

2D and 3D Geometry

- ▶ Euclidean Space
- ▶ Homogeneous Coordinates
- ▶ Line, Plane, Curve

Geometric Projections

- ▶ Central projection
- ▶ Intrinsic & Extrinsic
- ▶ Projections of
Lines & Planes
- ▶ Camera Calibration I

Optics: The Lens

- ▶ Characteristic Values
- ▶ Thin Lense
- ▶ Imaging Errors
- ▶ Camera Calibration II

Scene Representation

Motivation

Task: Measurement, reconstruction and analysis of the 3D world using 2D images from a camera

- ▶ Pose¹ and movement of objects
- ▶ Pose and movement of a camera
- ▶ 3D geometry of objects
- ▶ Relations between objects

Basics:

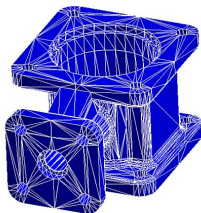
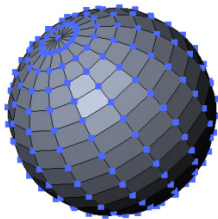
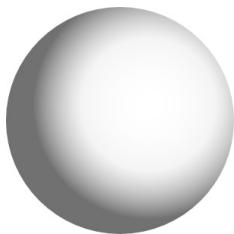
Description of the geometrical relations of the 3D world and the camera by coordinate systems, points and vectors.

¹ Pose = translational und rotational arrangement



Scene Representation

Motivation - Modeling tradeoffs



Requirements to:

- ▶ Accuracy of the model
- ▶ complexity of the model

Mostly trade-offs between:

- ▶ many, local, simple models \leftrightarrow few global, complicated models

Euclidean 3D Space

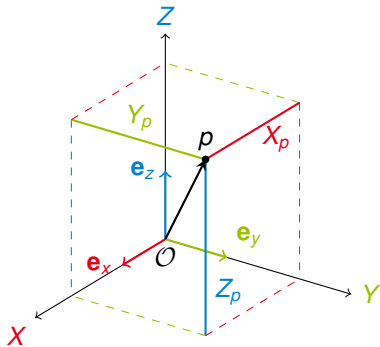
Points

Cartesian (orthogonal) coordinate system with standard basis:

$$\mathbf{e}_x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{e}_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{e}_z = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Coordinates of a point p in 3D space:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_p &= \begin{bmatrix} X_p \\ Y_p \\ Z_p \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \\ &= X_p \mathbf{e}_x + Y_p \mathbf{e}_y + Z_p \mathbf{e}_z. \end{aligned}$$



Euclidean 3D Space

Vectors

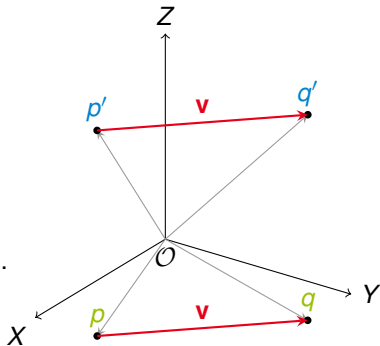
A vector is defined by a pair of points (p, q) :

$$\mathbf{x}_p = \begin{bmatrix} X_p \\ Y_p \\ Z_p \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3, \mathbf{x}_q = \begin{bmatrix} X_q \\ Y_q \\ Z_q \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3.$$

coordinates of a vector \mathbf{v} in 3D space:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \\ v_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_q - X_p \\ Y_q - Y_p \\ Z_q - Z_p \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{x}_q - \mathbf{x}_p \in \mathbb{R}^3.$$

$$\overrightarrow{pq} = \mathbf{x}_q - \mathbf{x}_p = \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{x}_{q'} - \mathbf{x}_{p'} = \overrightarrow{p'q'}.$$



Euclidean 3D Space

Points and Vectors

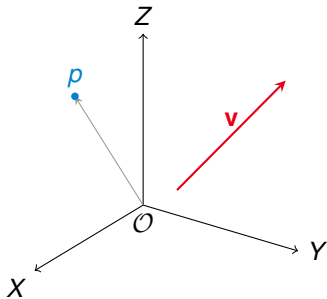
The definition of a coordinate system allows to describe **points and vectors in space** using coordinates.

Now it is possible to **calculate**

- ▶ **distances** between points,
- ▶ **angles** between vectors,
- ▶ **length** of curves,
- ▶ **volumes** of regions.

This requires a **metric**^{*}.

^{*} A mathematical function that assigns a **non-negative real value = distance** to each two elements of a space.



Points and **vectors**
are different
geometric objects!

Euclidean 3D Space

Scalar Product - distances

The **metric** of Euclidean space is defined via the **scalar product** between two vectors.

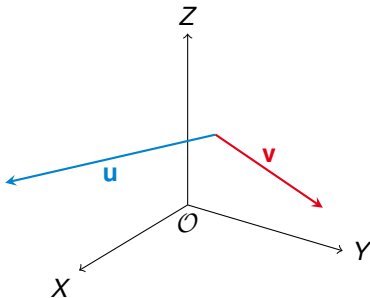
$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \\ u_z \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \\ v_z \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{u}^\top \mathbf{v} = u_x v_x + u_y v_y + u_z v_z.$$

Thus, the **Euclidean norm = length of a vector = distance between two points** is given by

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle} = \sqrt{u_x^2 + u_y^2 + u_z^2}.$$

Example exam question: Why are distances between points on objects more robust features for describing the geometry of an object than the coordinates of the points?



Euclidean 3D Space

Scalar Product - angles

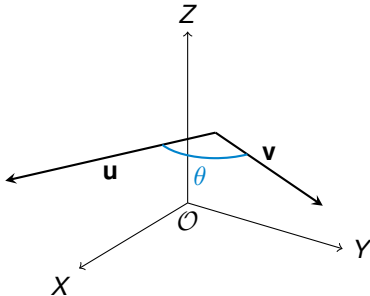
The **angle** between two vectors is given by the scalar product

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}} = \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|}.$$

For vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ it holds

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0, \text{ if } \theta = 90^\circ,$$

which means, the vectors are orthogonal to each other.



Euclidean 3D Space

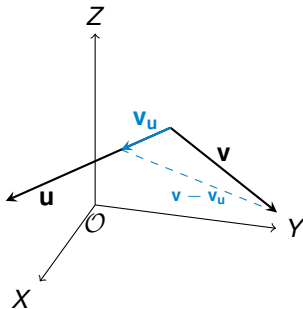
Scalar Product - projections

The orthogonal projection of vector \mathbf{v} onto the direction of vector \mathbf{u} is given by vector \mathbf{v}_u . Vector $\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v}_u$ is orthogonal to \mathbf{u} .

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{\|\mathbf{v}_u\|}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}.$$

This leads to:

$$\|\mathbf{v}_u\| = \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{u}\|}, \quad \mathbf{v}_u = \|\mathbf{v}_u\| \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|} = \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle} \mathbf{u}.$$



Cross Product - surfaces

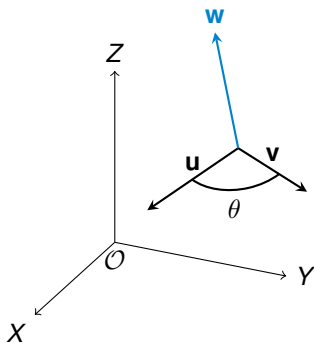
The **cross product** between two vectors leads to an orthogonal vector

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{w} &= \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \hat{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} u_y v_z - u_z v_y \\ u_z v_x - u_x v_z \\ u_x v_y - u_y v_x \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -u_z & u_y \\ u_z & 0 & -u_x \\ -u_y & u_x & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \\ v_z \end{bmatrix},\end{aligned}$$

It holds: $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = -\hat{\mathbf{u}}^T$, (skew symmetric)

$$\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{w} \wedge \mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{w}.$$

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = -\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u}$$



Euclidean 3D Space

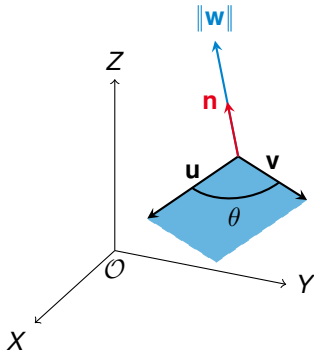
Cross-product - surfaces

The absolute value of the cross-product $\|\mathbf{w}\|$ equals the **area** of the parallelogram spanned by the vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v}

$$\|\mathbf{w}\| = \|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}\| = \|\hat{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\| \sin(\theta).$$

The **surface normal** \mathbf{n} is a unit vector:

$$\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{w} / \|\mathbf{w}\|, \quad \mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{n} \wedge \mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{n}.$$



Example exam question: You have modeled a surface in 3D space with a mesh of N triangles. How do you efficiently calculate the area using the cross product?

Euclidean 3D Space

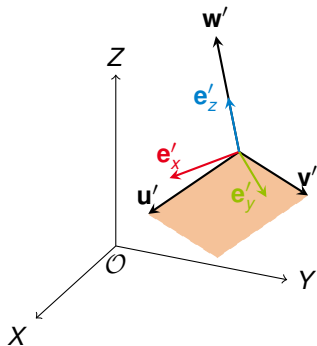
Planar 2D subspaces in 3D

We can define planar 2D subspaces in 3D spanned by two directions \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} including a local coordinate system given by the basis vectors \mathbf{e}'_x , \mathbf{e}'_y and \mathbf{e}'_z . All vectors in that subspace reduce to 2D vectors in 3D space:

$$\mathbf{u}' = [u'_x, u'_y, 0], \quad \mathbf{v}' = [v'_x, v'_y, 0].$$

Now, the 2D determinant equals the absolute value of the cross-product:

$$\|\mathbf{u}' \times \mathbf{v}'\| = |\mathbf{u}', \mathbf{v}', \mathbf{e}'_z| = u'_x \cdot v'_y - u'_y \cdot v'_x.$$



Homogeneous Coordinates

2D position vectors

The coordinates of 2D position vectors can be mapped to homogeneous coordinates by multiplying each 2D component with a **constant x_3** and adding a third dimension where this constant lives:

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_3 x \\ x_3 y \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3.$$

The inverse (nonlinear) mapping from homogeneous coordinates to Euclidean coordinates reads as follows:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1/x_3 \\ x_2/x_3 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

The origin $\bar{\mathbf{o}} = [0, 0, 0]^T$ is **not defined** for homogeneous coordinates!

Questions: Why should c be chosen to be $x_3 = 1$? Why is the origin not defined?

2D direction vectors

The homogeneous coordinates of a 2D direction vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ are given as follows:

$$\bar{\mathbf{v}} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}_p - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_q = \begin{bmatrix} x_3(x_p - x_q) \\ x_3(y_p - y_q) \\ x_3 - x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_3 v_x \\ x_3 v_y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3.$$

The inverse mapping from homogeneous coordinates to Euclidean coordinates reads:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{v}_x \\ \bar{v}_y \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

Now, position vectors and direction vectors can be differentiated by the last dimension. For position vectors $x_3 = 1$ and for direction vectors $v_3 = 0$!

Visualization

- Position vectors:

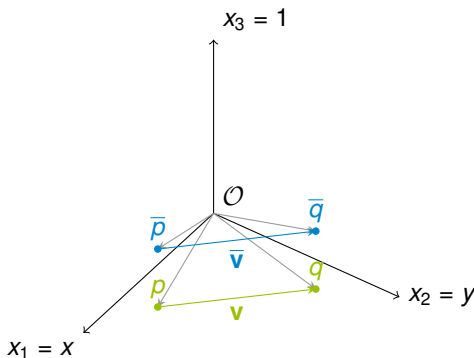
$$\bar{\mathbf{p}} = [p_x, p_y, p_z]^\top \rightarrow p_z \neq 0 \forall \bar{\mathbf{p}}$$

- Positions at infinity:

$$\bar{\mathbf{p}}_\infty = [p_x, p_y, 0]^\top \rightarrow p_z \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \forall \bar{\mathbf{p}}_\infty$$

- Direction vectors:

$$\bar{\mathbf{v}} = [v_x, v_y, 0]^\top \rightarrow v_z \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \forall \bar{\mathbf{v}}$$



Homogeneous Coordinates

Representation of 2D lines

2D line equation using homogeneous coordinates:

$$\mathbf{l}^\top \bar{\mathbf{x}} = 0, \quad \lambda(ax + by + c) = 0, \quad \mathbf{l} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix} \quad \forall \lambda \neq 0.$$

The line equation has three parameters \mathbf{l} but only two DoF ($\frac{a}{b}, \frac{c}{b}$).
The parameters are given by two different points on the line $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_1, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_2$

$$\mathbf{l} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}_1 \times \bar{\mathbf{x}}_2.$$

The intersection point of two lines is given by:

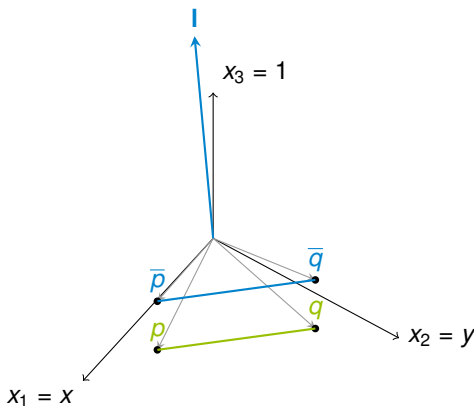
$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{l}_1 \times \mathbf{l}_2.$$

Parallel lines intersect at infinity: $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_\infty = [b, -a, 0]^\top$.

Homogeneous Coordinates

Representation of 2D lines

Visualization of a line in a plane (in green) using homogeneous coordinates (in blue).



Representation of 2D lines - Duality

Duality principle for points and lines in the plane in homogeneous coordinates:

The terms

- ▶ point and line resp.
- ▶ connecting line of two points and intersection of two lines

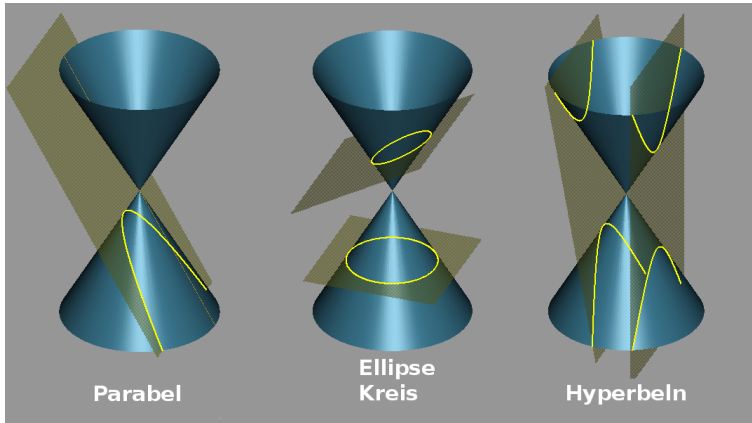
can be interchanged in the following relations:

$$\mathbf{l}^\top \bar{\mathbf{x}} = 0 \quad \text{und} \quad \bar{\mathbf{x}}^\top \mathbf{l} = 0 ,$$

$$\mathbf{l} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}_1 \times \bar{\mathbf{x}}_2 \quad \text{und} \quad \bar{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{l}_1 \times \mathbf{l}_2 .$$

Scene Representation

Plane curves - Examples of conic sections



Question: What is the property of planes that create pairs of straight lines by intersecting a cone?

Plane curves

Plane curves are conic sections and describe ellipses, parabolas, hyperbolas and pairs of straight lines in the plane. They are obtained by setting a quadratic function to zero:

$$\begin{aligned} ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 + dx + ey + f &= 0, \\ c_{11}x^2 + 2c_{12}xy + c_{22}y^2 + 2c_{13}x + 2c_{23}y + c_{33} &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

and are described by 5 points \mathbf{x}_i with $i = 1 \dots 5$ in general position.
In homogeneous coordinates the following equivalent equation is obtained:

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{C} \bar{\mathbf{x}} = 0 \quad , \quad \text{mit} \quad \mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & c_{13} \\ c_{12} & c_{22} & c_{23} \\ c_{13} & c_{23} & c_{33} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3} \quad ,$$

where \mathbf{C} is a symmetric matrix.

Plane curves

The type of curve is completely given by the following three quantities:

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & c_{13} \\ c_{12} & c_{22} & c_{23} \\ c_{13} & c_{23} & c_{33} \end{vmatrix}, \quad \delta = \begin{vmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} \\ c_{12} & c_{22} \end{vmatrix}, \quad S = c_{11} + c_{22}.$$

The following real curves result:

- ▶ $\delta > 0$ and $s\Delta < 0$: ellipse, if $c_{11} = c_{22}$ and $c_{12} = 0$: circle.
- ▶ $\delta < 0$ and $\Delta \neq 0$: hyperbole.
- ▶ $\delta = 0$ and $\Delta \neq 0$: parabola.
- ▶ $\delta < 0$ and $\Delta = 0$: pair of straight lines.
- ▶ $\delta = 0$ and $\Delta = 0$: parallel pair of straight lines.

Plane curves

If $\Delta \neq 0$ results in the center \mathbf{m} to:

$$\mathbf{m} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta_2/\delta \\ \delta_3/\delta \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{wobei} \quad \delta_2 = \begin{vmatrix} c_{12} & c_{13} \\ c_{22} & c_{23} \end{vmatrix}, \quad \delta_3 = \begin{vmatrix} c_{13} & c_{11} \\ c_{23} & c_{12} \end{vmatrix}.$$

If $c_{12} \neq 0$ the principal axes are not parallel to the coordinate axes but are rotated by an angle θ :

$$\tan(2\theta) = \frac{2c_{12}}{c_{11} - c_{22}}.$$

Each plane curve can be transformed to normal form $a^*x''^2 + b^*y''^2 + c^* = 0$ via a shift $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}$ and a rotation $\mathbf{x}'' = \mathbf{R} = [\cos \theta, -\sin \theta; \sin \theta, \cos \theta] \mathbf{x}'$.

Plane curves

A tangent \mathbf{l} to the curve satisfies the equation

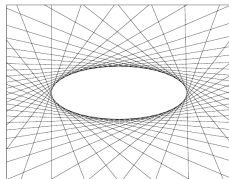
$$\mathbf{l} = \mathbf{C}\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \quad \text{da gelten muss} \quad \mathbf{l}^\top \bar{\mathbf{x}} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}^\top \mathbf{C}\bar{\mathbf{x}} = 0.$$

Thus a plane curve is given by 5 points as well as by 5 straight lines:

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}}^\top \mathbf{C}\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \underbrace{(\mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{l})^\top}_{\bar{\mathbf{x}}^\top} \underbrace{\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{l})}_{\bar{\mathbf{x}}} = \mathbf{l}^\top \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{l}, \quad \text{da} \quad \mathbf{C}^{-\top} = \mathbf{C}^{-1}.$$

Point-line duality of the conic section:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\mathbf{x}}^\top \mathbf{C}\bar{\mathbf{x}} &= 0, \\ \mathbf{l}^\top \mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{l} &= 0. \end{aligned}$$



3D positions & directions

3D positions in homogeneous coordinates:

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ X_3 \\ X_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_4 X \\ X_4 Y \\ X_4 Z \\ X_4 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^4, \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1/X_4 \\ X_2/X_4 \\ X_3/X_4 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3.$$

3D direction vectors in homogeneous coordinates $X_4 = 1$:

$$\bar{\mathbf{v}} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}_p - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_q = \begin{bmatrix} X_p - X_q \\ Y_p - Y_q \\ Z_p - Z_q \\ 1 - 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \\ v_z \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^4.$$

Scene Representation

3D line & plane

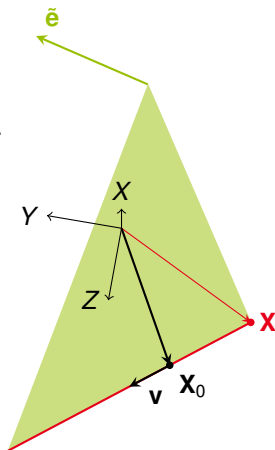
A line in homogeneous coordinates:

$$\bar{\mathbf{X}} = \bar{\mathbf{X}}_0 + \mu \bar{\mathbf{v}} = \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X_0 \\ Y_0 \\ Z_0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \mu \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \\ v_z \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mu \in \mathbb{R}.$$

A plane in homogeneous coordinates:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathbf{e}}^T (\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}_0) &= 0 = \tilde{e}_1 X + \tilde{e}_2 Y + \tilde{e}_3 Z - \underbrace{\tilde{\mathbf{e}}^T \mathbf{X}_0}_{e_4} \\ \mathbf{e}^T \bar{\mathbf{X}} &= 0 = e_1 X + e_2 Y + e_3 Z + e_4. \end{aligned}$$

A 3D plane has 4 parameters but 3 degrees of freedom.



3D points & plane

3D points and 3D planes are dual:

$$\mathbf{e}^\top \bar{\mathbf{X}} = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{\mathbf{X}}^\top \mathbf{e} = 0.$$

Three points $\bar{\mathbf{X}}_i, i = 1 \dots 3$ define a plane:

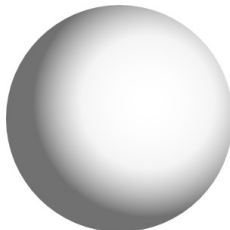
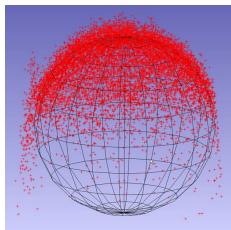
$$\begin{bmatrix} \bar{\mathbf{X}}_1^\top \\ \bar{\mathbf{X}}_2^\top \\ \bar{\mathbf{X}}_3^\top \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{0}.$$

The intersection of three planes $\mathbf{e}_i, i = 1 \dots 3$ defines a point:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_1^\top \\ \mathbf{e}_2^\top \\ \mathbf{e}_3^\top \end{bmatrix} \bar{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{0}.$$

Scene Representation

Application - 3D Reconstruction

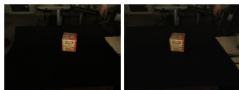


Two possible solutions:

- ▶ Fitting the model into a measured point cloud via adjustment theory. (e.g. method of least squares or RANSAC)
- ▶ Simultaneous estimation of the point cloud and the model parameters.

Scene Representation

Application - 3D Reconstruction



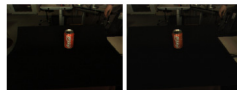
	Top Face	Front Face
α_x	$+48.48^\circ$	-36.92°
α_y	$+8.44^\circ$	$+15.11^\circ$
z_a	496.52mm	498.76mm

(a) Box



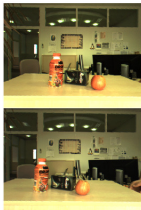
	Ground Truth	Estimated
r	49.30mm	53.98mm
z_a	~ 525 mm	542.19mm

(b) Ball

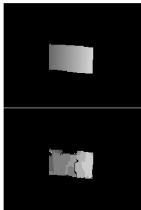


	Ground Truth	Estimated
r	35.00mm	35.40mm
z_a	~ 540 mm	542.84mm
α_x	—	-23.64°
α_z	—	$+0.30^\circ$

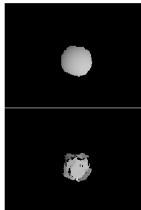
(c) Can



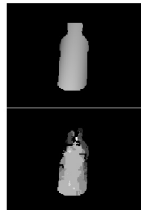
(a) Office scene



(b) Box disparity



(c) Apple disparity



(d) Bottle disparity

Quelle: Direct Surface
 Fitting, VISAPP 2010.