

# Computer Vision Projective Geometry and Calibration

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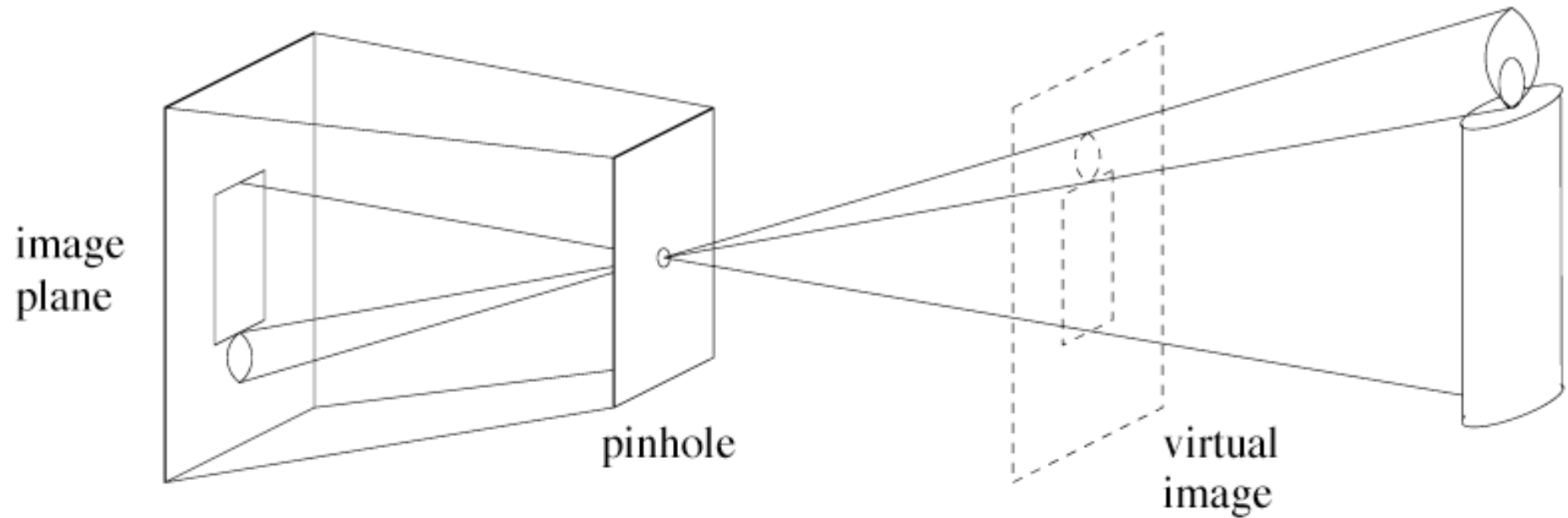
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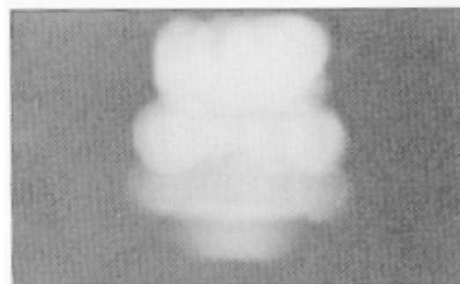
# Pinhole cameras

- Abstract camera model - box with a small hole in it
- Pinhole cameras work in practice

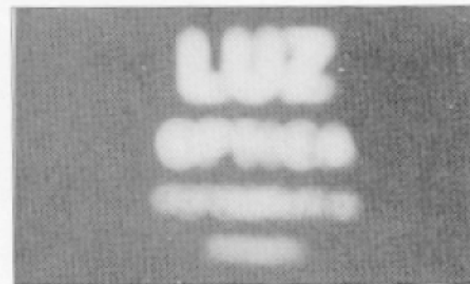


# Real Pinhole Cameras

Pinhole too big -  
many directions are  
averaged, blurring the  
image



2 mm



1 mm

Pinhole too small -  
diffraction effects blur  
the image



0.6mm

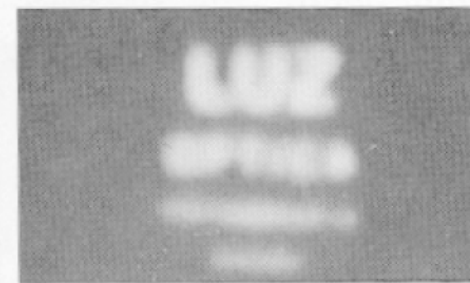


0.35 mm

Generally, pinhole  
cameras are *dark*, because  
a very small set of rays  
from a particular point  
hits the screen.

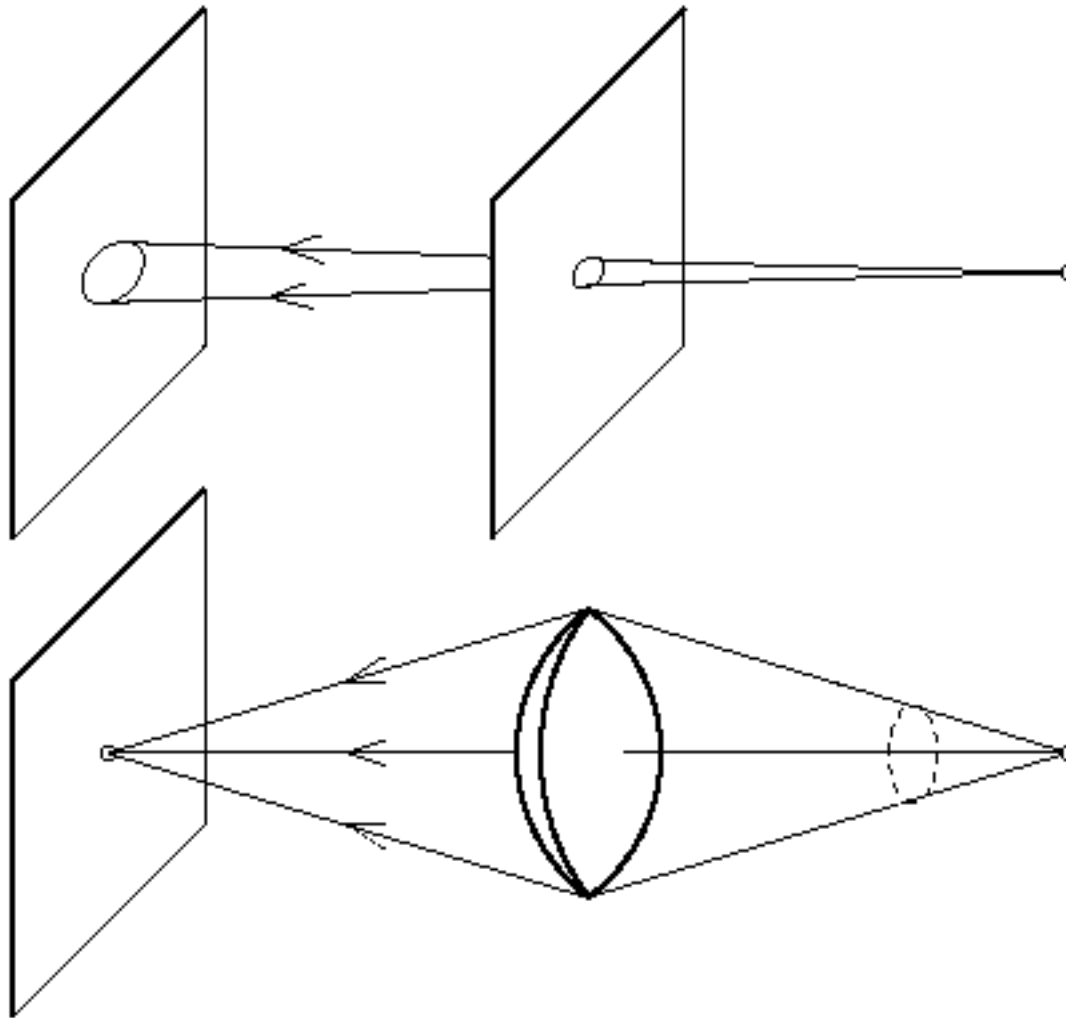


0.15 mm



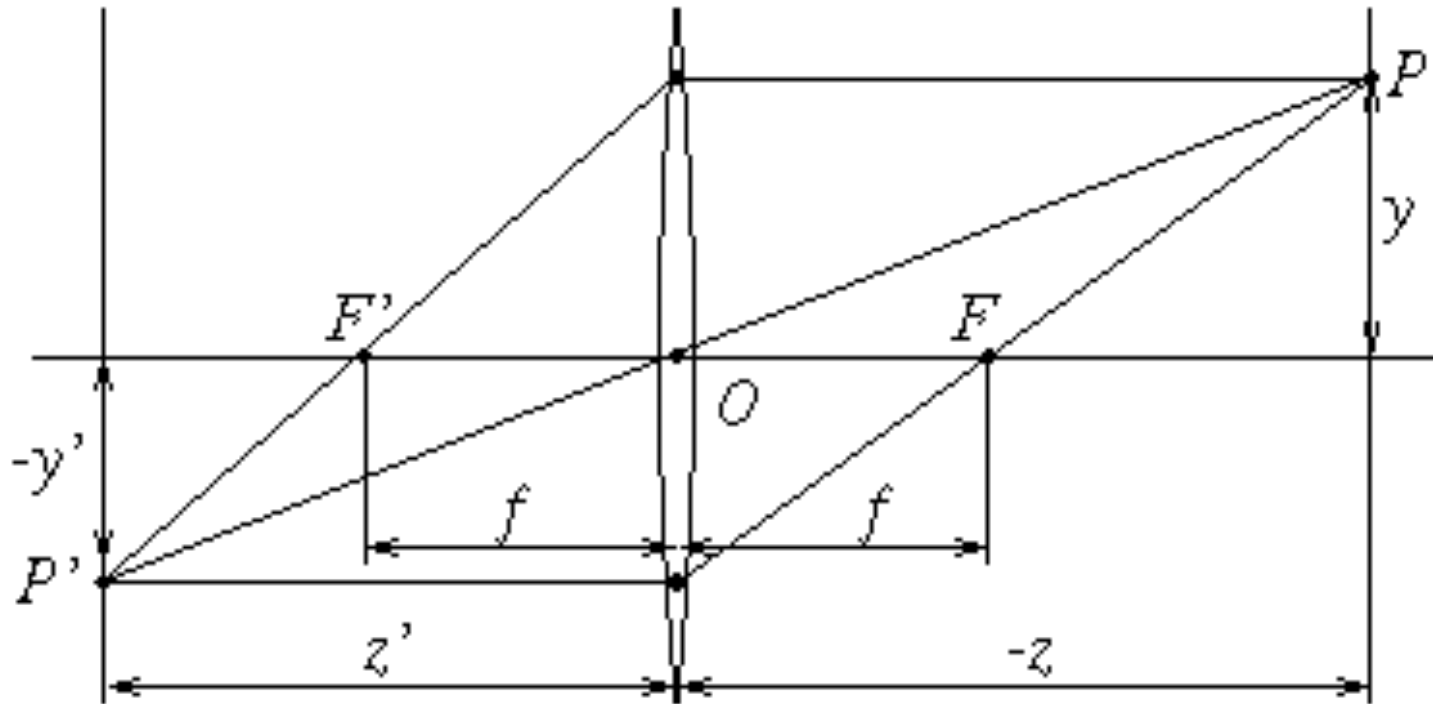
0.07 mm

# The reason for lenses



Lenses gather and focus light, allowing for brighter images.

# The thin lens

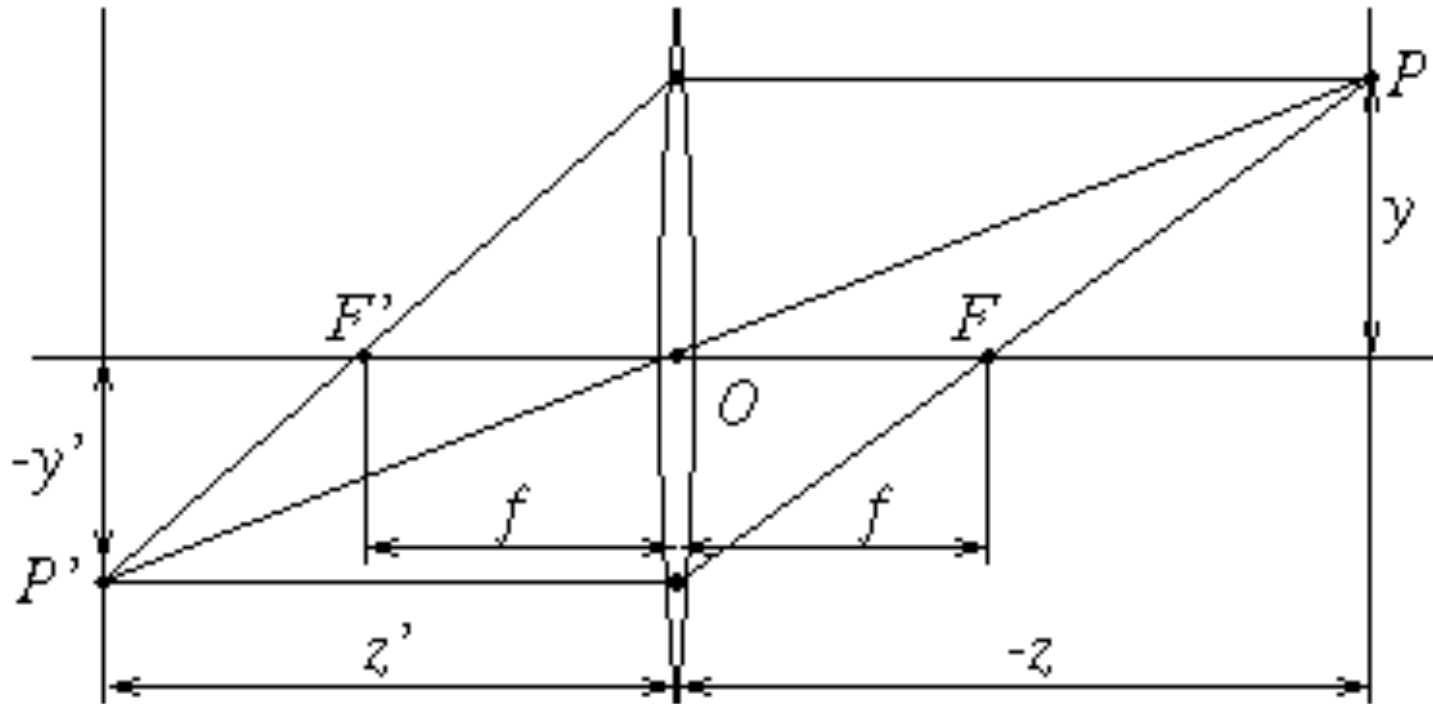


Thin Lens Properties:

1. A ray entering parallel to optical axis goes through the focal point.
2. A ray emerging from focal point is parallel to optical axis
3. A ray through the optical center is unaltered

$$\frac{1}{z'} - \frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{f}$$

# The thin lens



$$\frac{1}{z'} - \frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{f}$$

Note that, if the image plane is very small and/or  $z \gg z'$ , then  $z'$  is approximately equal to  $f$

# Field of View

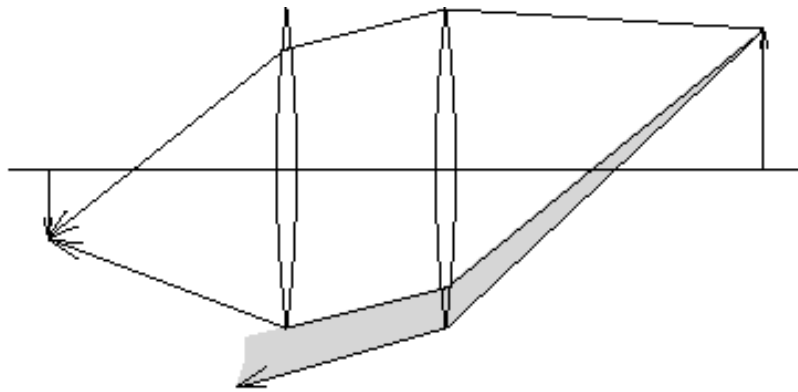
- The *effective diameter* of a lens ( $d$ ) is the portion of a lens actually reachable by light rays.
- The effective diameter and the focal length determine the field of view:

$$\tan w = d / (2f)$$

- $w$  is the half the total angular “view” of a lens system.
- Another fact is that in practice points at different distances are imaged, leading to so-called “circles of confusion” of size  $d/z |z' - z|$  where  $z$  is the nominal image plane and  $z'$  is the focusing distance given by the thin lens equation.
- The “depth of field” is the range of distances that produce acceptably focused images. Depth of field varies inversely with focal length and lens diameter.

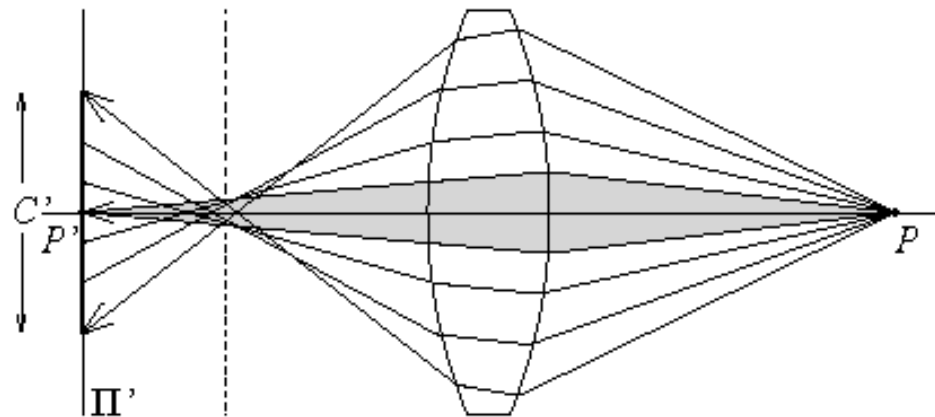
# Lens Realities

Real lenses have a finite depth of field, and usually suffer from a variety of defects



vignetting

## Spherical Aberration

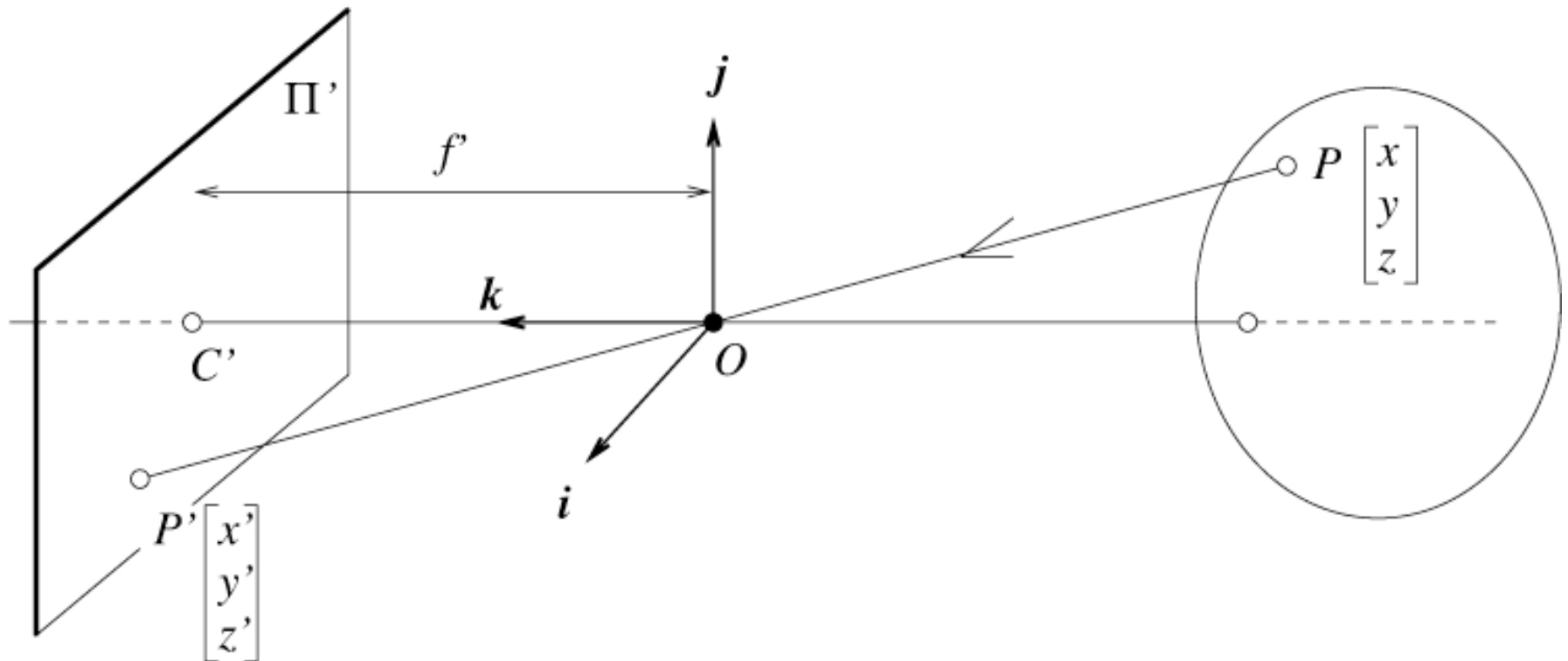




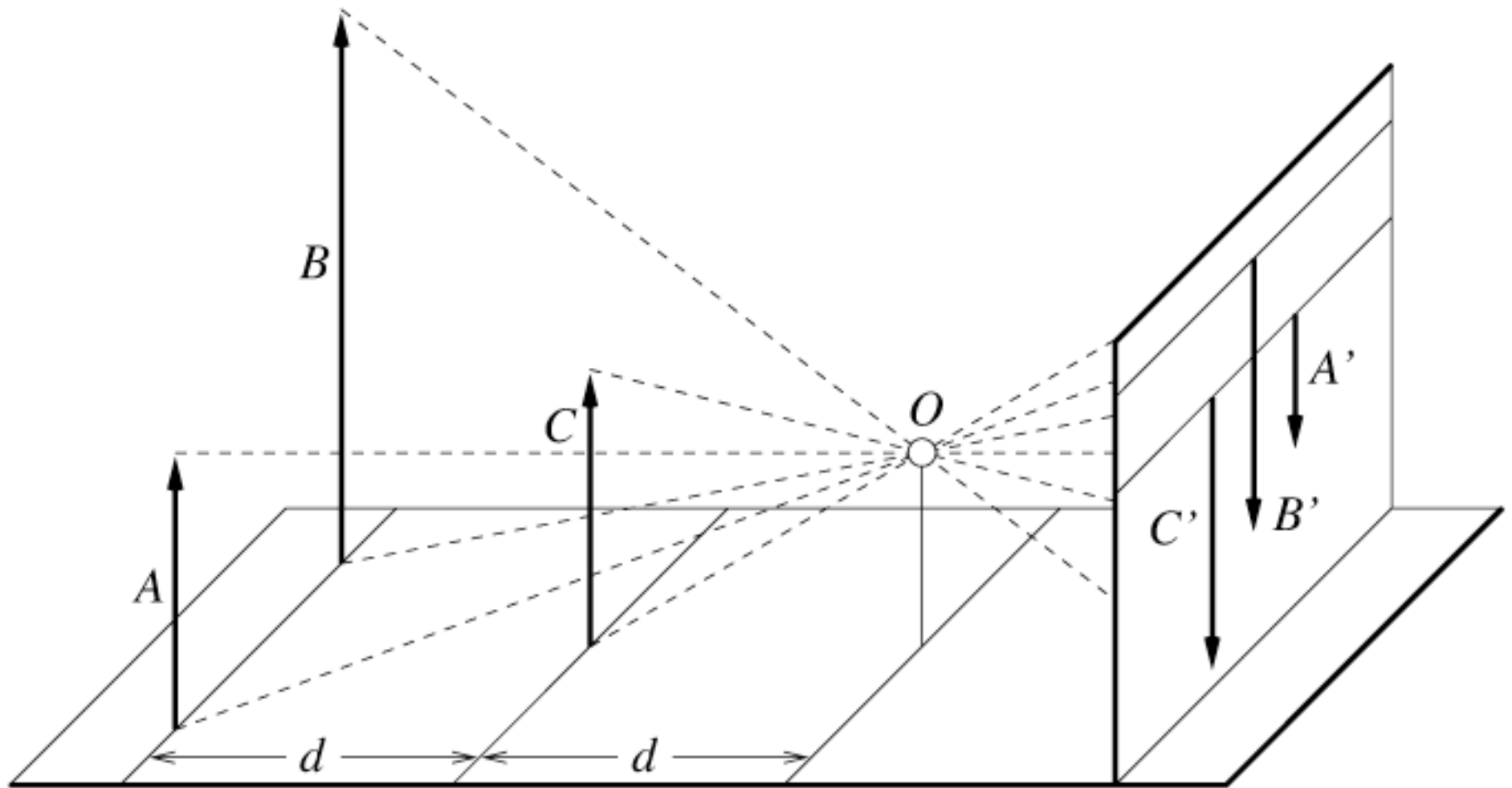
# The equation of projection

- Equating  $z'$  and  $f$ 
  - We have, by similar triangles, that  $(x, y, z) \rightarrow (-f x/z, -f y/z, -f)$
  - Ignore the third coordinate, and flip the image around to get:

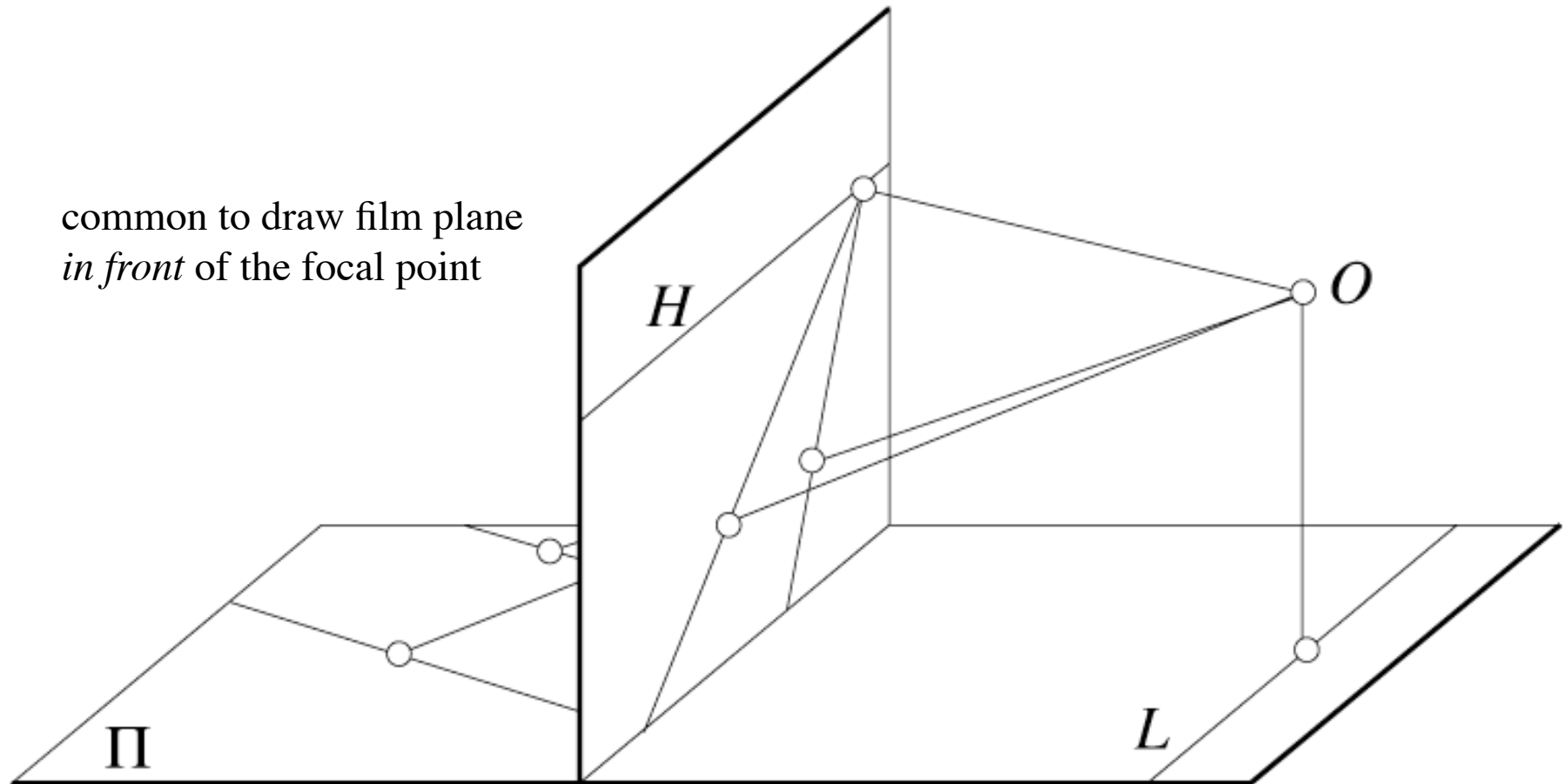
$$(x, y, z) \rightarrow \left(f \frac{x}{z}, f \frac{y}{z}\right)$$



# Distant objects are smaller



# Parallel lines meet



A Good Exercise: Show this is the case!

# Projection Geometry: Standard Camera Coordinates

- By convention, we place the image in front of the optical center
  - typically we approximate by saying it lies one focal distance from the center
  - in reality this can't be true for a finite size chip!
- Optical axis is z axis pointing outward
- X axis is parallel to the scanlines (rows) pointing to the right!
- By the right hand rule, the Y axis must point downward
- Note this corresponds with indexing an image from the upper left to the lower right, where the X coordinate is the column index and the Y coordinate is the row index.

# An Aside: Geometric Transforms

In general, a point in n-D space transforms rigidly by

$$\text{newpoint} = \text{rotate}(\text{point}) + \text{translate}(\text{point})$$

In 2-D space, this can be written as a matrix equation:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} tx \\ ty \end{pmatrix}$$

In 3-D space (or n-D), this can be generalized as a matrix equation:

$$p' = R p + T \quad \text{or} \quad p = R^t (p' - T)$$

Transforming the world frame      Transforming the observer frame

# Properties of Rotations

- In general, a rotation matrix satisfies two properties:
  - $R^t R = R R^t = I$
  - $\det(R) = 1$
- What does this make the inverse of a rotation?
- Note that this defines some properties of the component vectors of the matrix.
- A 3D rotation can be expressed in many ways:
  - as a composition of individual rotations  $R_{3d}(q_1, q_2, q_3) = R_{2d}(q_1) R_{2d}(q_2) R_{2d}(q_3)$
  - as an angle-axis  $n, q$   
$$R = I \cos(q) + (1 - \cos(q)) (n n^t) + \sin(q) \text{sk}(n)$$

# An Aside: Geometric Transforms

Often, we want to *compose* transformations, but using separate translations and rotations makes that clumsy.

Instead, we embed points in a higher-dimensional space by appending a 1 to the end (now a 4d vector)

Now, using the idea of *homogeneous transforms*, we can write:

$$p' = \begin{pmatrix} R & T \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} p$$

R and T both require 3 parameters. These correspond to the 6 *extrinsic parameters* needed for camera calibration

# How Do We Combine Projection and Transformation?

- Step 0: Points are expressed in some coordinate system that is not the cameras (e.g. a model or a robot):
  - $p = (x, y, z, 1)$
- Step 1: Transform the points into camera coordinates
  - $q = (x', y', z', 1) = T p$
- Step 2: Project the points
  - $u = f x'/z'$  ;  $v = f y'/z'$
- A linear step followed by a nonlinear step ...



# Basic Projective Concepts

- We have seen homogeneous coordinates already; projective geometry makes use of these types of coordinates, but generalizes them
- The vector  $p = (x,y,z,w)'$  is equivalent to the vector  $k p$  for nonzero  $k$ 
  - note the vector  $p = 0$  is disallowed from this representation
- The vector  $v = (x,y,z,0)'$  is termed a “point at infinity”; it corresponds to a direction

# Basic Projective Concepts

- In 2D space
  - points:
    - Cartesian point  $(x,y)$
    - Projective pt  $(x,y,w)$  with convention that  $w$  is a scale factor
  - lines
    - a point  $p$  on the line and a unit *normal*  $n$  s.t.  $n \cdot (p' - p) = 0$
    - multiplying through, also  $n \cdot p' - d = 0$ , where  $d$  is distance of closest pt to origin.
    - any vector  $n \cdot q = 0$  where  $q$  is a projective pt
      - note, for two lines, the intersection is two equations in 3 unknowns up to scale --- i.e. a one-dimensional subspace, or a *point*
    - note that points and lines are *dual* --- I can think of  $n$  or  $q$  as the normal (resp. point) e.g.
      - two points determine a line
      - two lines determine a point

# Basic Projective Concepts

- In 3D space
  - points:
    - Cartesian point  $(x,y,z)$
    - Projective pt  $(x,y,z,w)$  with convention that  $w$  is a scale factor
  - lines:
    - a point  $p$  on the line and unit vector  $v$  for direction
      - for minimal parameterization,  $p$  is closest point to origin
    - Alternative, a line is the intersection of two planes (see below)
  - planes
    - a point  $p$  on the plane and a unit *normal*  $n$  s.t.  $n \cdot (p' - p) = 0$
    - multiplying through, also  $n \cdot p' - d = 0$ , where  $d$  is distance of closest pt to origin.
    - any vector  $n \cdot q = 0$  where  $q$  is a projective pt
      - note, for two planes, the intersection is two equations in 4 unknowns up to scale --- i.e. a one-dimensional subspace, or a *line*
    - Note that planes and points are *dual* --- in the above, I can equally think of  $n$  or  $q$  as the normal (resp. point).

# Properties of SVD

- Recall the Singular Value Decomposition of a matrix  $M$  ( $m$  by  $n$ ) is  $M = U D V^t$  where
  - $U$  is  $m$  by  $n$  and has unit orthogonal columns (unitary)
  - $D$  is  $n$  by  $n$  and has the *singular values* on the diagonal
  - $V$  is  $n$  by  $n$  and has unit orthogonal columns (unitary)
- Interpretation:
  - $V$  is the “input space”
  - $D$  provides a “gain” for each input direction
  - $U$  is a projection into the “output space”
- As a result:
  - The null space of  $M$  corresponds to the zero singular values in  $D$
  - In most cases (e.g. Matlab) the singular values are sorted largest to smallest, so the null space is the right-most columns of  $V$
  - Matlab functions are
    - $[u,d,v] = \text{SVD}(m)$
    - $[u,d,v] = \text{SVD}(m,0)$  (“economy svd”)
      - if  $m > n$ , only the first  $n$  singular values are computed and  $D$  is  $n$  by  $n$
      - useful when solving overconstrained systems of equations

# Some Projective Concepts

- The vector  $p = (x,y,z,w)'$  is equivalent to the vector  $k p$  for nonzero  $k$ 
  - note the vector  $p = 0$  is disallowed from this representation
- The vector  $v = (x,y,z,0)'$  is termed a “point at infinity”; it corresponds to a direction
- In  $P^2$ ,
  - given two points  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ ,  $l = p_1 \times p_2$  is the line containing them
  - given two lines,  $l_1$ , and  $l_2$ ,  $p = l_1 \times l_2$  is point of intersection
  - A point  $p$  lies on a line  $l$  if  $p \cdot l = 0$  (note this is a consequence of the triple product rule)
  - $l = (0,0,1)$  is the “line at infinity”
  - it follows that, for any point  $p$  at infinity,  $l \cdot p = 0$ , which implies that points at infinity lie on the line at infinity.

# Some Projective Concepts

- The vector  $p = (x,y,z,w)'$  is equivalent to the vector  $k p$  for nonzero  $k$ 
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- The vector  $v = (x,y,z,0)'$  is termed a “point at infinity”; it corresponds to a direction
- In  $P^3$ ,
  - A point  $p$  lies on a plane  $l$  if  $p \cdot l = 0$  (note this is a consequence of the triple product rule; there is an equivalent expression in determinants)
  - $l = (0,0,0,1)$  is the “plane at infinity”
  - it follows that, for any point  $p$  at infinity,  $l \cdot p = 0$ , which implies that points at infinity lie on the line at infinity.

# Some Projective Concepts

- The vector  $p = (x,y,z,w)'$  is equivalent to the vector  $k p$  for nonzero  $k$ 
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- Plucker coordinates
  - In general, a representation for a line through points  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  is given by all possible  $2 \times 2$  determinants of  $[p_1 \ p_2]$  (an  $n$  by 2 matrix)
    - $u = (l_{4,1}, l_{4,1}, l_{4,3}, l_{2,3}, l_{3,1}, l_{1,2})$  are the Plücker coordinates of the line passing through the two points.
    - if the points are not at infinity, then this is also the same as  $(p_2 - p_1, p_1 \times p_2)$
  - The first 3 coordinates are the direction of the line
  - The second 3 are the normal to the plane (in  $R^3$ ) containing the origin and the points
  - In general, a representation for a plane passing through three points  $p_1, p_2$  and  $p_3$  are the determinants of all  $3 \times 3$  submatrices  $[p_1 \ p_2 \ p_3]$ 
    - let  $l_{i,j}$  mean the determinant of the matrix of matrix formed by the rows  $i$  and  $j$
    - $P = (l_{234}, l_{134}, l_{142}, l_{123})$
    - Note the three points are colinear if all four of these values are zero (hence the original  $3 \times 4$  matrix has rank 2, as we would expect).
  - Two lines are colinear if we create the  $4 \times 4$  matrix  $[p_1, p_2, p'_1, p'_2]$  where the  $p$ 's come from one line, and the  $p$ 's come from another and the determinant is zero.

# Parallel lines meet

- First, show how lines project to images.
- Second, consider lines that have the same direction (are parallel) but are not parallel to the imaging plane
- Third, consider the degenerate case of lines parallel to the image plane
  - (by convention, the vanishing point is at infinity!)

A Good Exercise: Show this is the case!



# Vanishing points

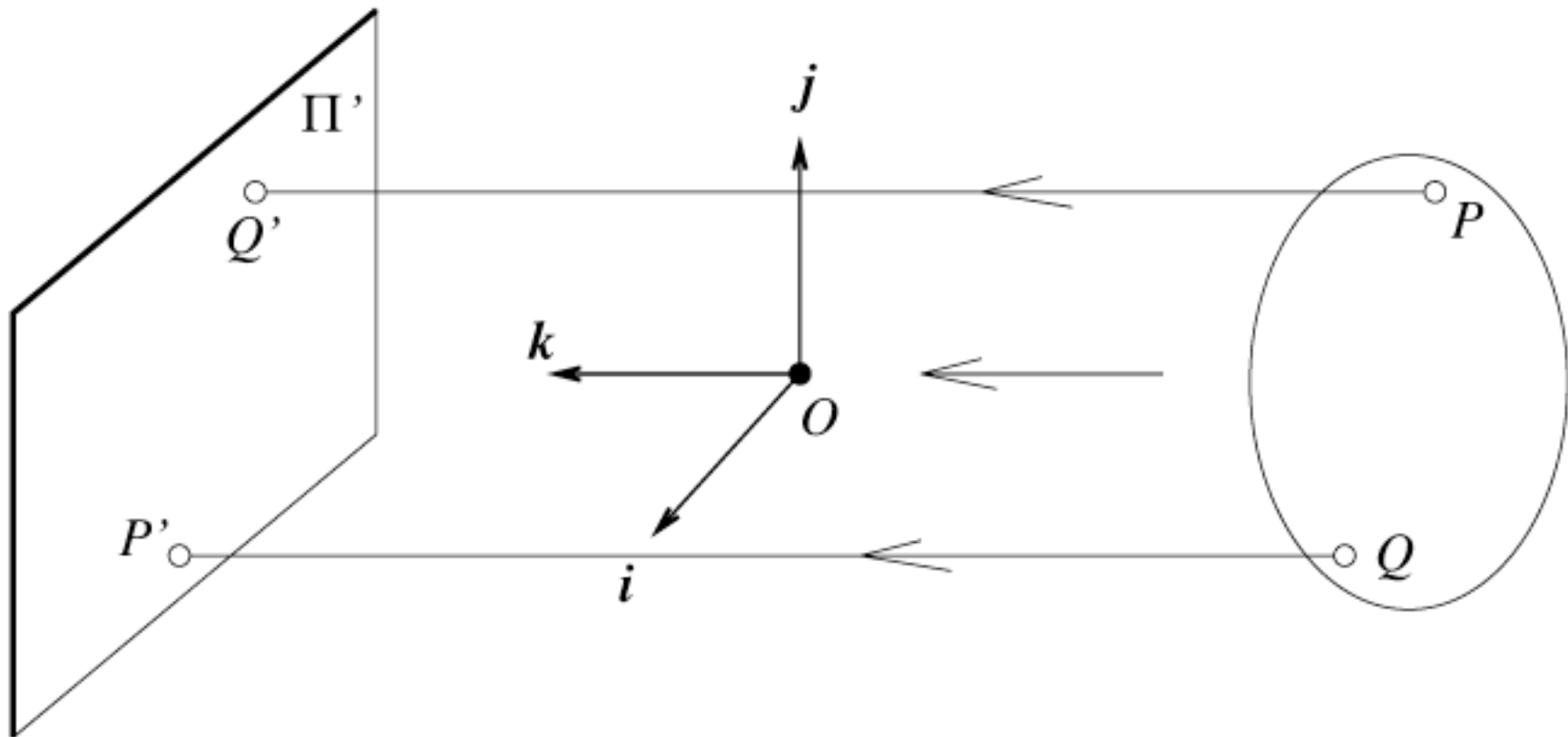
- Another good exercise: show the form of projection of \*lines\* into images.
- Each set of parallel lines (=direction) meets at a different point
  - The *vanishing point* for this direction
- Sets of parallel lines on the same plane lead to *collinear* vanishing points.
  - The line is called the *horizon* for that plane

# The Camera Matrix

- Homogenous coordinates for 3D
  - four coordinates for 3D point
  - equivalence relation  $(X,Y,Z,T)$  is the same as  $(k X, k Y, k Z, k T)$
- Turn previous expression into HC's
  - HC's for 3D point are  $(X,Y,Z,T)$
  - HC's for point in image are  $(U,V,W)$

$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/f & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ T \end{pmatrix} \quad (U,V,W) \rightarrow \left(\frac{U}{W}, \frac{V}{W}\right) = (u,v)$$

# Orthographic projection



Suppose I let  $f$  go to infinity; then

$$u = x$$

$$v = y$$

# The model for orthographic projection

$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ T \end{pmatrix}$$

# Scaled Orthography (Weak Perspective)

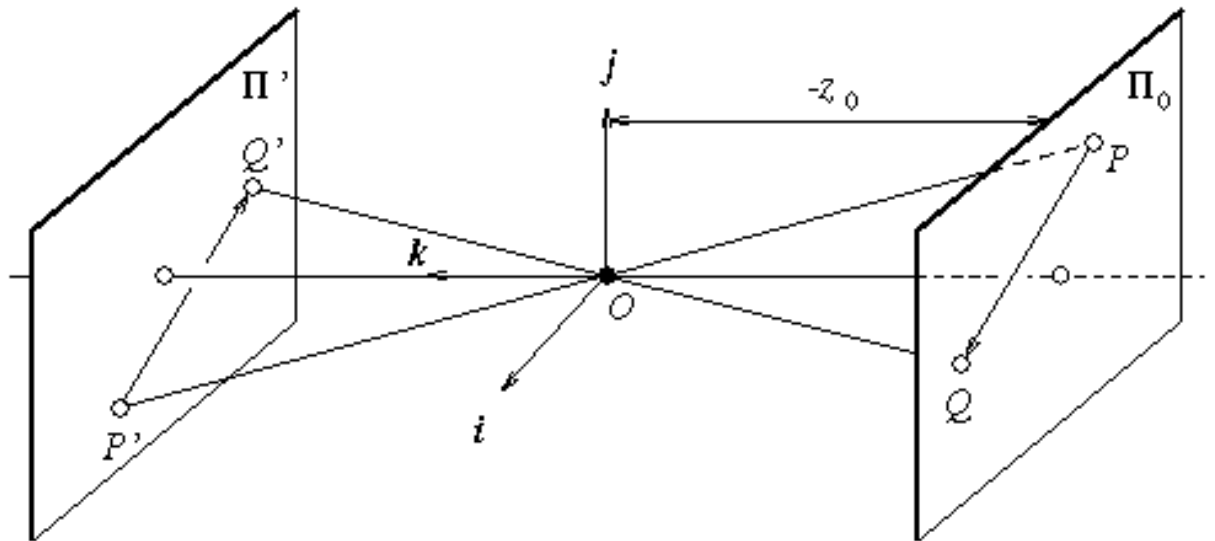
- Issue

- perspective effects, but not over the scale of individual objects
- collect points into a group at about the same depth, then divide each point by the depth of its group
- Adv: easy
- Disadv: wrong

$$u = sx$$

$$v = sy$$

$$s = f / Z^*$$



# The model for Scaled Orthography

$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & Z^* / f \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ T \end{pmatrix}$$

# Intrinsic Parameters

*Intrinsic Parameters* describe the conversion from unit focal length metric to pixel coordinates (and the reverse)

$$\begin{aligned}x_{\text{mm}} &= - (x_{\text{pix}} - o_x) s_x \quad \rightarrow \quad -1/s_x x_{\text{mm}} + o_x = x_{\text{pix}} \\y_{\text{mm}} &= - (y_{\text{pix}} - o_y) s_y \quad \rightarrow \quad -1/s_y y_{\text{mm}} + o_y = y_{\text{pix}}\end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{pmatrix}_{\text{pix}} = \begin{pmatrix} -1/s_x & 0 & o_x \\ 0 & -1/s_y & o_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{pmatrix}_{\text{mm}} = K_{\text{int}} p$$

It is common to combine scale and focal length together as they are both scaling factors; note projection is unitless in this case!

# Putting it All Together

Now, using the idea of *homogeneous transforms*, we can write:

$$p' = \begin{pmatrix} R & T \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} p$$

R and T both require 3 parameters. These correspond to the 6 *extrinsic parameters* needed for camera calibration

Then we can write

$$q = M p' \text{ for some projection model } M$$

Finally, we can write

$$u = K q \text{ for intrinsic parameters } K$$



# The Camera Matrix

- Homogenous coordinates for 3D
  - four coordinates for 3D point
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- Turn previous expression into HC's
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$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/f & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ T \end{pmatrix} \quad (U,V,W) \rightarrow \left(\frac{U}{W}, \frac{V}{W}\right) = (u,v)$$

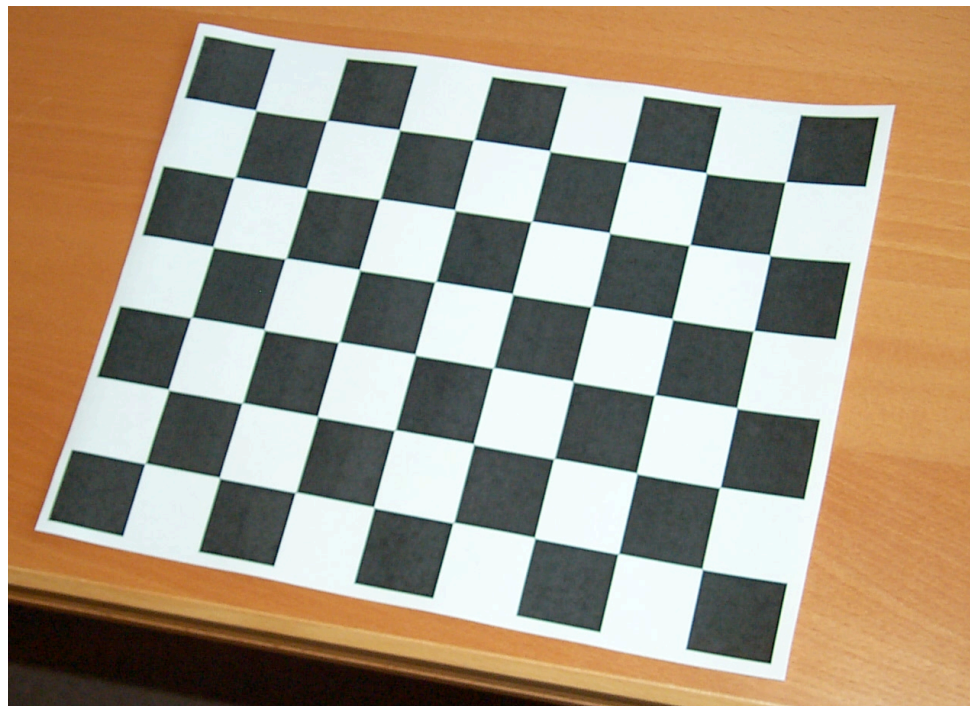
# Camera Calibration

Calibration = the computation of the camera intrinsic and extrinsic parameters

- General strategy:
  - view calibration object
  - identify image points
  - obtain camera matrix by minimizing error
  - obtain intrinsic parameters from camera matrix
- Most modern systems employ the multi-plane method
  - avoids knowing absolute coordinates of calibration points
- Error minimization:
  - Linear least squares
    - easy problem numerically
    - solution can be rather bad
  - Minimize image distance
    - more difficult numerical problem
    - solution usually rather good, but can be hard to find
      - start with linear least squares
  - Numerical scaling is an issue

# Camera Calibration: Problem Statement

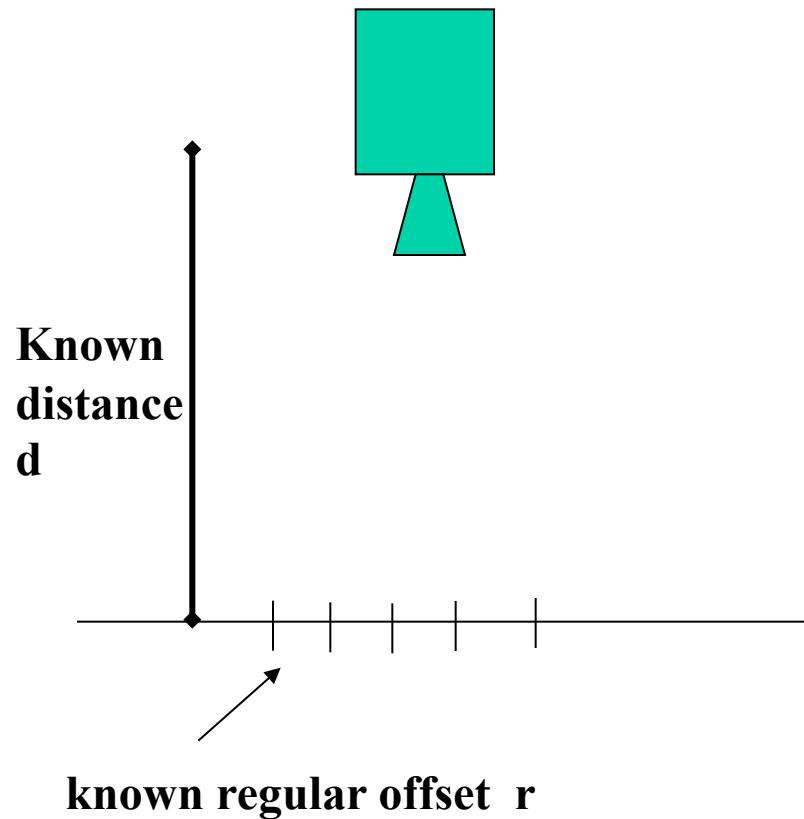
Compute the camera intrinsic (4 or more) and extrinsic parameters (6) using only observed camera data.



# A Quick Aside: Least Squares

- Total least squares:  $a x_i + b y_i = z_i$ 
  - Leads to  $\min_{a,b} \sum_i (a x_i + b y_i - z_i)^2$
  - Equivalent to  $\min_d \sum_i \| d^t u_i - z_i \|^2$
  - Equivalent to  $\min_U \| \mathbf{U} d - \mathbf{z} \|^2$
  - Solution is given by taking derivatives yielding  $U^t U d = U^t z$ 
    - This implies that  $U^t U$  must be full rank!
- Suppose I have  $\min_p \sum_i \| f(p, x_i) - z_i \|^2$  ?
  - Many solutions, however notice if we Taylor series expand  $f$ , we get
  - $\min_{\Delta p} \sum_i \| f(p_0, x_i) + J_f(p_0, x_i) \Delta p - z_i \|^2$
  - Define “innovation”  $b_i = f(p_0, x_i) - z_i$
  - Define  $J = [J_f(p_0, x_1); J_f(p_0, x_2) \dots; J_f(p_0, x_n)]$
  - Solve  $\min_{\Delta p} \| J \Delta p - b \|^2$
- Finally, suppose we have  $\min_A \sum_i \| A u_i - b_i \|^2$ 
  - Equivalent to  $\min_A \| A U = B \|^2_F$
  - Equivalent to solving  $A U = B$  in the least squares sense
  - Solution is to write  $A U U^t = B U^t \implies A = (U U^t)^{-1} B$

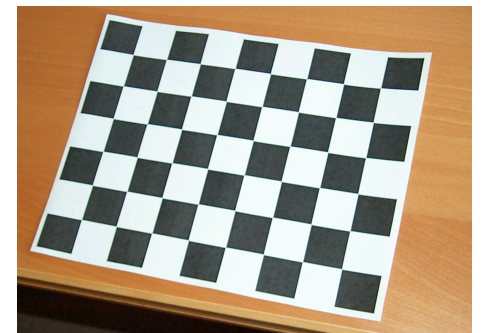
# CAMERA CALIBRATION: A WARMUP



$$\frac{rk_i}{d} = (x_i - o_x)s_x$$

$$\frac{r}{d} = (x_{i+1} - x_i)s_x$$

A simple way to get scale parameters; we can compute the optical center as the numerical center and therefore have the intrinsic parameters



# Calibration: Another Warmup

- Suppose we want to calibrate the affine camera and we know  $u_i = A p_i + d$  for many pairs  $i$
- $m$  is mean of  $u$ 's and  $q$  is mean of  $p$ 's; note  $m = A q + d$
- $U = [u_1 - m, u_2 - m, \dots, u_n - m]$  and  $P = [p_1 - q, p_2 - q, \dots, p_n - q]$
- $U = A P \rightarrow U P' (P P')^{-1} = A$
- $d$  is now mean of  $u_i - A p_i$

# Types of Calibration

- Photogrammetric Calibration
- Self Calibration
- **Multi-Plane Calibration**

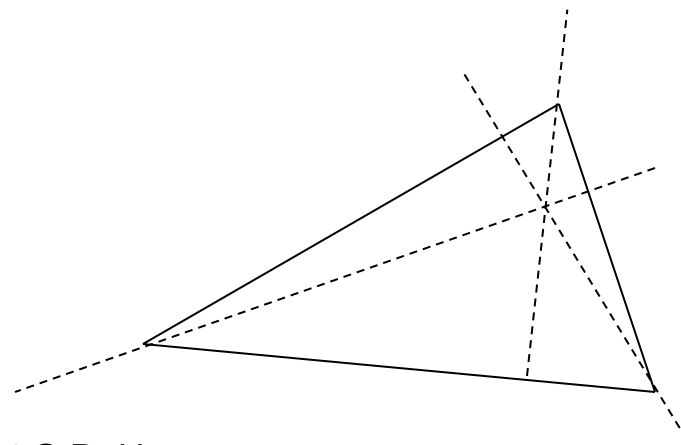
# Photogrammetric Calibration

- Calibration is performed through imaging a pattern whose geometry in 3d is known with high precision.
- PRO: Calibration can be performed very efficiently
- CON: Expensive set-up apparatus is required; multiple orthogonal planes.
- Approach 1: Direct Parameter Calibration
- Approach 2: Projection Matrix Estimation



# The General Case

- Affine is “easy” because it is linear and unconstrained (note orthographic is harder because of constraints)
- Perspective case is also harder because it is both nonlinear and constrained
- Observation: optical center can be computed from the *orthocenter* of vanishing points of orthogonal sets of lines.



# Basic Equations

$${}^cT_w = (T_x, T_y, T_z)'$$

$${}^cR_w = (R_x, R_y, R_z)'$$

$${}^cp = {}^cR_w^w p + {}^cT_w$$

$$u = -f \frac{R_x p + T_x}{R_z p + T_z}$$

$$v = -f \frac{R_y p + T_y}{R_z p + T_z}$$


# Basic Equations

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{u}_i f_y(R_y p_i + T_y) &= \bar{v}_i f_x(R_x p_i + T_x) \\ \bar{u}_i(R_y p_i - T_y) - \bar{v}_i \alpha(R_x p_i + T_x) &= 0\end{aligned}$$

$$r = \alpha R_x \text{ and } w = \alpha T_x$$

$$t = R_y \text{ and } s = T_y$$

one of these for each point


$$A_i = (u_i p_i, u_i, -v_i p_i, -v_i) \text{ and } A[t, s, w, r]' = 0$$

# Properties of SVD

- Recall the singular values of a matrix are related to its rank.
- Recall that  $Ax = 0$  can have a nonzero  $x$  as solution only if  $A$  is singular.
- Finally, note that the matrix  $V$  of the SVD is an orthogonal basis for the domain of  $A$ ; in particular the zero singular values are the basis vectors for the null space.
- Putting all this together, we see that  $A$  must have rank 7 (in this particular case) and thus  $x$  must be a vector in this subspace.
- Clearly,  $x$  is defined only up to scale.

# Basic Equations

$$A_i = (u_i p_i, u_i, -v_i p_i, -v_i) \text{ and} \\ A[t, s, w, r]' = Am = 0$$

Note that  $m$  is defined up a scale factor!

$A = UDV'$  and choose  $m$  as column of  $V$  corresponding to the smallest singular value

# Basic Equations

$$A_i = (u_i p_i, u_i, -v_i p_i, -v_i) \text{ and}$$

$$A[t, s, w, r]' = Am = 0$$

$$\|t\| = |\gamma| \text{ gives scale factor for solution}$$

$$\|w\| = |\gamma|\alpha$$

We now know  $R_x$  and  $R_y$  up to a sign and  $g$ .

$$R_z = R_x \times R_y$$

We will probably use another SVD to orthogonalize this system ( $R = U D V'$ ; set  $D$  to  $I$  and multiply).

# Last Details

- We still need to compute the correct sign.
  - note that the denominator of the original equations must be positive (points must be in front of the cameras)
  - Thus, the numerator and the projection must disagree in sign.
  - We know everything in numerator and we know the projection, hence we can determine the sign.
- We still need to compute  $T_z$  and  $f_x$ 
  - we can formulate this as a least squares problem on those two values using the first equation.

$$\bar{u} = -f_x \frac{R_x p + T_x}{R_z p + T_z} \rightarrow$$

$$\bar{u}(R_z p + T_z) = -f_x(R_x p + T_x)$$

$$f_x(R_x p + T_x) + \bar{u}T_z = -\bar{u}R_z p$$

$$A(f_x, T_z)' = b \rightarrow (f_x, T_z)' = (A'A)^{-1} A'b$$

# Direct Calibration: The Algorithm

1. Compute image center from orthocenter
2. Compute the A matrix (6.8)
3. Compute solution with SVD
4. Compute gamma and alpha
5. Compute R (and normalize)
6. Compute  $f_x$  and  $T_z$
7. If necessary, solve a nonlinear regression to get distortion parameters



# Indirect Calibration: The Basic Idea

- We know that we can also just write
  - $\mathbf{u}_h = M \mathbf{p}_h$
  - $x = (u/w)$  and  $y = (v/w)$ ,  $\mathbf{u}_h = (u, v, 1)'$
  - As before, we can multiply through (after plugging in for  $u, v$ , and  $w$ )
- Once again, we can write
  - $A \mathbf{m} = 0$
- Once again, we use an SVD to compute  $\mathbf{m}$  up to a scale factor.

# Getting The Camera Parameters

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} -f_x R_x + o_x R_z & -f_x T_x + o_x T_z \\ -f_y R_y + o_y R_z & -f_y T_y + o_y T_z \\ R_z & T_z \end{bmatrix}$$

We'll write

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & \\ q_2 & q'_4 \\ q_3 & \end{bmatrix}$$

# Getting The Camera Parameters

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} -f_x R_x + o_x R_z & -f_x T_x + o_x T_z \\ -f_y R_y + o_y R_z & -f_y T_y + o_y T_z \\ R_z & T_z \end{bmatrix}$$

We'll write

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & & \\ q_2 & q'_4 & \\ q_3 & & \end{bmatrix}$$

THEN:

$$R_y = (q_2 - o_y R_z)/f_y$$

$$R_x = R_y \times R_z$$

$$T_x = -(q_{4,1} - o_x T_z)/f_x$$

$$T_y = -(q_{4,2} - o_y T_z)/f_y$$

FIRST:

$|q_3|$  is scale up to sign;  
divide by this value

$M_{3,4}$  is  $T_z$  up to sign, but  
 $T_z$  must be positive; if not  
divide M by -1

$$o_x = q_1 \cdot q_3$$

$$o_y = q_2 \cdot q_3$$

$$f_x = (q_1 \cdot q_1 - o_x^2)^{1/2}$$

$$f_y = (q_2 \cdot q_2 - o_y^2)^{1/2}$$

Finally, use SVD to orthogonalize the rotation,

# Self-Calibration

- Calculate the intrinsic parameters solely from point correspondences from multiple images.
- Static scene and intrinsics are assumed.
- No expensive apparatus.
- Highly flexible but not well-established.
- Projective Geometry – image of the absolute conic.

# Model Examples: Points on a Plane

- Normal vector  $n = (n_x, n_y, n_z, 0)'$ ; point  $P = (p_x, p_y, p_z, 1)$   
plane equation:  $n \cdot P = d$ 
  - w/o loss of generality, assume  $n_z \neq 0$
  - Thus,  $p_z = a p_x + b p_y + c$ ; let  $B = (a, b, 0, c)$
  - Define  $P' = (p_x, p_y, 0, 1)$
  - $P = P' + (0, 0, B \cdot P', 0)$
- Affine:  $u = A P$ ,  $A$  a 3 by 4 matrix
  - $u = A_{1,2,4} P' + A_3 B P' = A_{3 \times 3} P_{3 \times 1}$
  - Note that we can now \*reproject\* the points  $u$  and group the projections --- in short projection of projections stays within the affine group
- Projective  $p = M P$ ,  $M$  a 4 by 3 matrix
  - $p = M_{1,2,4} P' + M_3 B P' = M P_{3 \times 1}$
  - Note that we can now \*reproject\* the points  $p$  and group the resulting matrices --- in short projections of projections stays within the projective group

# Planar Homographies

- First Fundamental Theorem of Projective Geometry:
  - There exists a unique homography that performs a change of basis between two projective spaces of the same dimension.

$$s[u \ v \ 1]^T = A[r_1 \ r_2 \ r_3 \ t][X \ Y \ Z \ 1]^T$$

$$s[u \ v \ 1]^T = A[r_1 \ r_2 \ r_3 \ t][X \ Y \ 0 \ 1]^T$$

$$s[u \ v \ 1]^T = A[r_1 \ r_2 \ t][X \ Y \ 1]^T$$

$$s[u \ v \ 1]^T = H[X \ Y \ 1]^T$$

- Projection Becomes

$$s\tilde{m} = H\tilde{M}$$

- Notice that the homography H is defined up to scale (s).

# Multi-Plane Calibration

- Hybrid method: Photogrammetric and Self-Calibration.
- Uses a planar pattern imaged multiple times (inexpensive).
- Used widely in practice and there are many implementations.
- Based on a group of projective transformations called homographies.
- $m$  be a 2d point  $[u \ v \ 1]'$  and  $M$  be a 3d point  $[x \ y \ z \ 1]'$ .
- Projection is

$$s\tilde{m} = A[R \ T]\tilde{M}$$

# Review: Projection Model

$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/f & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ T \end{pmatrix} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & f & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ T \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix}_{pix} = \begin{pmatrix} s_u & 0 & o_u \\ 0 & s_v & o_v \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix}_{mm} \quad \longrightarrow$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix}_{pix} = \begin{pmatrix} fs_u & 0 & o_u \\ 0 & fs_v & o_v \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix}_{mm} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \gamma & u_0 \\ 0 & \beta & v_0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix} Ap$$



# Review: Projection Model

$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & f & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ T \end{pmatrix} \quad \rightarrow$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ T \end{pmatrix} = I[R, T] \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ T \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix}_{pix} = \begin{pmatrix} fs_u & 0 & o_u \\ 0 & fs_v & o_v \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix}_{mm} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \gamma & u_0 \\ 0 & \beta & v_0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix} Ap$$

# Result

- We know that  $[h_1 \ h_2 \ h_3] = sA[r_1 \ r_2 \ t]$
- From one homography, how many constraints on the intrinsic parameters can we obtain?
  - Extrinsic have 6 degrees of freedom.
  - The homography supplies 8 values.
  - Thus, we should be able to obtain 2 constraints per homography.
- Use the constraints on the rotation matrix columns...

# Computing Intrinsic

- Rotation Matrix is orthogonal....

$$r_i^T r_j = 0$$

$$r_i^T r_i = r_j^T r_j$$

- Write the homography in terms of its columns...

$$h_1 = sAr_1$$

$$h_2 = sAr_2$$

$$h_3 = sAt$$

# Computing Intrinsic

- Derive the two constraints:

$$h_1 = sAr_1$$

$$\frac{1}{s}A^{-1}h_1 = r_1$$

$$\frac{1}{s}A^{-1}h_2 = r_2$$

$$r_1^T r_2 = 0$$

$$h_1^T A^{-T} A^{-1} h_2 = 0$$

$$r_1^T r_1 = r_2^T r_2$$

$$h_1^T A^{-T} A^{-1} h_1 = h_2^T A^{-T} A^{-1} h_2$$

# Closed-Form Solution

$$\text{Let } B = A^{-T} A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & -\frac{\gamma}{\alpha^2 \beta} & \frac{v_0 \gamma - u_0 \beta}{\alpha^2 \beta} \\ -\frac{\gamma}{\alpha^2 \beta} & \frac{\gamma^2}{\alpha^2 \beta^2} + \frac{1}{\beta^2} & -\frac{\gamma(v_0 \gamma - u_0 \beta)}{\alpha^2 \beta^2} - \frac{v_0}{\beta^2} \\ \frac{v_0 \gamma - u_0 \beta}{\alpha^2 \beta} & -\frac{\gamma(v_0 \gamma - u_0 \beta)}{\alpha^2 \beta^2} - \frac{v_0}{\beta^2} & \frac{(v_0 \gamma - u_0 \beta)^2}{\alpha^2 \beta^2} + \frac{v_0^2}{\beta^2} + 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Notice B is symmetric, 6 parameters can be written as a vector b.
- From the two constraints, we have  $h_1^T B h_2 = v_{12} b$

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_{ij}^T \\ (v_{11} - v_{22})^T \end{bmatrix} b = 0;$$

- Stack up n of these for n images and build a  $2n \times 6$  system.
- Solve with SVD.
- Extrinsic “fall-out” of the result easily.

# Computing Extrinsic

$$s[u \ v \ 1]^T = A[r_1 \ r_2 \ t][X \ Y \ 1]^T$$

$$s[u \ v \ 1]^T = H[X \ Y \ 1]^T$$

First, compute  $H' = A^{-1} H$

Note that first two columns of  $H'$  should be rotation  
use this to determine scaling factor

Orthogonalize using SVD to get rotation

Pull out translation as scaled last column

# Non-linear Refinement

- Closed-form solution minimized algebraic distance.
- Since full-perspective is a non-linear model
  - Can include distortion parameters (radial, tangential)
  - Use maximum likelihood inference for our estimated parameters.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m ||m_{ij} - \hat{m}(A, R_k, T_k, M_j)||^2$$

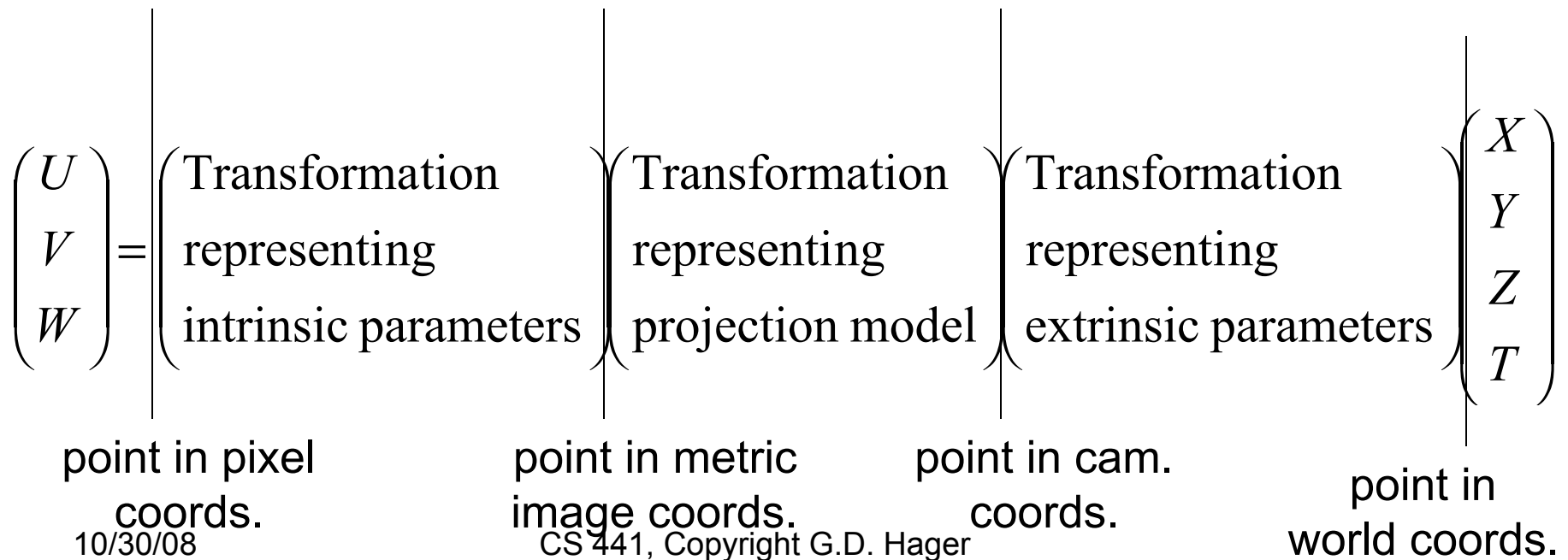
# Multi-Plane Approach In Action

- ...if we can get matlab to work...



# Camera parameters

- Summary:
  - points expressed in external frame
  - points are converted to canonical camera coordinates
  - points are projected
  - points are converted to pixel units



# Calibration Summary

- Two groups of parameters:
  - internal (intrinsic) and external (extrinsic)
- Many methods
  - direct and indirect, flexible/robust
- The form of the equations that arise here and the way they are solved is common in vision:
  - bilinear forms
  - $Ax = 0$
  - Orthogonality constraints in rotations
- Most modern systems use the method of multiple planes (matlab demo)
  - more difficult optimization over a large # of parameters
  - more convenient for the user

# Lens Distortion

- In general, lens introduce minor irregularities into images, typically radial distortions:

$$x = x_d(1 + k_1r^2 + k_2r^4)$$

$$y = y_d(1 + k_1r^2 + k_2r^4)$$

$$r^2 = x_d^2 + y_d^2$$

- The values  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are additional parameters that must be estimated in order to have a model for the camera system.

- The complete model is then:

$$q = \text{distort}(k_1, k_2, K(s_x, s_y, o_x, o_y) * (\Pi(p; R, t)))$$

# The Final Iterations

- Recall scalar linear least squares:

- $\min_x \sum_i (y - a x)^2$

- To go to multiple dimensions

- $\min_x \sum_i \|y - A x\|^2$

- What if we have a nonlinear problem?

- $\min_x \sum_i \|y - F(x)\|^2$

# Multi-Camera Calibration

- Note that I might observe a target simultaneously in two or more cameras
  - For any given pair, I can solve for the transformation between them
  - For multiple pairs, I can optimize the relative location
- This is the natural lead-in to computational stereo ...

# Estimating A Homography

- Here is what looks like a reasonable recipe for computing homographies:
  - Planar pts  $(x_1; y_1; 1, x_2; y_2; 1, \dots, x_n; y_n; 1) = X$
  - Corresponding pts  $(u_1; v_1; 1, u_2; v_2; 1, \dots, u_n; v_n; 1) = U$
  - $U = H X$
  - $U X' (X X')^{-1} = H$
- The problem is that  $X$  will not be full rank (why?)
- Another problem, it is really  $I_i U_i = H X_i$
- So we'll have to work a little harder ...
  - hint: work out algebraically eliminating  $I_i$

# Resampling Using Homographies

- Pick a rotation matrix  $R$  from old to new image
- Consider all points in the image *you want to compute*; then
  - construct pixel coordinates  $x = (u,v,1)$
  - $K$  maps unit focal length metric coordinates to pixel (normalized camera)

$$- \quad x' = K R^t K^{-1} x \quad \rightarrow \quad x' = H x$$

pixel coordinates

euclidean to pixel coords

rotation

pixel to euclidean coords

pixel coordinates

- Sample a point  $x'$  in the original image for each point  $x$  in the new.

# Rectification

- The goal of rectification is to turn a verged camera system into a non-verged system.
  - Let us assume we know  $p_r = {}^rR_l p_l + T$ 
    - how would we get this out of camera calibration?
- Observation:
  - consider a coordinate system where the stereo baseline defines the x axis, z is any axis orthogonal to it, and y is z cross x.
    - $x = T/||T||$
    - $y = ([0,0,1] \times x)/||[0,0,1] \times x||$
    - $z = x \text{ cross } y$
  - Note that both the left and right camera can now be rotated to be parallel to this frame
    - ${}^lR_u = [x \ y \ z]$  is the rotation from unverged to verged frame for left camera
    - ${}^rR_u = {}^rR_l {}^lR_u$



# Bilinear Interpolation

- A minor detail --- new value  $x' = (u', v', 1)$  may not be integer
- let  $u' = i + f_u$  and  $v' = j + f_v$
- New image value  $b = (1-f_u)((1-f_v)I(j,i) + f_v I(j+1,i)) + f_u((1-f_v)I(j,i+1) + f_v I(j+1,i+1))$

# Estimating Changes of Coordinates

- Affine Model:  $y = A x + d$
- How do we solve this given matching pairs of  $y$ 's and  $x$ 's?
- How many points do we need for a unique solution?
- Note this can be written  $\sum_i \|y - Ax - d\|^2$ 
  - It can also be written using the Frobenius norm
- Answer:

# Estimating Changes of Coordinates

- Consider a 2D Euclidean model
  - $y = R x + t$
- How many points to solve for this transformation?
- Consider a 3D Euclidean model
  - $y = R x + t$
- How many points to solve for this transformation?
- Here, SVD will come to the rescue!
  - Compute barycentric  $y'$  and  $x'$
  - Compute  $M = Y' X'^T$
  - $M = U D V^T$
  - $R = V U^T$

# An Approximation: The Affine Camera

- Choose a nominal point  $x_0, y_0, z_0$  and describe projection relative to that point
- $u = f [x_0/z_0 + (x-x_0)/z_0 - x_0/z_0^2 (z - z_0)] = f (a_1 x + a_2 z + d_1)$
- $v = f [y_0/z_0 + (y - y_0)/z_0 - y_0/z_0^2 (z - z_0)] = f (a_3 y + a_4 z + d_2)$

- gathering up

alternatively:

- $A = [a_1 \ 0 \ a_2; 0 \ a_3 \ a_4]$
- $d = [d_1; d_2]$

- $\mathbf{u} = A \mathbf{P} + d$

$$\begin{pmatrix} U \\ V \\ W \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & 0 & a_2 & d_1 \\ 0 & a_3 & a_4 & d_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/f \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ T \end{pmatrix}$$

- add external transform

alternatively:

- $u = A (RP + T) + d \rightarrow u = A^* Q$  where  $A^*$  is 2x4 rank 2 Matrix and  $Q$  is homogeneous version of  $P$

# Summary: Other Models

- The *orthographic* and *scaled orthographic* cameras (also called *weak perspective*)
  - simply ignore  $z$
  - differ in the scaling from  $x/y$  to  $u/v$  coordinates
  - preserve Euclidean structure to a great degree
- The *affine camera* is a generalization of orthographic models.
  - $u = A p + d$
  - $A$  is  $2 \times 3$  and  $d$  is  $2 \times 1$
  - This can be derived from scaled orthography or by linearizing perspective about a point not on the optical axis
- The *projective camera* is a generalization of the perspective camera.
  - $u' = M p$
  - $M$  is  $3 \times 4$  nonsingular defined up to a scale factor
  - This just a generalization (by one parameter) from “real” model
- Both have the advantage of being linear models on real and projective spaces, respectively.

# Related Transformation Models

- Euclidean models (homogeneous transforms);  ${}^b p = {}^b T_a {}^a p$
- Scaled Euclidean models:  ${}^b p = s {}^b T_a {}^a p$
- Similarity:  ${}^b p = S {}^b T_a {}^a p$ ,  $S$  a diagonal matrix with positive values
- Affine models:  ${}^b p = {}^b K_a {}^a p$ ,  $K = [A, t; 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1]$ ,  $A \in GL(3)$
- Projective models:  ${}^b p = {}^b M_a {}^a p$ ,  $M \in GL(4)$ 
  - Ray models
  - Affine plane
  - Sphere

# Model Stratification

	Euclidean	Similarity	Affine	Projective
<u>Transforms</u>				
rotation	x	x	x	x
translation	x	x	x	x
uniform scaling		x	x	x
nonuniform scaling			x	x
shear			x	x
perspective				x
composition of proj.				x
<u>Invariants</u>				
length	x			
angle	x	x		
ratios	x	x		
parallelism	x	x	x	
incidence/cross rat.	x	x	x	x

# Why Projective (or Affine or ...)

- Recall in Euclidean space, we can define a change of coordinates by choosing a new origin and three orthogonal unit vectors that are the new coordinate axes
  - The class of all such transformation is  $SE(3)$  which forms a group
  - One rendering is the class of all homogeneous transformations
  - This *does not* model what happens when things are imaged (why?)
- If we allow a change in scale, we arrive at similarity transforms, also a group
  - This sometimes can model what happens in imaging (when?)
- If we allow the 3x3 rotation to be an arbitrary member of  $GL(3)$  we arrive at affine transformations (yet another group!)
  - This also sometimes is a good model of imaging
  - The basis is now defined by three arbitrary, non-parallel vectors
- The process of perspective projection **does not** form a group
  - that is, a picture of a picture cannot in general be described as a perspective projection
- Projective systems include perspectivities as a special case and **do** form a group
  - We now require 4 basis vectors (three axes plus an additional independent vector)
  - A model for linear transformations (also called collineations or homographies) on  $P^n$  is  $GL(n+1)$  which is, of course, a group



# Planar Homographies

- First Fundamental Theorem of Projective Geometry:
  - There exists a unique homography that performs a change of basis between two projective spaces of the same dimension.

$$s\tilde{m} = H\tilde{M}$$

- Notice that the homography is defined up to scale (s)
  - We can show that the projection of a plane is described by a homography
- In  $P(2)$ , we have
  - $p' = H p$  for points  $p$
  - $u' = H^t u$  for lines  $u$
- Note to define the homography, we need three basis vectors  
\*plus\* the unit point!

# Model Examples: Points on a Plane

- Normal vector  $\mathbf{n} = (n_x, n_y, n_z, 0)'$ ; point  $\mathbf{P} = (p_x, p_y, p_z, 1)$   
plane equation:  $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{P} = d$ 
  - w/o loss of generality, assume  $n_z \neq 0$
  - Thus,  $p_z = a p_x + b p_y + c$ ; let  $\mathbf{B} = (a, b, 0, c)$
  - Define  $\mathbf{P}' = (p_x, p_y, 0, 1)$
  - $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}' + (0, 0, \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{P}', 0)$
- Affine:  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{P}$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  a 3 by 4 matrix
  - $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{A}_{1,2,4} \mathbf{P}' + \mathbf{A}_3 \mathbf{B} \mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{A}_{3 \times 3} \mathbf{P}_{3 \times 1}$
  - Note that we can now \*reproject\* the points  $\mathbf{u}$  and group the projections --- in short projection of projections stays within the affine group
- Projective  $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{M} \mathbf{P}$ ,  $\mathbf{M}$  a 4 by 3 matrix
  - $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{M}_{1,2,4} \mathbf{P}' + \mathbf{M}_3 \mathbf{B} \mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{M} \mathbf{P}_{3 \times 1}$
  - Note that we can now \*reproject\* the points  $\mathbf{p}$  and group the resulting matrices --- in short projections of projections stays within the projective group

# Basic Equations

$$u_{pix} = \frac{1}{s_x} u + o_x$$

$$v_{pix} = \frac{1}{s_y} v + o_y$$

$$\bar{u} = u_{pix} - o_x = -f_x \frac{R_x p + T_x}{R_z p + T_z}$$

$$\bar{v} = v_{pix} - o_y = -f_y \frac{R_y p + T_y}{R_z p + T_z}$$

# A Quick Aside: Least Squares

- Familiar territory is  $y_i = a x_i + b \implies \min_{a,b} \sum_i (a x_i + b - y_i)$
- Total least squares:  $a x_i + b y_i = z_i$ 
  - Leads to  $\min_{a,b} \sum_i (a x_i + b y_i - z_i)^2$
  - Equivalent to  $\min_d \sum_i \|d^T u_i - z_i\|^2$
  - Equivalent to  $\min_U \|U d - z\|^2$
  - Solution is given by taking derivatives yielding  $U^T U d = U^T z$ 
    - This implies that  $U^T U$  must be full rank!
- Another way to think of this:
  - let  $d = (a, b, 1)$
  - Let  $w_i = (x_i, y_i, z_i)$ ,  $W$  the matrix with rows  $w_i$
  - Then we can write
    - $\min_d \|Wd\|_F^2$  with  $\|d\| = 1$  or  $W^T W d = 0$  with  $\|d\| = 1$
    - Another way to state this is solve  $W d = 0$  in least squares sense with  $\|d\| = 1$
    - How do we solve this?