Robust Camera Location Estimation by Convex Programming

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Abstract

3D structure recovery from a collection of 2D images requires the estimation of the camera locations and orientations, i.e. the camera motion. For large, irregular collections of images, existing methods for the location estimation part, which can be formulated as the inverse problem of estimating \( n \) locations \( t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n \) in \( \mathbb{R}^3 \) from noisy measurements of a subset of the pairwise directions \( \frac{t_i - t_j}{\|t_i - t_j\|} \), are sensitive to outliers in direction measurements. In this paper, we firstly provide a complete characterization of well-posed instances of the location estimation problem, by presenting its relation to the existing theory of parallel rigidity. For robust estimation of camera locations, we introduce a two-step approach, comprised of a pairwise direction estimation method robust to outliers in point correspondences between image pairs, and a convex program to maintain robustness to outlier directions. In the presence of partially corrupted measurements, we empirically demonstrate that our convex formulation can even recover the locations exactly. Lastly, we demonstrate the utility of our formulations through experiments on Internet photo collections.

1. Introduction

Structure from motion (SfM) is the problem of recovering a 3D (stationary) structure by estimating the camera motion corresponding to a collection of 2D images of the same structure. Classically, SfM involves three steps: (1) Estimation of point correspondences between pairs of images, and relative pose estimation of camera pairs based on corresponding points (2) Estimation of camera motion, i.e. global camera orientations and locations, from relative poses (3) 3D structure recovery based on the estimated motion by reprojection error minimization (e.g., using the bundle adjustment algorithm of [31]). Although there exist accurate and efficient algorithms for the first and the third steps, existing methods for camera motion estimation, and specifically for the camera location estimation part, are usually sensitive to noise. The camera location estimation problem can be formulated as a specific case (for \( d = 3 \)) of the inverse problem of estimating \( n \) locations \( t_1, \ldots, t_n \) in \( \mathbb{R}^d \) from a subset of (potentially noisy) measurements of the pairwise directions \( \gamma_{ij} \), given by

\[
\gamma_{ij} = \frac{t_i - t_j}{\|t_i - t_j\|}
\]  

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(see Figure 1 for a noiseless instance of the problem). In terms of this formulation, misidentified point correspondences may manifest themselves (see §3) as direction measurements with large errors (i.e., outlier directions), and hence, may induce instability in location estimation.

![Pairwise Directions](image1.png) ![Locations](image2.png)

Figure 1. A (noiseless) instance of the location estimation problem in $\mathbb{R}^3$, with $n = 6$ locations and $m = 8$ pairwise directions.

Existing methods for SfM can roughly be classified into two main categories; incremental approaches (e.g., [1, 6, 11, 16, 29, 30, 41]), that integrate images to the estimation process one by one (or in small groups) and global methods, that aim to estimate the camera motion (and sometimes also the 3D structure) jointly for all images. Incremental methods are prone to accumulation of estimation errors at each step. On the other hand, for the global methods, since simultaneous estimation of motion and 3D structure is computationally expensive for large sets, a generally adapted procedure is to estimate motion and structure separately. Assuming an accurate, stable motion estimation algorithm, a single instance of reprojection error minimization is usually enough to obtain high quality structure estimates.

Since orientation estimation is a relatively well-posed problem, with several efficient and stable existing methods (e.g., [2, 13, 14, 24, 25, 32]), it is customary to estimate the locations separately (based on the orientation estimates). However, specifically for large, unordered sets of images, many of the existing methods for estimating the camera locations suffer from instability to errors in corresponding points (producing location estimates clustered around a few locations, as for [2, 5, 12, 28]), sensitivity to outliers in direction measurements (e.g., the $\ell_\infty$ approach of [19, 27]) and susceptibility to local solutions in non-convex formulations (e.g., [13]). Hence, a robust, efficient formulation for global location estimation, with provable guarantees is of high value.

There exist several different approaches in the literature for location estimation. The works of [2, 5, 12], formulate the problem as finding a least squares solution to a linear system of equations derived from pairwise direction measurements (we will refer to this method as “the least squares” (LS) solver). However, empirical observations have pointed out the sensitivity of the LS solver to errors in direction measurements, in the form of a tendency to produce spurious solutions clustering around a few locations. The multistage linear method of [28] attempts to eliminate the clustering solutions by also estimating the relative scales between cameras, however, it often fails to produce accurate location estimates. The Lie algebraic averaging method of [13] is an efficient alternative, but suffers from convergence to local minima, resulting in large estimation errors in the presence of noisy point correspondences. [27] formulates a quasi-convex method (based on iterative optimization of a functional of the $\ell_\infty$ norm). However, since the $\ell_\infty$ norm is highly prone to outliers in pairwise directions, this method usually fails to produce ac-
curate location estimates. A relatively accurate and efficient method, which is also closely related to our formulation, is studied in [32]. Based on minimizing the $\ell_2$ norm of the error in direction measurements (linearized in $t_i$’s), this method also employs linear pairwise constraints to eliminate clustering solutions (hence, we refer to this method as “the constrained least squares” (CLS) solver). However, in the presence of outliers in direction measurements, the accuracy of the CLS solver is degraded significantly. A recently introduced alternative is “the semidefinite relaxation” (SDR) solver of [25]. Formulated as an abstract problem to estimate locations from pairwise “lines” (i.e., from measurements of $\pm \gamma_{ij}$, where the sign is unknown), this method aims to resolve the instability (and hence, the clustering solutions) of the LS method by introducing extra non-convex constraints in the LS problem, and then relaxing them. However, semidefinite programming is computationally expensive for large data sets, and similar to the CLS method, the accuracy of the locations estimated by the SDR is reduced in the presence of outlier pairwise lines.

In this paper, we characterize well-posed instances of the camera location estimation problem, by presenting its relation to the existing results of parallel rigidity theory. For robust estimation of camera locations, we introduce a two-step formulation: robust estimation of pairwise directions (in the presence of outliers in point correspondences), and a convex program for robust estimation of camera locations in the presence of measurements corrupted by large errors, i.e. outlier directions. We provide empirical evaluation of our formulations using synthetic data, which demonstrate highly accurate location recovery performance compared to existing methods, and even exact location recovery in the presence of partially corrupted measurements (with sufficiently many noiseless directions). We also provide experimental results using real images, that present accuracy and efficiency of our methods.

**Notation:** We denote vectors in $\mathbb{R}^d$, $d \geq 2$, in boldface. For $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $\|x\|$ denotes its Euclidean norm. $S^d$ and $SO(d)$ denote the (Euclidean) sphere in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ and the special orthogonal group of rotations acting on $\mathbb{R}^d$, respectively. We use the hat accent, to denote estimates of our variables, as in $\hat{X}$ is the estimate of $X$. We use star to denote solutions of optimization problems, as in $X^*$. Lastly, we use the letters $n$ and $m$ to denote the number of locations $|V_t|$ and the number of edges $|E_t|$ of graphs $G_t = (V_t, E_t)$ that encode the pairwise direction information.

### 2. Location Estimation

The entire information of pairwise directions is represented using a measurement graph $G_t = (V_t, E_t)$, where the $i$’th node in $V_t = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ corresponds to the location $t_i$ and each edge $(i, j) \in E_t$ is endowed with the direction $\gamma_{ij}$. Provided with the set $\{\gamma_{ij}\}_{(i,j) \in E_t}$ of (noiseless) directions on $G_t = (V_t, E_t)$, we first study the problem of unique realizability of the locations. We will then introduce our robust formulation for location estimation from noisy pairwise directions.

#### 2.1. Parallel Rigidity

The unique realizability of locations from (noiseless) pairwise directions was previously studied under the general title of parallel rigidity theory (see, e.g., [9, 10, 20, 21, 26, 35, 36] and references therein). In the context of SfM, the implications of the parallel rigidity theory for the camera location estimation part were recognized in [25]1. Here, we present a brief summary of fundamental results in parallel rigidity theory.

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1We note that, although the pairwise measurements studied in [25] are of the form $\pm \gamma_{ij}$ (where, the sign is undetermined), the results of parallel rigidity theory for unique realizability are the same for the two different pairwise measurement types.
Provided with the noiseless pairwise directions \( \{\gamma_{ij}\}_{(i,j) \in E_t} \subseteq S^{d-1} \) (termed a “formation”), we first consider the following fundamental questions: Can we uniquely realize \( \{t_i\}_{i \in V_t} \), of course, up to a global translation and scale (i.e., can we obtain a set of points congruent to \( \{t_i\}_{i \in V_t} \))? Is unique realizability a generic property of the measurement graph \( G_t \) (i.e., is it independent of the particular realization of the points, assuming they are in generic position) and can it be decided efficiently? Certifying unique realizability of locations is more complicated, e.g., compared to certifying uniqueness of camera orientations, which only requires (for arbitrary \( d \)) the connectivity of the measurement graph (see Figure 2).

On the other hand, parallel rigidity theory has a much simpler structure compared to the (classical) rigidity theory involving distance information (for a survey in rigidity theory, see [3]). The identification of parallel rigid formations is addressed in [9, 10, 35, 36, 20] (also see the survey [17]), where it is shown that parallel rigidity in \( \mathbb{R}^d \) (\( d \geq 2 \)) is a generic property of \( G_t \) and admits a complete combinatorial characterization:

**Theorem 1.** For a graph \( G = (V, E) \), let \( (d-1)E \) denote the set consisting of \( (d-1) \) copies of each edge in \( E \). Then, \( G \) is generically parallel rigid in \( \mathbb{R}^d \) if and only if there exists a nonempty set \( D \subseteq (d-1)E \), with \( |D| = d|V| - (d+1) \), such that for all subsets \( D' \) of \( D \), we have

\[
|D'| \leq d|V(D')| - (d+1) ,
\]

where \( V(D') \) denotes the vertex set of the edges in \( D' \).

The conditions of Theorem 1 can be used to design efficient algorithms (e.g., adaptations of the pebble game algorithm [18], with a time complexity of \( O(n^2) \)) for testing parallel rigidity. Also, [25] provides a randomized spectral test (having a time complexity of \( O(m) \)) for testing parallel rigidity. Moreover, unique realizability turns out to be equivalent to parallel rigidity, for arbitrary \( d \) (see [9, 17, 20, 25, 36]).

For a formation that is not parallel rigid, the algorithms in [20, 21] can be used to decompose the graph into maximally parallel rigid components (i.e., to obtain maximal subgraphs of \( G_t \) that can be uniquely realized).

The results of parallel rigidity theory are valid for noiseless directions. However, when provided with
noisy directions (e.g., computed from real images), instead of uniqueness of the solution of a specific camera location estimation algorithm, we consider the following question: Do we have enough information for the location estimation problem to be well-posed (in the sense that, if direction measurement error is small enough, we can estimate the locations stably)? For formations which are not parallel rigid, instability results from independent scaling and translation of maximally rigid components. Hence, we consider problem instances on parallel rigid measurement graphs to be well-posed. As a result, given a (noisy) formation \( \{\gamma_{ij}\}_{(i,j) \in E_t} \) on \( G_t = (V_t, E_t) \), we firstly check for parallel rigidity of \( G_t \), then, if the formation is not parallel rigid, we extract its maximally parallel rigid components (using the algorithm in [21]) and estimate the locations for the largest maximally parallel rigid component of \( G_t \).

2.2. Robust Location Estimation

This section introduces our main formulation for robust location estimation. Suppose that we are given a set of pairwise direction measurements \( \{\gamma_{ij}\}_{(i,j) \in E_t} \subseteq S^{d-1} \) on the graph \( G_t = (V_t, E_t) \), i.e., for each \((i,j) \in E_t\), \( \gamma_{ij} \) satisfies

\[
\gamma_{ij} = \frac{t_i - t_j}{\|t_i - t_j\|} + \epsilon^t_{ij}
\]

where, \( \epsilon^t_{ij} \) denotes the direction error. Our objective is to estimate the locations \( \{t_i\}_{i \in V_t} \) (from the directions \( \{\gamma_{ij}\}_{(i,j) \in E_t} \)) by maintaining robustness to outlier direction measurements (i.e., \( \gamma_{ij}'s \) with large \( \epsilon^t_{ij}'s \)) in a computationally efficient manner. In this respect, we first rewrite (3) as

\[
t_i - t_j = \|t_i - t_j\|\gamma_{ij} + \epsilon^t_{ij}
\]

\[
= \alpha_{ij}\gamma_{ij} + \epsilon^t_{ij}
\]

\[
\iff \epsilon^t_{ij} = t_i - t_j - \alpha_{ij}\gamma_{ij}
\]

where, \( \epsilon^t_{ij} \) denotes the displacement error, and we define \( \alpha_{ij} := \|t_i - t_j\| \) to rewrite \( \epsilon^t_{ij} \) linearly in \( t_i, t_j \) and \( \alpha_{ij} \). Observe that, large errors in directions (i.e., large \( \epsilon^t_{ij}'s \)) induce large displacement errors \( \epsilon^t_{ij}'s \). As a result, we can employ displacement error minimization as a substitute for direction error minimization for location estimation.

Hence, to maintain robustness to large \( \epsilon^t_{ij}'s \) in (6), we choose to minimize the sum of unsquared norms of \( \epsilon^t_{ij}'s \). Also, for computational efficiency, we drop the intrinsic non-convex constraints \( \alpha_{ij} = \|t_i - t_j\| \) to obtain the convex “least unsquared deviations” (LUD) formulation

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{minimize} & \quad \sum_{\{t_i\}_{i \in V_t} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d, \{\alpha_{ij}\}_{(i,j) \in E_t}} \|t_i - t_j - \alpha_{ij}\gamma_{ij}\| \\
\text{subject to} & \quad \sum_{i \in V_t} t_i = 0 ; \quad \alpha_{ij} \geq c, \forall (i,j) \in E_t
\end{align*}
\]

where the constraints \( \sum_i t_i = 0 \) and \( \alpha_{ij} \geq c \) remove the translational and the scale ambiguities of the solution, respectively (wlog we take \( c = 1 \))^2. The constraints \( \alpha_{ij} \geq c \) are introduced to prevent trivial solutions of the form \( \alpha^t_{ij} \equiv 0, t^*_i \equiv 0 \), as well as solutions clustered around a few locations.

^2We note that the least squares version of (7) (i.e., the program with the cost function \( \sum_{(i,j) \in E_t} \|t_i - t_j - \alpha_{ij}\gamma_{ij}\|^2 \)), which we name the “constrained least squares” (CLS) method, was previously studied in [32]. However, as we experimentally demonstrate in §4, the CLS formulation fails to maintain robustness to outliers.
For well-posed instances of the location estimation problem (i.e., for instances defined on parallel rigid \( G_t \)), and in the presence of noiseless direction measurements (i.e., \( \epsilon_{ij}^T \equiv 0 \) in (3)), we expect the LUD solver to recover the locations \( t_i \) exactly.

**Proposition 1** (Exact Recovery in the Noiseless Case). Assume that the noiseless formation \( \{\gamma_{ij}\}_{(i,j)\in E_t} \), corresponding to the locations \( \{t_i\}_{i\in V_t} \) (in general position), is parallel rigid. Then, the LUD (7) solver recovers the locations exactly, in the sense that any solution is congruent to \( \{t_i\}_{i\in V_t} \).

**Proof.** Wlog, we assume \( \min_{(i,j)\in E_t} \| t_i - t_j \| = 1 \) and \( \sum_i t_i = 0 \). Then, \( \{t_i\}_{i\in V_t} \) together with \( \alpha_{ij} = \| t_i - t_j \|, (i, j) \in E_t \), constitute an optimal solution for the LUD program (7), with zero cost value. Let, \( \{t'_i\}_{i\in V_t} \) and \( \{\alpha'_{ij}\}_{(i,j)\in E_t} \) be another solution of (7), which must also have zero cost value. Then, for each \( (i, j) \in E_t \), we get

\[
\frac{t'_i - t'_j - \alpha'_{ij}\gamma_{ij}}{\| t'_i - t'_j \|} = \frac{t_i - t_j}{\| t_i - t_j \|} \quad (8)
\]

i.e., \( \{t'_i\}_{i\in V_t} \) induces a formation on \( G_t \), which is parallel to the formation corresponding to \( \{t_i\}_{i\in V_t} \) on \( G_t \). However, since \( G_t \) is parallel rigid, \( \{t'_i\}_{i\in V_t} \) has to be congruent to \( \{t_i\}_{i\in V_t} \) (in fact, \( t'_i = \alpha t_i \), for \( \alpha \geq 1 \), by the feasibility of \( \{t'_i, \alpha'_{ij}\} \) in (7)).

### 2.3. Iteratively Reweighted Least Squares (IRLS)

In this section we formulate an iteratively reweighted least squares (IRLS) solver (see, e.g., [8, 40]) for the LUD problem (7), which is a second-order cone program. Classically, second-order cone programs can be efficiently solved using interior point methods (see, e.g., the primal-dual interior point method of [33]). Here, we introduce the IRLS solver as a simpler alternative to the classical solvers. The main idea of IRLS is to iteratively solve (successive smooth regularizations of) the convex problem by using quadratic programing (QP) approximations. A pseudo code version is provided in Algorithm 1 (where, we consider a single smooth regularization). At each iteration, more emphasis is given to the directions that are better approximated by the estimates \( \hat{t}_i^k \)'s and \( \hat{\alpha}_ij^k \)'s. Also, the regularization parameter \( \delta \) is ensures that no single direction can attain unbounded influence. The iterations are repeated until a convergent behavior in the variables, and in the cost value of the problem is observed. We refer the reader to [4] for a proof of convergence of the IRLS solver (where, a sequence of smooth regularizations, with \( \delta \nrightarrow 0 \), is assumed).

### 3. Robust Pairwise Direction Estimation

We now present a pairwise direction estimation method designed to maintain robustness to outlier point correspondences between image pairs.

Let \( \{I_i\}_{i=1}^n \) be a collection of images of a stationary 3D scene. We use a pinhole camera model, and denote the orientations, locations, and focal lengths of the \( n \) cameras corresponding to these images by \( \{R_i\}_{i=1}^n \subseteq \text{SO}(3), \{t_i\}_{i=1}^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3 \), and \( \{f_i\}_{i=1}^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^+ \), respectively. Consider a scene point \( P \in \mathbb{R}^3 \) represented in the \( i \)'th image plane by \( p_i \in \mathbb{R}^3 \). To produce \( p_i \), \( P \) is firstly represented in the \( i \)'th

\[ 3 \text{Although we use a single smooth approximation by fixing } \delta \ll 1 \text{ for simplicity, we always obtained a convergent behavior in our experiments.} \]
Algorithm 1 Iteratively reweighted least squares (IRLS) algorithm for the LUD (7) solver

Initialize: $w^{0}_{ij} = 1, \forall (i, j) \in E_t$

for $k = 0, 1, \ldots$ do

- Compute $\{\hat{t}^{k+1}_i\}, \{\hat{\alpha}^{k+1}_{ij}\}$ by solving the QP:
  \[
  \minimize \sum_{i_j \in E_t} \frac{1}{\alpha_{ij} \geq 1} \sum_{t_i = 0} \left( \|t_i - t_j - \alpha_{ij} \gamma_{ij}\|^2 + \delta \right)^{-1/2}
  \]

- $w^{k+1}_{ij} \leftarrow \left( \|\hat{t}^{k+1}_i - \hat{\alpha}^{k+1}_{ij} \gamma_{ij}\|^2 + \delta \right)^{-1/2}$

camera’s coordinate system by $P_i = R_i^T (P - t_i) = (P^x_i, P^y_i, P^z_i)^T$ and then projected onto the $i$’th image plane by $p_i = (f_i / P^z_i) P_i$. Note that, for the image $I_i$, we in fact observe $q_{ij} = (p^x_i, p^y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ (i.e., the coordinates on the image plane) corresponding to $P$.

For an image pair $I_i$ and $I_j$, the essential matrix $E_{ij} = [t_{ij}] x R_{ij}$, where $R_{ij} = R_i^T R_j$ and $t_{ij} = R_i^T (t_j - t_i)$ denote the pairwise rotation and translation, satisfies the “epipolar constraints” given by

$$P_i^T E_{ij} P_j = 0 \quad \iff \begin{bmatrix} q_i / f_i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}^T E_{ij} \begin{bmatrix} q_j / f_j \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad (9, 10)$$

Classically, the relative rotation and translation estimates, $\hat{R}_{ij}$ and $\hat{t}_{ij}$, computed from the decomposition of $E_{ij}$ (estimated via (10)), are used to estimate the camera motion, however, usually have large errors due to misidentified and/or small number of corresponding points. Hence, instead of using the existing algorithms (e.g., [2, 14, 24]) to estimate the orientations $\hat{R}_i$ and then computing the pairwise direction estimates $\gamma_{ij} = \hat{R}_i \hat{t}_{ij} / \|\hat{t}_{ij}\|$, we take the following approach: First, the rotation estimates $\hat{R}_i$ are computed using the iterative approach in §4.1 of [25] (using the robust algorithm of [7] for each iteration), and we then use the epipolar constraints (10) to robustly estimate the pairwise directions.

We first rewrite the epipolar constraint (10) to emphasize its linearity in $t_i$ and $t_j$. Let $\{q^{m_{ij}}_i\}_{k=1}^{m_{ij}}$ denote $m_{ij}$ corresponding feature points. Then, for $\eta^k_i = \begin{bmatrix} q^k_i / f_i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\eta^k_j = \begin{bmatrix} q^k_j / f_j \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, we can rewrite (10) as (also see [2, 25])

$$\begin{align*}
(\eta^k_i)^T E_{ij} \eta^k_j &= (R_i \eta^k_i \times R_j \eta^k_j)^T (t_i - t_j) = 0 \\
\iff (\nu^k_{ij})^T (t_i - t_j) = 0, \text{ for } \nu^k_{ij} \text{ denoting } \\
\nu^k_{ij} := \Theta (R_i \eta^k_i \times R_j \eta^k_j)
\end{align*} \quad (11)$$

where, the normalization function $\Theta$ is defined by $\Theta(x) = x / \|x\|$, $\Theta(0) = 0$. Then, in the noiseless case (assuming $m_{ij} \geq 2$, and that we can find at least two $\nu^k_{ij}$’s not parallel to each other), $\{\nu^{m_{ij}}_{ij}\}_{k=1}^{m_{ij}}$ determine a 2D subspace orthogonal to $t_i - t_j$, and hence the (undirected) “line” through $t_i$ and $t_j$ (i.e., $\gamma^0_{ij} = b_{ij} \gamma_{ij}$, where the sign $b_{ij} \in \{-1, +1\}$ is unknown, but can be determined by using the fact that the 3D scene points should lie in front of the cameras).

In the presence of noisy measurements, i.e., if we replace $R_i$’s, $f_i$’s and $q_i$’s with their estimates in (11), we essentially obtain noisy samples $\tilde{\nu}^k_{ij}$’s from the 2D subspace orthogonal to $t_i - t_j$. In order to
maintain robustness to outliers among \( \hat{\nu}^k_{ij} \)'s in the estimation of (undirected) lines \( \gamma^0_{ij} \), we first consider the following (non-convex) problem:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{minimize} & \quad \sum_{k=1}^{m_{ij}} \left| (\gamma^0_{ij})^T \hat{\nu}^k_{ij} \right| \\
\text{subject to} & \quad \|\gamma^0_{ij}\| = 1
\end{align*}
\]  

(12)

In order to obtain the estimate \( \hat{\gamma}^0_{ij} \), we use a (heuristic) IRLS method for (12). Here, although the program (12) is not convex, and hence the IRLS method is not guaranteed to converge to global optima, we empirically observed this approach to produce high quality estimates for the lines \( \gamma^0_{ij} \), while preserving computational efficiency (for alternative methods, see [22, 34, 39]). Lastly, the estimates \( \hat{b}_{ij} \) of the signs of the direction estimates \( \hat{\gamma}_{ij} = \hat{b}_{ij} \hat{\gamma}^0_{ij} \) are computed using the fact that the 3D points should lie in front of the cameras.

In Figure 3, we provide a comparison of our robust direction estimation method, to a PCA-based estimator (comprised of solving (12) by replacing the cost function with the sum of squares version, i.e. with \( \sum_k |(\gamma^0_{ij})^T \hat{\nu}^k_{ij}|^2 \)). The results imply that, the accuracy of the direction estimates can be significantly improved by our robust method. We also note that, the running time of our robust method is comparable to that of PCA and hence does not significantly increase the overall running time of the entire pipeline.

![Figure 3: Histogram plots of the errors in direction estimates computed by our robust method (12) and the PCA method, for some of the datasets (from [37]) studied in §4.2. The errors represent the angles between the estimated directions and the corresponding ground truth directions (computed from a sequential SfM method based on [29], and proved in [37]). We note that, the errors take values in \([0, \pi]\), however the histograms are restricted to \([0, \pi/4]\) to emphasize the difference of the quality in the estimated directions](image)

A summary of our camera motion estimation algorithm is given in Table 1.
4. Experiments

4.1. Synthetic Data Experiments

In this section we provide synthetic data experiments for the LUD formulation (7). In particular, we provide evidence for exact location recovery from partially corrupted directions, and also compare the LUD solver to the CLS [32], the SDR [25] and the LS [2, 5] methods, which also directly use pairwise directions.

The measurement graphs $G_t = (V_t, E_t)$ of our experiments are random graphs drawn from the Erdős-Rényi model $\mathcal{G}(n, q)$, i.e. each $(i, j)$ is in the edge set $E_t$ with probability $q$, independently of all other edges. In each experiment, we only record the results of problem instances defined on parallel rigid $G_t$. Given a set of locations $\{t_i\}_{i=1}^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and $G_t = (V_t, E_t)$, for each $(i, j) \in E_t$, we first let

$$
\tilde{\gamma}_{ij} = \begin{cases} 
\gamma_{ij}^{U}, & \text{w.p. } p \\
(t_i - t_j)/\|t_i - t_j\| + \sigma \gamma_{ij}^{G} & \text{w.p. } 1 - p
\end{cases}
$$

and normalize $\tilde{\gamma}_{ij}$’s to obtain $\gamma_{ij} = \tilde{\gamma}_{ij}/\|\tilde{\gamma}_{ij}\|$ as the direction measurement for the pair $(i, j)$. Here, $(\gamma_{ij}^{U})_{(i,j) \in E_t}$ and $(\gamma_{ij}^{G})_{(i,j) \in E_t}$ are i.i.d. random variables drawn from the uniform distribution on $S^{d-1}$ and the standard normal distribution on $\mathbb{R}^d$, respectively. Also, the original locations $t_i$’s are i.i.d. random variables drawn from standard normal distribution on $\mathbb{R}^d$.

We evaluate the performance in terms of the “normalized root mean squared error” (NRMSE) given by

$$
\text{NRMSE}(\{\hat{t}_i\}) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i \|\hat{t}_i - t_i\|^2}{\sum_i \|t_i - t_0\|^2}}
$$

where $\hat{t}_i$’s are the location estimates (after removal of the global scale and translation) and $t_0$ is the center of $t_i$’s.
The first set of experiments demonstrates the recovery performance of the LUD solver in the presence of partially corrupted directions, by setting $\sigma = 0$ in (13), and by controlling the proportion of outlier measurements via the parameter $p$. The results are summarized in Figure 4, where for each experiment the intensity of each pixel represents $\log_{10}(\text{NRMSE})$ (NRMSE values are averaged over 10 random realizations). These results demonstrate a striking feature of the LUD solver: In the presence of partially corrupted directions (with sufficiently small, but non-zero, proportion of corrupted directions), the LUD solver recovers the original locations exactly (i.e., we get $\text{NRMSE} < \epsilon_{\text{IRLS}}$, where $\epsilon_{\text{IRLS}}$ is the convergence tolerance for the IRLS algorithm, set to $\epsilon_{\text{IRLS}} = 1 \times 10^{-8}$ in our experiments). In Figure 4, we observe that, the exact recovery performance for $d = 3$ is improved as compared to the $d = 2$ case. Additionally, the transition to the exact recovery region becomes slightly sharper, and exact recovery performance for small values of outlier probability $p$ is marginally improved for $n = 200$ as compared to the $n = 100$ case.

![Figure 4](image-url)

Figure 4. NRMSE (14) results of the LUD (7) solver for the exact recovery experiments. The color intensity of each pixel represents $\log_{10}(\text{NRMSE})$, depending on the edge probability $q$ ($x$-axis), and the outlier probability $p$ ($y$-axis). Measurements are generated by the noise model (13), assuming $\sigma = 0$, and NRMSE values are averaged over 10 trials.

The second set of experiments, depicted in Figure 5, presents a comparative evaluation of the NRMSE performances of the LUD, the CLS, the SDR and the LS solvers, for $d = 3$ (we observed similar performance for $d = 2$). The outcomes clearly present the robustness of the LUD formulation in the presence of outliers (up to a significant proportion of outliers, depending on $q$ and $n$), while the recovery performance of the other methods is degraded significantly. Even if the measurement noise is dominated by small errors in the inlier directions (i.e., when $\sigma$ is relatively large compared to $p$), the LUD solver continues to outperform the other methods, in almost all cases.
4.2. Real Data Experiments

We tested our location estimation algorithm on nine sets of real images from [37]. These are relatively irregular collections of images and hence estimating the camera locations for all of these images (or a large subset) is challenging. To solve the LUD problem (7), we use the IRLS algorithm [1], and to construct a 3D structure in our experiments, we use the parallel bundle adjustment (PBA) algorithm of [38]. We perform our computations on workstations with Intel(R) Xeon(R) X7542 CPUs, each with 6 cores, running at 2.67 GHz. In order to directly compare the accuracy of the location estimation by LUD to that of CLS [32] and SDR [25] solvers, we feed all solvers with the orientation estimates produced by the iterative approach in §4.1 of [25] (while using the rotation estimation algorithm of [7] for each iteration) and the robust direction estimates of §3, that produced more accurate location estimates for all data sets. We note that, the computation of the robust direction estimates is performed in parallel (using 10 cores for each dataset). Similar to [37], for performance evaluation, we consider the camera location estimates computed by a sequential SfM solver based on Bundler [29] (and provided in [37]) as the ground truth, and use a RANSAC-based method to compute the global transformation between our estimates and the ground truth.

We provide the accuracy comparisons in Table 2: The results are given in terms of the average distance $\hat{e}$, and the median distance $\tilde{e}$ of the estimated camera locations to the corresponding cameras in the reference solution (units are approximately in meters). The results of [37] correspond to the estimates
computed by the combination of an outlier direction detection method (termed “1DSfM” in [37]) and a location estimation method employing a robust cost function. The results of [12] are cited from [37]. Also, the results of the SDR method [25] correspond to the estimates computed by applying the solver to the whole measurement graphs, and hence are not provided for the relatively larger datasets due to computational limitations. We also provide the running times corresponding to each experiment in Table 3 (note that the bundle adjustment times \( T_{BA} \) for the LUD, the CLS and the SDR solvers are computed after an initial 3D structure is provided). The results imply that the combination of our robust direction estimation method and the LUD solver produces highly accurate initial estimates compared to the CLS, the SDR and [37], with a slightly higher computation cost as compared to the CLS method and [37]. Using the initial estimates, we apply PBA once, to obtain rich 3D structures and further improvements in accuracy. See Figure 6 for some of the 3D structures obtained from the initial LUD estimates (each 3D point in Figure 6 is visible through at least 3 cameras).

| Dataset          | \( r \) | \( N_e \) | \( \bar{e} \) | \( N_e \) | \( \bar{e} \) | \( N_e \) | \( \bar{e} \) | \( N_e \) | \( \bar{e} \) | \( N_e \) | \( \bar{e} \) | \( N_e \) | \( \bar{e} \) | \( N_e \) |
|------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Piazza del Popolo| 43.0   | 329    | 1.5    | 5      | 305    | 1.4    | 5      | 305    | 1.4    | 5      | 305    | 1.4    | 5      | 305    | 1.4    |
| NYC Library      | 58.5   | 332    | 2.0    | 6      | 320    | 1.4    | 7      | 320    | 1.4    | 7      | 320    | 1.4    | 7      | 320    | 1.4    |
| Metropolis       | 209.8  | 341    | 1.6    | 4      | 288    | 1.5    | 4      | 288    | 1.5    | 4      | 288    | 1.5    | 4      | 288    | 1.5    |
| Yorkminster      | 149.2  | 337    | 2.7    | 5      | 404    | 1.3    | 4      | 404    | 1.3    | 4      | 404    | 1.3    | 4      | 404    | 1.3    |
| Tower of London  | 298.4  | 572    | 4.7    | 20     | 425    | 3.3    | 10     | 425    | 3.3    | 10     | 425    | 3.3    | 10     | 425    | 3.3    |
| Montreal N. D.   | 18.9   | 450    | 0.5    | 1      | 435    | 0.4    | 1      | 435    | 0.4    | 1      | 435    | 0.4    | 1      | 435    | 0.4    |
| Notre Dame       | 36.7   | 553    | 0.3    | 8      | 536    | 0.2    | 0.7    | 536    | 0.2    | 0.7    | 536    | 0.2    | 0.7    | 536    | 0.2    |
| Alamo            | 44.1   | 577    | 0.4    | 2      | 547    | 0.3    | 2      | 547    | 0.3    | 2      | 547    | 0.3    | 2      | 547    | 0.3    |
| Vienna Cathedral | 100.3  | 836    | 5.4    | 10     | 750    | 4.4    | 10     | 750    | 4.4    | 10     | 750    | 4.4    | 10     | 750    | 4.4    |

Table 2. Performance comparison of various methods for datasets from [37]: Units are (approximately) in meters. \( r \) denotes the radius of the smallest 3D sphere covering the ground truth locations (in meters), \( N_e \) denotes number of estimated camera locations, \( \bar{e} \) denotes the average distance, and \( \bar{e} \) denotes the median distance of the estimated camera locations to the corresponding cameras in the reference solution (computed using [29], and provided in [37]).

| Dataset        | \( T_R \) | \( T_{PR} \) | \( T_{PD} \) | \( T_\Sigma \) | \( T_R \) | \( T_{BA} \) | \( T_\Sigma \) | \( T_R \) | \( T_{BA} \) | \( T_\Sigma \) | \( T_R \) | \( T_{BA} \) | \( T_\Sigma \) | \( T_R \) | \( T_{BA} \) |
|----------------|---------|-------------|-------------|--------------|---------|-------------|--------------|---------|-------------|--------------|---------|-------------|--------------|---------|-------------|
| Piazza del Popolo | 35      | 43         | 18         | 35           | 31     | 162         | 9            | 106     | 211         | 358          | 39      | 493         | 14           | 9       | 35          |
| NYC Library     | 27      | 44         | 18         | 27           | 37     | 132         | 6            | 23      | 106         | 181          | 45      | 303         | 15           | 8       | 20          |
| Metropolis      | 27      | 37         | 13         | 27           | 37     | 142         | 6            | 23      | 106         | 181          | 45      | 303         | 15           | 8       | 20          |
| Yorkminster     | 19      | 46         | 33         | 19           | 51     | 148         | 10           | 133     | 241         | 648          | 75      | 821         | 11           | 18      | 93          |
| Tower of London | 24      | 54         | 23         | 24           | 54     | 236         | 8            | 202     | 311         | 352          | 170     | 623         | 9            | 14      | 55          |
| Montreal N. D.  | 68      | 115        | 91         | 68           | 112    | 167         | 21           | 270     | 565         | 135          | 75      | 332         | 17           | 18      | 77          |
| Notre Dame      | 135     | 214        | 325        | 135          | 214    | 325         | 52           | 504     | 1230        | 1599         | 1193    | 6154        | 113          | 155     | 606         |
| Alamo           | 103     | 232        | 96         | 103          | 186    | 133         | 40           | 339     | 810         | 148          | 56      | 929         | 56           | 29      | 72          |
| Vienna Cathedral| 267     | 472        | 265        | 267          | 265    | 208         | 46           | 182     | 1232        | 139         | 98      | 604         | 98           | 604     | 1027        |

Table 3. Running times, in seconds, for the experiments in Table 2: times for orientation estimation (\( T_R \)), extraction of largest maximally parallel rigid component (\( T_{PR} \)), robust pairwise direction estimation (\( T_{PD} \)), translation estimation (\( T_\Sigma \)), bundle adjustment (\( T_{BA} \)), and total times (\( T_\Sigma \)). (For the LUD, the CLS and the SDR solvers, the bundle adjustment times \( T_{BA} \) are computed after an initial 3D structure is provided, and the first three columns, \( i.e., T_R, T_{PR}, T_{PD} \), are common).
Figure 6. Snapshots of selected 3D structures computed using the LUD solver (7) for camera location estimation. Each 3D point is visible through at least three cameras.
5. Conclusion and Future Work

We provided a complete characterization of well-posed instances of the camera location estimation problem, via the existing results of parallel rigidity theory, and used it in practice to extract maximal image subsets for which estimation of camera location is well posed. For robust estimation of camera locations, we introduced a pairwise direction estimation method to maintain robustness to outliers in point correspondences, and we also introduced a robust convex program, namely “the least unsquared deviations” (LUD) solver, to diminish the effects of outliers in pairwise direction measurements. We empirically demonstrated that, the LUD formulation allows exact recovery of locations in the existence of partially corrupted direction measurements, which was not previously observed for any other estimator. In the context of structure from motion, these formulations can be used to efficiently and robustly estimate camera locations, in order to produce a high-quality initial point for reprojection error minimization algorithms, as demonstrated by our experiments on real image sets.

As future work, we plan to investigate the phenomenon of exact recovery with partially corrupted directions further, and provide a rigorous analysis characterizing the conditions for its existence.

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