# Lecture 6. Review of Linear Optimization ECEN 5283 Computer Vision

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#### Goals



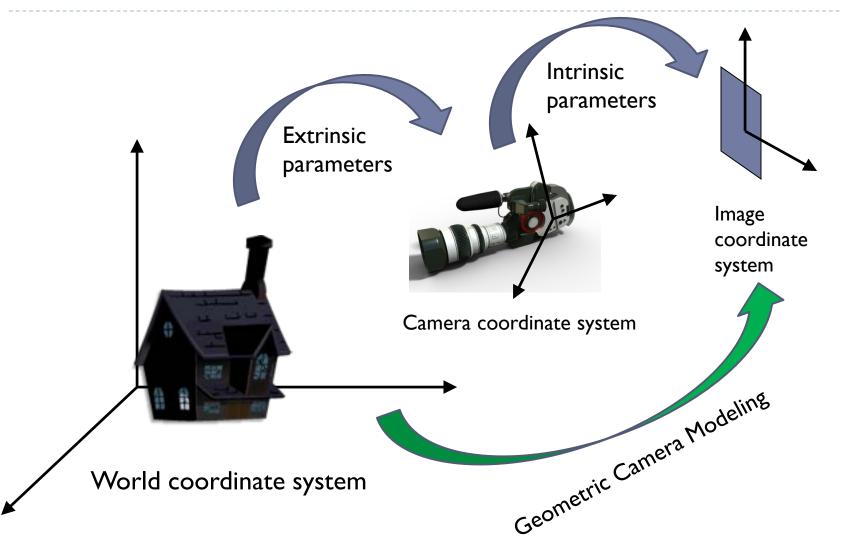
- ▶ To review geometric camera modeling.
- ▶ To review a simple linear optimization technique that will be used for camera calibration.





Figure 1: An image of a calibration rig, left with calibration points, right with cubes to check the calibration.

### Geometric Camera Modeling: Intrinsic and Extrinsic Parameters





### **Camera Projection Matrix**

- A projection matrix is written explicitly as a function of both intrinsic and extrinsic parameters as follows
  - Five intrinsic parameters  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $u_0$ ,  $v_0$ ,  $\theta$
  - ▶ Six extrinsic ones (three angles and three coordinates of t).

$$\mathbf{p} = \frac{1}{z} M \mathbf{P} \text{ where } M = K(R \quad t) \quad K = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & -\alpha \cot \theta & u_0 \\ 0 & \frac{\beta}{\sin \theta} & v_0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad R = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1^T \\ \mathbf{r}_2^T \\ \mathbf{r}_3^T \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } t = \begin{pmatrix} t_x \\ t_y \\ t_z \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M = K(R \quad t) = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \mathbf{r}_1^T - \alpha \cot \theta \mathbf{r}_2^T + u_0 \mathbf{r}_3^T & \alpha t_x - \alpha \cot \theta t_y + u_0 t_z \\ \frac{\beta}{\sin \theta} \mathbf{r}_2^T + v_0 \mathbf{r}_3^T & \frac{\beta}{\sin \theta} t_y + v_0 t_z \\ \mathbf{r}_3^T & t_z \end{pmatrix}_{3\times 4}$$

### Homogeneous Systems and Eigenvalue Problems



Let us now consider a linear equation system which is a homogeneous equation in **x** as

$$\begin{cases} u_{11}x_1 + u_{12}x_2 + \dots + u_{1q}x_q = 0 & \text{p conditions} \\ u_{21}x_1 + u_{22}x_2 + \dots + u_{2q}x_q = 0 \\ & \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{U}\mathbf{x} = 0 \\ \dots & \\ u_{p1}x_1 + u_{p2}x_2 + \dots + u_{pq}x_q = 0 \end{cases} \quad \mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & \dots & u_{1q} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} & \dots & u_{2q} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ u_{p1} & u_{p2} & \dots & u_{pq} \end{pmatrix}$$

In this context, minimizing  $E = |\mathbf{U}\mathbf{x}|^2$  only makes sense when some additional constraint, such as  $|\mathbf{x}|^2 = 1$ .

### Homogeneous Systems and Eigenvalue Problems (Cont'd)



We can re-write the error as

$$E(\mathbf{x}) = \left| \mathbf{U} \mathbf{x} \right|^2 = \left( \mathbf{U} \mathbf{x} \right)^T \mathbf{U} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^T \left( \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} \right) \mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & \dots & u_{1q} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} & \dots & u_{2q} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ u_{p1} & u_{p2} & \dots & u_{pq} \end{pmatrix}$$

- The  $q \times q$  matrix  $\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U}$  is symmetric positive semi-definite (i.e., its eigenvalues are all non-negative.).
- $\mathbf{U}^{T}\mathbf{U}$  can be diagonalized in an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors associated with the eigenvalues as

$$\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{Q} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^T$$
$$\mathbf{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1 & \mathbf{e}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{e}_q \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_q^2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$0 \le \lambda_1^2 \le \lambda_2^2 \dots \le \lambda_q^2$$

$$\mathbf{U}^{T}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{Q}\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^{T}$$

$$\mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{e}_{1} \quad \mathbf{e}_{2} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{e}_{q})$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{1}^{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_{2}^{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_{q}^{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{e}_{1} \quad \mathbf{e}_{2} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{e}_{q})$$

$$0 \leq \lambda_{1}^{2} \leq \lambda_{2}^{2} \dots \leq \lambda_{q}^{2}$$

$$\mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{e}_{1} \quad \mathbf{e}_{2} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{e}_{q})$$

$$= (0 \quad \dots \quad 1 \quad \dots \quad 0)\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\vdots$$

$$0 \leq \lambda_{1}^{2} \leq \lambda_{2}^{2} \dots \leq \lambda_{q}^{2}$$

### Homogeneous Systems and Eigenvalue Problems (Cont'd)



We can write any unit vector as

$$\mathbf{x} = \mu_{1}\mathbf{e}_{1} + \dots + \mu_{q}\mathbf{e}_{q} \quad \text{with } \mu_{1}^{2} + \mu_{2}^{2} + \dots + \mu_{q}^{2} = 1.$$

$$E(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^{T} (\mathbf{U}^{T}\mathbf{U})\mathbf{x} = (\mu_{1}\mathbf{e}_{1} + \dots + \mu_{q}\mathbf{e}_{q})^{T} (\mathbf{U}^{T}\mathbf{U})(\mu_{1}\mathbf{e}_{1} + \dots + \mu_{q}\mathbf{e}_{q})$$

$$= (\mu_{1}\mathbf{e}_{1} + \dots + \mu_{q}\mathbf{e}_{q})^{T} (\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^{T})(\mu_{1}\mathbf{e}_{1} + \dots + \mu_{q}\mathbf{e}_{q})$$

$$= \lambda_{1}^{2}\mu_{1}^{2} + \lambda_{2}^{2}\mu_{2}^{2} + \dots + \lambda_{q}^{2}\mu_{q}^{2} \quad ((\mu_{i}\mathbf{e}_{i})^{T}(\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^{T})(\mu_{i}\mathbf{e}_{i}) = \lambda_{i}^{2}\mu_{i}^{2})$$

$$\geq \lambda_{1}^{2}(\mu_{1}^{2} + \dots + \mu_{q}^{2}) = \lambda_{1}^{2}$$

▶ That means the lower bound of *E* is the smallest eigenvalue.

#### Solution



It is shown that the lower bound of  $E(\mathbf{x})$  is determined by the minimum eigenvalue, i.e.,

$$E(\mathbf{x}) = \left| \mathbf{U} \mathbf{x} \right|^2 = \mathbf{x}^T (\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{U}) \mathbf{x} \ge \lambda_1^2$$

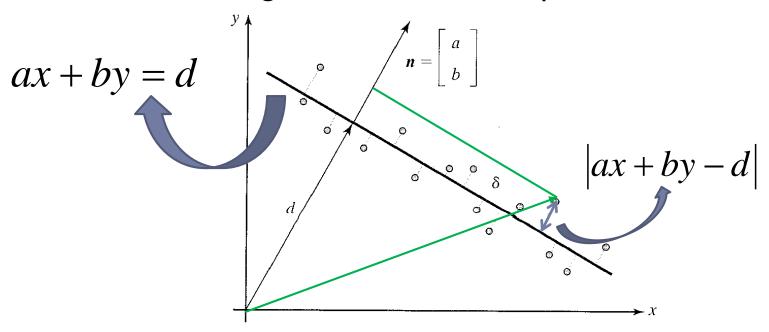
and when x is chosen to be the eigenvector that is associated with the smallest eigenvalue, i.e.,

$$E(\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_1) = \lambda_1^2$$

The solution that minimizes E is the eigenvector  $\mathbf{e}_1$  that is associated with the minimum eigenvalue.



Consider n points in a plane in a fixed coordinate system.
What is the straight line best fit these points?



**Figure 3.2** The line that best fits n points in the plane can be defined as the line  $\delta$  that minimizes the mean-squared perpendicular distance to these points (i.e., in this diagram, the mean-squared length of the short parallel line segments joining  $\delta$  to the points).



- A line with unit normal  $\mathbf{n}=(a,b)^T$ , lying at distant d from the origin is ax+by=d.
- The perpendicular distance between a point with coordinate  $(x, y)^T$ , and this line is |ax + by d|.
- We can therefore use the error measure as

$$E(a,b,d) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (ax_i + by_i - d)^2$$
We may want to find d first.

Thus, the line-fitting problem reduces to the minimization of *E* with respect to *a*, *b*, and *d* under the constraint

$$a^2 + b^2 = 1$$
.



Differentiating E with respect to d shows that

$$E(a,b,d) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (ax_i + by_i - d)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial d} = -2\sum_{i=1}^{n} (ax_i + by_i - d) = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (ax_i + by_i - d) = 0 \Longrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{n} ax_i + by_i = nd$$



$$d = a\overline{x} + b\overline{y}$$
, where  $\overline{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$  and  $\overline{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$ .



Substituting this expression for d in the definition of E

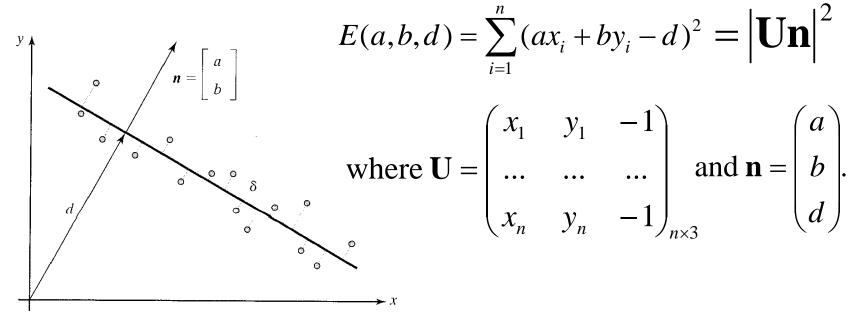
$$d = a\overline{x} + b\overline{y} \longrightarrow E(a,b,d) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (ax_i + by_i - d)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (ax_i + by_i) - (a\overline{x} + b\overline{y})^2$$

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (a(x_i - \overline{x}) + b(y_i - \overline{y}))^2 = \left| \mathbf{U} \mathbf{n} \right|^2$$
where  $\mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 - \overline{x} & y_1 - \overline{y} \\ \cdots & \cdots \\ x_n - \overline{x} & y_n - \overline{y} \end{pmatrix}_{n \times 2}$  and  $\mathbf{n} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$ . Covariance matrix

The optimal solution of  $\mathbf{n}$  is the eigenvector of  $\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U}$  that is associated with the smallest eigenvalue.



Can we do it in a simpler way?



**Figure 3.2** The line that best fits n points in the plane can be defined as the line  $\delta$  that minimizes the mean-squared perpendicular distance to these points (i.e., in this diagram, the mean-squared length of the short parallel line segments joining  $\delta$  to the points).

The optimal solution of **n** is the eigenvector of **U**<sup>T</sup>**U** that is associated with the smallest eigenvalue.