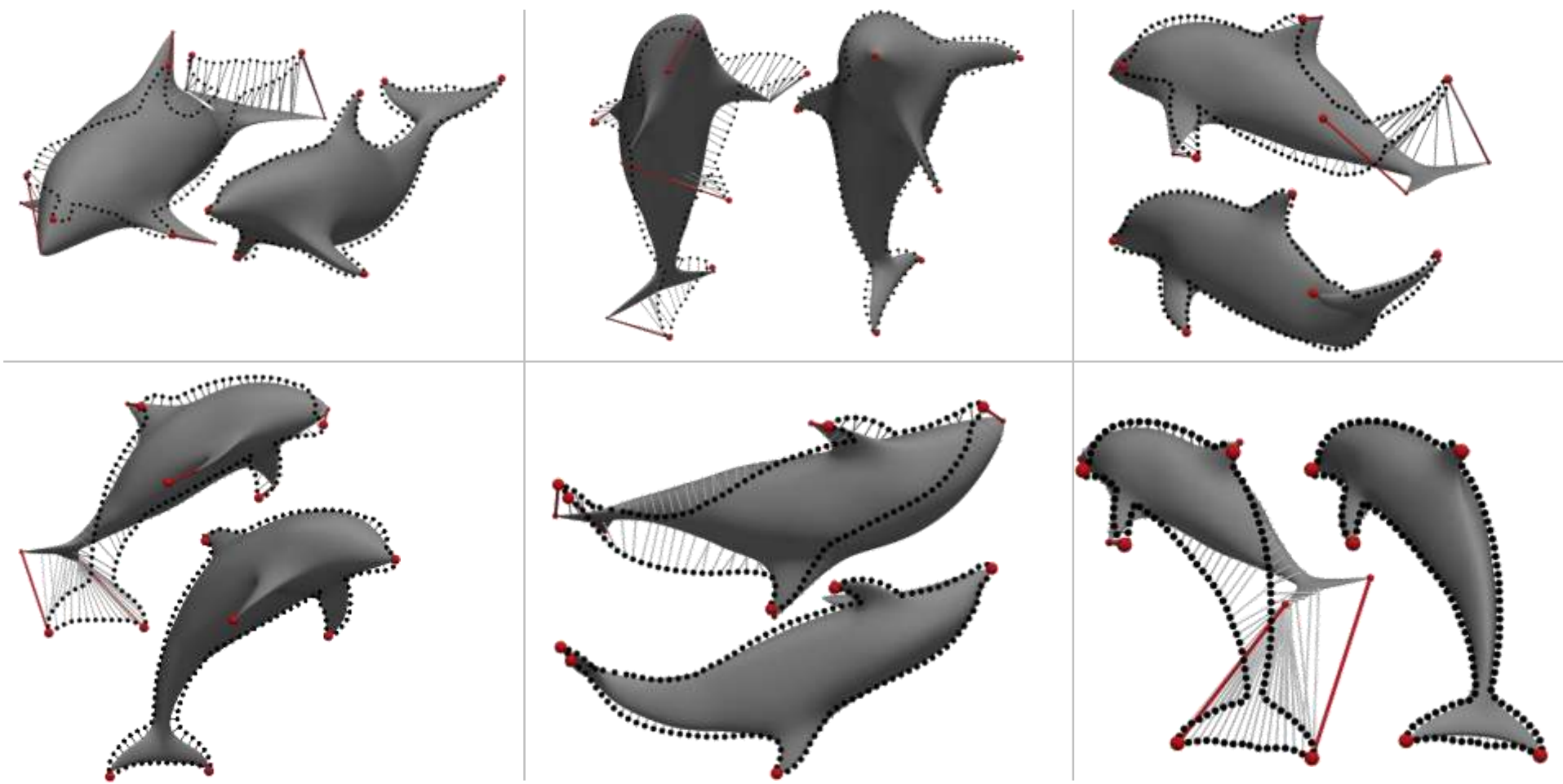


This is true, but misleading

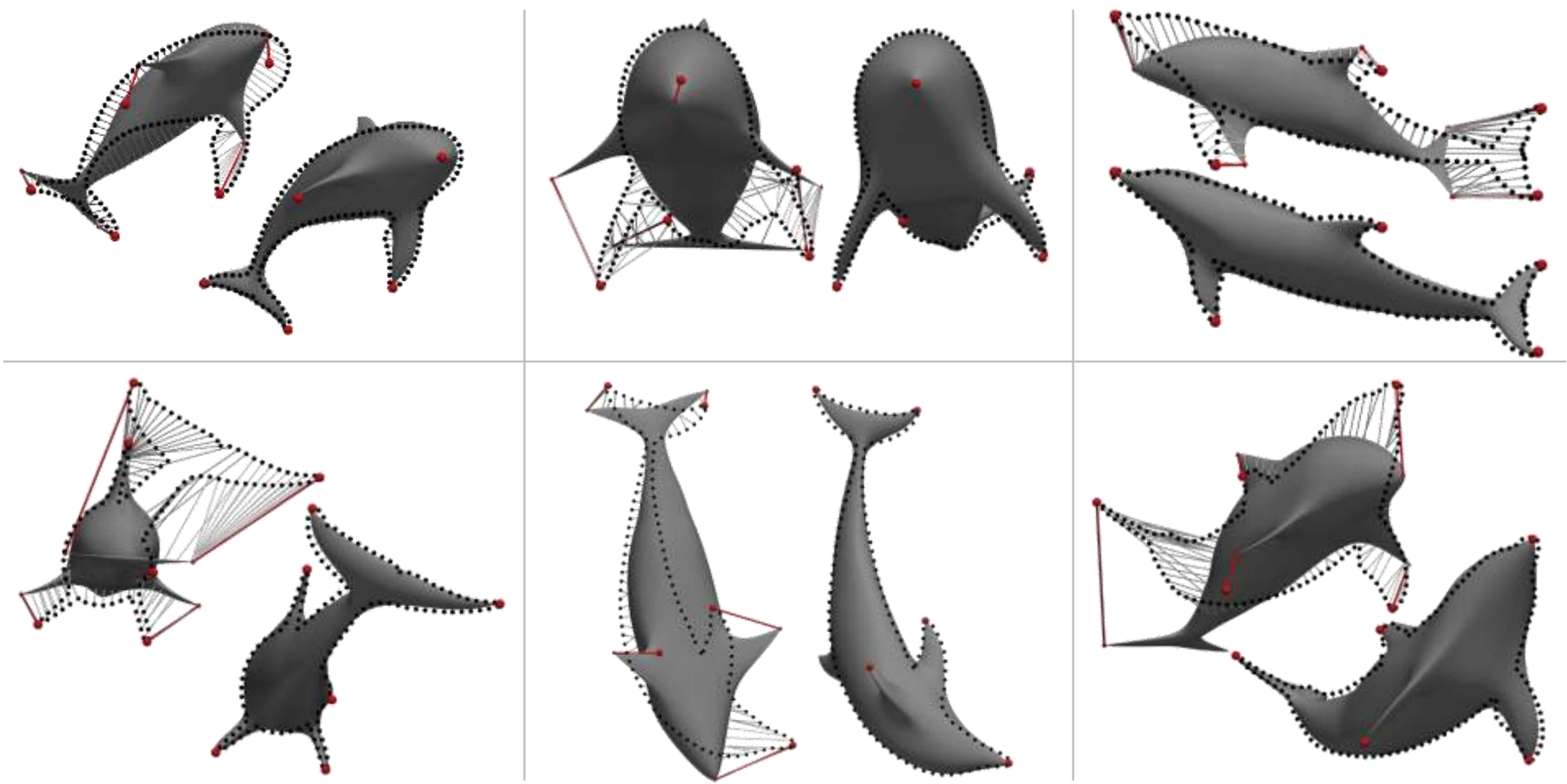


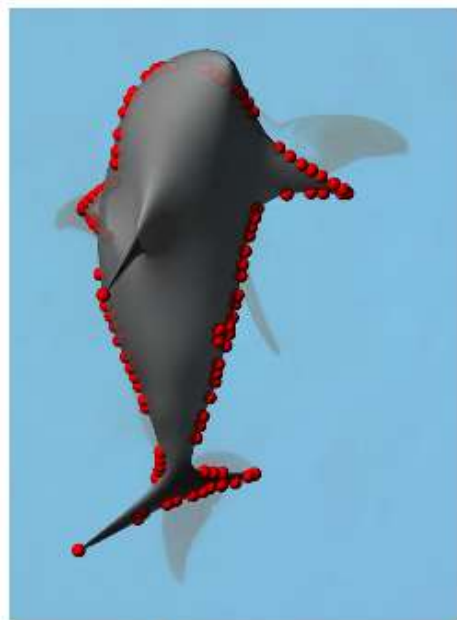
True initial estimate: only the *topology* is really important.
But the easiest way to get the topology is to build a rough template.





EXAMPLE RESULTS

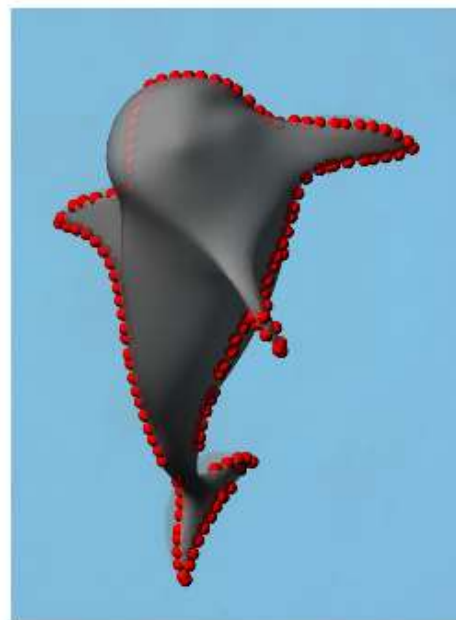




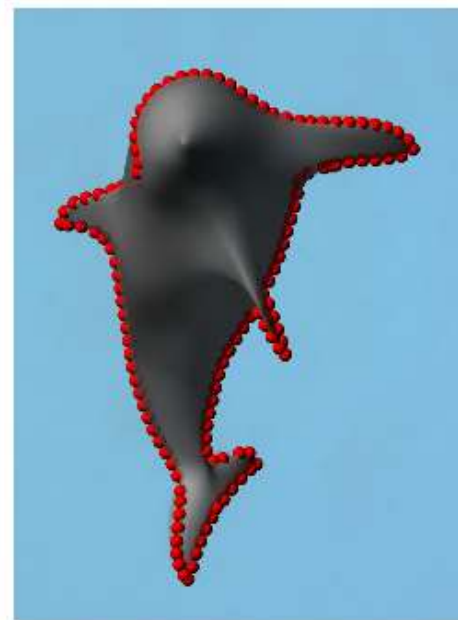
(a) Initial estimate.



(b) Only continuous local optimization, as described in Sec. 4.1.



(c) As (b), but including iterations of our global search (Sec. 4.2).



(d) As (c), but with reparametrization around extraordinary vertices.



8



16



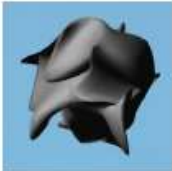
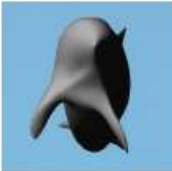
















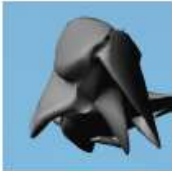
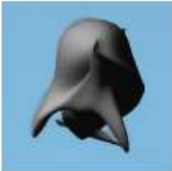







32

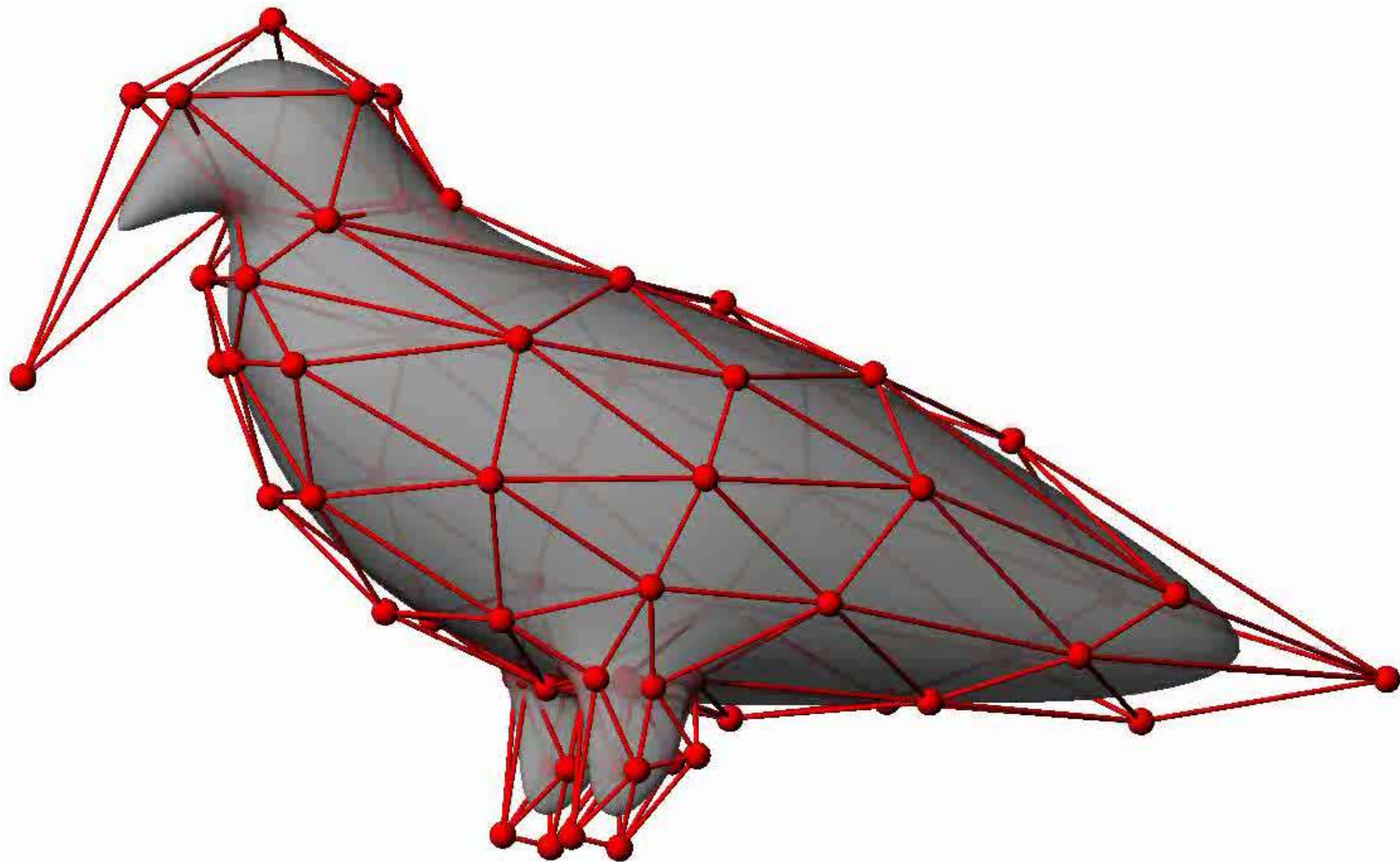
“Pixel” terms: noise level params

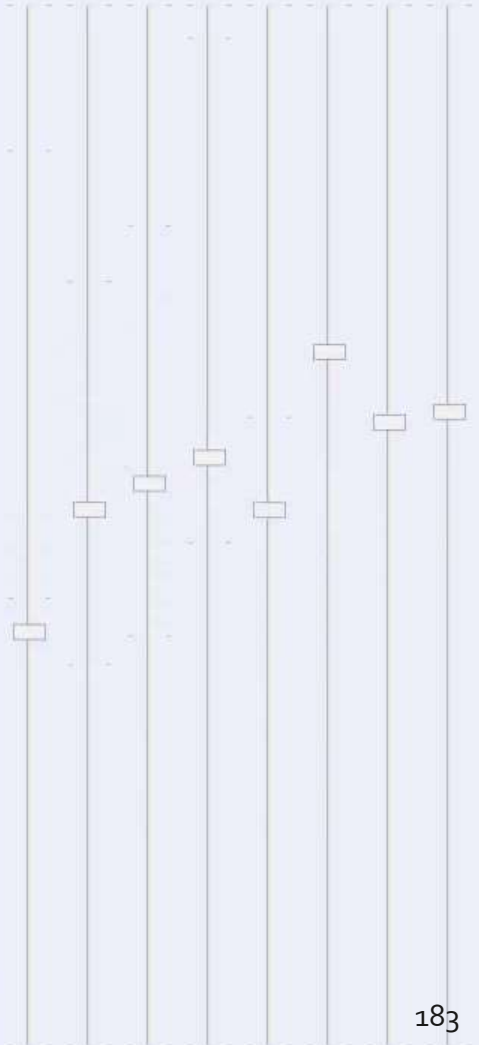
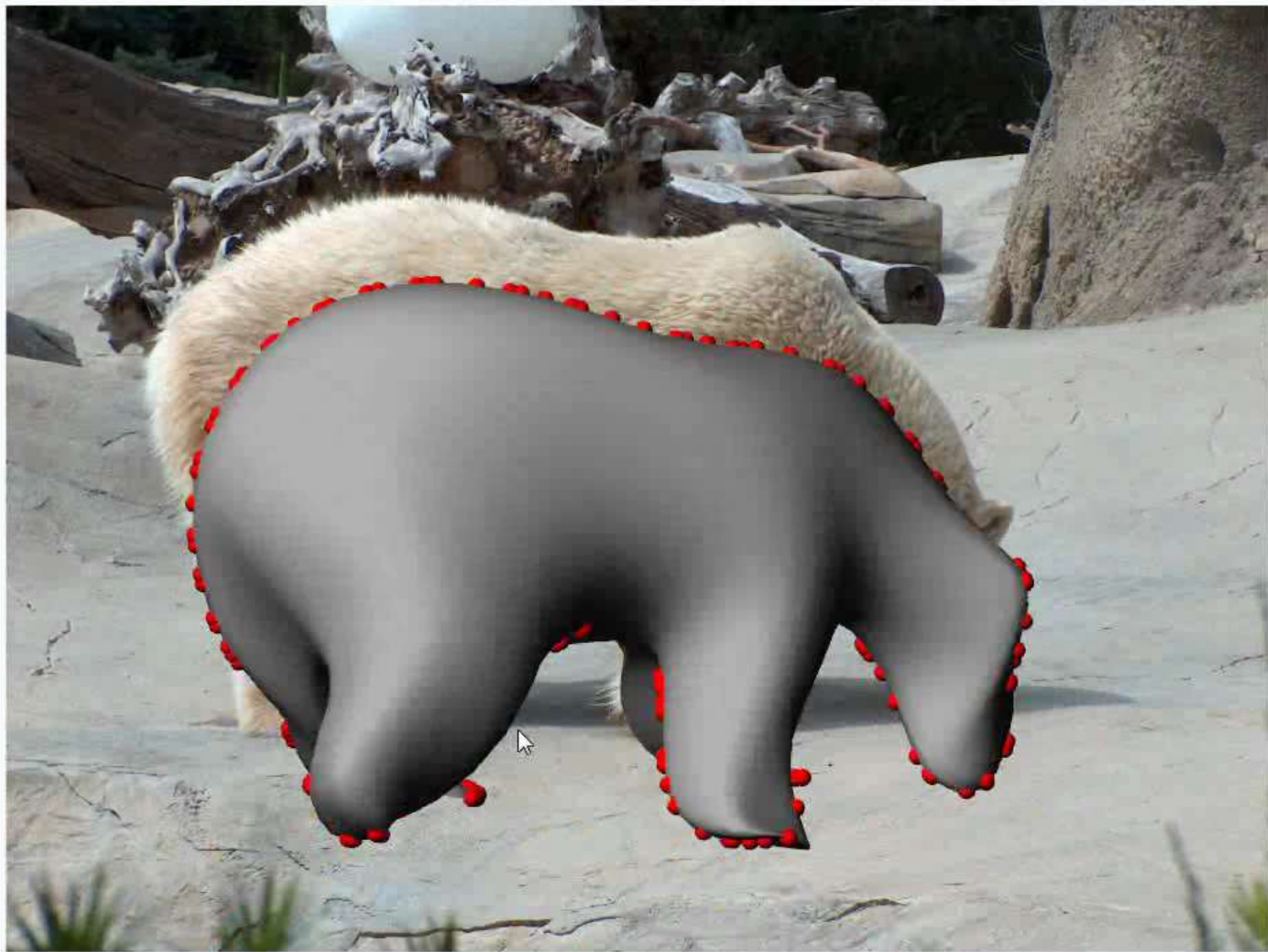
“Dimensionless” terms

“Smoothness” terms

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^n (E_i^{\text{sil}} + E_i^{\text{norm}} + E_i^{\text{con}}) + \sum_{i=1}^n (E_i^{\text{cg}} + E_i^{\text{reg}}) + \xi_0^2 E_0^{\text{tp}} + \xi_{\text{def}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n E_m^{\text{tp}}$$

ξ_0 \ ξ_{def}	ξ_0			ξ_{def}			ξ_{def}		
	0.05	0.25	0.5	0.05	0.25	0.5	0.05	0.25	0.5
0.05									
0.25									
0.5									







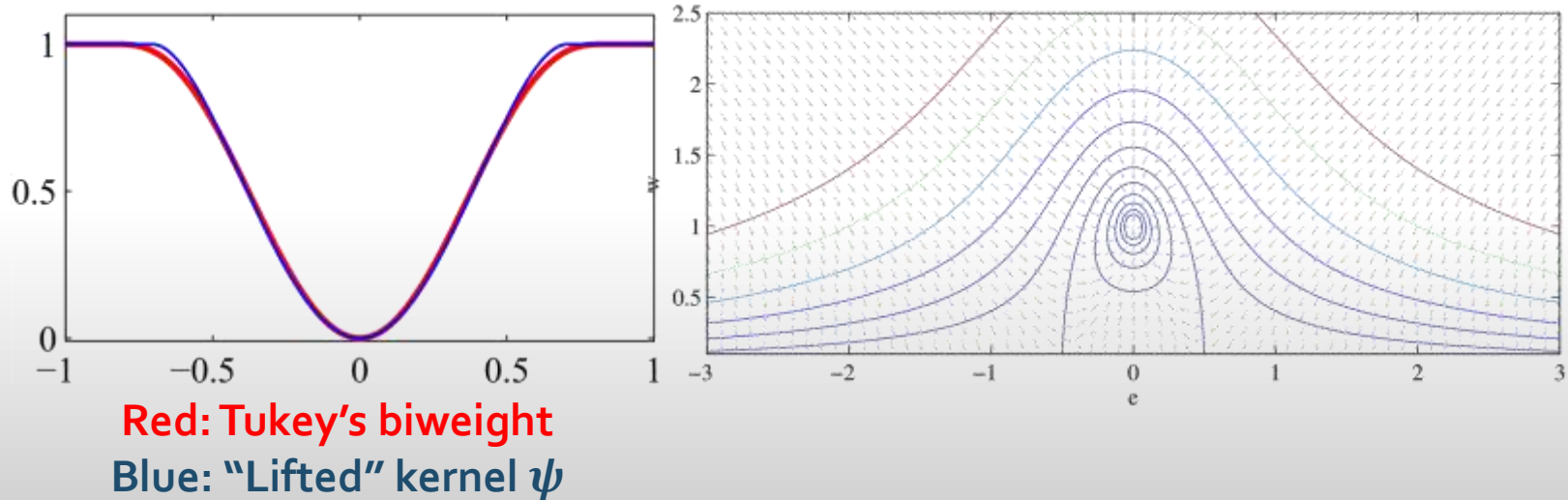
$$\psi(x) = \min_w w^2 x^2 + (1 - w^2)^2 = f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{r^2}{2} \left(2 - \frac{r^2}{2} \right), & x < 0 \\ 1, & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\psi(x) = \min_w \phi(x, w)$$

[Zöllhofer et al '14]

$$\phi(x, w) = w^2 x^2 + (1 - w^2)^2$$

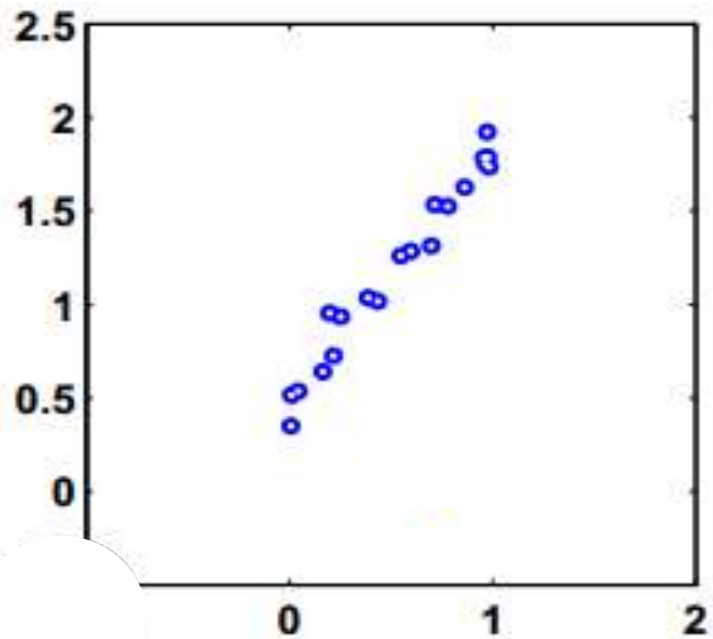
[Li, Sumner, Pauly '08]



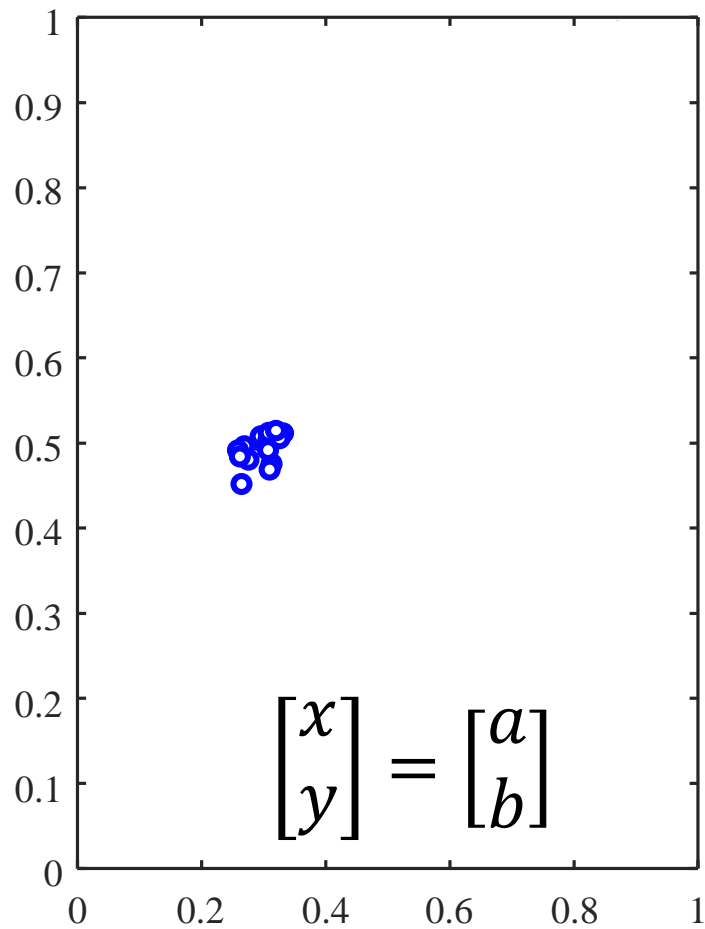
CONVERGES FASTER, FROM FARTHER AWAY

Robust estimation

[BLACK AND RANGARANJAN, CVPR 91] – NEARLY
[LI, PAULY, SUMNER, SIGGRAPH 08] – NEARLY
[ZOLLHÖFER, SIGGRAPH 14] — BASICALLY
[ZACH, ECCV 14] — DEFINITELY

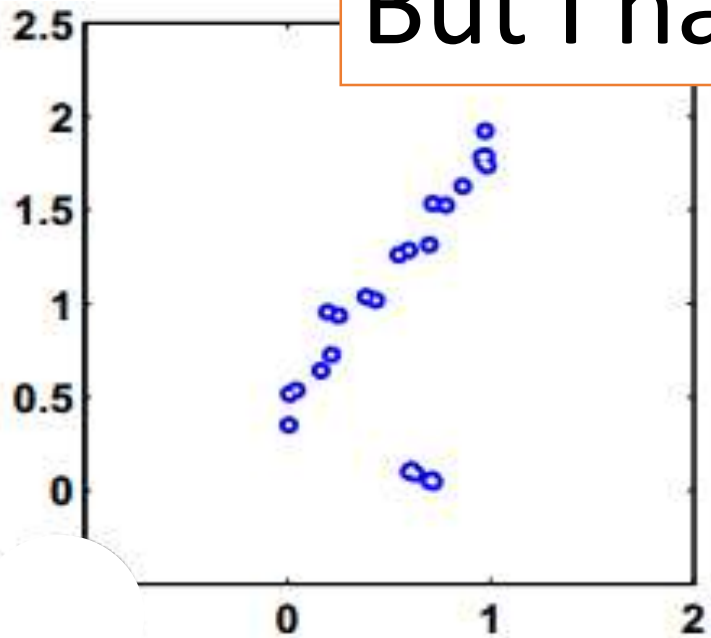


$$y = ax + b$$

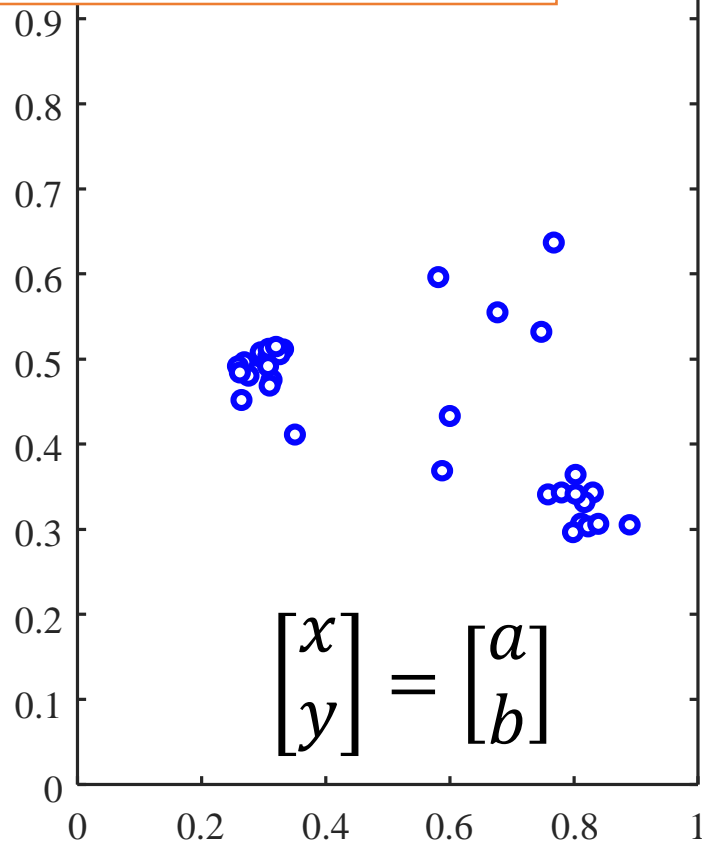


$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

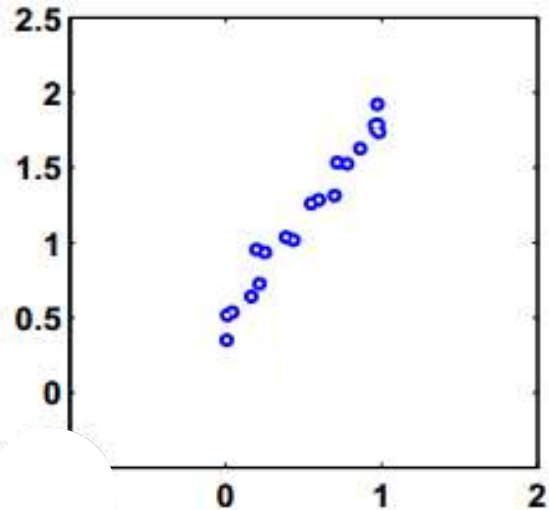
But I have “outliers” ☹️



$$y = ax + b$$



$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

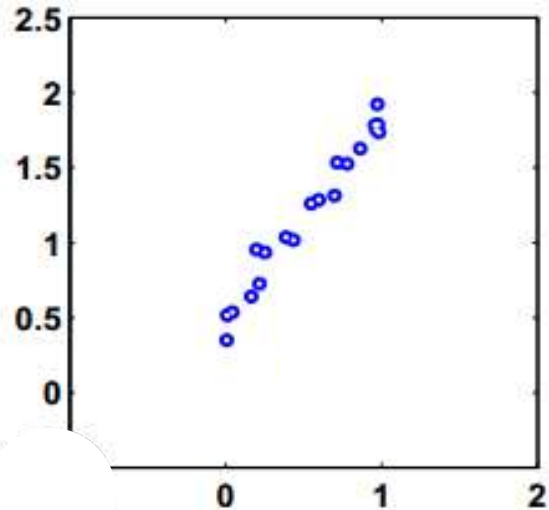


How do I fit a line to data samples $\mathbf{s}_i = (x_i, y_i)$?

For this example, let us suppose true inlier model is
 $y = a_1x + a_2 + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma)$

Alg. 1: $\mathbf{a} = [\mathbf{x} \text{ ones}(\mathbf{x})] \backslash \mathbf{y}$

Alg. 2: $\mathbf{a} = \underset{\mathbf{a}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_i (y_i - a_1x_i - a_2)^2$



How do I fit a line to data samples $\mathbf{s}_i = (x_i, y_i)$?

For this example, let us suppose true inlier model is
 $y = a_1x + a_2 + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma)$

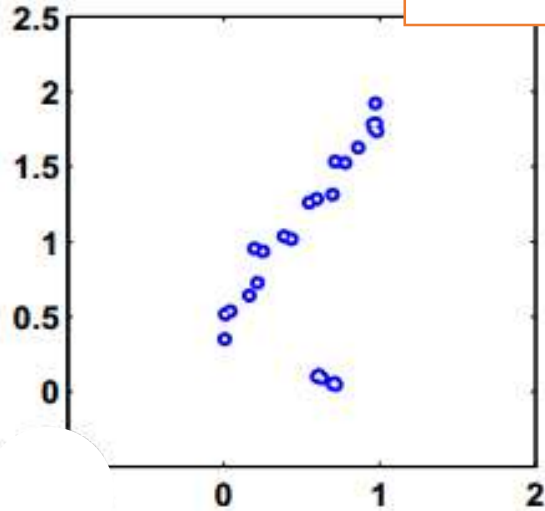
Alg. 1: $\mathbf{a} = [\mathbf{x} \text{ ones}(\mathbf{x})] \backslash \mathbf{y}$

Alg. 2: $\mathbf{a} = \underset{\mathbf{a}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_i (y_i - a_1x_i - a_2)^2$

```
>> a = lsqnonlin(@(a) y - a(1)*x - a(2), [1 1]);
```

Works really well because objective is sum-of-squares

But I have “outliers” 😞

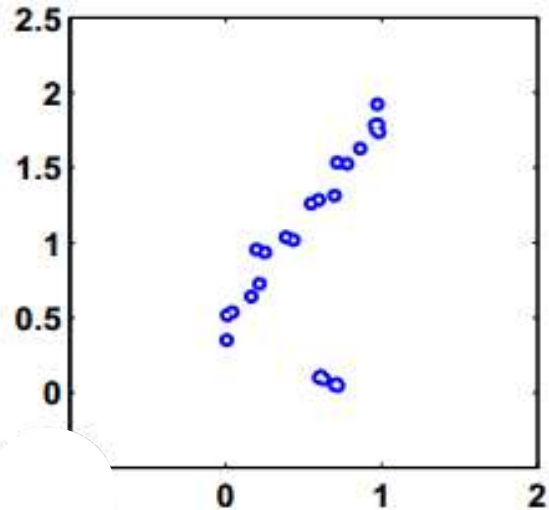


How do I fit a line to data samples $s_i = (x_i, y_i)$?

For this example, let us suppose true inlier model is
 $y = ax + b + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma)$

Alg. 1: ~~$a = [x \text{ ones}(x)] \backslash y$~~

Alg. 2: $a = ?$



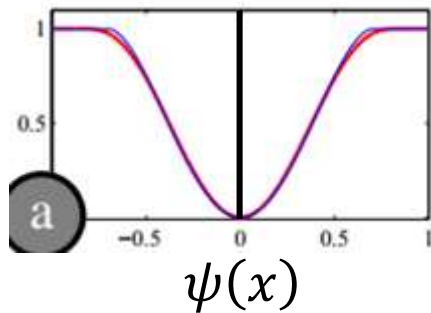
How do I fit a line to data samples $\mathbf{s}_i = (x_i, y_i)$?

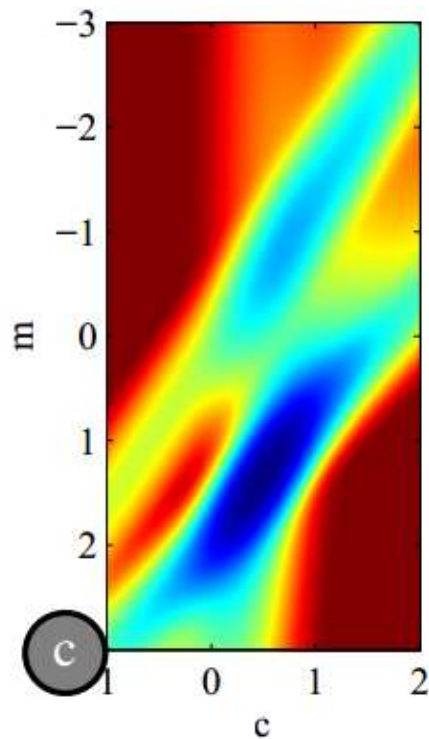
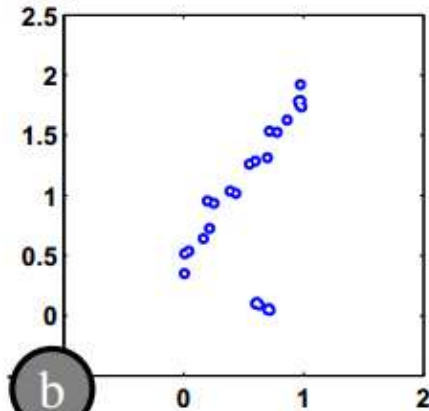
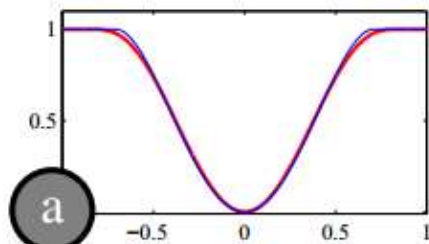
For this example, let us suppose true inlier model is $y = ax + b + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma)$

Alg. 1: $\mathbf{a} = [\mathbf{x} \text{ ones}(\mathbf{x})] \backslash \mathbf{y}$

Alg. 2: $\mathbf{a} = \underset{\mathbf{a}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_i \psi(y_i - a_1 x_i - a_2)$

```
>> a = fminunc(@(a) sum(psi(y - a(1)*x - a(2))), [1
1]);
```





$$\min_a \sum_i \psi(y_i - a_1 x_i - a_2)$$

Global minimum in a good place

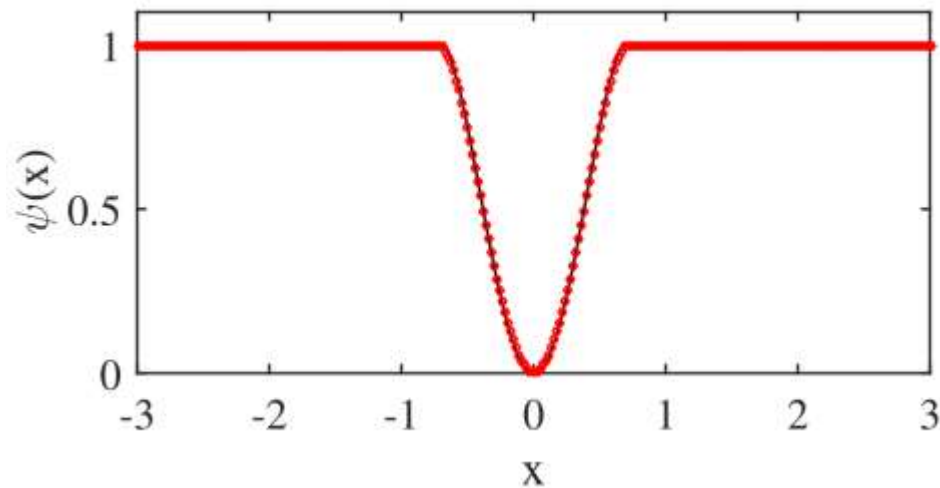
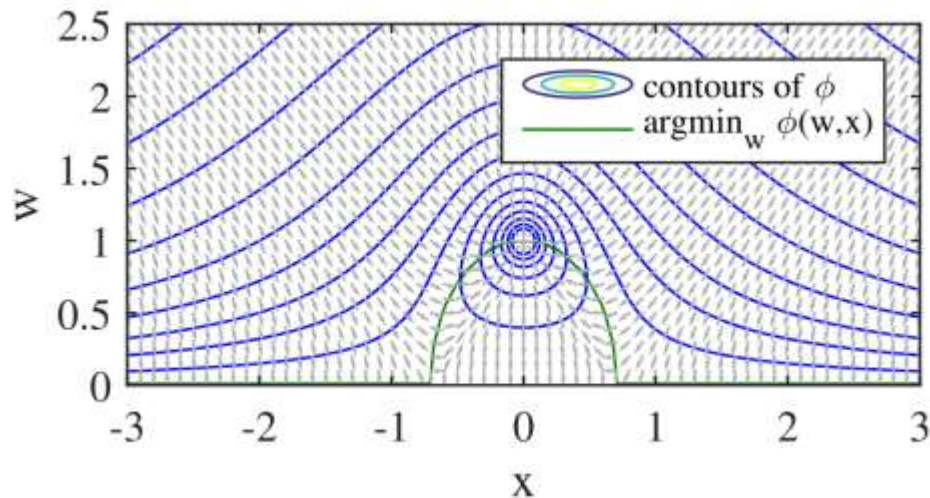
But hard to optimize:

- Multiple optima
- Huge flat spots

Robust kernels can be expressed as minimization over “outlier process” variables [e.g. Geman & Reynolds '92, Black & Rangarajan '95]

$$\phi(x, w) = w^2 x^2 + (1 - w^2)^2$$

$$\psi(x) = \min_w \phi(x, w)$$



Data residual for i^{th} data point:

$$f_i(\mathbf{a}) = y_i - a_1 x_i - a_2$$

“Lifted” robust kernel:

$$\phi(x, w) = w^2 x^2 + (1 - w^2)^2$$

Gives kernel:

$$\psi(x) = \min_w \phi(x, w)$$

And original nasty problem:

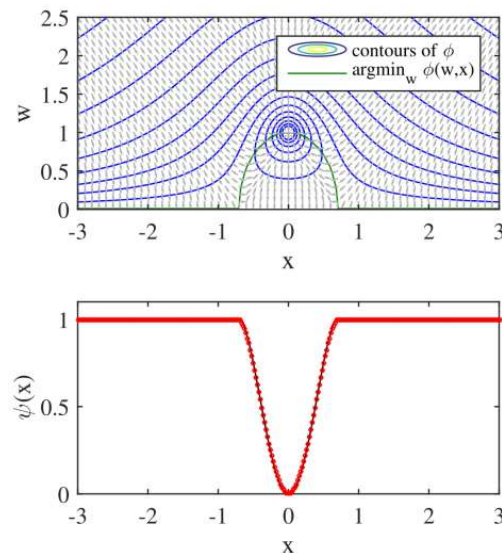
$$\min_{\mathbf{a}} \sum_i \psi(f_i(\mathbf{a}))$$

Becomes: $\min_{\mathbf{a}} \sum_i \min_w w^2 f_i^2(\mathbf{a}) + (1 - w^2)^2$

$$\min_{\mathbf{a}} \sum_i \min_{w_i} w_i^2 f_i^2(\mathbf{a}) + (1 - w_i^2)^2$$

$$\min_{\mathbf{a}} \min_{w_i} \sum_i w_i^2 f_i^2(\mathbf{a}) + (1 - w_i^2)^2$$

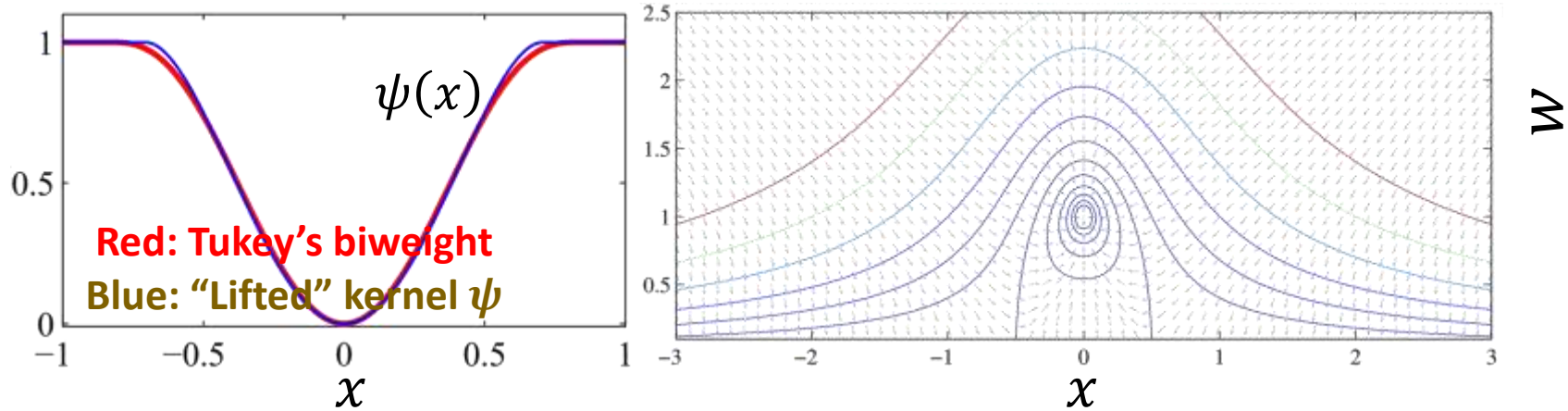
Which is in the Gauss-Newton form...



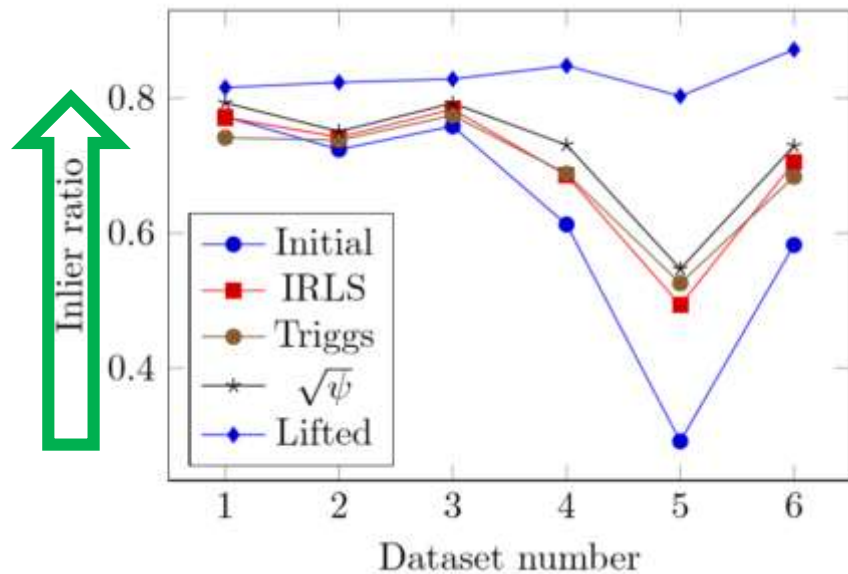
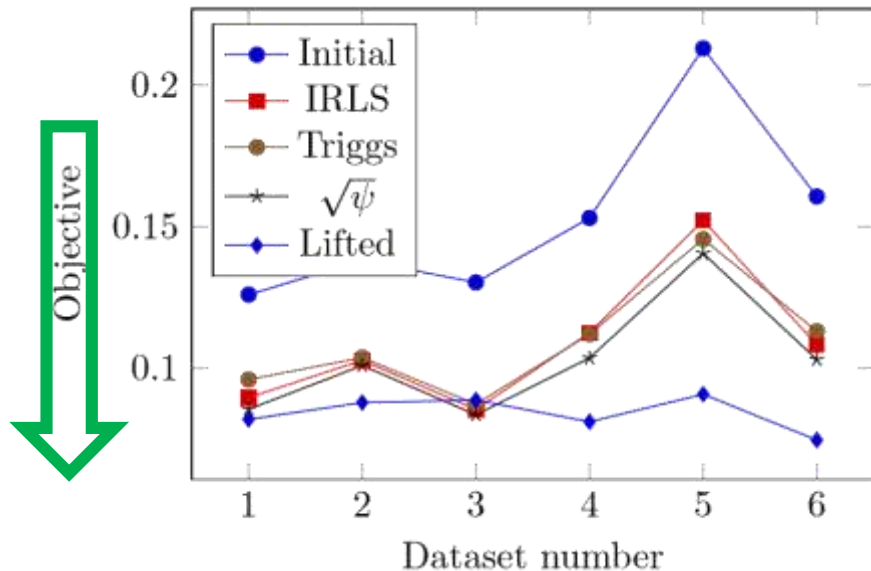
$$\psi(x) = \min_w w^2 x^2 + (1 - w^2)^2 = f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{r^2}{2} \left(2 - \frac{r^2}{2} \right), & x < 0 \\ 1, & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\psi(x) = \min_w \phi(x, w) \quad [\text{Zöllhofer et al '14}]$$

$$\phi(x, w) = w^2 x^2 + (1 - w^2)^2 \quad [\text{Li, Sumner, Pauly '08}]$$



3D reconstruction datasets: up to 10^6 parameters, 10^6 measurements



Before [Zach '14], no-one used the Gauss-Newton structure, so never beat IRLS (iterated reweighted least squares), with its ICP-like convergence.

Robust kernels can be expressed as minimization over “outlier process” variables [e.g. Geman & Reynolds '92, Black & Rangarajan '95]

Residual r_i passes through robust kernel $\psi(r)$, e.g.

$$\psi(r) = \frac{r^2}{1 + r^2} = \min_s (s^2 r^2 + (1 - s)^2)$$

And

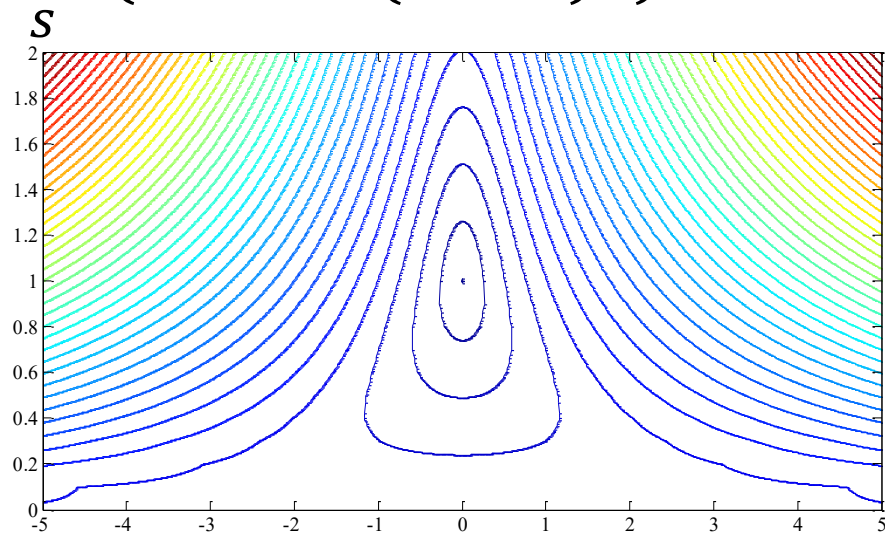
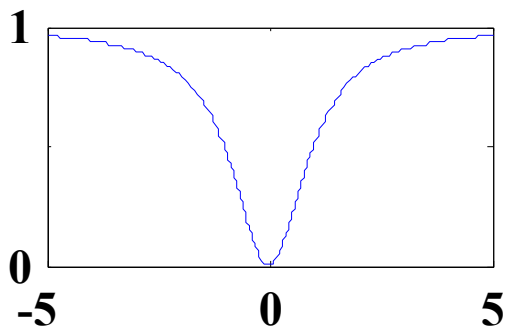
$$\min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^n \psi(r_i(\theta)) \rightarrow \min_{\theta, s_1, \dots, s_n} \sum_{i=1}^n \phi(r_i(\theta), s_i)$$

But until [Zach '14], no-one used Gauss-Newton structure of RHS, so never beat IRLS (iterated reweighted least squares), with its ICP-like convergence.

Robust kernels can be expressed as minimization over “outlier process” variables [e.g. Geman & Reynolds '92, Black & Rangarajan '95]

Residual r_i passes through robust kernel $\psi(r)$, e.g.

$$\psi(r) = \frac{r^2}{1 + r^2} = \min_s (s^2 r^2 + (1 - s)^2)$$



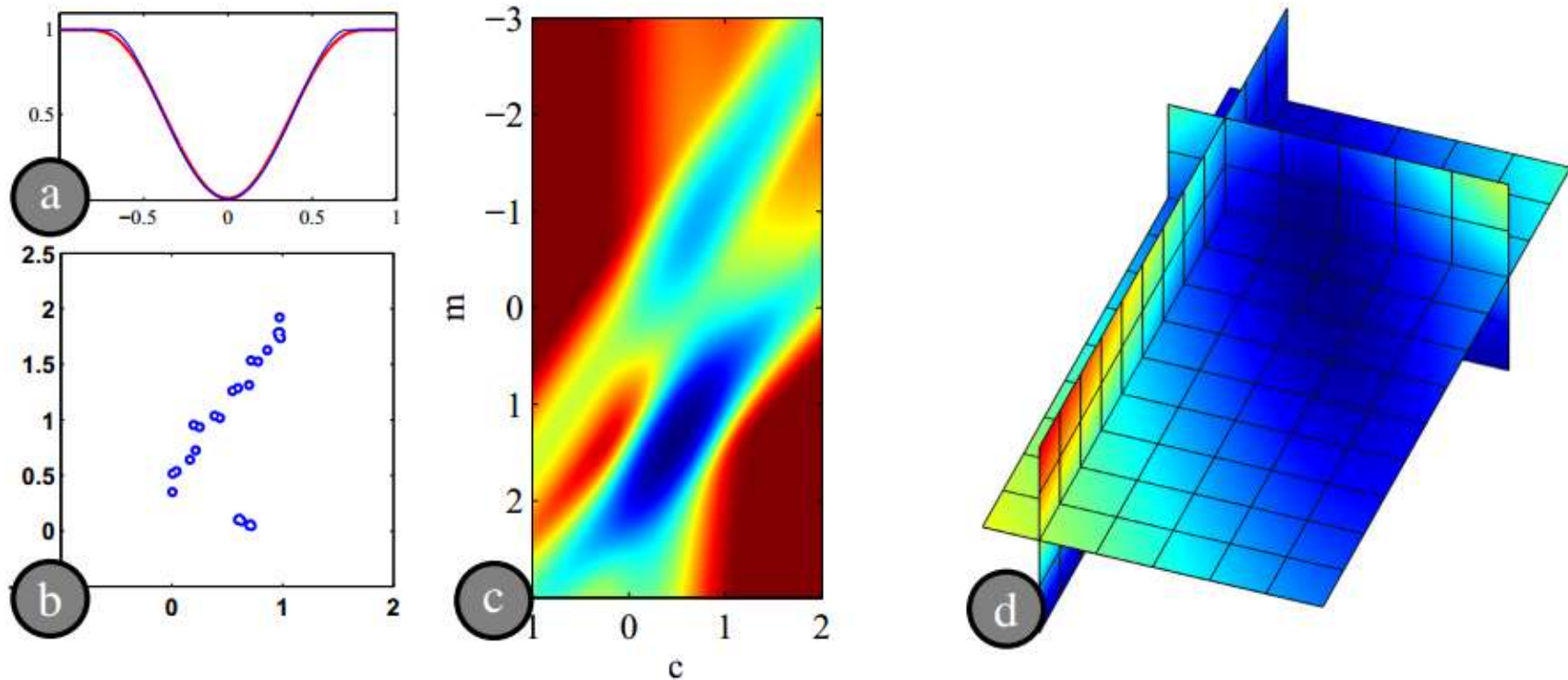
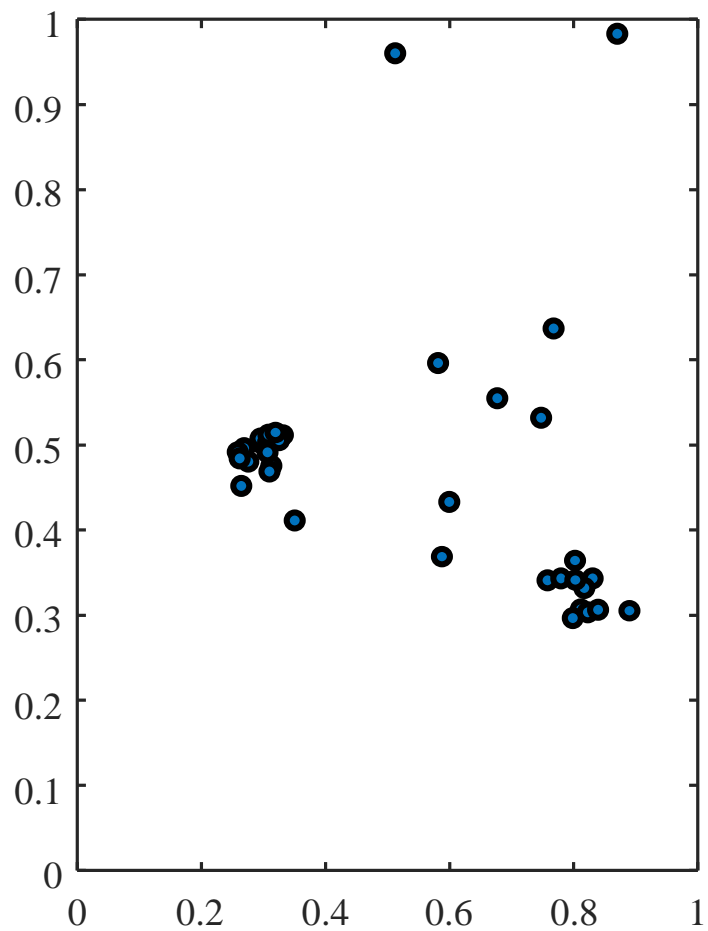
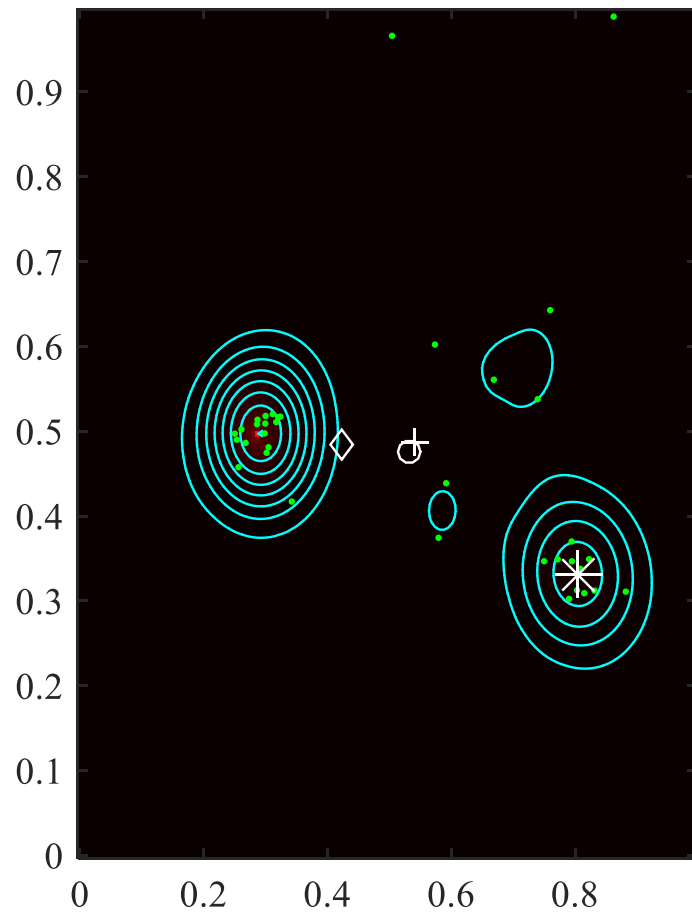
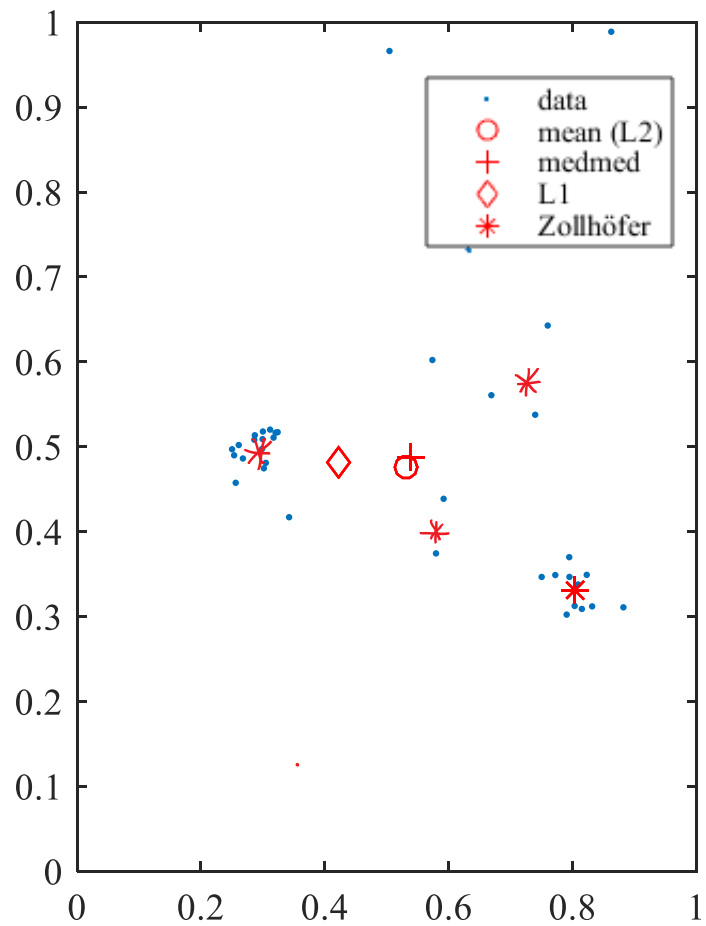


Figure 4: Robust kernel (Sec. 5.1.2). (a) Our kernel $\psi(e)$ (blue) has similar shape to the standard Tukey's biweight kernel (red). (b) A 2D line fitting problem with two minima. Data points $y_i \approx mx_i + c$. (c) Energy landscape of $f(m, c) = \sum_i \psi(y_i - mx_i - c)$ is complicated.

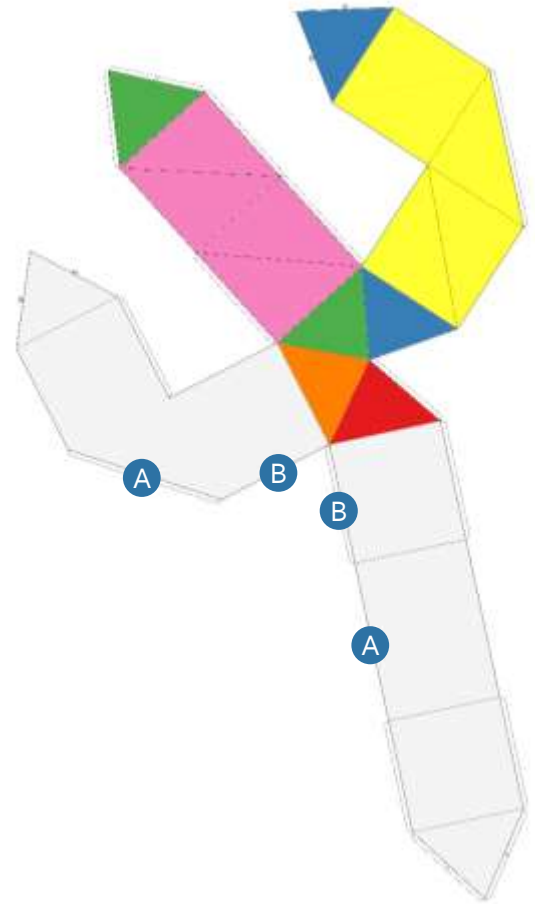
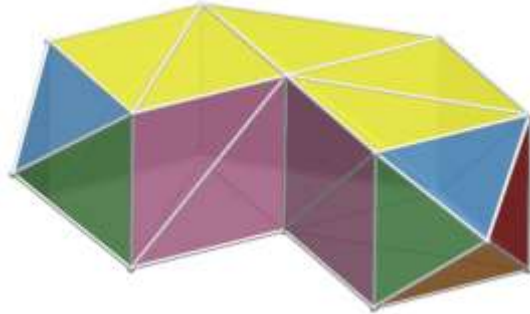
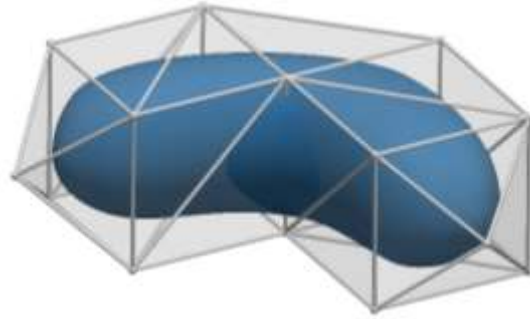
(d) 3D slice through $(2+n)$ dimensional landscape of lifted function $F(m, c, w_1, \dots, w_n) = \sum_i w_i^2 (y_i - mx_i - c)^2 + (1 - w_i^2)^2$ is simpler. Minimization of lifted F found the global optimum on 82.4% of runs, in contrast to 43.0% on two-parameter f , which also had 20.1% outright failures vs. 0% on lifted.



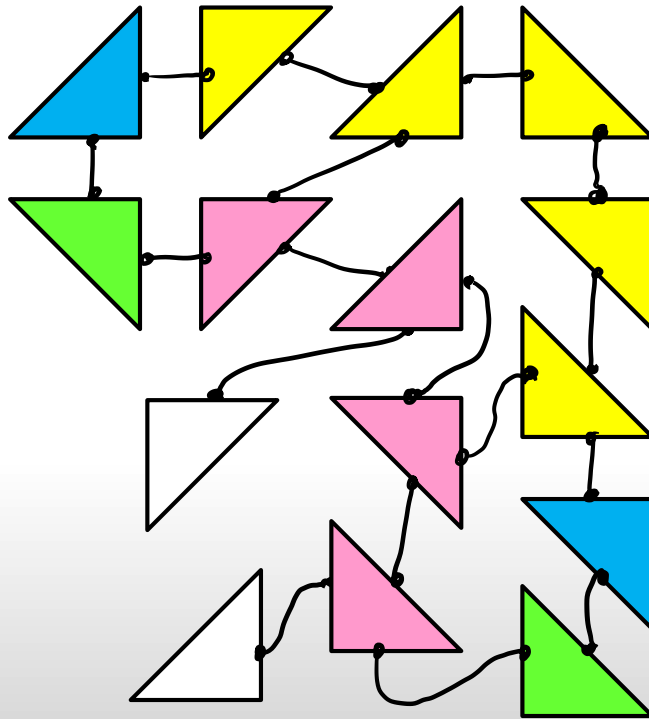
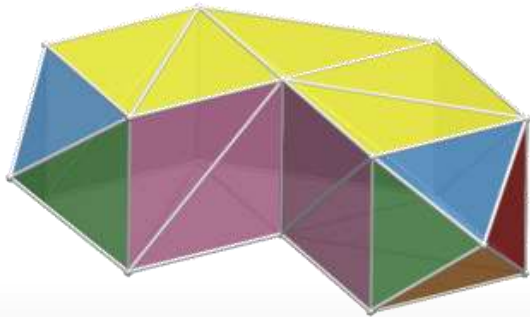


SUBDIV PECULIARITIES 1: PIECEWISE DOMAIN

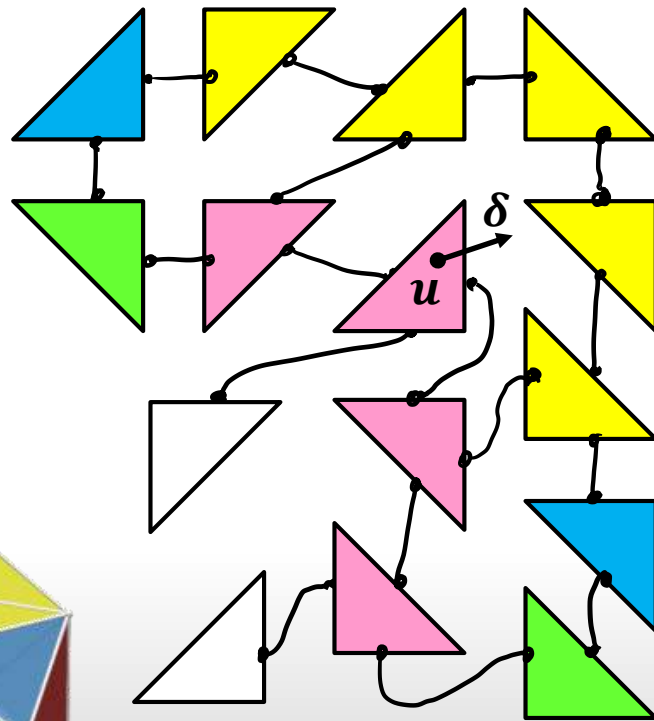
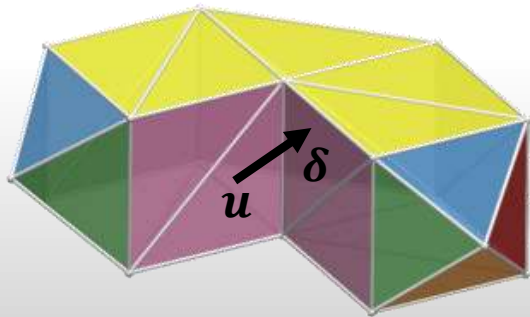
- Parameter domain Ω is in pieces
 - Typically not unwrappable to a plane



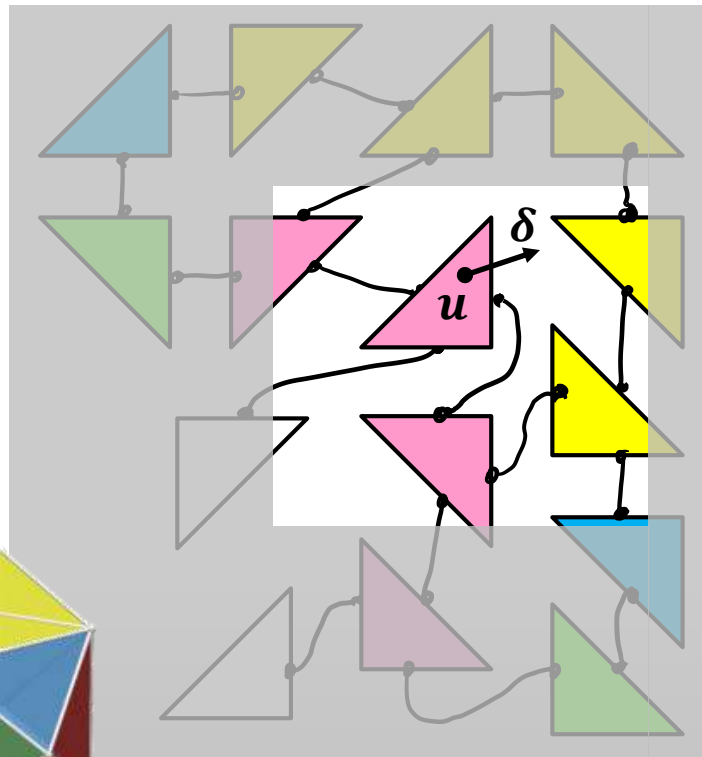
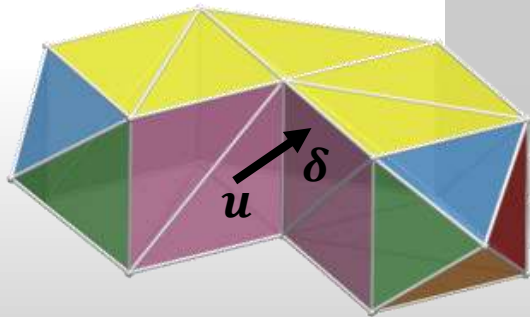
- Parameter domain Ω : pieces with connectivity graph



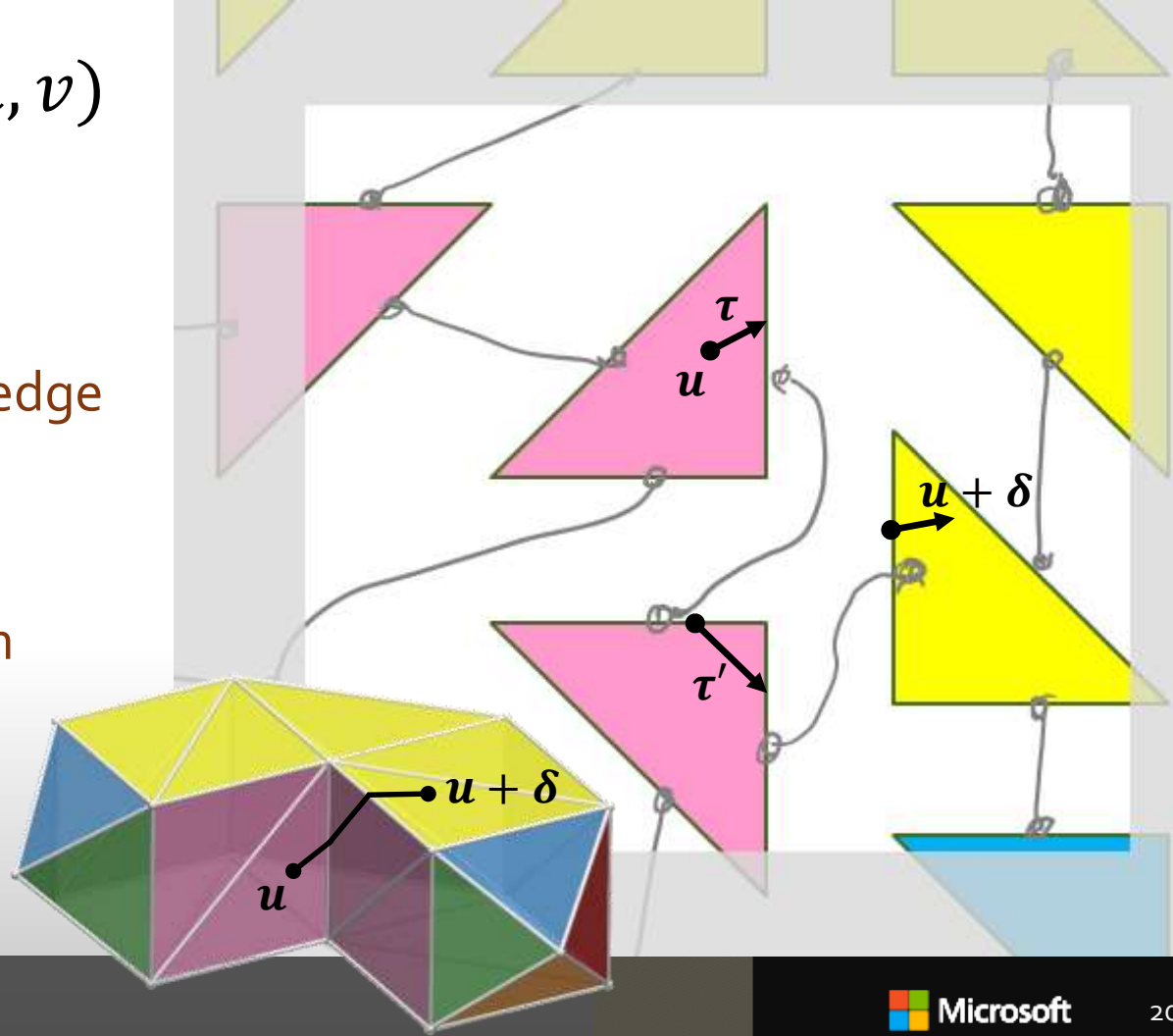
- At point $\mathbf{u} = (p, u, v)$
- Easy to get direction δ from M_u etc.
- But need $\mathbf{u} + \lambda\delta$
 - **Override `ceres::Evaluator::Plus`**
- Easy *inside* patch
- Need *outside* too



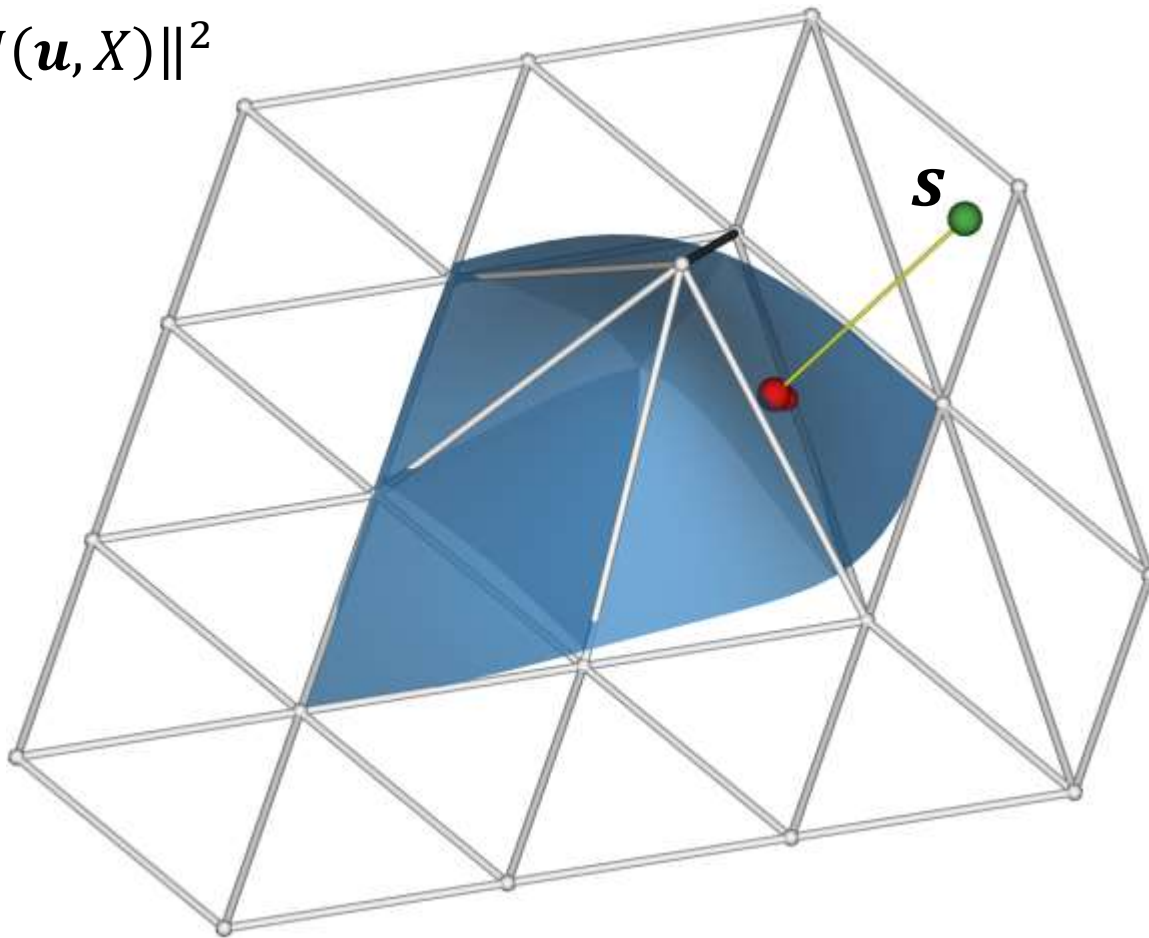
- At point $\mathbf{u} = (p, u, v)$
- Need $\mathbf{u} + \lambda \delta$
- *Outside* patch:
 - Move distance τ to edge
 - Change direction
 - Move $\delta - \tau$
 - Repeat in next patch



- At point $\mathbf{u} = (p, u, v)$
- Need $\mathbf{u} + \lambda \delta$
- *Outside* patch:
 - Move distance τ to edge
 - Change direction
 - Move $\delta - \tau$
 - Repeat in next patch

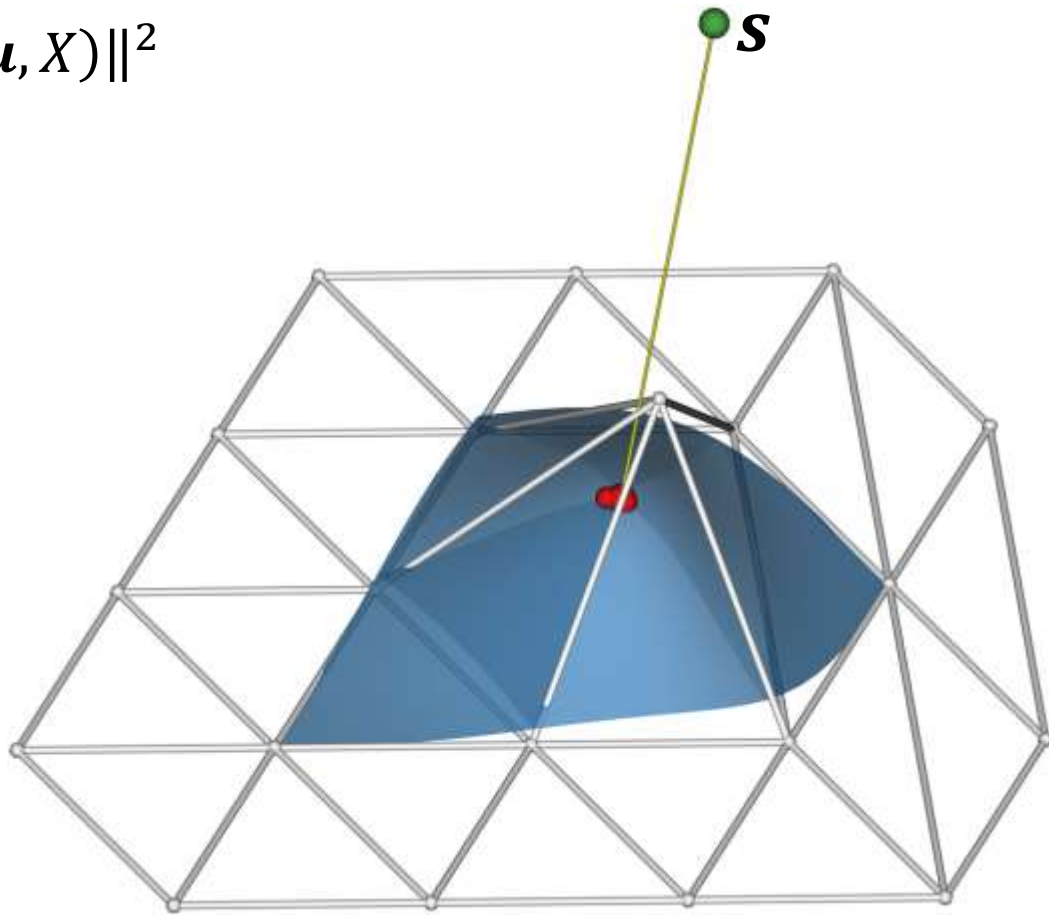


$$E(\mathbf{u}) = \|\mathbf{s} - M(\mathbf{u}, X)\|^2$$



EXAMPLE: SINGLE CLOSEST POINT PROBLEM

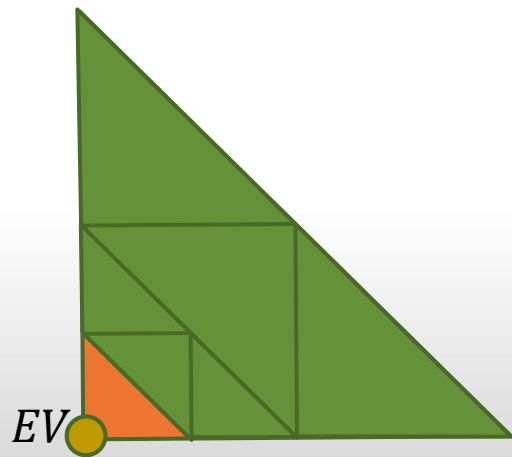
$$E(\mathbf{u}) = \|\mathbf{s} - M(\mathbf{u}, X)\|^2$$



EXAMPLE: SINGLE CLOSEST POINT PROBLEM

SUBDIV PECULIARITIES 2: EXTRAORDINARY VERTICES

- Any vertex of valency $\neq 6$ is an “extraordinary vertex”
 - Call a triangle with an EV an “irregular triangle”
- Normals and surface at EVs well defined and well behaved
 - But spline evaluation rule is not...
- Solution: virtually subdivide irregular triangles
 - Each green element is still linear in X , quartic in u, v
 - Need to generate different A_{ijk} for $\sum A_{ijk} u^i v^j X_k$
 - All autogenerated C code using Sympy
 - Go to depth 5, and then handle “vestigial patch”
 - Initially just use spline coeffs from neighbour




```

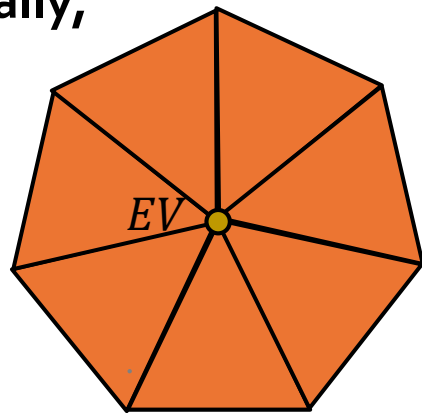
LOOP_FUNCTION_SPECIFIER void P_7_4_7_4_7_4_0(double* u,
const double* u,
const double* x0,
const double* x1,
const double* x2,
const double* x3,
const double* x4,
const double* x5,
const double* x6,
const double* x7,
const double* x8,
const double* x9,
const double* x10,
const double* x11,
const double* x12,
const double* x13,
const double* x14) {
const double t28 = u[0]*u[0];
const double t8 = t28*u[0];
const double t24 = t8*u[1];
const double t21 = t8*u[0];
const double t20 = -1.00525423677687*t8 + 0.727289794784244*t21 + 1.5457950956849*t24 + 0.284156483646253*t26 + 0.189139176544278*u[0];
const double t12 = 0.0057605602547853*t21 + 0.13073312050957*t24;
const double t2 = u[0]*u[1];
const double t16 = t2*u[1];
const double t22 = -1.0245698770048*t8 + 0.731802891713096*t21 + 1.46368418343619*t24 + 0.40937272614469*t26 + 0.0675829905631878*u[0];
const double t25 = t16*u[0];
const double t29 = u[1]*u[1];
const double t30 = 0.783981952922574*t2 + 1.90844877193518*t25;
const double t23 = t2*u[0];
const double t31 = 0.117148481155789*t2 - 1.03989444846764*t25;
const double t15 = 0.166666666666667*t8 - 0.101380186411881*t23 - 0.282608212823763*t24;
const double t1 = t29*u[1];
const double t28 = t2*u[1];
const double t27 = t2*u[0];
const double t10 = 1.54426437361695*t8 + 1.54426437361695*t1 + 2.16228931284758*t16 - 1.27716982113273*t12 + 0.751883854418516*t21 + 2.16228931284758*t23 + 1.58336770882187*t24 - 1.21589633956426*t25 - 1.35422344
S33665*t26 - 1.58336770882187*t27 - 0.751683854418516*t28 - 1.35422344533665*t29 + 0.522157262181323;
const double t7 = -2.05825738139918*t1 - 2.55761953917118*t16 + t20 - 2.00651644454867*t23 + 2.75738632355458*t27 + 1.3768914617773*t28 + 1.12375786149525*t29 + t30 + 0.303355685979819*u[1] + 0.0682632482712396;
const double t14 = -0.166666666666667*t1 + 0.262608212823763*t27 + 0.101380186411881*t28;
const double t11 = 0.126666666666667*t8 - t14 + 0.5*t10 - 0.101380186411881*t21 + 0.5*t25 - 0.262608212823763*t24;
const double t17 = 2.0245698770048*t1 + 1.46368418343619*t27 - 0.732802891713096*t28 - 0.40937272614469*t29 - 0.0675829905631878*u[1] + 0.0682632482712396;
const double t6 = 0.0758148862989235*t8 - 1.19265935169555*t16 + t17 - 0.272158818591444*t21 + 0.242505258285989*t23 - 0.54431762118289*t24 + 0.320448914419135*t26 + t31 - 0.273314028968999*u[0];
const double t19 = -1.00525423677687*t1 + 1.45457950956849*t27 + 0.727289794784244*t28 + 0.284156483646253*t29 + 0.189139176544278*u[1] + 0.0682632482712396;
const double t13 = 0.13073312050957*t27 + 0.0651665682547852*t28;
const double t9 = -2.05825738139918*t8 - 2.00651644454867*t16 + t19 + 1.3768914617773*t21 - 2.55761958017118*t23 + 2.75738632355458*t24 + 1.12375786149525*t26 + t30 + 0.303355685979819*u[0];
const double t8 = -0.40195158770099*t16 + t19 - 0.732802891713096*t21 + 0.732802891713096*t23 - 0.10581248346733*t25;
const double t18 = -0.0758148862989235*t1 + 0.54431762118289*t27 + 0.272158818591444*t28 - 0.528448914419135*t29 + 0.273314028968999*u[1] - 0.0682632482712396;
const double t3 = 0.242505258285989*t16 - t18 - t22 + 1.19265935169555*t23 + t31;
const double t4 = 0.0758148862989235*t8 - 0.588738803226257*t16 - t18 + 0.940393634778956*t2 - 0.272158818591444*t21 - 0.588738803226257*t23 - 0.54431762118289*t24 - 0.41358400673319*t25 + 0.320448914419135*t26
- 0.273314028968999*u[0];
const double t5 = 1.54187217374808*t16 + t17 - 0.732663540897398*t2 + t20 - 0.40195158770099*t23 - 0.10581248346733*t25;
w[0] = t18*w[0] + t11*x[1][0] + t12*x[2][0] + t13*x[3][0] + t15*x[8][0] + t14*x[9][0] + t15*x[4][0] + t5*x[5][0] + t5*x[3][0] + t6*x[6][0] + t7*x[1][0] + t8*x[7][0] + t9*x[2][0];
w[1] = t18*w[1] + t11*x[1][1] + t12*x[2][1] + t13*x[3][1] + t15*x[8][1] + t14*x[9][1] + t15*x[4][1] + t5*x[5][1] + t5*x[3][1] + t6*x[6][1] + t7*x[1][1] + t8*x[7][1] + t9*x[2][1];
w[2] = t18*w[2] + t11*x[1][2] + t12*x[2][2] + t13*x[3][2] + t15*x[8][2] + t14*x[9][2] + t15*x[4][2] + t5*x[5][2] + t5*x[3][2] + t6*x[6][2] + t7*x[1][2] + t8*x[7][2] + t9*x[2][2];

```

SUBDIV PECULIARITIES 2: VANISHING DERIVATIVES

“Neighbour extrapolation” for vestigial patch looks OK visually,
but EVs have other issues:

- Vanishing first derivatives: $\lim_{\mathbf{u} \rightarrow EV} M_{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{u}, X) = \mathbf{0}$
 - Saddle point for gradient-based optimization.
- Unbounded second derivatives
 - Infinite thin-plate energy (inconvenience).
 - Derivatives with respect to normal, although well defined, are unstable using chain-rule (inconvenience).
- Solutions
 - **Reparameterise** the function near the extraordinary vertex.
 - **Replace** the function near the extraordinary vertex.



Example bad parameterization:

$$\mathbf{m}(s) = (x, y) = (\sqrt{s}, \sin(\sqrt{s})) \quad s \in \mathbb{R}^+$$

$$\mathbf{m}'(s) = \frac{d\mathbf{m}}{ds}(s) = \left(\frac{1}{2\sqrt{s}}, \frac{\cos(\sqrt{s})}{2\sqrt{s}} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \mathbf{m}'(s) \rightarrow (\infty, \infty)$$

Reparameterise $s = t^2$

$$\mathbf{m}(t) = (x, y) = (t, \sin(t))$$

$$\mathbf{m}'(t) = \frac{d\mathbf{m}}{dt}(t) = (1, \cos(t))$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \mathbf{m}_t(t) \rightarrow (1, 1)$$

- Using subdvs is easy
 - The messy stuff is encapsulated in `Eval_M*()`, and `Plus()`
 - Google's "Ceres" solver does all the Levenberg-Marquardt
- Continuous optimization often doesn't need a very good initial estimate
- Using subdvs allows correspondences \mathbf{u}_i to update *during* the optimization
 - If ICP takes a long time, this may not...
 - But you **must** exploit sparsity
- Future work:
 - Dogs, hinted ARAP, skeleton, even more speed, ...

- Seen a few students nastily bitten by collapsing meshes
- So what's changed? How do I get bitten by the bug, not the hornet?
 1. Sum over data, not model
 2. Use modern (2006) regularizers
 3. Vary everything
 4. Define clean interpolants

- CLOSED FORM" SOLUTIONS OFTEN SOLVE A NEARBY CONVEX PROBLEM.
- SO DOES ANY 2ND ORDER OPTIMIZER.
- IF YOU HAVE FOUND A QUADRATIC SUBPROBLEM, SO WILL LEVENBERG-MARQ.
- YOU CAN DIFFERENTIATE THROUGH PRETTY MUCH ANYTHING.
- SCALING IS IMPORTANT. MEASURE IN NATURAL UNITS.

- Finite diffs fine, just expensive
- Myths: you don't need to find the optimum
- Parameter tuning
- Constrained optimization