

Accidental pinhole and pinspeck cameras: revealing the scene outside the picture

Antonio Torralba, William T. Freeman
Computer Science and Artificial Intelligence Laboratory (CSAIL)
MIT
`torralba@mit.edu, billf@mit.edu`

Abstract

We identify and study two types of “accidental” images that can be formed in scenes. The first is an accidental pinhole camera image. These images are often mistaken for shadows, but can reveal structures outside a room, or the unseen shape of the light aperture into the room. The second class of accidental images are “inverse” pinhole camera images, formed by subtracting an image with a small occluder present from a reference image without the occluder. The reference image can be an earlier frame of a video sequence. Both types of accidental images happen in a variety of different situations (an indoor scene illuminated by natural light, a street with a person walking under the shadow of a building, etc.). Accidental cameras can reveal information about the scene outside the image, the lighting conditions, or the aperture by which light enters the scene.

1. Introduction

Researchers in computer vision have explored numerous ways to form images, including novel lenses, mirrors, coded apertures, and light sources (e.g. [1, 2, 7, 10]). The novel cameras are, by necessity, carefully designed to control the light transport such that images can be viewed from the data recorded by the sensors. In this paper, we point out that in scenes, *accidental* images can also form, and can be revealed within still images or extracted from a video sequence using simple processing, corresponding to accidental real and “inverse” pinhole camera images, respectively. These images are typically of poorer quality than images formed by intentional cameras, but they are present in many scenes illuminated by indirect light and often occur without us noticing them.

A child might ask: why we don’t see an image of the world around us when we view a blank surface? In a sense we do: light rays yielding images of the world do land on surfaces and then reflect back to our eye. But there are too many of them and they all wash out to the ambient illumination we observe in a room or outdoors. Of course, if

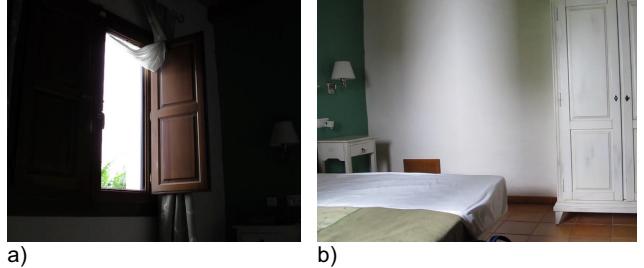


Figure 1. a) Light enters the room via an open window. b) On the wall opposite the window, we can see a projected pattern of light and shadow. But, are the dark regions shadows? See Fig. 2

one restricts the set of light rays falling on a surface, we can reveal some particular one of the images. This is what a pinhole camera does. Only a restricted set of rays falls on the sensor, and we can observe an image if we look at a surface with light from only a pinhole falling on it. A second way to view an image when looking at a surface is to restrict the reflected rays from the surface by looking at a mirror surface. All rays impinge on the surface, but only those from a particular direction reflect properly into our eye and so we again see an image when viewing a surface.

There are many ways in which pictures are formed around us. The most efficient mechanisms are to use lenses or narrow apertures to focus light into a picture of what is in front. So a set of occluders (to form a pinhole camera) or a mirror surface (to capture only a subset of the reflected rays) will let us see an image as we view a surface. For those cases, an image is formed by intentionally building a particular arrangement of surfaces that will result in a camera.

However, similar arrangements appear naturally by accidental arrangements of surfaces in many places. Often the observer is not aware of the images produced by those accidental cameras. Fig. 1.b shows one example of a picture in which one can see a pattern of shadows and reflections projected on the walls of different scenes. Indeed, at first, one could miss-interpret some of the dark patterns on the

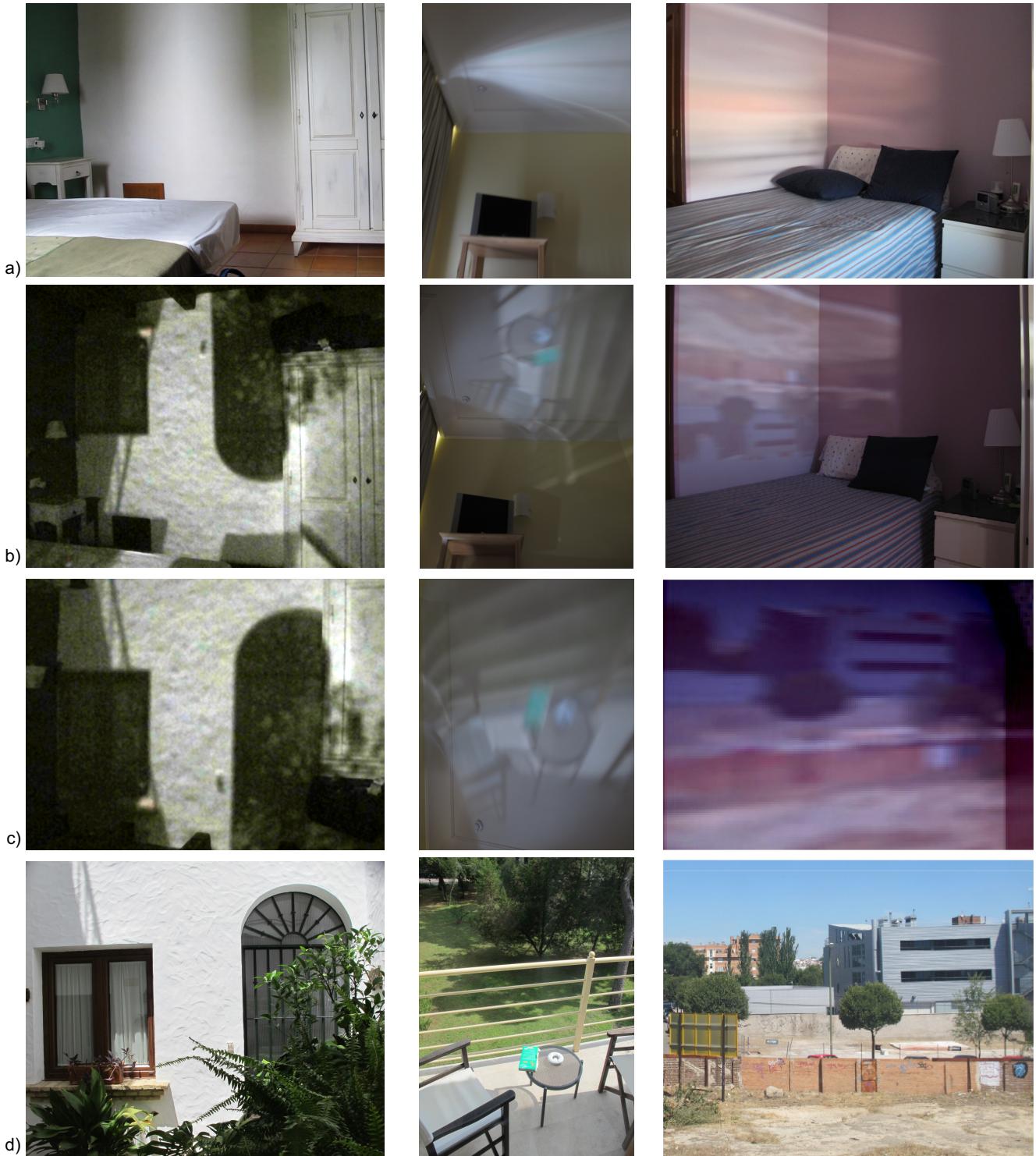


Figure 2. The top row (a) shows three different rooms illuminated by exterior light, creating shading patterns within the room. Some of these patterns may look like shadows. The images in (b), from the same viewpoints as (a), show the effect of closing the windows, leaving only a small aperture, turning the room in a camera obscura. (c) shows those images upside-down, to better reveal the formed image. (d) shows the view from the window to the outside. The shadows on (a) are in fact blurred images, not shadows. The room created an accidental camera obscura.

wall of Fig. 1.b as shadows. But after close inspection, it is hard to understand which objects could be casting those shadows on the wall.

One way to reveal the origin of light patterns that appear in the room is to block the window to only allow light to enter only via a narrow aperture, thus transforming the room into a camera obscura. Figure 2.a shows three scenes with complex patterns of lights appearing on the walls and ceiling. By transforming each room into a camera obscura, the images appear in focus, revealing the origin of what could be perceived at first as shadows (Fig. 2.b). Fig. 2.c shows the images re-oriented to allow a better interpretation of the projected image and Fig. 2.d shows pictures of what is outside of the window in each case.

Now we can see that the light patterns shown on Fig. 2.a were not shadows but very blurry upside-down images of the scene outside each room. Interpreting as images the light projected by an accidental pinhole into a wall with an arbitrary geometry is not intuitive, especially when the camera obscura is created by some accidental arrangement. This, together with blurring from the window aperture, leads to most such images being interpreted as shadows.

One can bring the accidental images into focus by narrowing the aperture. However, there is a second way to reveal the accidental images, described below. This second approach relaxes the constraint to have a physical pinhole aperture, but relies on multiple images and computation.

Accidental images formed by specular reflections from the eye have been studied in [11]. A Bayesian analysis of diffuse reflections over many different times has been used for imaging in astronomy applications [5].

2. Pinhole and pinspeck cameras

2.1. Pinhole camera

Let us first review the formulation of the pinhole camera and the description of the image that gets formed. For a more complete analysis we refer to [14]. If $S(x)$ is the image formed by a pinhole camera, then, if we change the shape of the pinhole to have a function $T(x)$, where $T(x) = 0$ means that light does not go through and $T(x) = 1$ means all light passes through point x , we have $I(x) = T(x) * S(x)$.

To illustrate the image formation process with a room-size example, consider the room shown in Fig. 3.a. Fig. 1.a shows the layout of the room that we use as a running example in this paper. In this scene, the light illuminating the room enters via a partially open window. In this particular setup, the room will act as a camera obscura with the window acting as the function $T(x)$. Fig. 3 shows two views of the same room under different outdoor illuminations (night time and daylight). At night, illumination sources produce an $S(x)$ image that could be represented as a few delta func-



Figure 3. Examples of convolutions by the aperture function. (a) Lighting within room shown together with the window opening. (b) Lighting from a night scene, and (c) the view out the window at night, showing the multiple point sources. The point sources reveal in (b) the rectangular convolution kernel of the window aperture. (d) Daytime view within the room, and (e) the view out the window, which, convolved with the window aperture, yields the projected patterns in (d).

tions representing the point light sources. Therefore, the image $I(x)$ looks like a few superimposed copies of the window shape (and the coloring indicates which light source is responsible of each copy). Under daylight, most of the illumination is diffuse, and the image $I(x)$ is the convolution of the outdoor scene with the window shape, giving a very blurry image of what is outside. We will show later how this simple model can be used to infer the shape of the window when the window is not visible in the picture. A pinhole camera is obtained when the aperture $T(x)$ is sufficiently small as to generate a sharp image $I(x)$.

2.2. Pinspeck camera

As discussed before, in order to get a sharp image, we need to make a small aperture $T(x)$. This is unlikely to happen accidentally. However, another way in which rays of light that hit a surface are restricted is when there is an occluder present in the scene. An occluder blocks certain of the light rays, producing a diffuse shadow. In the cast shadow, there is more than just the silhouette of the oc-

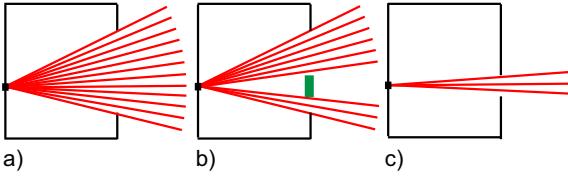


Figure 4. In this analysis we will only consider direct light rays without bounces. a) Room with a big aperture (too large to produce a sharp image), b) aperture with an occluder c) difference between the two light fields, revealing just the light rays striking the small occluder.

cluter, there is also the negative image of the scene in front of the occluder. The occluder produces an *anti-pinhole* or *pinspeck* camera. Pinspeck cameras were previously proposed by Adam L. Cohen [3].

Fig. 4 shows how an occluder produces light rays complementary to that of a small aperture with the size of the occluder. Fig. 4.a shows the rays inside a room that enter via a window. The figure shows all the light rays that hit a point inside the room (in this drawing we assume that there are not light bounces and that all the light comes from the outside). Fig. 4.b shows the light rays when there is an occluder placed near the window. The difference between the two light fields is illustrated in Fig. 4.c. This is:

$$I_{\text{window}}(x) - I_{\text{occluded window}}(x) = T_{\text{hole}}(x) * S(x)$$

Fig. 5 shows the illumination in a room coming via window when the occluder (here, a person) is absent (a) and present (b). There is a very small difference between images (c) and (d), but that difference carries information about the scene that can be seen through the window. Note that the image projected by the window with the occluder is not the negative image of the pinhole. In order to recover the image that would have been produced by a pinhole with the shape of the occluder we need to subtract two images—the image without the occluder from the image with it.

Fig. 6.a shows the difference image obtained by subtracting Fig. 5.c from Fig. 5.d. In the difference image we can see an increased noise level because we are subtracting two very similar images. But we can also appreciate that a pattern, hidden in the images from Fig. 5, is revealed. This pattern is a picture of what is outside the room as it would had been obtained by the light entering the room by an aperture of the size of the occluder. By making the occluder smaller we can get a sharper image, but at a cost of increased noise. Fig. 7 shows a second example in a different room.

2.3. Limitations

The inverse pinhole has two limitations over traditional pinhole cameras. The first is that it requires at least two images or a video from which we can extract a reference



Figure 5. a) Window, b) and window with an occluder, and the view of the wall opposite to the window when no occluder is present (c) and with the occluder present, (d).

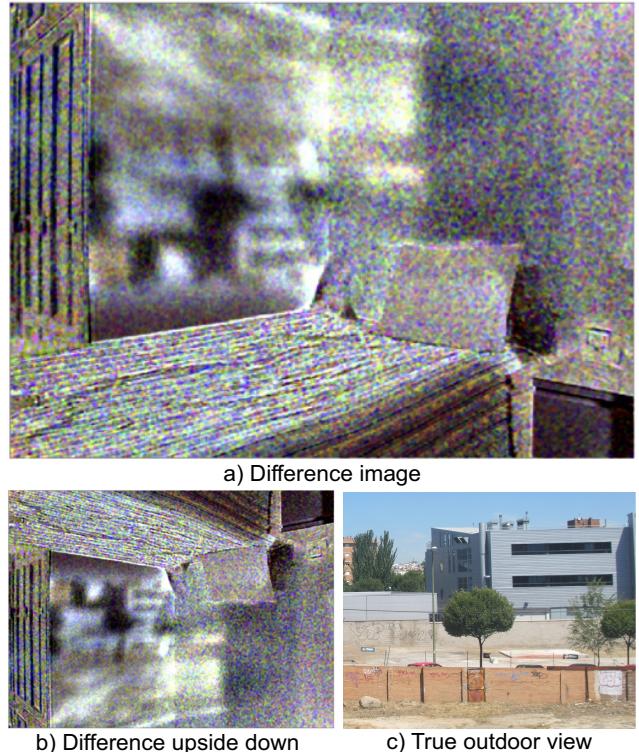


Figure 6. a) Difference image (Fig. 5.c minus Fig. 5.d). b) Difference upside-down. c) True outside scene.

background. The second limitation relates to signal to noise ratio. If the picture had no noise and unlimited precision, it would be possible to extract a perfect sharp image from the inverse pinhole. In general, to improve the signal to noise

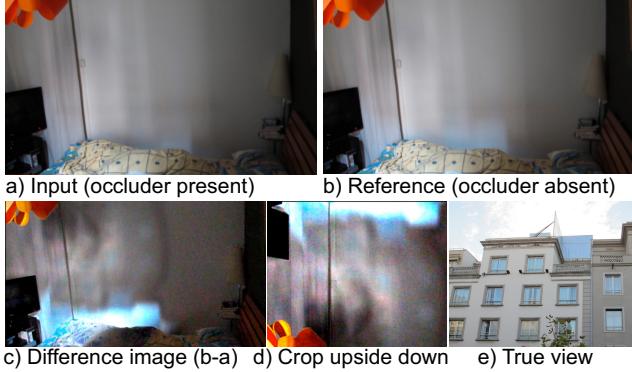


Figure 7. A second example of finding a picture of what is outside a room (d) from two pictures (a) and (b). The true view (e) is shown for comparison with the recovered image (d).

ratio, traditional pinhole cameras require increasing the sensitivity of the light sensor or using long exposures in order to capture enough light. In inverse pinhole cameras the signal to noise ratio increases when the background illumination increases with respect to the amount of light blocked by the occluder. In the case of video, temporal integration can improve the signal to noise ratio.

While there are many causes of noise in images [8], if we assume just Poisson noise, proportional to the square root of the light intensity, we can calculate the SNR of the computed image, limited by the discrete nature of light. Let A be the area of an aperture, $A = \int T(x)dx$. The SNR of the unoccluded photo will be proportional to $\sqrt{A_{window}}$. The signal of the difference image is proportional to $A_{occluder}$, while its noise is proportional to $\sqrt{A_{window}}$, giving an SNR of $\frac{A_{occluder}}{\sqrt{A_{window}}}$. Thus the SNR of the accidental image is reduced from that of the original image by a factor of $\frac{A_{occluder}}{\sqrt{A_{window}}}$. Specifics of the sensor noise will reduce the SNR further from that fundamental limit. Therefore, this method will work best when the light entering the room comes from a small window or a partially closed window. In such a case, the ratio between the image without the occluder and the difference image will have similar intensity magnitudes.

Despite these limitations, pinspeck cameras [3] might be used to reveal information about the scene surrounding a picture not available by other means. We will discuss applications in section 3.

2.4. Calibration

The main source of distortion comes from the relative orientation between the camera and the surface (or surfaces) in which the image gets projected. Fig. 8 shows how the wall from Fig. 3.a is corrected by finding the homography between the wall and the camera. This can be done by using single view metrology [4]. This correction is important in order to use the images to infer the window shape, in sec-

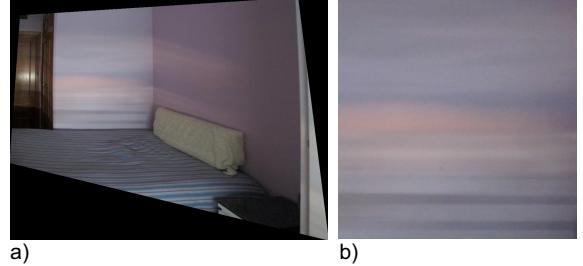


Figure 8. a) Rectified image, and b) crop and rectified wall.



Figure 9. top row) Input sequence (a person walks inside a room moving toward and from a window not visible in the movie), bottom row) difference between reference image (first frame of the video) and each frame. The difference creates an approximation to a camera obscura with an aperture that moves as the occluder moves inside the room (see companion video).

tion 3.3.

We have the additional difficulty of finding the reference image (the image without the occluder). If the input consists on a video, one way of deciding which frame can be used as reference is to select the frame with highest intensity (as the occluder will reduce the amount of light entering into the scene). Another possibility is to use multiple frames as reference and select the one providing more visually interpretable results.

3. Applications of the inverse pinhole camera

Inverse pinhole cameras occur accidentally in certain situations. By studying these accidental arrangements, we can find images not directly available on the original picture. In this section we will discuss three applications.

3.1. Seeing what is outside the room

Paraphrasing Abelardo Morell [9], "a camera obscura has been used ... to bring images from the outside into a darkened room". As shown in section 2.2, in certain conditions, we can use the diffuse shadows produced by occluders near a window to extract a picture of what is outside of the room. Fig. 9 shows the result of using a video of a room in which a person is walking around. The window is not visible in the video and the person appears in view only occasionally. But as the person walks around the room, he sometimes approaches the window, producing a change

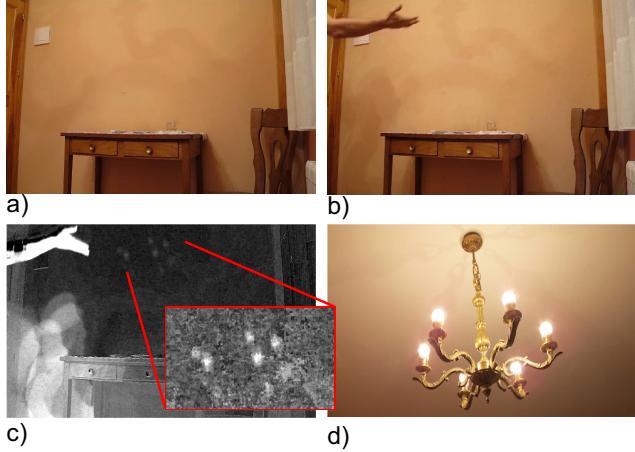


Figure 10. a) Reference image, and b) image with an occluder producing a faint shadow on the wall. There are two main occluders: a hand and a ball. The ball is already outside of the frame of the picture. c) Difference image. The shadow reveals a person throwing a ball. The ball acts as a pinhole camera and produces a clearer picture of the light sources. d) Picture of the lamp illuminating the scene (ground truth).

in the illumination that can be used to visualize the outdoor scene. This could be used to locate where the video was recorded, or to model the illumination. To process the video from Fig. 9, the first step is to identify the reference image. In this case, the reference image is selected as being the beginning of the video as it corresponds to the moment in which the user starts recording and is away from the window. The reference image is obtained by averaging the first 50 frames of the video to reduce noise. To select the reference image (corresponding to the moment in which the window is unoccluded) we can also select the frames with the highest intensity, or the frame that when subtracted from the others produces the smallest number of negative values.

Fig. 9.a shows the input video (see supplementary materials for the full video) and Fig. 9.b shows the difference between the background image and the input video. The first frame is only noise, but as the person moves we can see how the wall reveals a picture. As the person moves, the occluder produces a pinhole camera with the pinhole in different locations. This produces a translation on the picture that appears on the wall. These translated copies of the image contain disparity information and could be used to recover the 3D structure if the noise is low enough.

3.2. Seeing light sources

In indoor settings, most of the illumination is dominated by direct lighting. Due to the large ratio between direct and indirect illumination when there are direct light sources, shadows can only be used to recover the light sources. If the signal to noise ratio were sufficiently large, it could be pos-

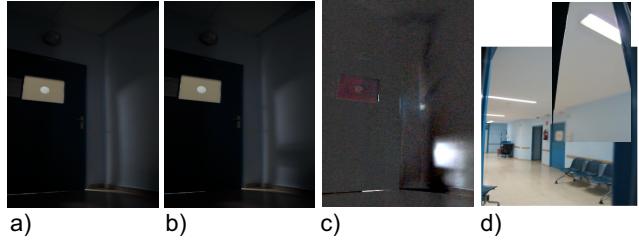


Figure 11. a) Reference image, and b) image with an occluder producing a faint shadow on the wall. The occluder is produced by the hand of a person that is about to open the door to enter the room. c) Difference image. d) Picture of the light sources in the corridor, showing the lights revealed in (c).

sible to get a picture of the rest of the scene. Figures 10 and 11 show two examples. In Fig. 10 a ball produces a shadow that can be used to extract a picture of the lamp in the ceiling. In Fig. 11, a person is entering a room. Their holding the door handle produces a shadow inside the room that can be used to recover the light sources in the corridor outside the room.

3.3. Seeing the shape of the window

Fig. 12 shows a series of pictures taken in two different rooms with windows closed by different amounts and with different shapes. As the window closes, the pattern of illumination inside the room changes. Note that when there is diffuse illumination coming from the outside, the window shape is not clearly visible on the wall. This is clearly illustrated on Fig. 3. Fig. 3 shows that when there are point light sources outside, the window shape appears clearly projected onto the wall. However, with more general outdoor scenes, the window shape is not visible directly. However the window shape has a strong influence on the blur and gradient statistics of the pattern projected onto the wall.

As discussed in section 2.1, the pattern of intensities on the wall corresponds to a convolution between the window shape and the sharp image that would be generated if the window was a perfect pinhole. Therefore, the shape of the window modifies the statistics of the intensities seeing on the wall just as a blur kernel changes the statistics of a sharp image. This motivates using algorithms from image deblurring to infer the shape of the window. The shape of the window can be estimated similarly to how the blur kernel produced due to motion blur is identified in the image deblurring problem [6].

Fig. 12 shows the estimated window shapes using the algorithm from [6]. The input to the algorithm are the images from Fig. 12.b and e and the output are the window shapes shown in Fig. 12.c and f. The method shows how the kernel gets narrower as the window is closed and it also correctly finds the orientation of the window. It fails only

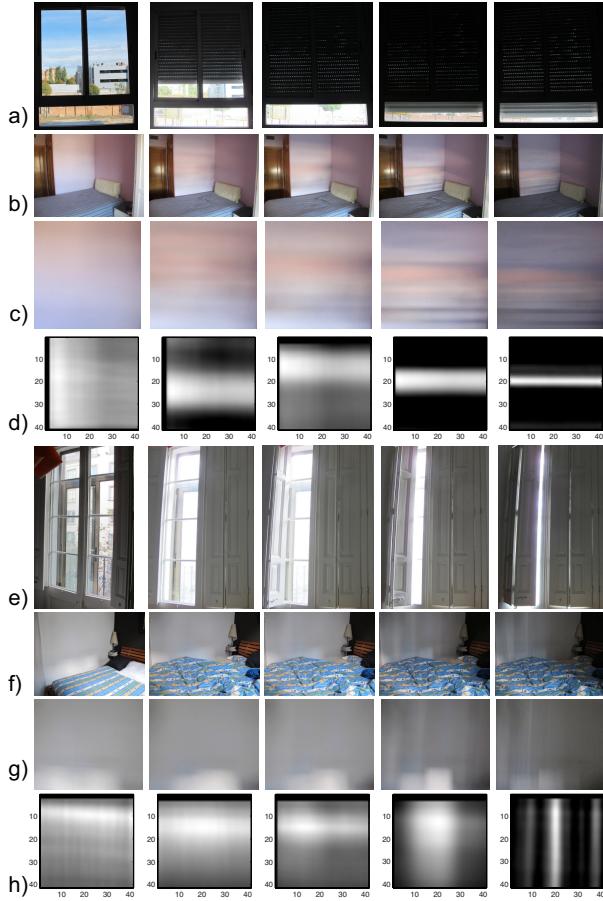


Figure 12. a,e) Window (ground truth), b,f) picture of the room, c,g) warped and cropped wall region (input to the estimation), and d,h) estimated window shape (the estimated shape is quite robust to the size of the estimated kernel size). Note that the kernel estimation algorithm infers the qualitative size and shape of the window apertures in most cases.

when the window is very open as the pattern of intensities is too blurry, providing very little information.

Finding the light sources, window shape and the scene outside a picture could be used in computer graphics to provide a better model of the light rays in the scene to render synthetic objects that will be inserted inside the picture.

3.4. Seeing the illumination map in an outdoor scene

Accidental cameras happen also in outdoor environments. For instance, let's consider a movie with a person walking in the street. When the person is walking under direct illumination from the sun, the person casts a well defined shadow which is a negative picture of the sun distorted by the shape of the person. When the person walks into a shadowed region by a building, the shadow seems to disappear (Fig. 13.a). However, a faint shadow is still present as the person will block some of the light rays. The shadow

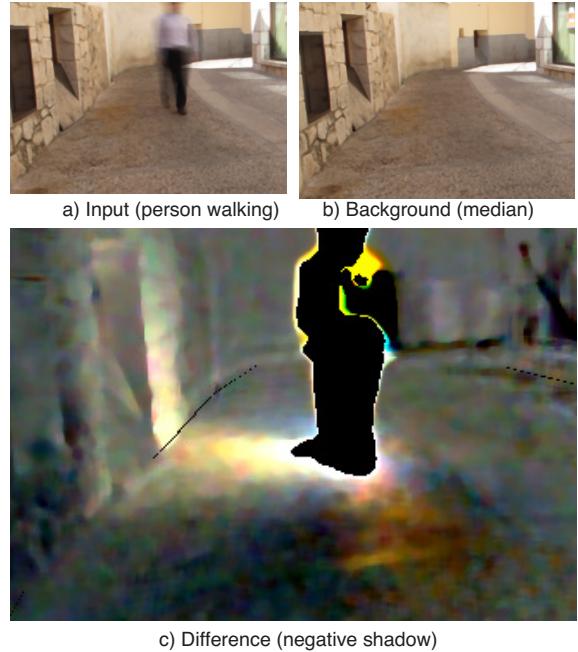


Figure 13. A person walking in the street projects a complex shadow containing information about the full illumination map outside the picture frame.

will not be a sharp shadow on one side of the person, instead the shadow will be all around the person on the floor and on the building facades near the person. This is illustrated in Fig. 13 which shows one frame of a sequence with a person walking. Fig. 13.b shows the background image (computed as the median of all the frames in the video), and Fig. 13.c shows the difference (b)-(a), which is the negative of the shadow.

If we knew the 3D geometry of the scene and the location of the occluder, then we could infer where the light rays that contribute to the shadow come from and we could reconstruct the scene around the person and outside of the picture frame. In order to recover the 3D geometry we use single view metrology. We use LabelMe 3D which allows recovering metric 3D from object annotations [13]. This is shown in Fig. 14.a. Fig. 14.b shows the panoramic image reconstructed only from the information directly available from the input Fig. 14.a. In black are shown the pixels not directly visible in the input picture. Fig. 14.c shows the recovered panorama using the shadow of the person and Fig. 14.d shows a crop of the panorama corresponding to the central region. The yellow region visible in Fig. 13.c is in fact a building with a yellow facade as shown in the ground truth picture Fig. 14.e which shows the full scene. Note that the shadow projected on the wall on the left side of the picture provides information about the right side of the scene not visible inside the picture.

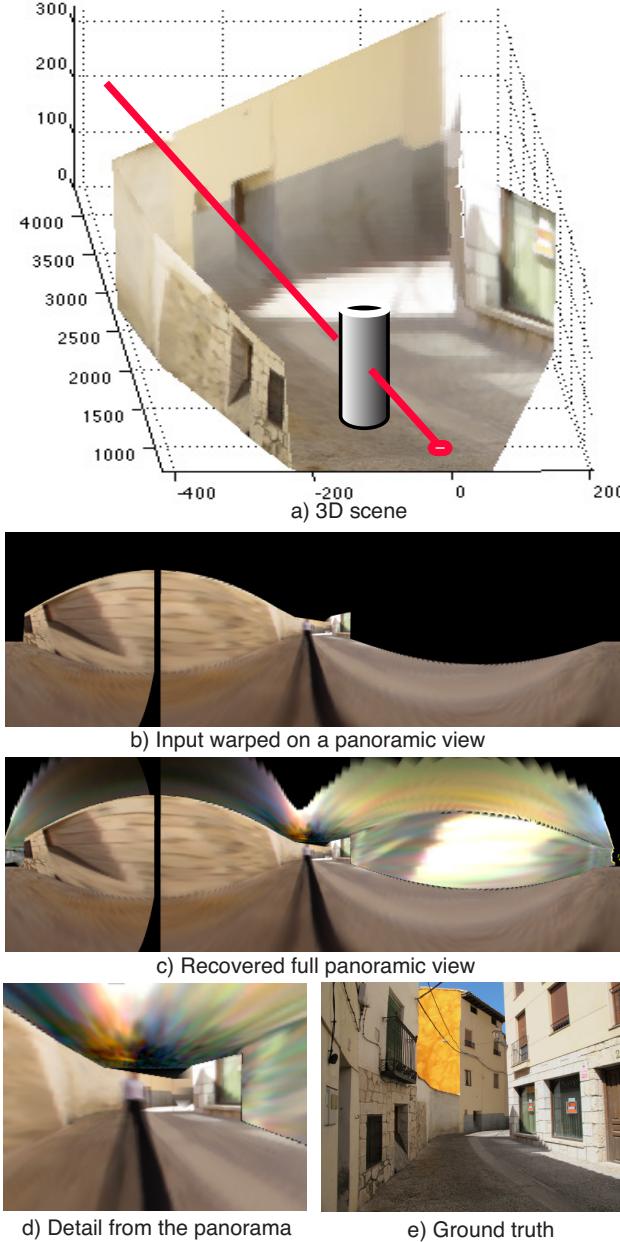


Figure 14. This figure illustrates how to use the shadow projected by a person (from Fig. 13) to recover a panoramic view of the scene outside the picture frame.

4. Conclusion

We have described and shown “accidental” images that are sometimes found in scenes. These images can either be direct, or processed from several images to exploit “inverse pinholes”. These images (a) explain illumination variations that would otherwise be incorrectly attributed to shadows, can reveal (b) the lighting conditions outside the interior scene, or (c) the view outside a room, or (d) the shape of

the light aperture into the room, and (e) the illumination map in an outdoor scene. While these are inherently low signal-to-noise images, or are blurry, understanding them is required for a complete understanding of the photometry of many images. Accidental images can reveal parts of the scene that were not inside the photograph or video and can have applications in forensics [12].

Acknowledgments

Funding for this work was provided by NSF Career award 0747120 to A.T., and NSF CGV 1111415 and NSF CGV 0964004 to W.T.F.

References

- [1] E. H. Adelson and J. Y. Wang. Single lens stereo with a plenoptic camera. *IEEE Trans. on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 14(2):99–106, 1992. 1
- [2] S. Baker and S. Nayar. A theory of single-viewpoint catadioptric image formation. *International Journal on Computer Vision*, 35(2):175–196, 1999. 1
- [3] A. L. Cohen. Anti-pinhole imaging. *Optical Acta*, 29(1):63–67, 1982. 4, 5
- [4] A. Criminisi, I. Reid, and A. Zisserman. Single view metrolology. *International Journal on Computer Vision*, 40(2):123–148, 2000. 5
- [5] S. W. Hasinoff, A. Levin, P. R. Goode, and W. T. Freeman. Diffuse reflectance imaging with astronomical applications. In *IEEE International Conf. on Computer Vision*, 2011. 3
- [6] D. Krishnan, T. Tay, and R. Fergus. Blind deconvolution using a normalized sparsity measure. volume IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, 2011. 6
- [7] A. Levin, R. Fergus, F. Durand, and W. T. Freeman. Image and depth from a conventional camera with a coded aperture. *ACM Trans. On Graphics (Proc. SIGGRAPH 2007)*, 2007. 1
- [8] C. Liu, R. Szeliski, S. B. Kang, C. L. Zitnick, and W. T. Freeman. Automatic estimation and removal of noise from a single image. *IEEE Trans. on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 30(2):299–314, 2008. 5
- [9] A. Morell. A camera in a room, 1995. 5
- [10] S. Nayar, G. Krishnan, M. Grossberg, and R. Raskar. Fast separation of direct and global components of a scene using high frequency illumination. *ACM Trans. On Graphics (Proc. SIGGRAPH 2006)*, 2006. 1
- [11] K. Nishino and S. K. Nayar. Corneal Imaging System: Environment from Eyes. *International Journal on Computer Vision*, Oct 2006. 3
- [12] J. O’Brien and H. Farid. Exposing photo manipulation with inconsistent reflections. *ACM Transactions on Graphics*, 31(1):4:1–11, 2012. 8
- [13] B. C. Russell and A. Torralba. Building a database of 3d scenes from user annotations. In *IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 2711–2718, 2009. 7
- [14] A. Zomet and S. K. Nayar. Lensless Imaging with a Controllable Aperture. In *IEEE Conf. on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, Jun 2006. 3