

Robotic 3D Vision

Lecture 2: Image Formation, Multiple View Geometry Basics

WS 2020/21

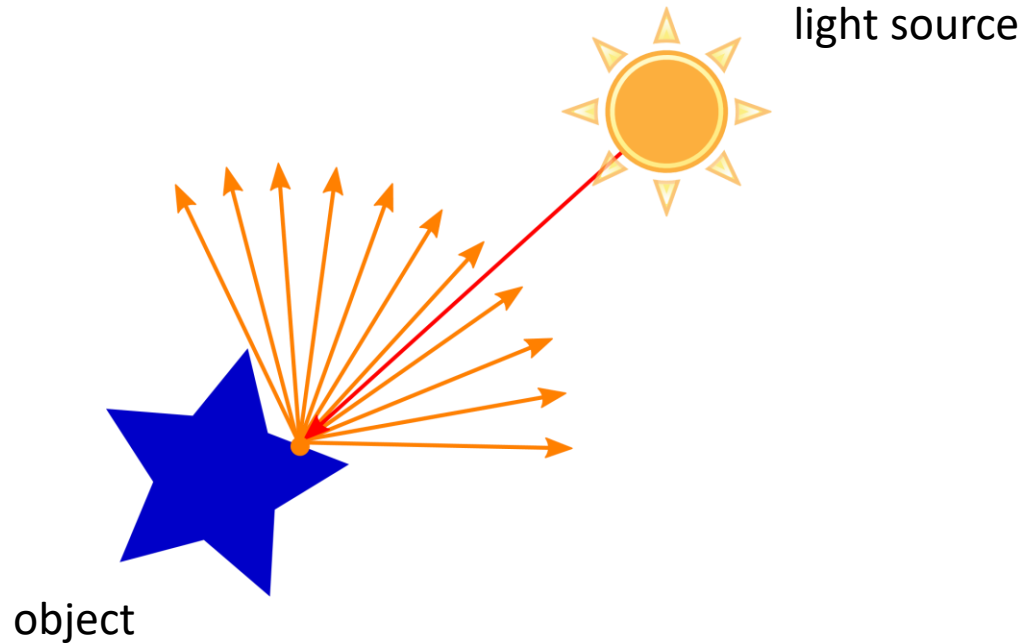
Dr. Niclas Zeller

Artisense GmbH

What We Will Cover Today

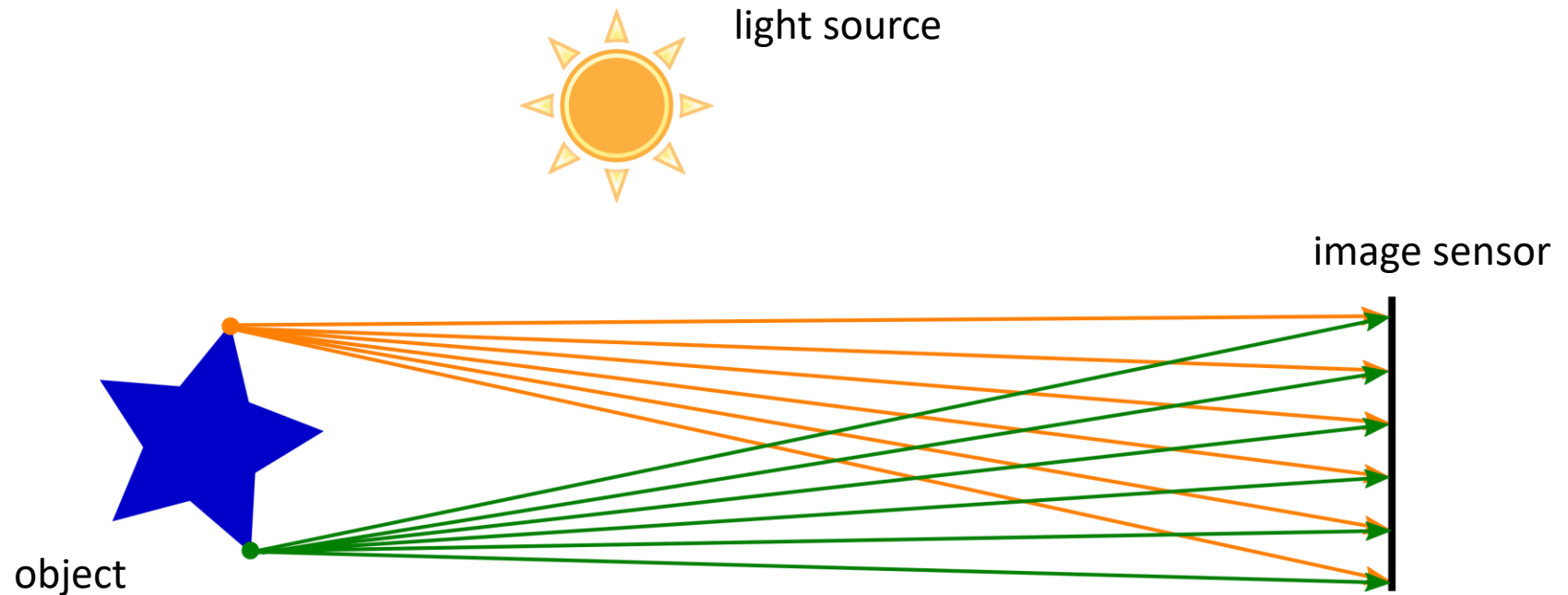
- **Image formation**
 - Pinhole camera
 - Lenses, thin lens equation, pinhole approximation
 - Focus, depth of field, field of view
 - Digital cameras
 - Camera response function and vignetting
 - Pinhole projection and intrinsic camera parameters
 - Lens distortion
- **Multiple view geometry basics**
 - Camera extrinsics
 - Epipolar geometry

How to Capture an Image?



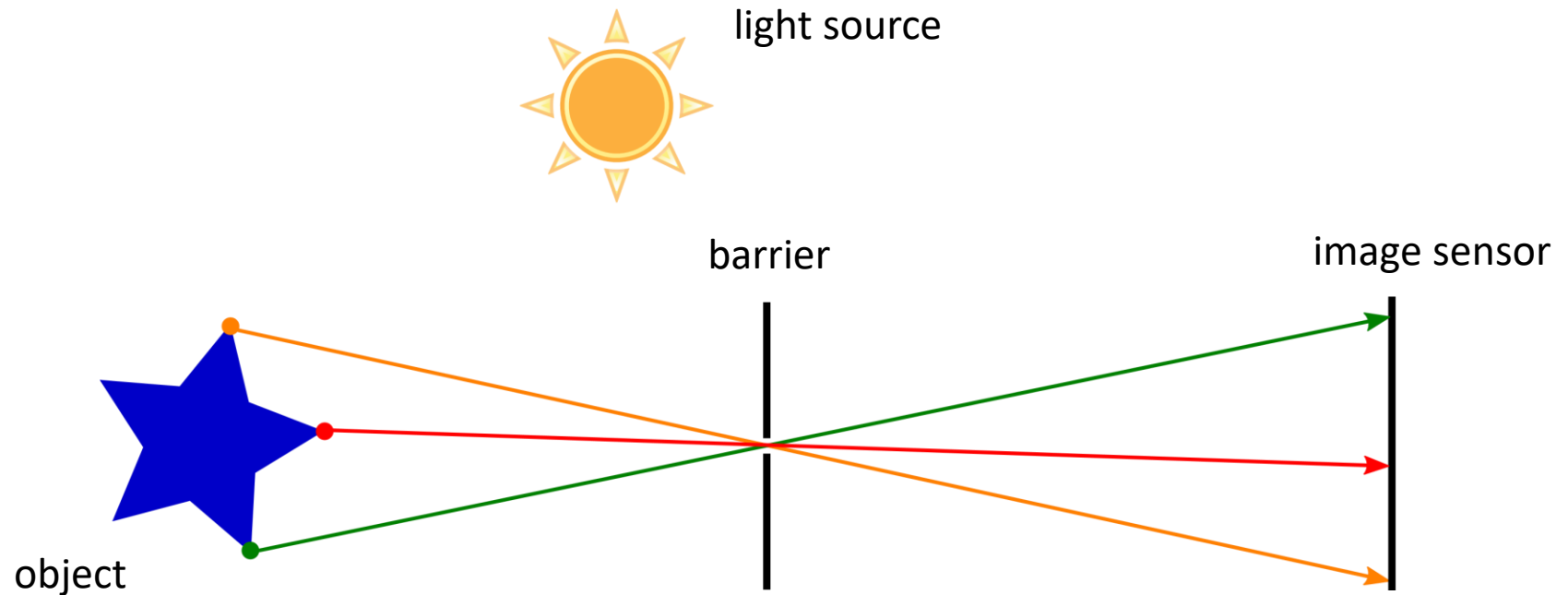
- Lambertian reflectance: object reflects light with a constant brightness at any angle

How to Capture an Image?



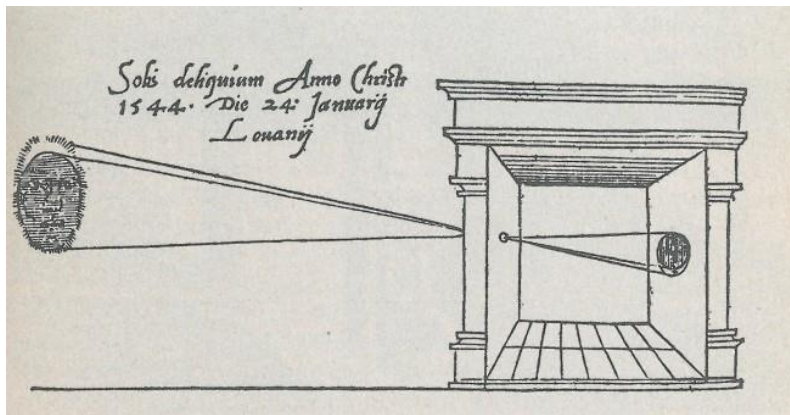
- What if we place an image sensor in front of the object?
- A pixel receives a mixture of light from visible object points
- Strong blur! We don't get a useful image

How to Capture an Image?



- Let's place a barrier with an aperture between object and sensor
- Sensor receives light from a small set of rays
- Blur is reduced

How to Capture an Image?

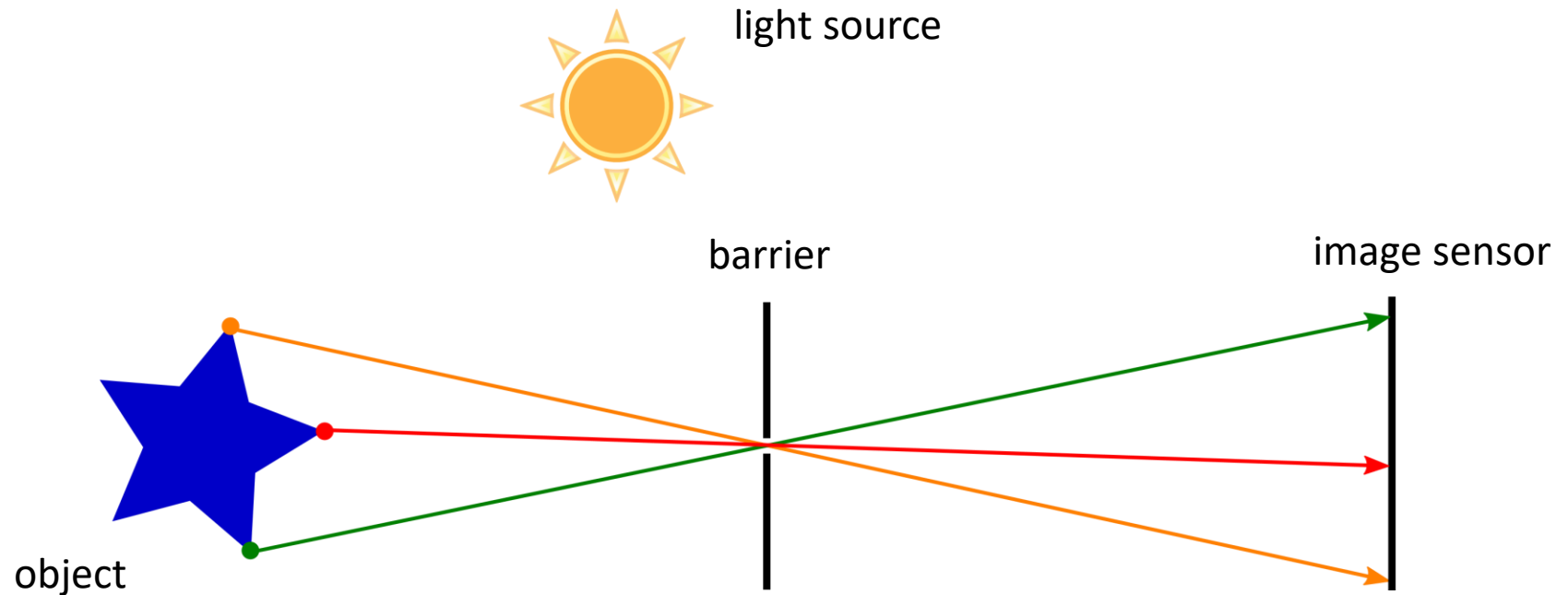


Camera obscura (lat., „dark room“)
illustrated by Gemma Frisius 1545



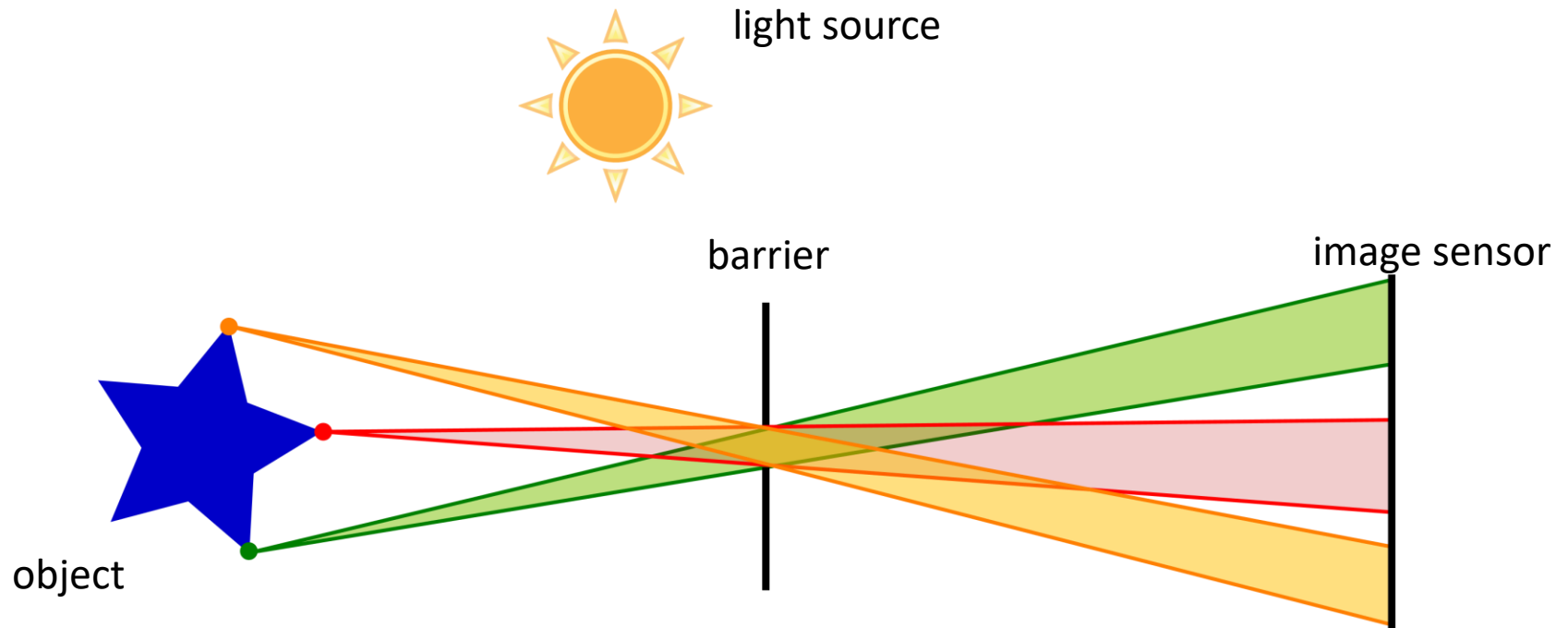
- Observation: Images are still blurry
 - What causes the blur?
 - How can we reduce the blur further?

How to Capture an Image?



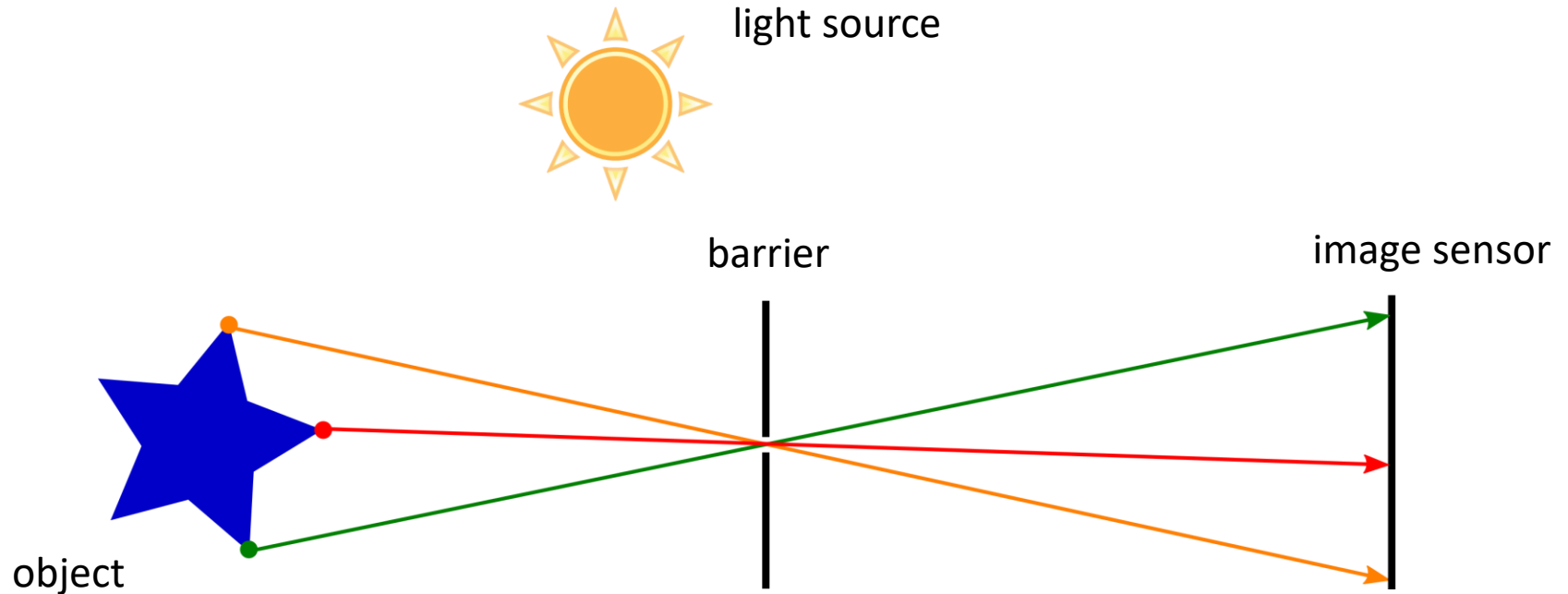
- For an ideal pinhole, only a single ray passes per sensor point
- No blur, but image is dim

How to Capture an Image?



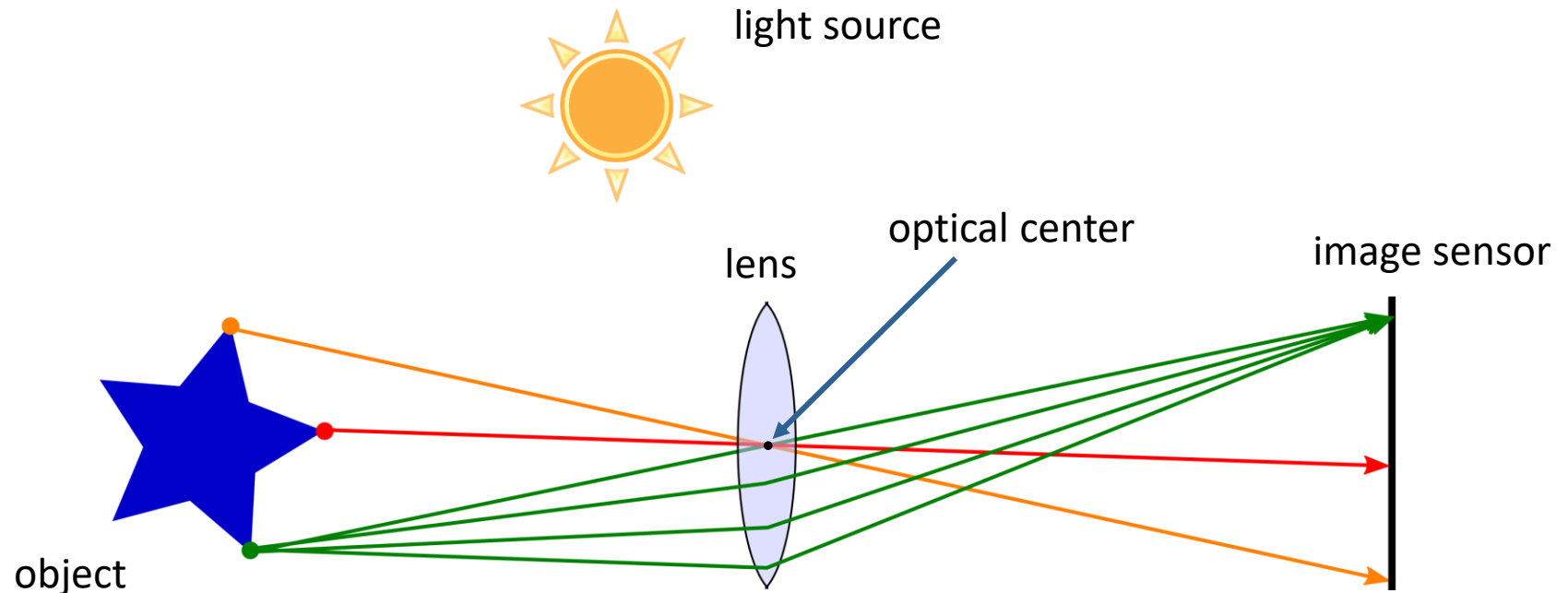
- The larger the aperture, the more light arrives at sensor
- The larger the aperture, the blurry the image

How to Capture an Image?



- How can we increase the collected light for small aperture?
 - We can increase the exposure time!
 - Disadvantage: motion blur increases with exposure time
- Diffraction limits the aperture size from below

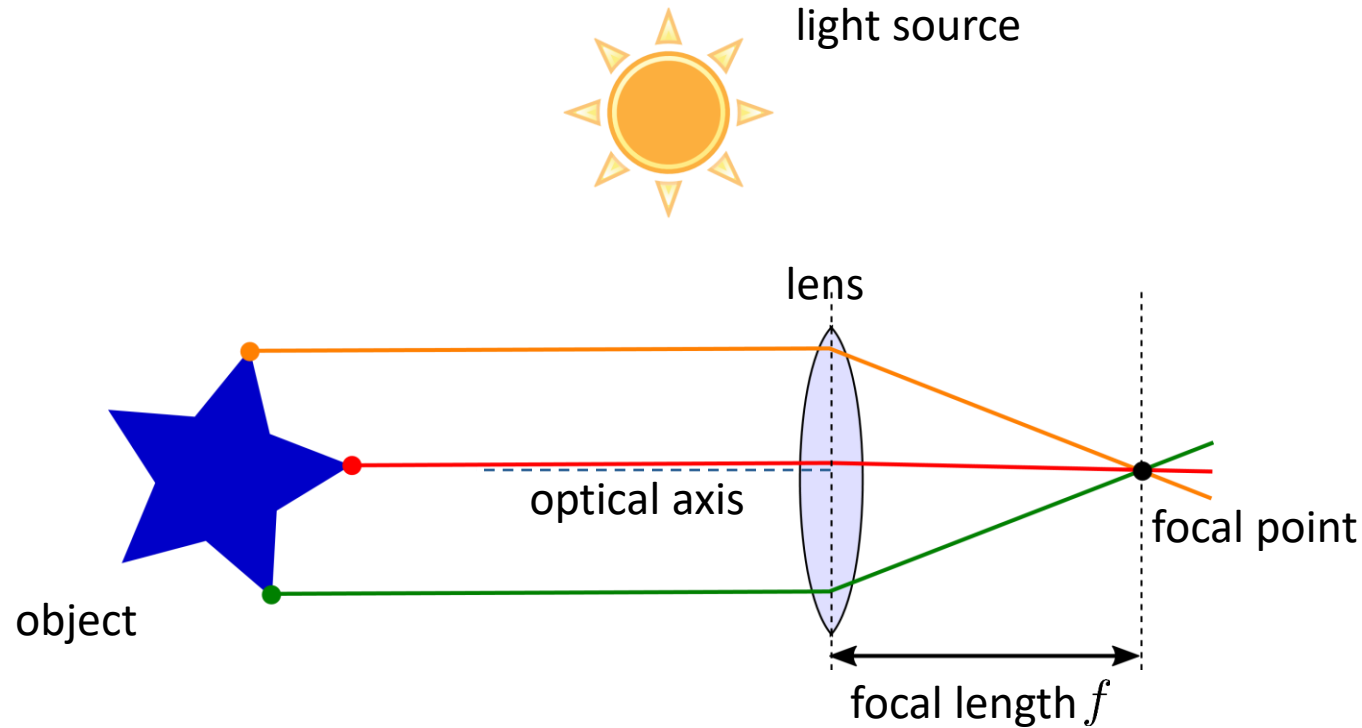
Converging Lenses



- New idea: use a lens to focus rays from the same object point on the sensor
- Rays go straight through the lens' optical center
 - Central ray

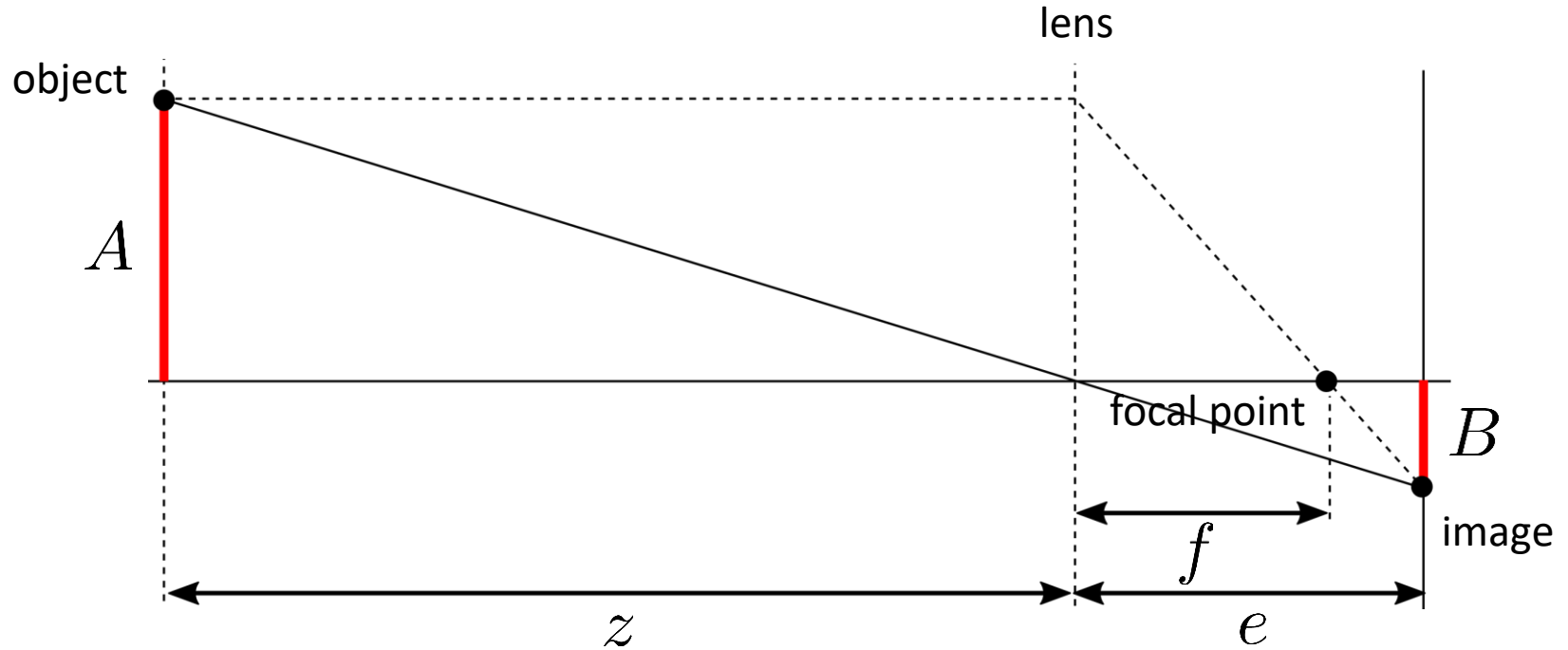


Focal Point



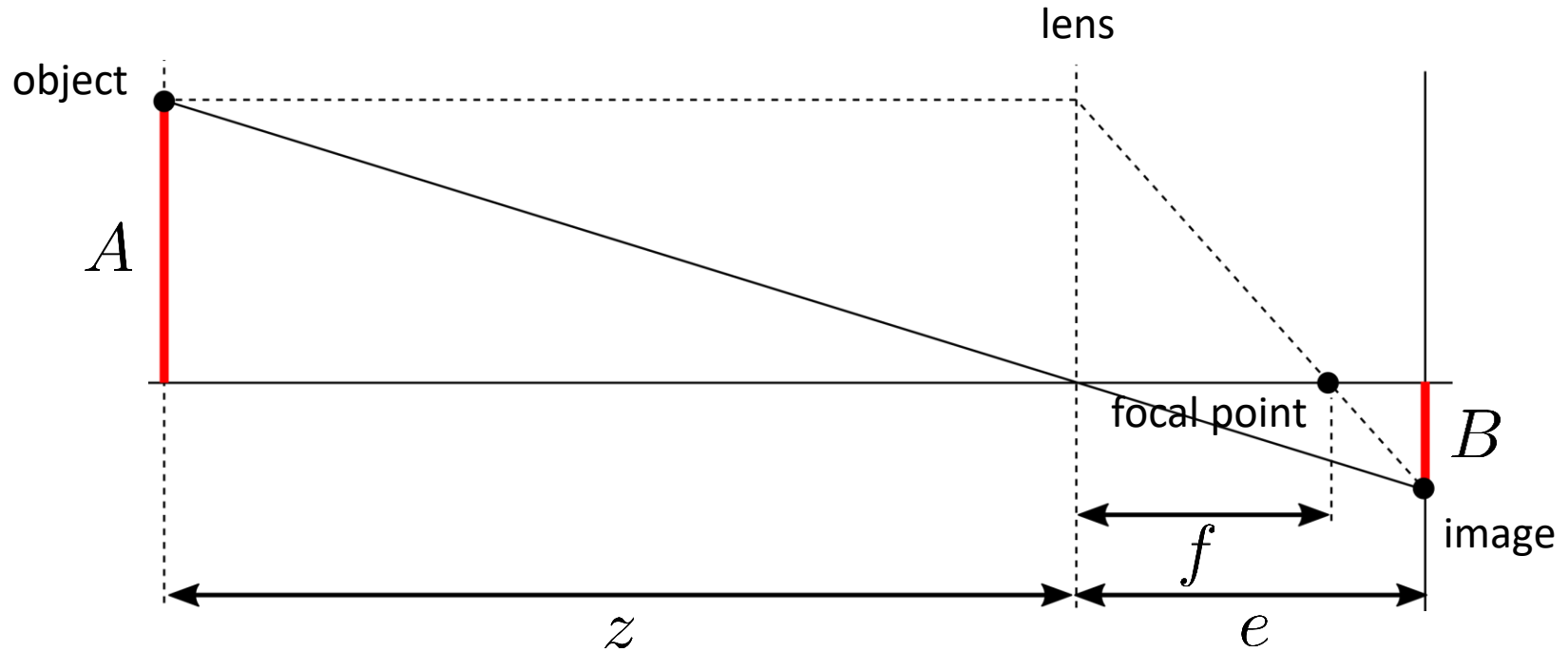
- Rays parallel to the optical axis of the lens converge at the focal point

Thin Lens Equation



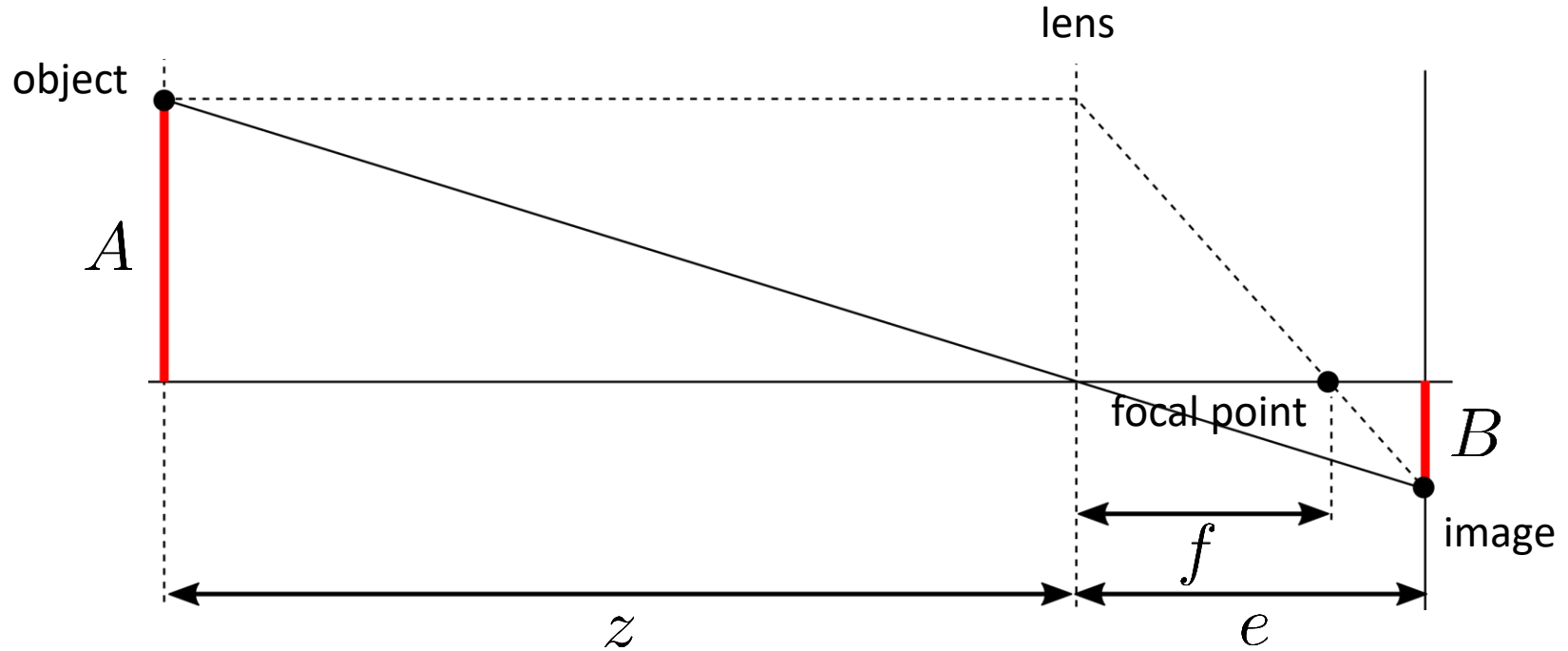
- Relationship f , z , e ?

Thin Lens Equation



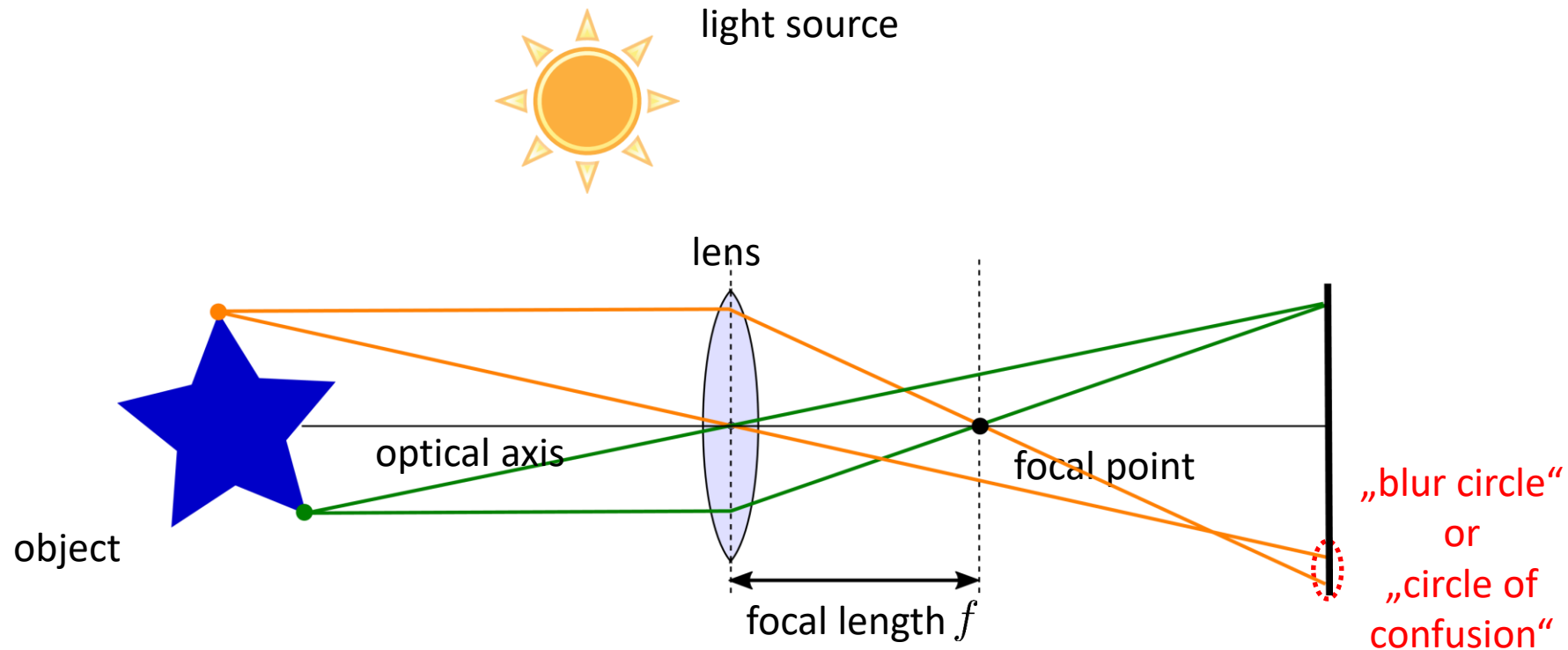
$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{B}{A} &= \frac{e}{z} \\ \frac{B}{A} &= \frac{e-f}{f} = \frac{e}{f} - 1 \end{aligned} \right\} \frac{e}{z} = \frac{e}{f} - 1 \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{e}$$

Thin Lens Equation



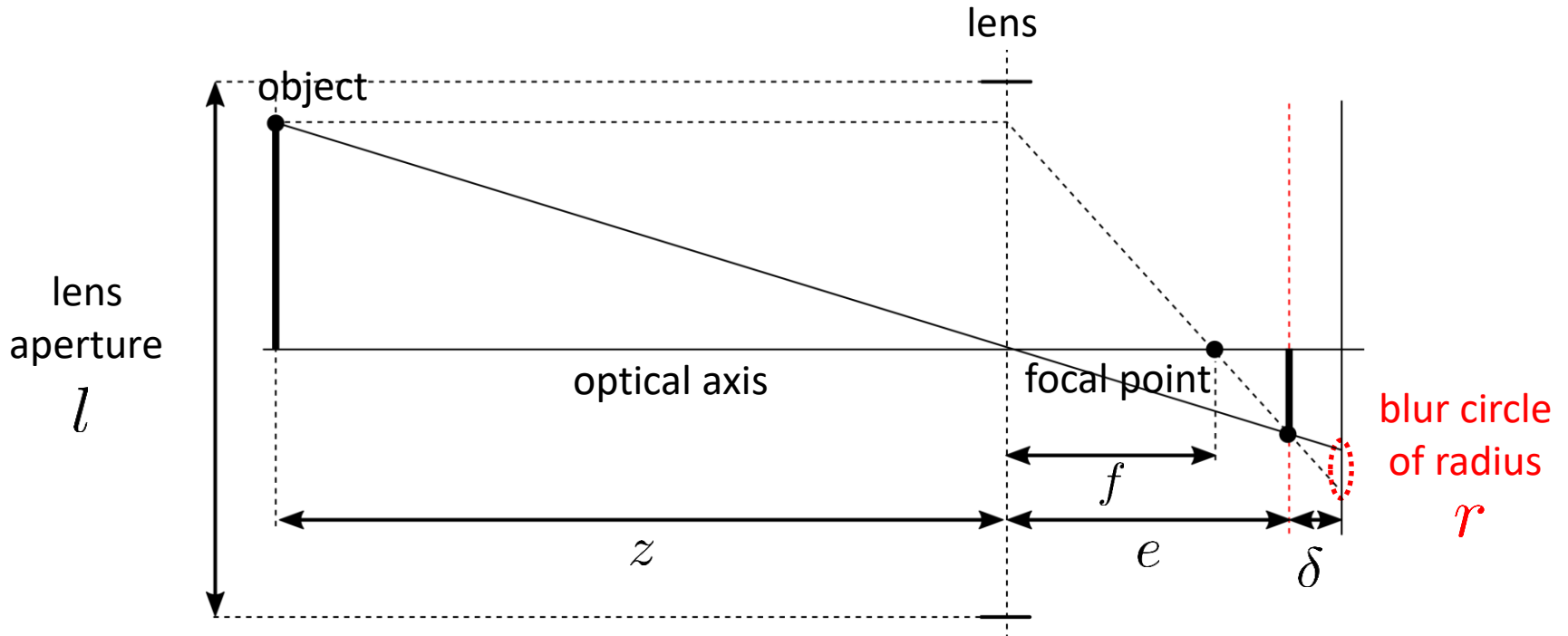
- Thin lens equation: $\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{e}$
- Objects satisfying this equation appear in focus on the image

Points in Focus



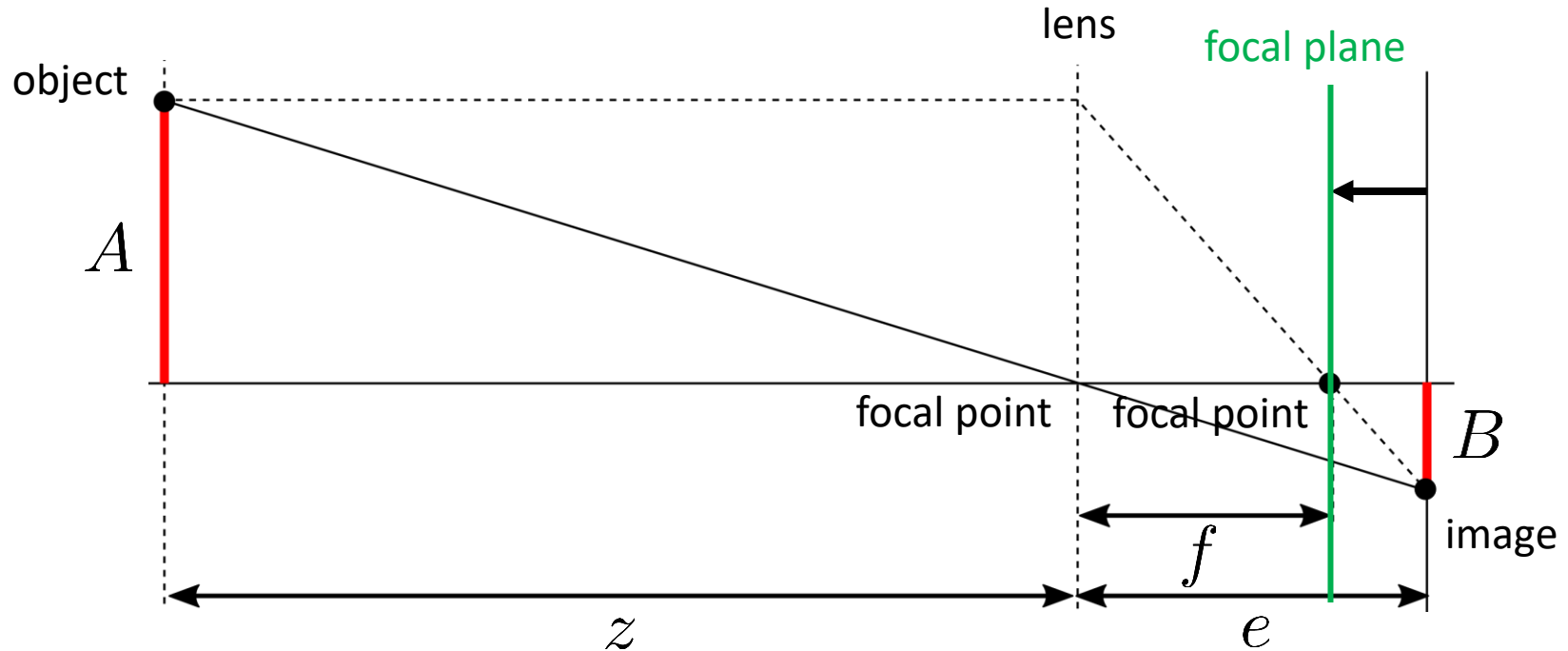
- Objects are in focus at a specific distance from the lens along the optical axis (i.e. depth)
- At other distances, objects project to a "blur circle" on image

Blur Circle



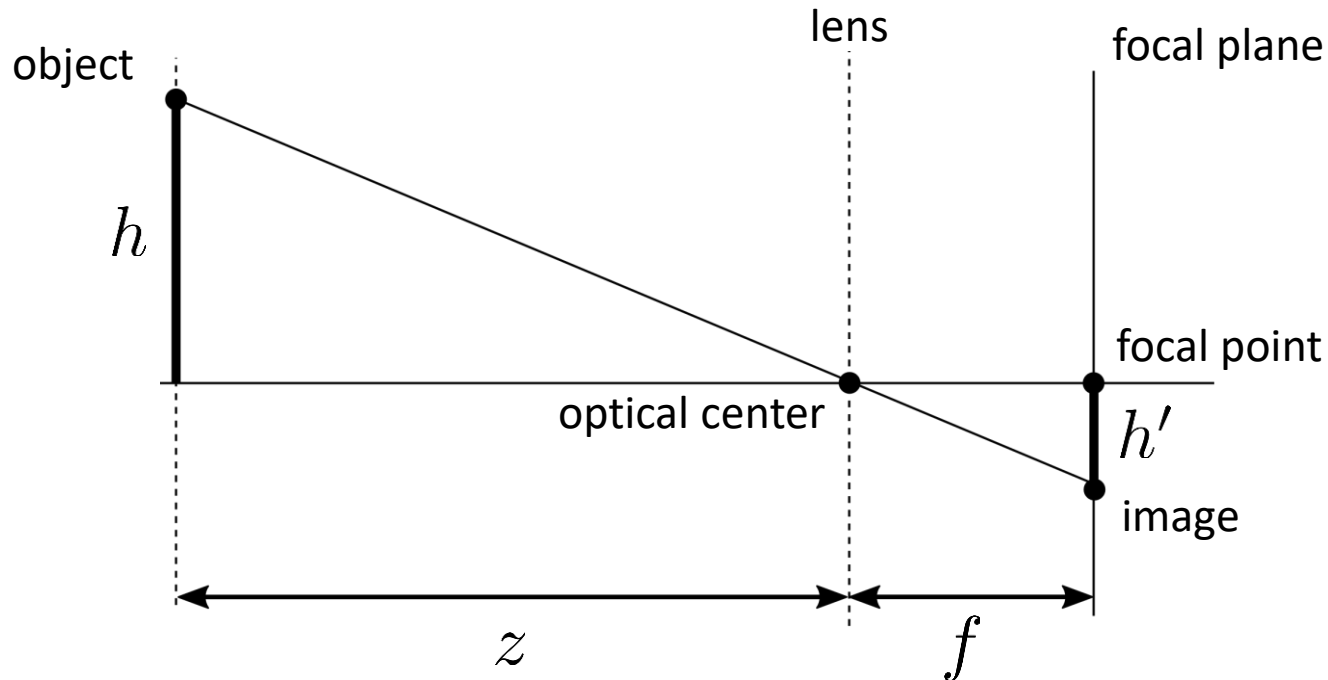
- Object out of focus: blur circle has radius $r = \frac{l\delta}{2e}$
 - Infinitesimally small aperture gives minimal radius
 - “Good image”: adjust camera settings to achieve smaller radius than pixel size

Pinhole Approximation



- What happens for $z \gg f$?
 - For $z \rightarrow \infty$, we obtain $\frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{e} \approx \frac{1}{e} \Rightarrow f \approx e$
 - Image plane needs to be adjusted towards focal plane for focus

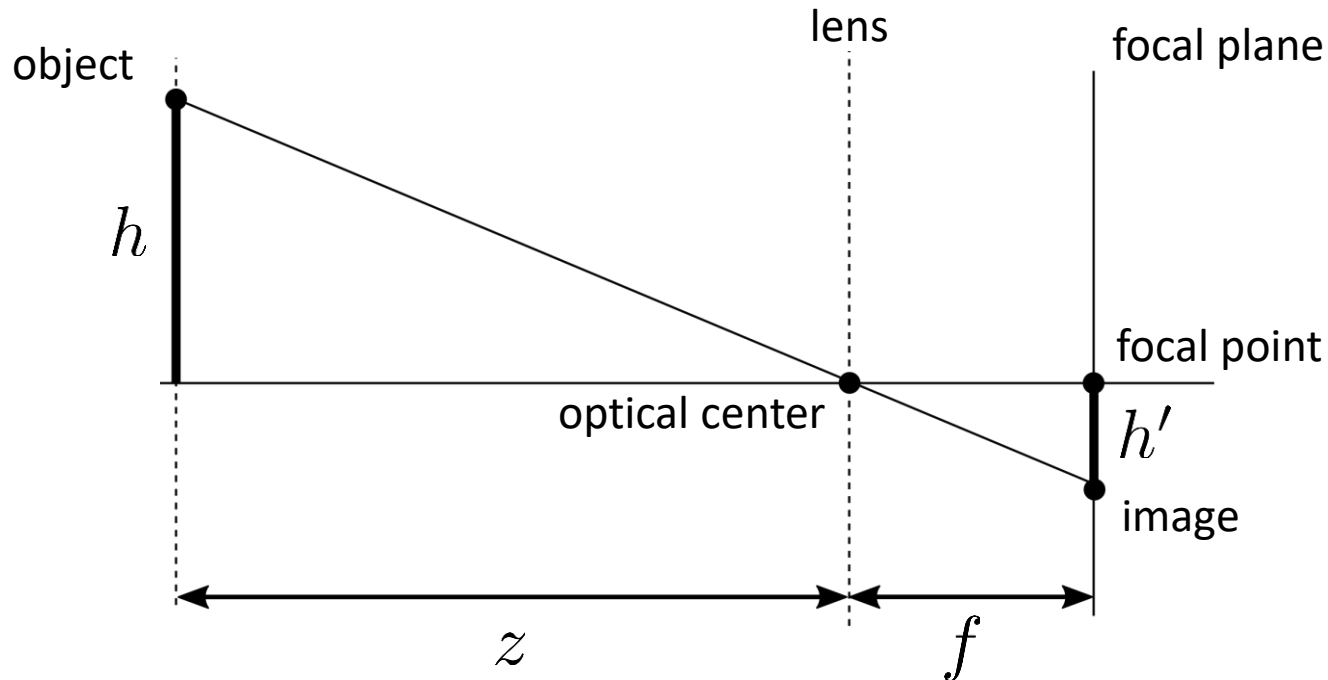
Pinhole Approximation



- In the limit (focus at infinity): image plane at focal plane
- Object point at h projects to image according to

$$h' = f \frac{h}{z}$$

Pinhole Approximation



- Pinhole approximation holds also for closed focus points
 - However, only in a very limited range (Depth of Field)
 - Pinhole focal length \neq thin lens focal length

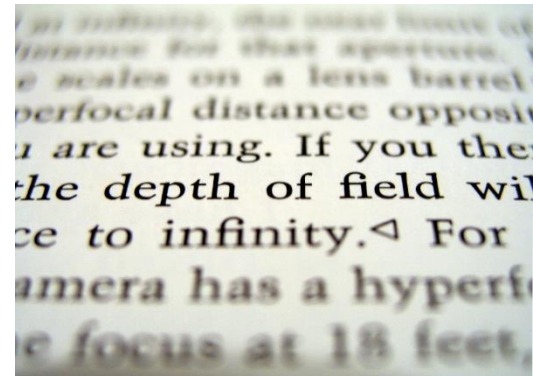
Perspective Effects



- More distant objects appear smaller in the image
- Ratio between object and image size directly relates to object distance

Depth of Field

- Depth of Field: Depth of nearest and farthest object that appear acceptably sharp in image
- Lens only precisely focuses on a single depth
- Blur circle increases gradually with depth

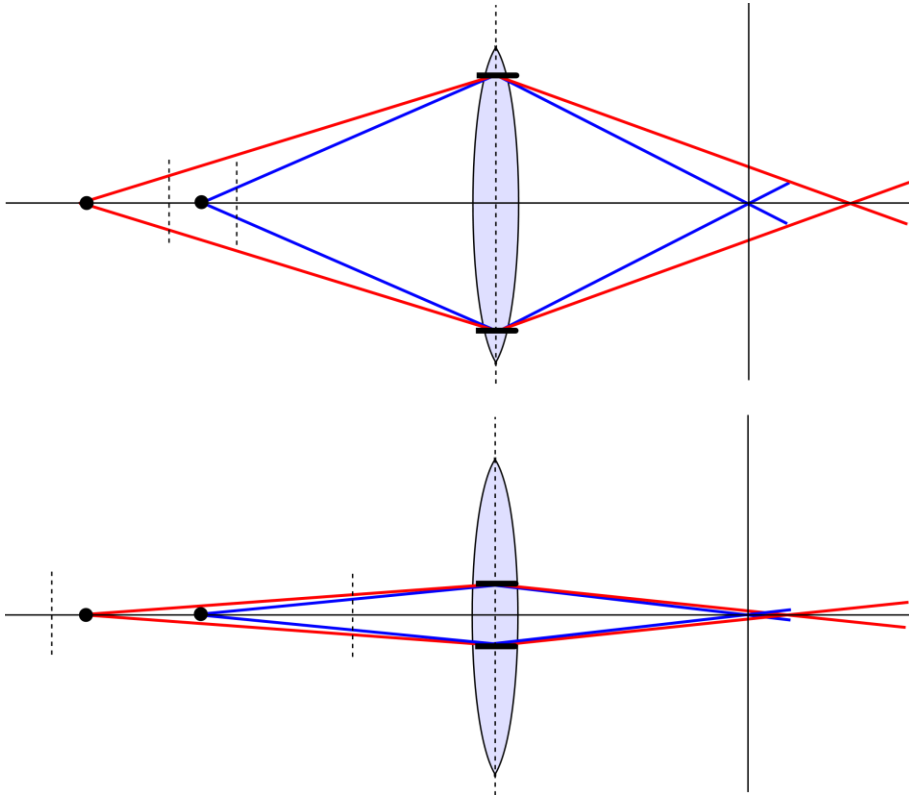


farrest

nearest



Depth of Field

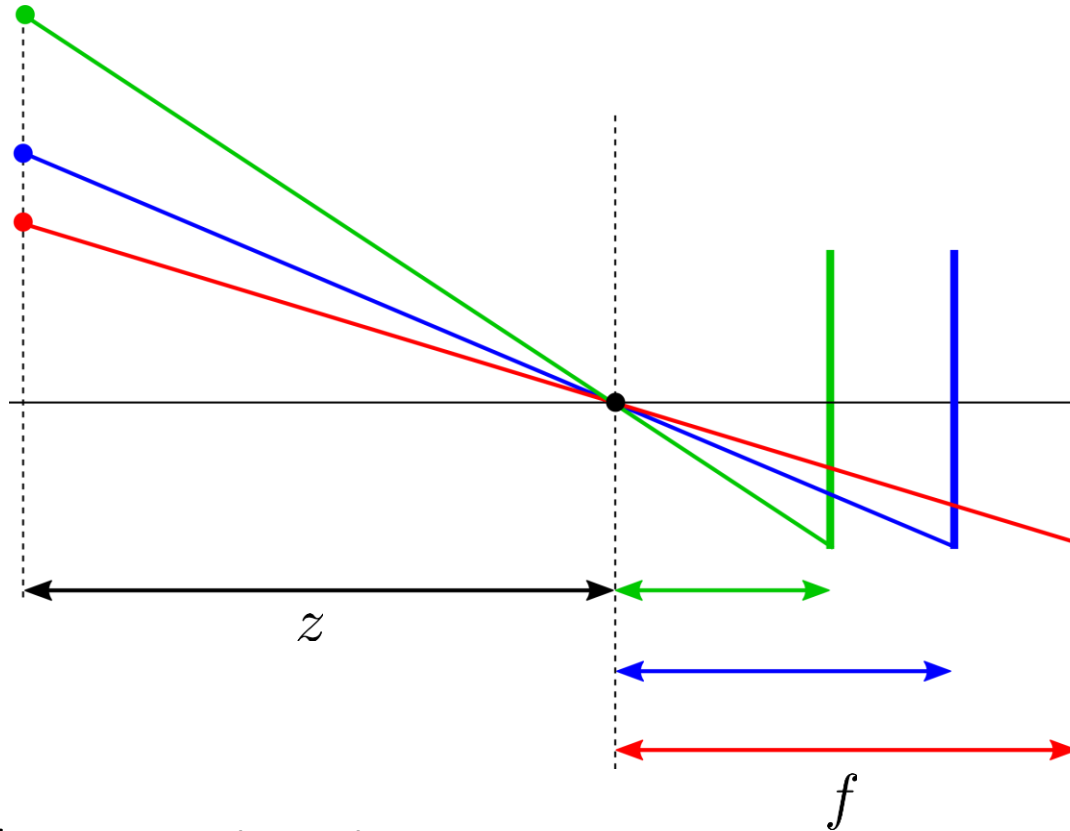


... the smaller the lens aperture ...
... distance for that aperture ...
... scales on a lens barrel ...
... hyperfocal distance opposite ...
... are using. If you the ...
... the depth of field will ...
... ce to infinity. For ...
... camera has a hyperf ...
... e focus at 18 feet,



- The smaller the lens aperture ...
 - the larger the depth of field
 - the less light reaches the sensor in a given exposure time

Field of View



- Pinhole approximation
- The smaller f , the larger the maximum view angle
- focal length together with sensor size defines field of view

Field of View



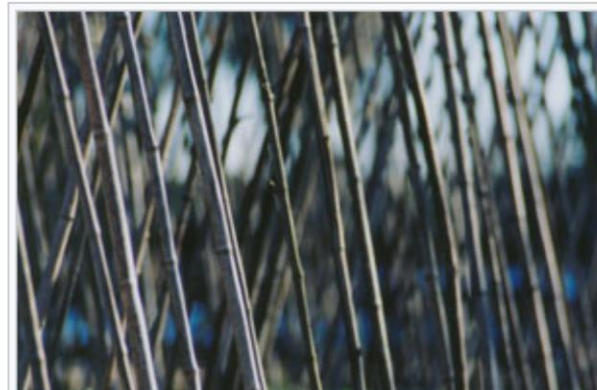
28 mm lens, $65.5^\circ \times 46.4^\circ$



50 mm lens, $39.6^\circ \times 27.0^\circ$



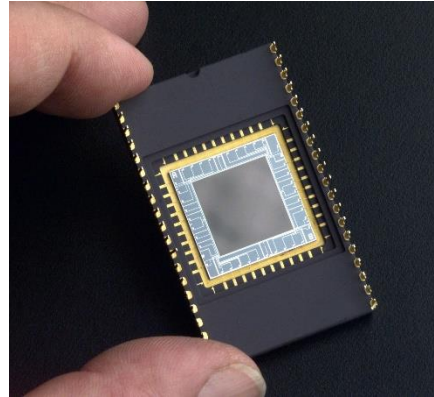
70 mm lens, $28.9^\circ \times 19.5^\circ$



210 mm lens, $9.8^\circ \times 6.5^\circ$

- Choose lens with appropriate focal length for application

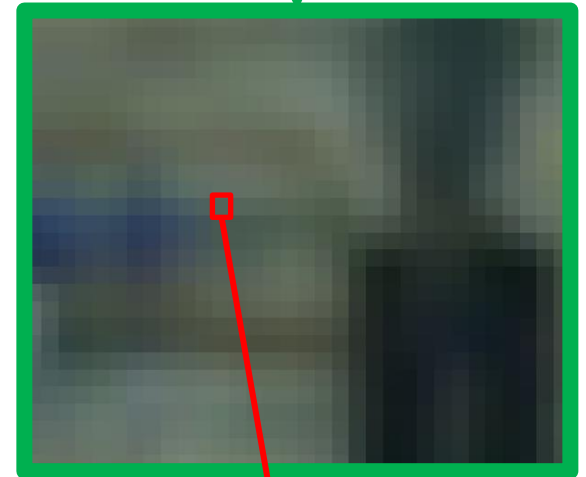
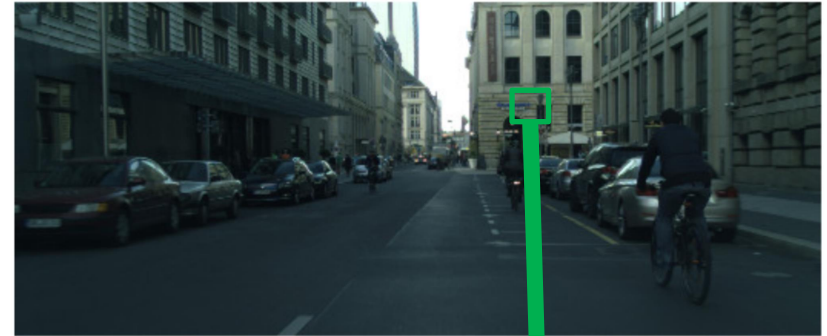
Digital Cameras



- Image sensor: array of light-sensitive semi-conductor pixels
- CCD (charge coupled device) or CMOS (complementary metal-oxide-semiconductor) technology
- Pixel: photosensitive diode
 - converts photons (light energy) to electrons
- Optical lens mounted on top of image sensor

Digital Image

- Digital image is an array of D-dim. pixel values (RGB values)
- We will also denote an image by a function $I : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^D$ that maps pixels on a continuous image domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ to their D-dim. values

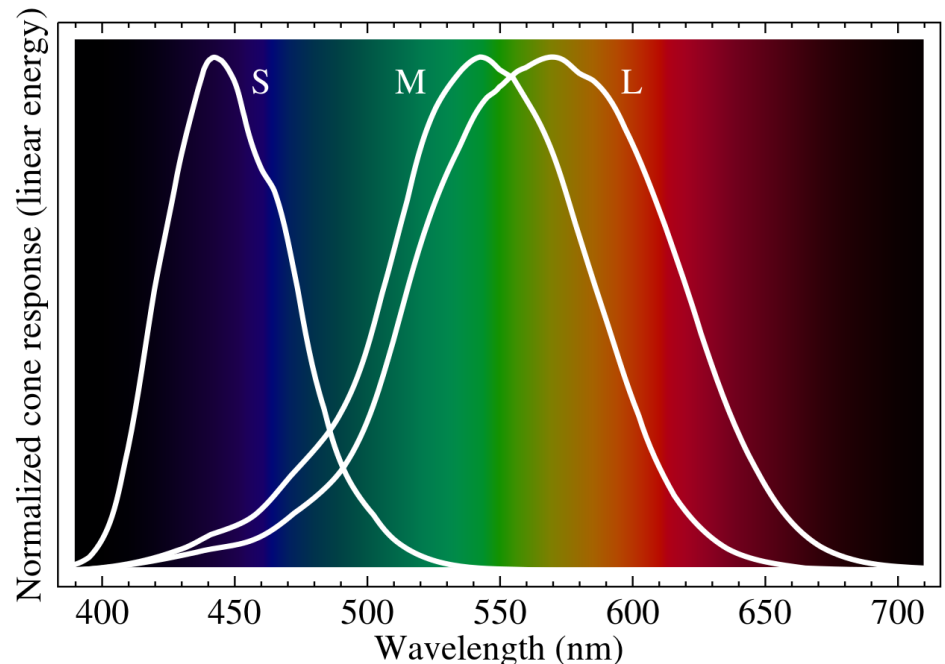


$$I_{156,774} = (72, 90, 80)$$

row column R G B

Color Vision

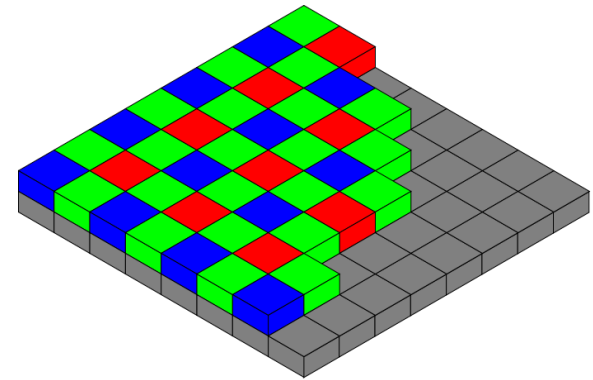
- For humans luminance is mainly perceived from green color
- Human visual system much more sensitive to high frequencies in luminance than in chrominance
- Spectral sensitivity of human cone cells



Bayer Pattern

- Bayer pattern (introduced by Bryce Bayer in 1967) arranges red, green, blue sensitive pixels
 - Half the pixels measure green light spectrum in a checkerboard pattern
 - Other pixels are sensitive to red or blue alternatingly

- “Demosaicing” to obtain RGB-value at each pixel
 - Interpolation of missing pixel colors based on neighboring pixels



Chromatic Aberration and Fringing



- Lenses may focus light of differing wavelengths to different focal points
- This leads to chromatic aberration (“purple fringing”)
- Other sources of fringing:
 - Lens flare
 - Different sensitivity to colors
 - Bayer pattern demosaicing algorithm

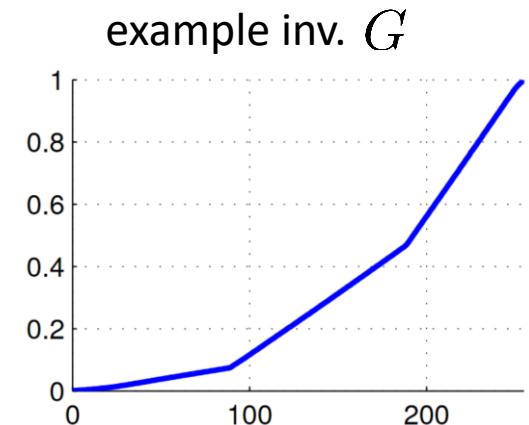
Global vs. Rolling Shutter



- Rolling shutter: Line-by-line exposure/readout of pixels
 - Causes distortions of objects that are in relative motion
- Global shutter: All pixels are exposed/read out at the same time

Camera Response Function

- The objects in the scene radiate light which is focused by the lens onto the image sensor
- The pixels of the sensor observe an irradiance $B : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for an exposure time t
- The camera electronics translates the accumulated irradiance into intensity values according to a non-linear camera response function $G : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 255]$
- The measured intensity is $I(\mathbf{x}) = G(tB(\mathbf{x}))$



Vignetting

- Lenses gradually focus more light at the center of the image than at the image borders
- The image appears darker towards the borders
- Also called “lens attenuation”
- Lense vignetting can be modelled as a map $V : \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$
- Intensity measurement model

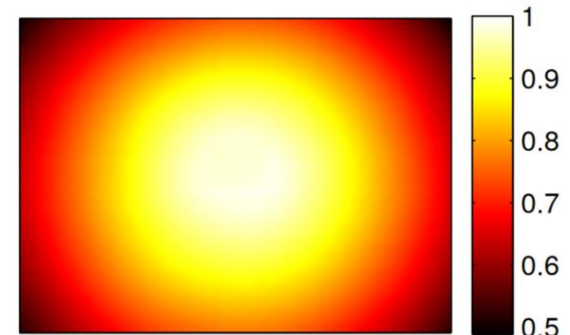
$$I(\mathbf{x}) = G(tV(\mathbf{x})B(\mathbf{x}))$$

$V(\mathbf{x})$

uncorrected



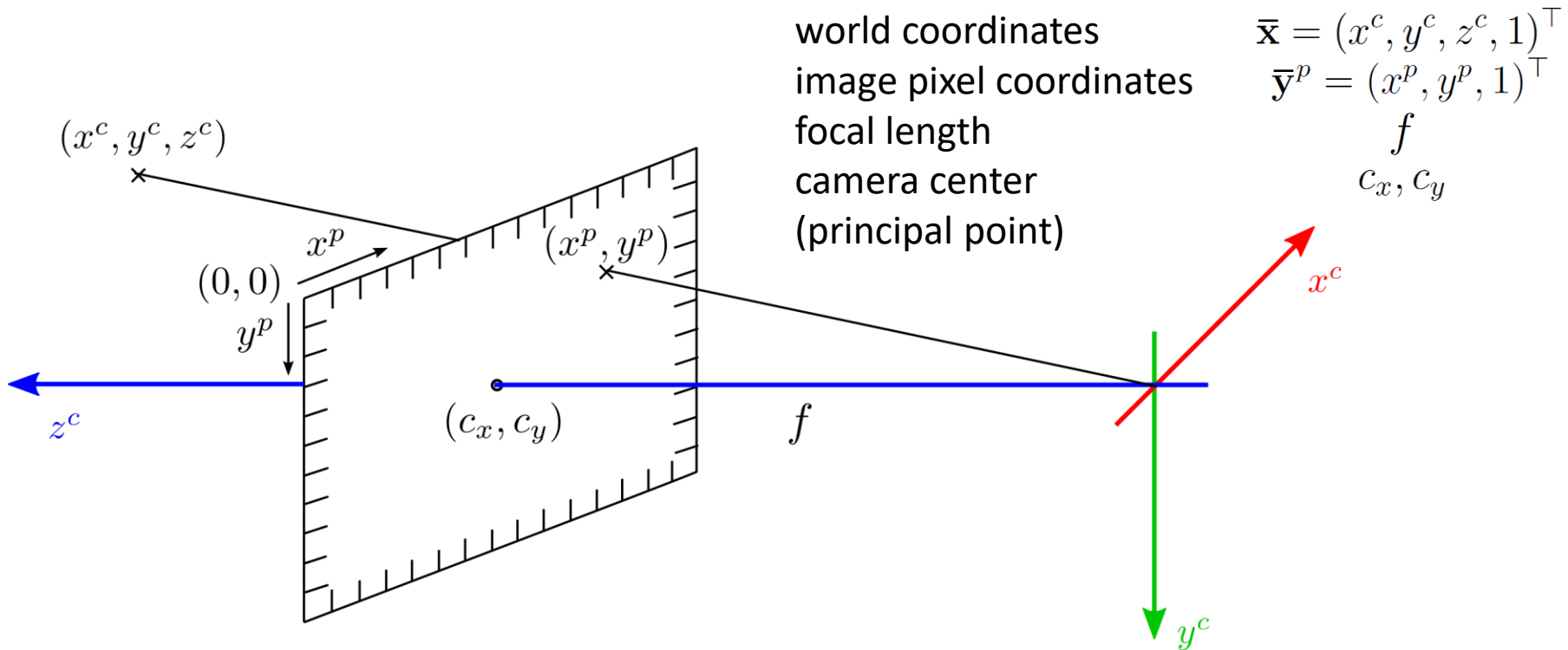
corrected



Geometric Point Primitives

- | | 2D | 3D |
|---------------------------|---|--|
| • Point | $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ | $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ |
| • Augmented vector | $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ | $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^4$ |
| • Homogeneous coordinates | $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{x} \\ \tilde{y} \\ \tilde{w} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{P}^2$ | $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{x} \\ \tilde{y} \\ \tilde{z} \\ \tilde{w} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{P}^3$ |
- $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \tilde{w}\bar{\mathbf{x}}$

Pinhole Camera Model



world coordinates
 image pixel coordinates
 focal length
 camera center
 (principal point)

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = (x^c, y^c, z^c, 1)^\top$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{y}}^p = (x^p, y^p, 1)^\top$$

$$f$$

$$c_x, c_y$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x^p \\ y^p \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} f_x & 0 & c_x \\ 0 & f_y & c_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathcal{C}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x^c/z^c \\ y^c/z^c \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\bar{\mathbf{y}}}$$

(camera matrix) (normalized image coordinates)

Pinhole Camera Model

$$\begin{pmatrix} x^p \\ y^p \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_x & 0 & c_x \\ 0 & f_y & c_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x^c / z^c \\ y^c / z^c \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$z^c \begin{pmatrix} x^p \\ y^p \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_x & 0 & c_x \\ 0 & f_y & c_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x^c \\ y^c \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \tilde{x}^p \\ \tilde{y}^p \\ \tilde{w}^p \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_x & 0 & c_x \\ 0 & f_y & c_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x^c \\ y^c \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\tilde{w}^p = z^c$$

Lens Distortion

- Lens imperfections cause radial distortion of image
- Deviations stronger towards the image borders
- Typically compensated using a low-order polynomial, for example,

$$x_d = x_n(1 + \kappa_1 r_n^2 + \kappa_2 r_n^4)$$

$$y_d = y_n(1 + \kappa_1 r_n^2 + \kappa_2 r_n^4)$$

- There are also more complex/complete distortion models

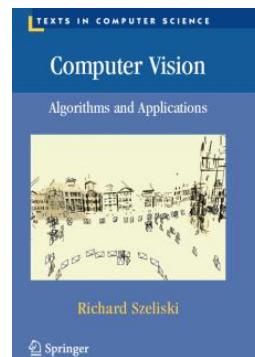


$$(x_n, y_n)^\top := (x_c/z_c, y_c/z_c)^\top$$

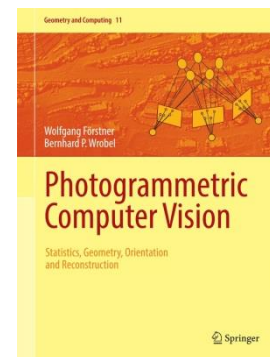
$$r_n = \left\| (x_n, y_n)^\top \right\|_2$$

Further Readings

- Further readings on image formation and camera models



Computer Vision –
Algorithms and
Applications, R.
Szeliski, Springer,
2006

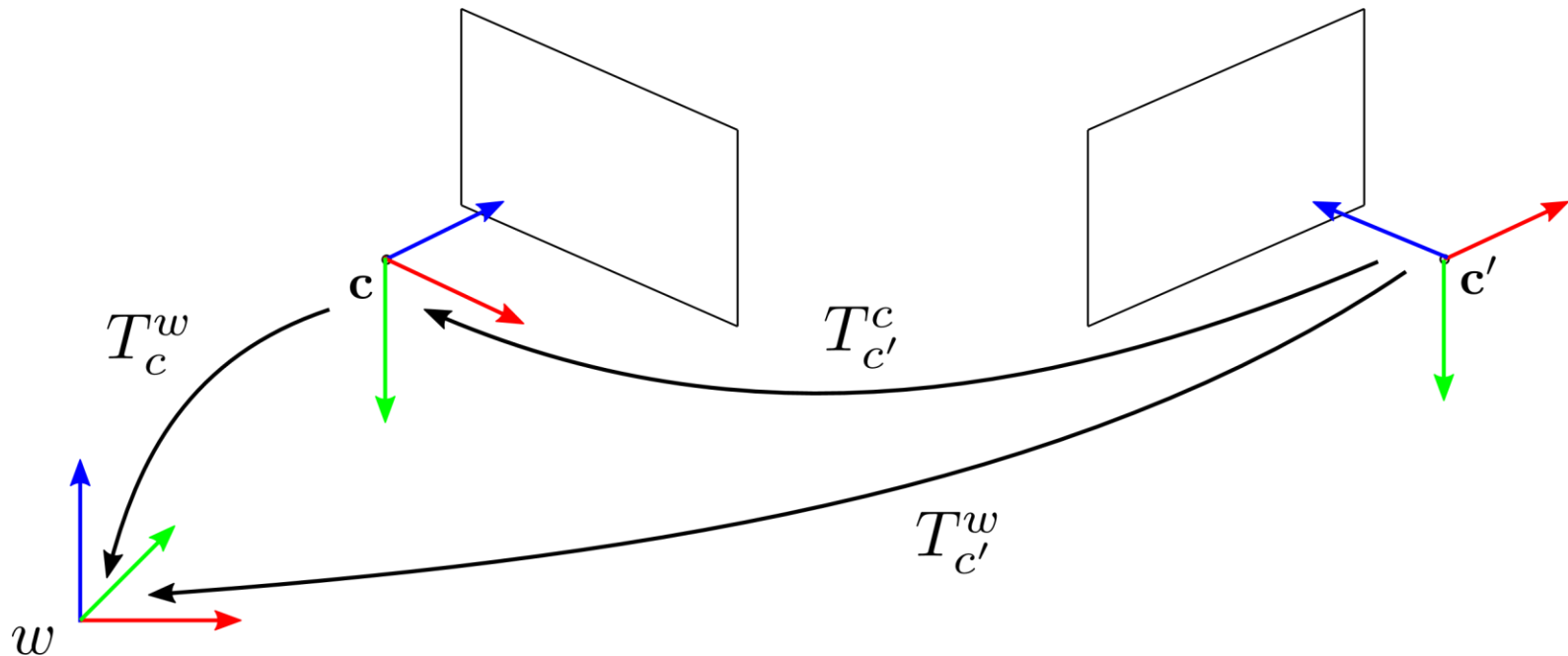


Photogrammetric
Computer Vision,
W. Förstner,
Springer, 2016

What We Will Cover Today

- Image formation
 - Pinhole camera
 - Lenses, thin lens equation, pinhole approximation
 - Focus, depth of field, field of view
 - Digital cameras
 - Camera response function and vignetting
 - Camera intrinsics for pinhole camera model
 - Lens distortion
- **Multiple view geometry basics**
 - Camera extrinsics
 - Epipolar geometry

Camera Extrinsics



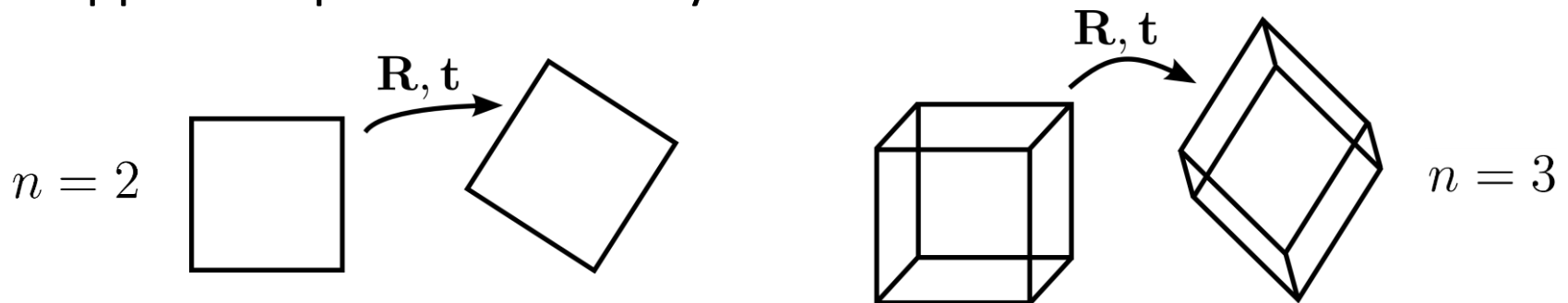
- Euclidean transformations ($T_c^w, T_{c'}^w, T_{c'}^c$) between camera view poses and world frame

(Special) Euclidean Transformations

- (Special) Euclidean transformations apply rotation $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbf{SO}(n) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and translation $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{t} \qquad \bar{\mathbf{x}}' = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{0} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \bar{\mathbf{x}}$$

- Correspond to rigid-body motion
- Rigid-body motion: preserves distances and angles when applied to points on a body



Special Orthogonal Group $\mathbf{SO}(n)$

- Rotation matrices have a special structure

$$\mathbf{R} \in \mathbf{SO}(n) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, \det(\mathbf{R}) = 1, \mathbf{R}\mathbf{R}^T = \mathbf{I}$$

i.e. orthonormal matrices that preserve distance and angle

- They form a group which we denote as Special Orthogonal Group $\mathbf{SO}(n)$
 - The group operator is matrix multiplication - associative, but not commutative!
 - Inverse and neutral element exist
- 2D rotations only have 1 degree of freedom (DoF), i.e. angle of rotation
- 3D rotations have 3 DoFs, several parametrizations exist such as Euler angles and quaternions

3D Rotation Representations – Matrix

- Straight-forward: **Orthonormal matrix**

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{pmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\ r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} \\ r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$$

- Pro: Easy to concatenate and invert

$$\mathbf{R}_C^A = \mathbf{R}_B^A \mathbf{R}_C^B \qquad \mathbf{R}_A^B = (\mathbf{R}_B^A)^{-1}$$

- Con: Overparametrized (9 parameters for 3 DoF) - problematic for optimization

3D Rotation Representations – Euler Angles

- **Euler Angles:** 3 consecutive rotations around coordinate axes
Example: roll-pitch-yaw angles α, β, γ (X-Y-Z):

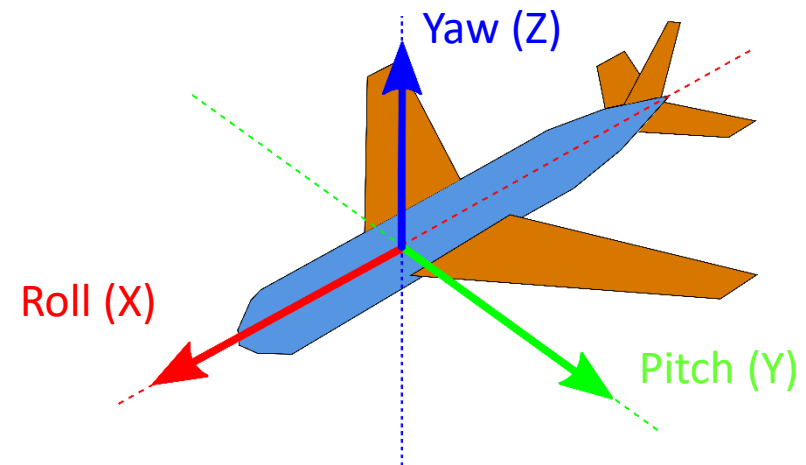
$$\mathbf{R}_{XYZ}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) = \mathbf{R}_Z(\gamma) \mathbf{R}_Y(\beta) \mathbf{R}_X(\alpha)$$

with

$$\mathbf{R}_X(\alpha) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(\alpha) & -\sin(\alpha) \\ 0 & \sin(\alpha) & \cos(\alpha) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{R}_Y(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\beta) & 0 & \sin(\beta) \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin(\beta) & 0 & \cos(\beta) \end{pmatrix}$$

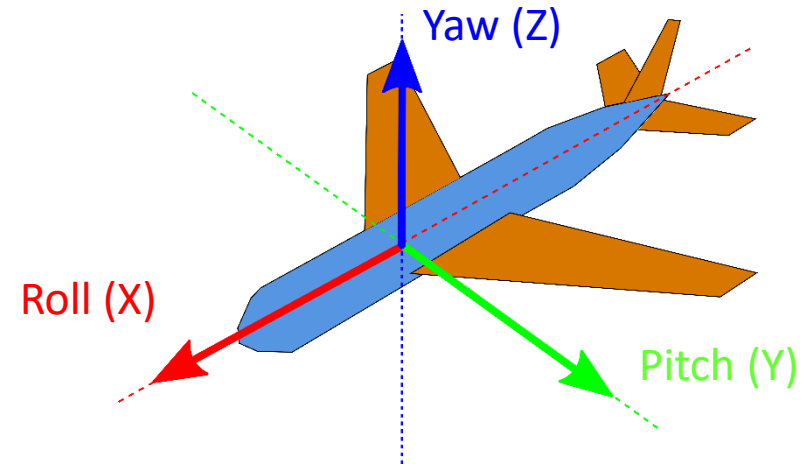
$$\mathbf{R}_Z(\gamma) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\gamma) & -\sin(\gamma) & 0 \\ \sin(\gamma) & \cos(\gamma) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



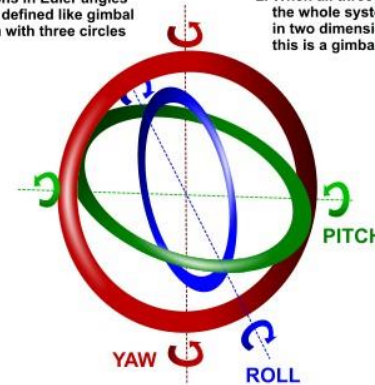
- 12 possible orderings of rotation axes (f.e. Z-X-Z)

3D Rotation Representations – Euler Angles

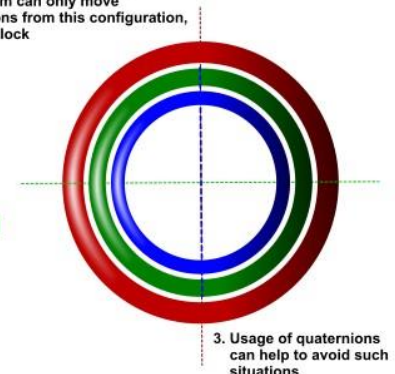
- Pro: Minimal with 3 parameters
- Con:
 - Singularities (gimbal lock)
 - concatenation/inversion via conversion from/to matrix



1. Rotations in Euler angles can be defined like gimbal system with three circles



2. When all three circles are lined up, the whole system can only move in two dimensions from this configuration, this is a gimbal lock



3. Usage of quaternions can help to avoid such situations

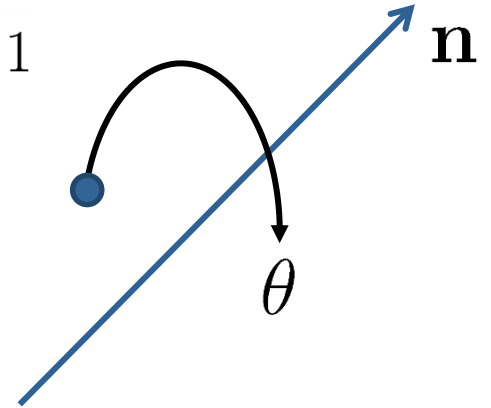
Loss in DoF

3D Rotation Representations – Axis-Angle

- **Axis-Angle:** Rotate along axis $\mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ by angle $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{n}, \theta) = \mathbf{I} + \sin(\theta)\hat{\mathbf{n}} + (1 - \cos(\theta))\hat{\mathbf{n}}^2 \quad \|\mathbf{n}\|_2 = 1$$

$$\text{where } \hat{\mathbf{x}} := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -z & y \\ z & 0 & -x \\ -y & x & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \hat{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{y}$$



- Reverse: $\theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\text{tr}(\mathbf{R}) - 1}{2} \right) \quad \mathbf{n} = \frac{1}{2 \sin(\theta)} \begin{pmatrix} r_{32} - r_{23} \\ r_{13} - r_{31} \\ r_{21} - r_{12} \end{pmatrix}$
- 4 parameters: (\mathbf{n}, θ)
- 3 parameters: $\boldsymbol{\omega} = \theta \mathbf{n}$

3D Rotation Representations – Axis-Angle

- Pro: minimal representation for 3 parameters
- Con:
 - (\mathbf{n}, θ) has unit norm constraint on \mathbf{n} which can be problematic for optimization
 - both parametrizations not unique
 - concatenation/inversion via $\mathbf{SO}(3)$

3D Rotation Representations – Quaternion

- **Unit Quaternions:** $\mathbf{q} = (q_x, q_y, q_z, q_w)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^4$, $\|\mathbf{q}\|_2 = 1$
- Relation to axis-angle representation:

- Axis-angle to quaternion:

$$\mathbf{q}(\mathbf{n}, \theta) = \left(\mathbf{n}^\top \sin \left(\frac{\theta}{2} \right), \cos \left(\frac{\theta}{2} \right) \right)$$
$$\mathbf{n}(\mathbf{q}) = \begin{cases} (q_x, q_y, q_z)^\top / \sin(\theta/2), & \theta \neq 0 \\ \mathbf{0}, & \theta = 0 \end{cases}$$

- Quaternion to axis-angle: $\theta = 2 \arccos(q_w)$

3D Rotation Representations – Quaternion

- Pros:

- Unique up to opposing sign $q = -q$
- Direct rotation of a point:

$$p' = q(\mathbf{R})p q(\mathbf{R})^{-1}$$

- Direct concatenation of rotations:

$$q(\mathbf{R}_2\mathbf{R}_1) = q(\mathbf{R}_2)q(\mathbf{R}_1)$$

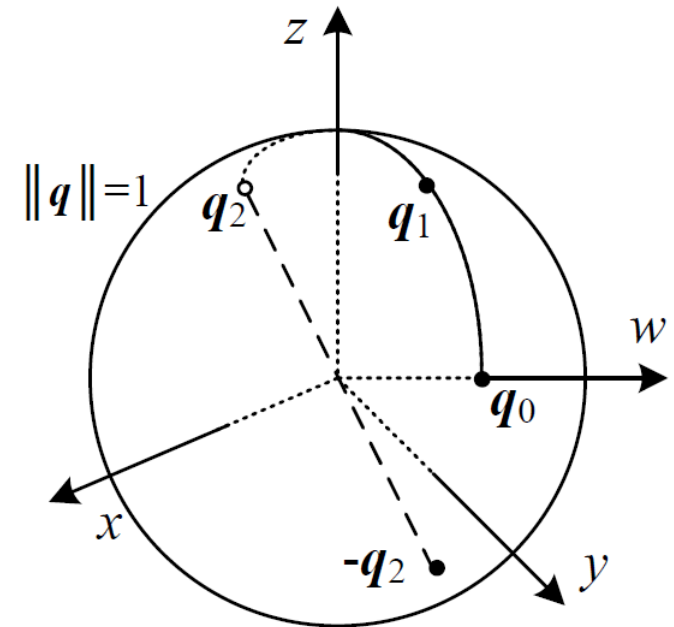
- Direct inversion of a rotation:

$$q(\mathbf{R}^{-1}) = q(\mathbf{R})^{-1}$$

with $q^{-1} = (-\mathbf{q}_{xyz}^\top, q_w)^\top$, $p = (p_{xyz}^\top, 0)^\top$

$$q_1q_2 = (q_{1,w}q_{2,xyz} + q_{2,w}q_{1,xyz} + q_{1,xyz} \times q_{2,xyz}, q_{1,w}q_{2,w} - q_{1,xyz}q_{2,xyz})$$

- Con: Normalization constraint is problematic for optimization



Special Euclidean Group $\mathbf{SE}(3)$

- Euclidean transformation matrices have a special structure as well:

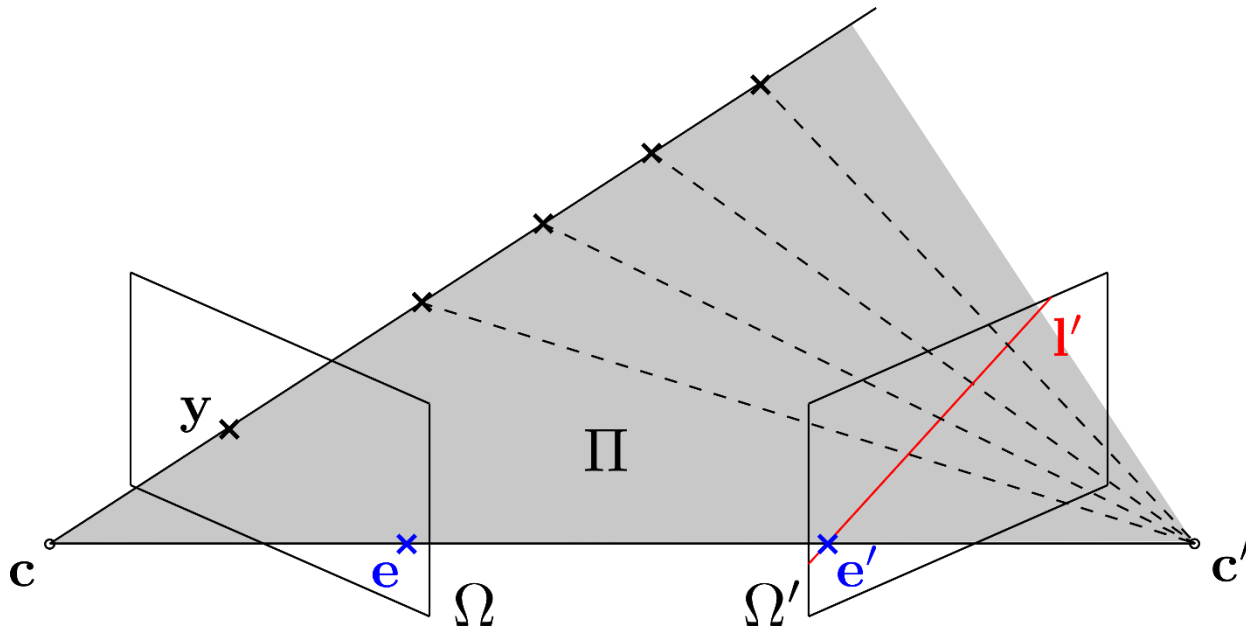
$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{0} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbf{SE}(3) \subset \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}$$

- Translation \mathbf{t} has 3 degrees of freedom
 - Rotation $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbf{SO}(3)$ has 3 degrees of freedom
- They also form a group which we call $\mathbf{SE}(3)$. The group operator is matrix multiplication:

$$\cdot : \mathbf{SE}(3) \times \mathbf{SE}(3) \rightarrow \mathbf{SE}(3)$$

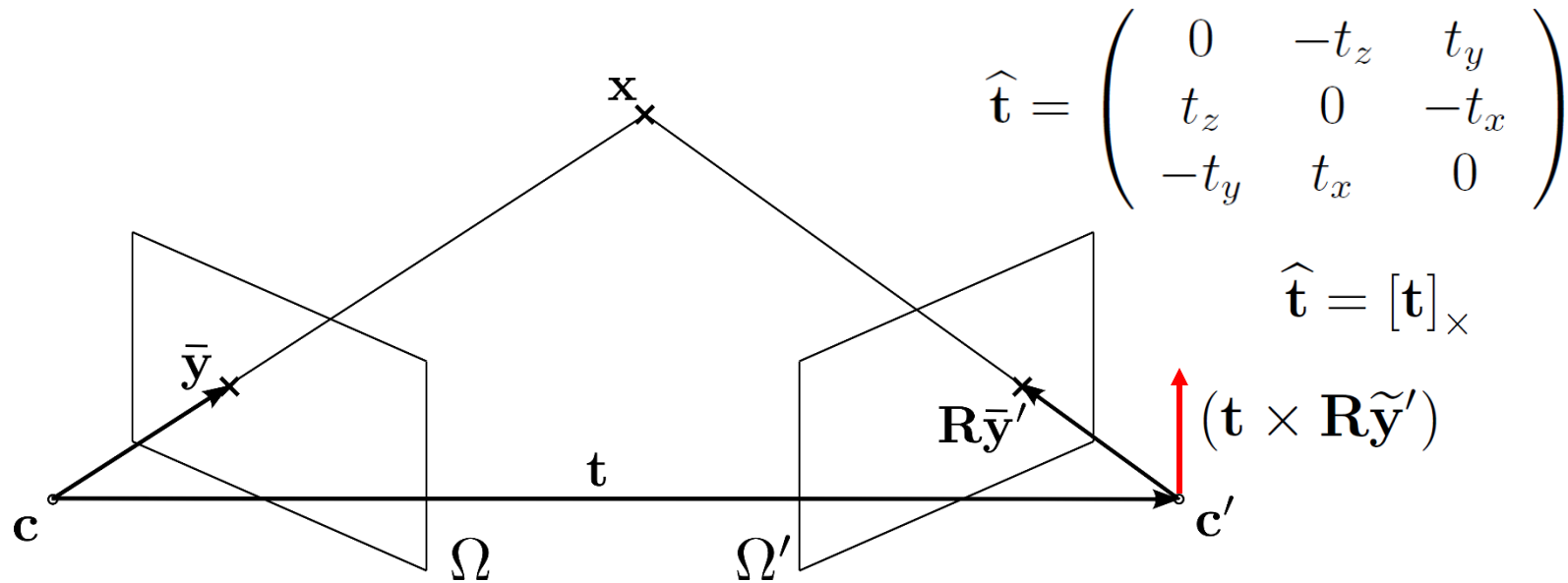
$$\mathbf{T}_B^A \cdot \mathbf{T}_C^B \mapsto \mathbf{T}_C^A$$

Epipolar Geometry



- Camera centers c, c' and image point $y \in \Omega$ span the **epipolar plane** Π
- The ray from camera center c through point y projects as the **epipolar line** l' in image plane Ω'
- The intersections of the line through the camera centers with the image planes are called **epipoles** e, e'

Essential Matrix



- The rays to the 3D point and the baseline \mathbf{t} are coplanar

$$\tilde{\mathbf{y}}^{\top} (\mathbf{t} \times \mathbf{R}\tilde{\mathbf{y}}') = 0 \Leftrightarrow \tilde{\mathbf{y}}^{\top} \hat{\mathbf{t}} \mathbf{R}\tilde{\mathbf{y}}' = 0$$

- The **essential matrix** $\mathbf{E} := \hat{\mathbf{t}}\mathbf{R}$ captures the relative camera pose
- Each point correspondence provides an „**epipolar constraint**“
- 5 correspondences suffice to determine \mathbf{E} (simpler: 8-point algorithm)

Lessons Learned Today

- Image formation
 - Lenses focus light on image sensor
 - Approximation as pinhole camera
 - Camera settings determine focus, depth of field and field of view
 - Focus, depth of field, field of view
 - Digital cameras transfer irradiance to intensity
 - Lenses are imperfect: radial distortion and vignetting
- 3D rotation representations
- Recap of basic notions of multiple view geometry

Thanks for your attention!

Slides Information

- These slides have been initially created by Jörg Stückler as part of the lecture “Robotic 3D Vision” in winter term 2017/18 at Technical University of Munich.
- The slides have been revised by myself (Niclas Zeller) for the same lecture held in winter term 2020/21
- Acknowledgement of all people that contributed images or video material has been tried (please kindly inform me if such an acknowledgement is missing so it can be added).