

Lecture 3: CS574

Aug 31, 2011

Review: Admin

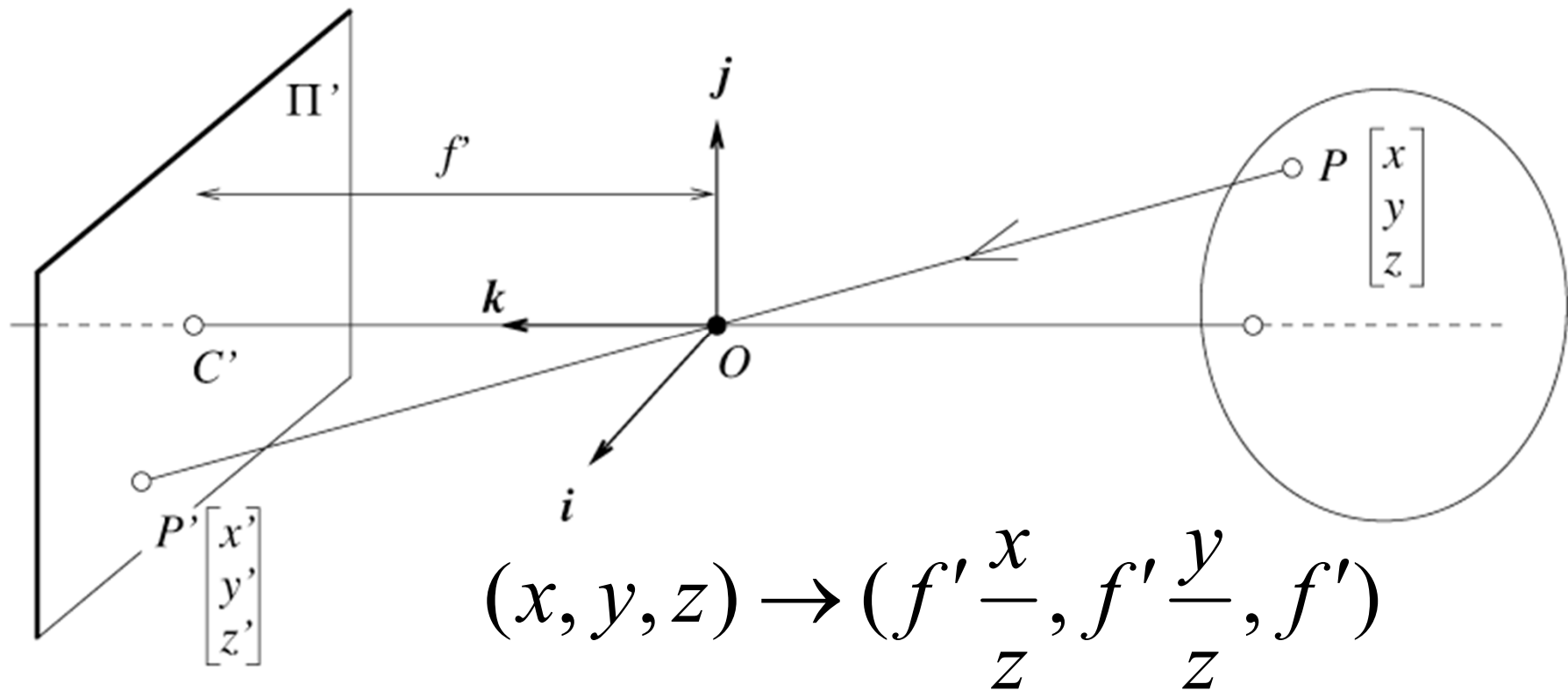
- Enrollment
 - Class remains full, must wait for some students to drop before adding more; possibly until next week
- Make up class: Sept 9, time and place to be announced
- Monday, Sept 5 is holiday; no class.

Review: Technical

- Image Formation: Geometry
- Pin hole camera model
- Real lenses
- Projection equations

The equation of projection

- Note: k -axis *towards* the camera (right handed coord system).



Note: mapping is not invertible

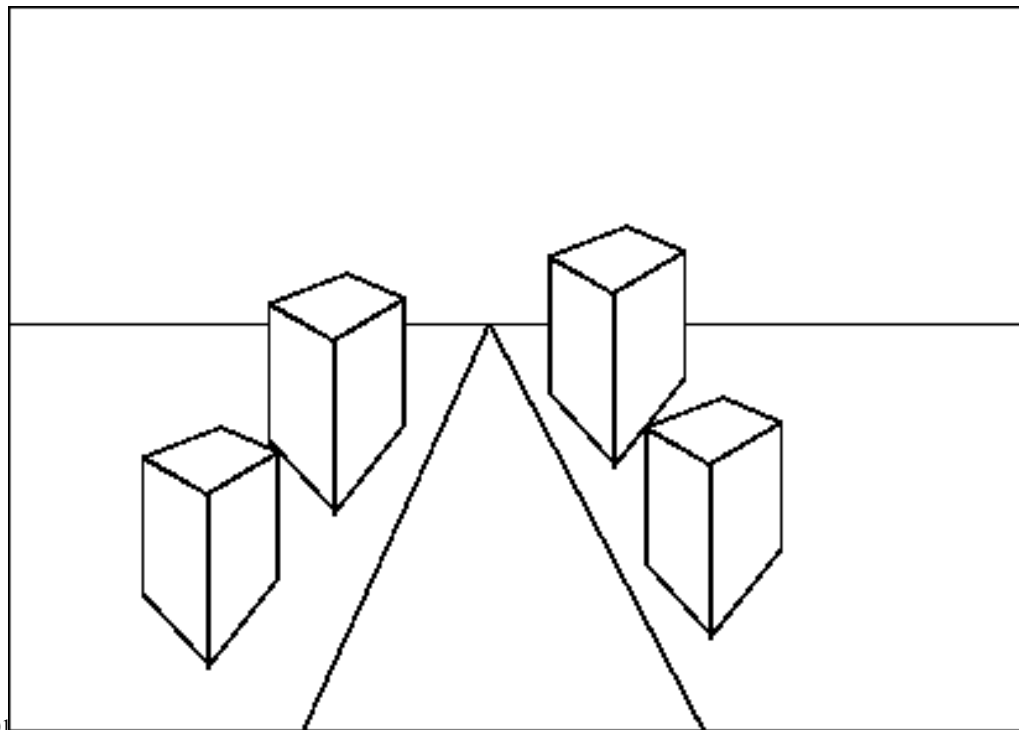
Example: projection of a line

- How to determine equation of the projection of a line?
 - First need to define a 3-D line: One way is to define by two end points
 - Project the line
 - Could project the end points and determine 2-D line from them
 - Alternative: use a *parametric* form of 3-D line to derive *parametric* form of 2-D line
- 2-D line: $ax + by + c = 0$; or $x = at + x_0$, $y = bt + y_0$, t is a “parameter”
 - (line passes through (x_0, y_0) , direction is given by (a, b))
- 3-D line: is given parametrically as $x = at + x_0$, $y = bt + y_0$, $z = ct + z_0$
 - Line passes through (x_0, y_0, z_0) ; direction is given by (a, b, c)
 - Can also be written as $(x-x_0)/a = (y-y_0)/b = (z-z_0)/c$
 - Sometimes also defined as intersection of two planes
- Map a point on the line, say (x, y, z) to image, say (x', y')
use projection equations:
$$x' = f'(x_0 + at)/(z_0 + ct), \quad y' = f'(y_0 + at)/(z_0 + ct)$$

We can show that the locus of the projected point is a straight line by eliminating parameter t from the above equations.

Projection of Parallel Lines

- Projections of parallel lines are not parallel
 - They meet in a common point called the *vanishing point*
 - Can be proved by letting $t \Rightarrow$ infinity in projected line equation
 - The vanishing point depends on the *direction* of the set of parallel lines
- Sets of parallel lines on the same plane lead to *collinear* vanishing points.
 - The line is called the *horizon* for that plane



Homogeneous Coordinates

- Add an extra coordinate
 - $(x, y, z) \Rightarrow (x_h, y_h, z_h, w_h) = (wx, wy, wz, w)$, w is any constant (in the book, w is set to 1)
- Advantage: allows perspective transformation to be *linearized*, i.e. expressed as a matrix equation

$$\begin{vmatrix} x_h' \\ y_h' \\ w_h' \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} f' & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & f' & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} x_h \\ y_h \\ z_h \\ w_h \end{vmatrix}$$

$$x_h' = f' x_h, y_h' = f' y_h, w_h' = z_h$$

$$x' = x_h' / w_h' = f' * x / z, y' = f' * y / z$$

- *NOTE*: If image plane in front, replace f' by $-f'$ in the above equations.

Coordinate Systems

- Previous transformation matrix requires object coordinates to be expressed in the *camera* coordinate system (with origin at lens center)
 - This, in general, is not very convenient
- *Object* coordinate system
 - Aligned with some components of the object, *e.g.* the three sides of a rectangular solid
- *World* coordinate system
 - Chosen for global convenience, *e.g.* lines forming corner of a room , or earth coordinates (latitude, longitude, height)
- Coordinate transformations define relations between different coordinate systems

Rigid Transformations

- Translation of origin (3 parameters)
- Rotation (3 parameters)
 - Euler angles, about the 3 axes (e.g. rotate about z-axis, then about the new y-axis, then about the new x-axis) but other rotation axes may be chosen
- Notation

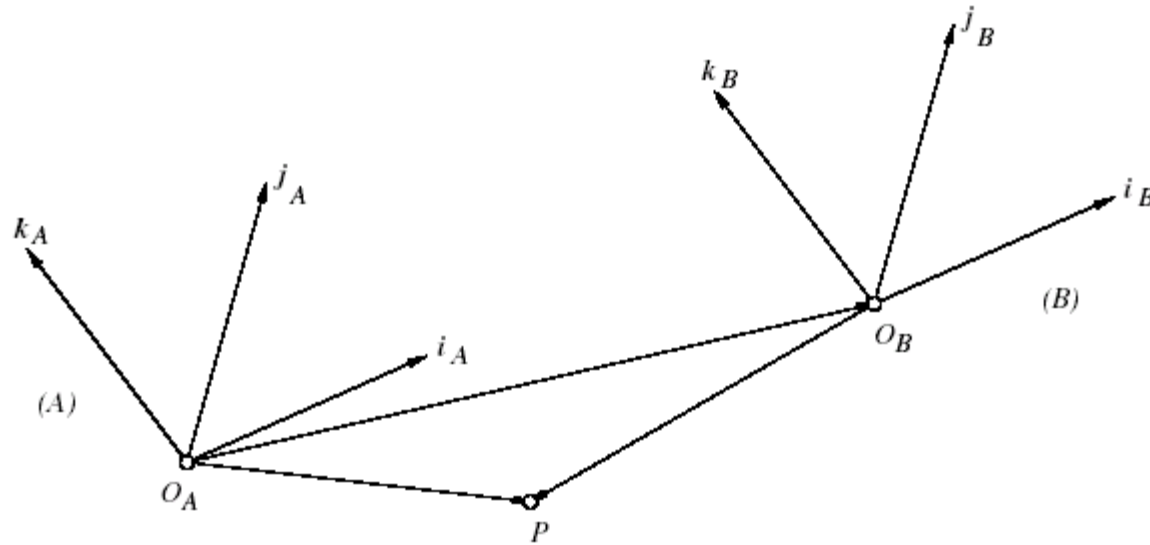
${}^F P$ Point P in Frame F

$$(A) = (O_A, \mathbf{i}_A, \mathbf{j}_A, \mathbf{k}_A)$$

$$(B) = (O_B, \mathbf{i}_B, \mathbf{j}_B, \mathbf{k}_B)$$

Translation

- figure 2.3 FP



- Assume vectors of two systems are parallel
 - Equations as in book, also in homogeneous coordinates

$${}^B P = {}^A P + {}^B O_A$$

Translation in Homogeneous Coordinates

$$\begin{vmatrix} B_X \\ B_Y \\ B_Z \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} A_X \\ A_Y \\ A_Z \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} B_{X_{OA}} \\ B_{Y_{OA}} \\ B_{Z_{OA}} \end{vmatrix}$$

or

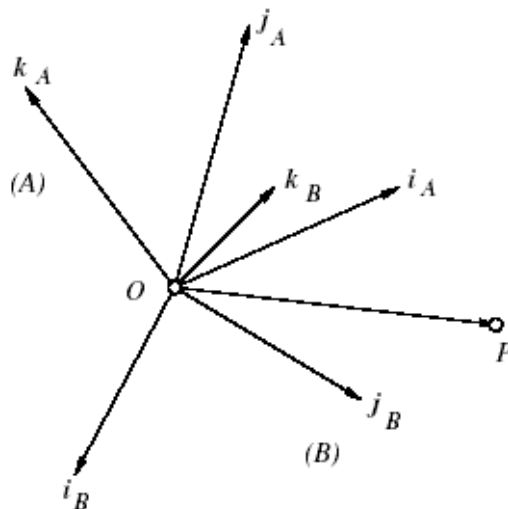
$$\begin{vmatrix} B_X \\ B_Y \\ B_Z \\ 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & B_{X_{OA}} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & B_{Y_{OA}} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & B_{Z_{OA}} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} A_X \\ A_Y \\ A_Z \\ 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

or

$$\begin{vmatrix} B\mathbf{P} \\ 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{0}^T & 1 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} A\mathbf{P} \\ 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

Rotation

- Figure 2.4 FP



- How to express rotation?

– axis vectors of one system defined in the other also define the rotation matrix R

$${}^B_A\mathcal{R} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} i_A \cdot i_B & j_A \cdot i_B & k_A \cdot i_B \\ i_A \cdot j_B & j_A \cdot j_B & k_A \cdot j_B \\ i_A \cdot k_B & j_A \cdot k_B & k_A \cdot k_B \end{pmatrix} \quad {}^B_A\mathcal{R} = ({}^B i_A \quad {}^B j_A \quad {}^B k_A) = \begin{pmatrix} {}^A i_B^T \\ {}^A j_B^T \\ {}^A k_B^T \end{pmatrix}$$

$${}^B P = {}^B_A\mathcal{R} {}^A P$$

$${}^A_B\mathcal{R} = ({}^B_A\mathcal{R})^T$$

Example

- Suppose that $\mathbf{k}_A = \mathbf{k}_B = \mathbf{k}$
- Vector \mathbf{i}_B is obtained by rotating \mathbf{i}_A by an angle θ in the counter-clockwise direction, then

$$\mathcal{R} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Rigid Transformations

- Translation $\begin{vmatrix} {}^B\mathbf{P} \\ 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{0}^T & 1 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} {}^A\mathbf{P} \\ 1 \end{vmatrix}$

- Rotation ${}^B\mathbf{P} = {}^B\mathcal{R} {}^A\mathbf{P}$

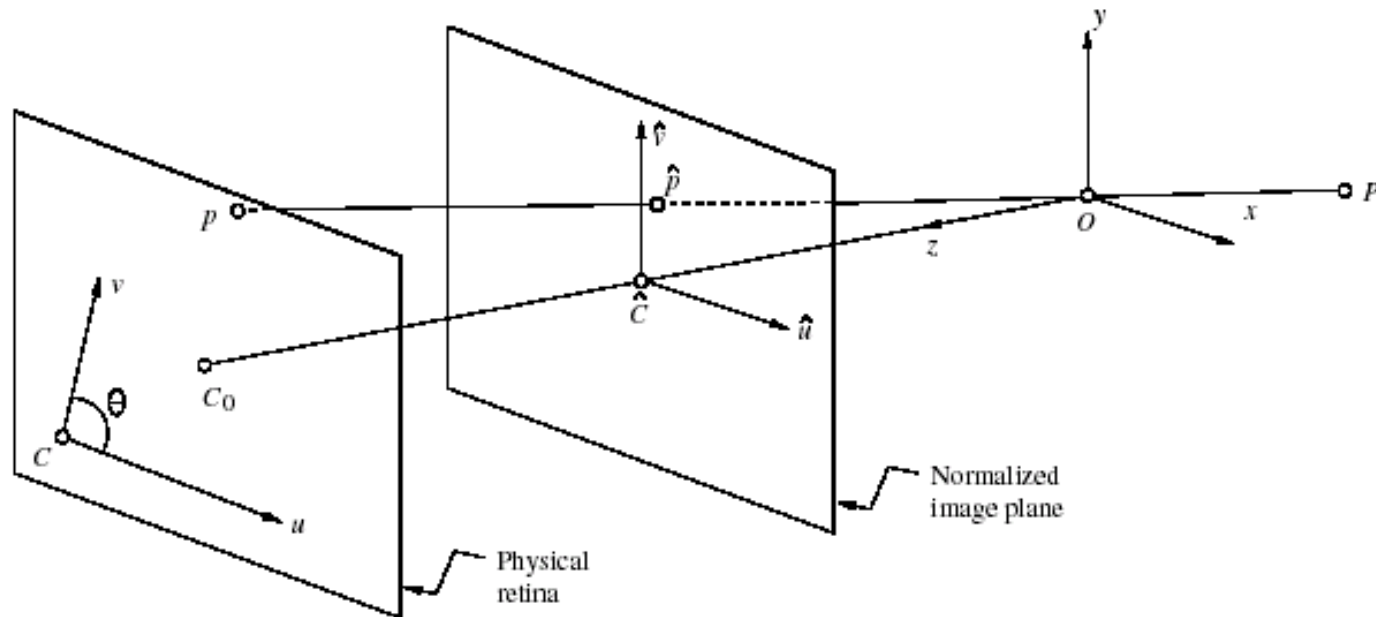
- Combine rotation and translation

$$\begin{pmatrix} {}^B\mathbf{P} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = {}^B\mathcal{T} \begin{pmatrix} {}^A\mathbf{P} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{where } {}^B\mathcal{T} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} {}^B\mathcal{R} & {}^B\mathbf{O}_A \\ \mathbf{0}^T & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Note: $\mathbf{t} = {}^B\mathbf{O}_A$, from object to camera coordinates, it may be more convenient to be given ${}^A\mathbf{O}_B$ in which case $\mathbf{t} = -\mathcal{R} {}^A\mathbf{O}_B$

Intrinsic Camera Parameters

- Figure 2.8



- Measurement in image coordinate system may be in “pixel” units (u,v) , pixels may not be rectangular, origin of image coordinate system may not be at the center of *image* (projection of lens center), axis may be *skewed* .
- *Normalized* image plane: parallel to physical retina but unit distance from lens center

Intrinsic Camera Equations

- *Normalized* image plane: parallel to physical retina but unit distance from lens center, coordinate system as in fig 2.8

$$\begin{cases} \hat{u} = \frac{x}{z} \\ \hat{v} = \frac{y}{z} \end{cases} \iff \hat{p} = \frac{1}{z} (\text{Id} \quad \mathbf{0}) \begin{pmatrix} P \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Projection Equations for different u, v scales (2.10)

$$\begin{cases} u = kf \frac{x}{z}, \\ v = lf \frac{y}{z}. \end{cases}$$

- Now shift the origin (2.11) $\begin{cases} u = \alpha \frac{x}{z} + u_0, \\ v = \beta \frac{y}{z} + v_0. \end{cases}$

Intrinsic Camera Equations

- With skewed axes (2.12)
$$\begin{cases} u = \alpha \frac{x}{z} - \alpha \cot \theta \frac{y}{z} + u_0, \\ v = \frac{\beta}{\sin \theta} \frac{y}{z} + v_0. \end{cases}$$

- All intrinsic parameters combined

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathcal{K} \hat{\mathbf{p}}, \quad \text{where } \mathbf{p} = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathcal{K} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & -\alpha \cot \theta & u_0 \\ 0 & \frac{\beta}{\sin \theta} & v_0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Projection equation

$$\mathbf{p} = \frac{1}{z} \mathcal{M} \mathbf{P}, \quad \text{where } \mathcal{M} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\mathcal{K} \quad \mathbf{0})$$

- Note that division by z is present because $\mathbf{p} = (u, v, 1)^T$; if we allow $\mathbf{p} = (u', v', w')^T$; we can just write $\mathbf{p} = \mathcal{M} \mathbf{P}$, leaving the step of division to be performed only when non-homogeneous coordinates need to be computed.

Including *Extrinsic* Camera Parameters

- Relate camera frame, \mathcal{C} , to world (object) frame, \mathcal{W}

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathcal{C} P \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathcal{C} \mathcal{R} & \mathcal{C} O_{\mathcal{W}} \\ \mathbf{0}^T & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathcal{W} P \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{p} = \frac{1}{z} \mathcal{M} \mathbf{P}, \quad \text{where } \mathcal{M} = \mathcal{K}(\mathcal{R} \quad \mathbf{t})$$

- Fully expanded, matrix M (3x4)

$$\mathcal{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha r_1^T - \alpha \cot \theta r_2^T + u_0 r_3^T & \alpha t_x - \alpha \cot \theta t_y + u_0 t_z \\ \frac{\beta}{\sin \theta} r_2^T + v_0 r_3^T & \frac{\beta}{\sin \theta} t_y + v_0 t_z \\ r_3^T & t_z \end{pmatrix}$$

where r_1^T , r_2^T and r_3^T denote the three rows of the matrix \mathcal{R}

Note M is 3 x 4, first column includes vectors (r_1^T , r_2^T and r_3^T), z is not in the original world coordinate system (is $m_3 \cdot P$)

- Equivalent to:

$$u = (\mathbf{m}_1 \cdot \mathbf{P}) / (\mathbf{m}_3 \cdot \mathbf{P}), \quad v = (\mathbf{m}_2 \cdot \mathbf{P}) / (\mathbf{m}_3 \cdot \mathbf{P}), \quad \text{where } \mathbf{m}_1, \mathbf{m}_2 \text{ and } \mathbf{m}_3 \text{ are transposes of three rows of } M$$

Next Class

- Chapter 2, section 2.3
- Chapter 3, section 3.1