



Computer Vision

04 – Image formation, part 3

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Quick recap of the previous week

- Perspective projection revisited
 - Nonlinearity, introduced because of " $1/z$ "
- Homogeneous coordinates
- Projective geometry revisited
- Camera model revisited
 - Camera calibration matrix, projection matrix
- Lens distortions
- For the past 2 weeks, we dealt with *geometry* of image formation

Quick recap of the previous week

Rotation, translation, projection, discretization

$$w \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{K}_{3 \times 3} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{3 \times 3} & \mathbf{0}_{3 \times 1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} {}^c X \\ {}^c Y \\ {}^c Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{K}_{3 \times 3} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{3 \times 3} & \mathbf{0}_{3 \times 1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}_{3 \times 3} & \mathbf{t}_{3 \times 1} \\ \mathbf{0}_{3 \times 1}^T & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{M}_{3 \times 4} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Internal (intrinsic)
parameters matrix

External (extrinsic)
parameters matrix

Also note that:

$$\mathbf{K}_{3 \times 3} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{3 \times 3} & \mathbf{0}_{3 \times 1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}_{3 \times 3} & \mathbf{t}_{3 \times 1} \\ \mathbf{0}_{3 \times 1}^T & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{K}_{3 \times 3} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}_{3 \times 3} & \mathbf{t}_{3 \times 1} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{M}_{3 \times 4}$$

Outline

- This week, we are dealing with photometric aspects of the image formation!
- Photometric lens equation
- A few facts about cameras and lenses
- Some lighting techniques

Light - scene - camera

How was this image obtained?

What does that tell us?

How well can we model image formation?



Image credit: Giles Tran

Photometric aspects of image formation

- Geometry of image formation
 - *Where* does the image p of the point P appear in the image?
 - 2 weeks of this behind you
- Photometry of image formation
 - Given the brightness of the point P , what will be the measured brightness of its image p ?
 - This is the subject of today's lecture!

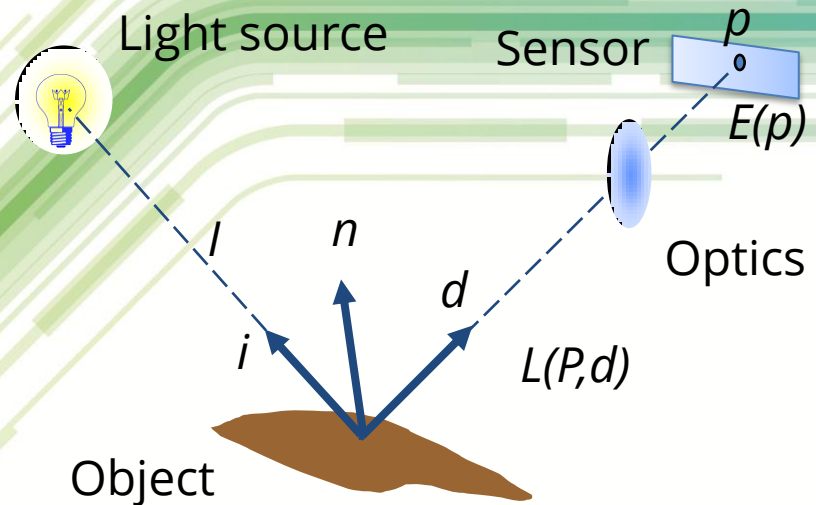
Photometric lens equation

- Image on the sensor is a consequence of:
 - Light source, emitting light
 - Object surface, reflecting light
- Let's assume grayscale sensor and image
 - For now, for the sake of simplicity
- Image pixel values are proportional
 - to the illuminance (E) of the sensor
 - caused by the luminance (L) of the scene surface.

(scene luminance) $L \rightarrow E$ (image illuminance)

Photometric lens equation

- We are studying the effect of reflected light from the scene surfaces on the image sensor (CCD, CMOS).
- Only a fraction of that light gets captured by the sensor!
- Lambertian model – each surface point P is equally bright from all directions (*Lambertian* surface)



L – radiance, luminance
 E – irradiance, illuminance
 I – intensity
 P – surface point (3D)
 p – image plane point
 n – surface normal
 i – incoming light direction
 d – outgoing light direction

Photometry refresher

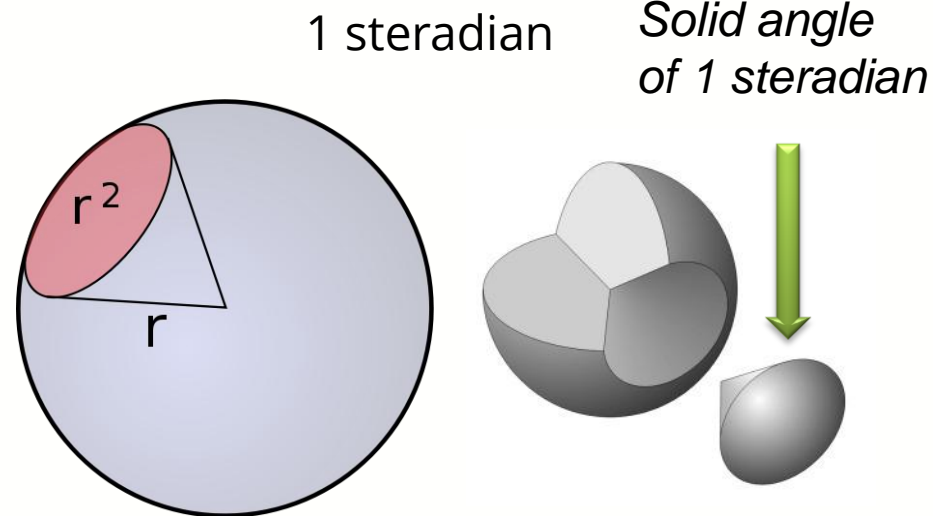
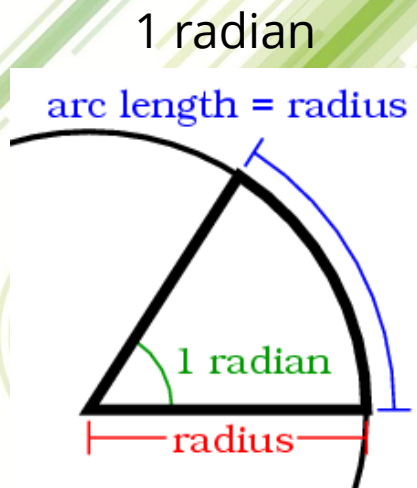
- Φ = radiometric/photometric flux:
 - Radiometric unit [W] (watt), photometric unit [lm] (lumen)
 - 1 W of monochromatic 555 nm light == 683 lm
- flux density
 - [W / m²], [lx = lm / m²] (lux)
- E = irradiance / illuminance
 - [W / m²], [lx = lm / m²]
- I = intensity
 - [W / sr], [cd = lm / sr] (candela)
- L = radiance/luminance
 - [W / sr / m²], [cd / m²]

sr
(steradian)

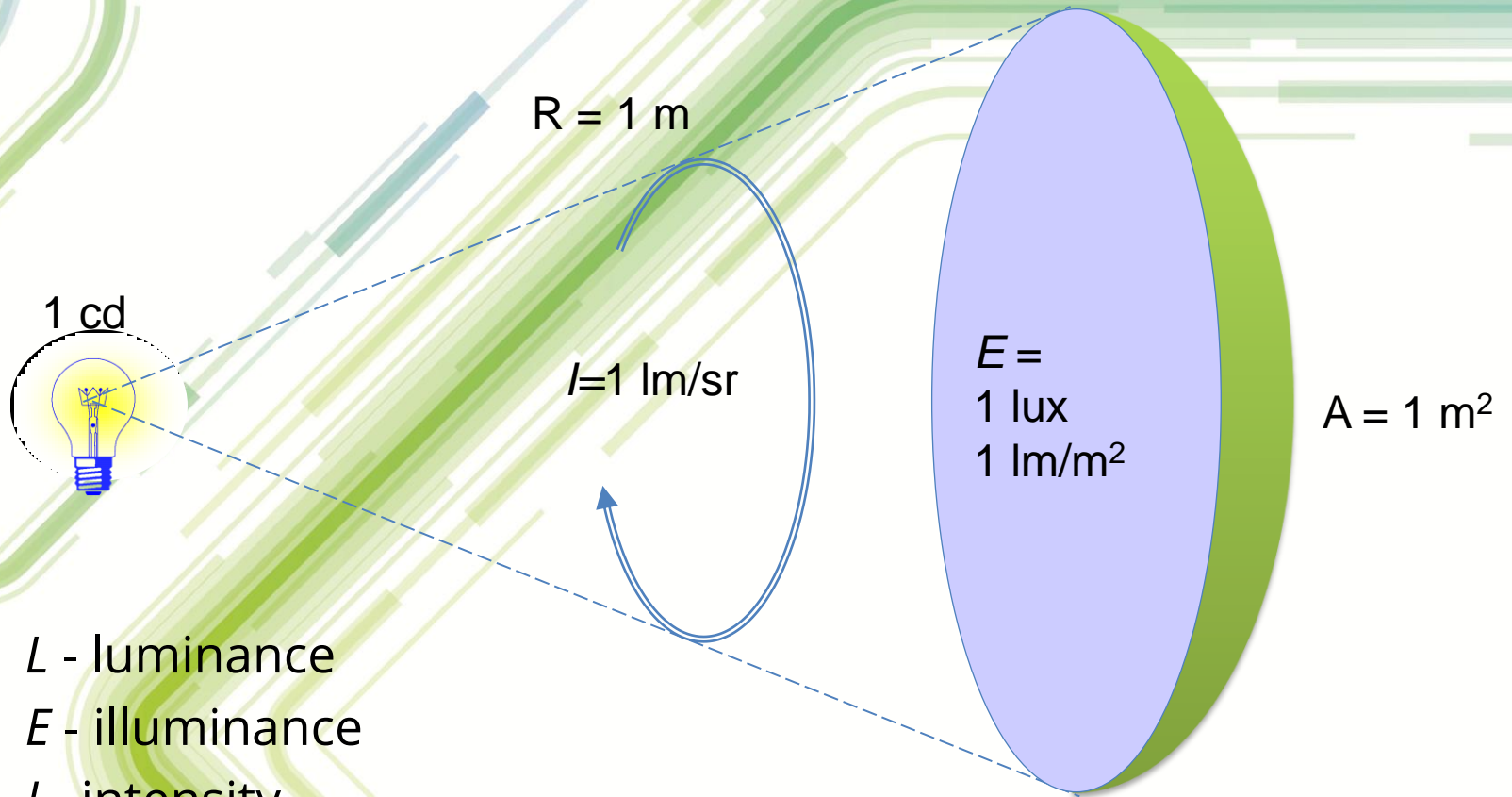
Unit of *solid*
angle!

Solid angle [sr]

- 2D geometry – planar (1D) angles in radians
 - 1 radian = angle where length of the arc is equal to the radius
- 3D geometry – solid (2D) angles in steradians
 - 1 steradian = 2D angle where surface area equals r^2

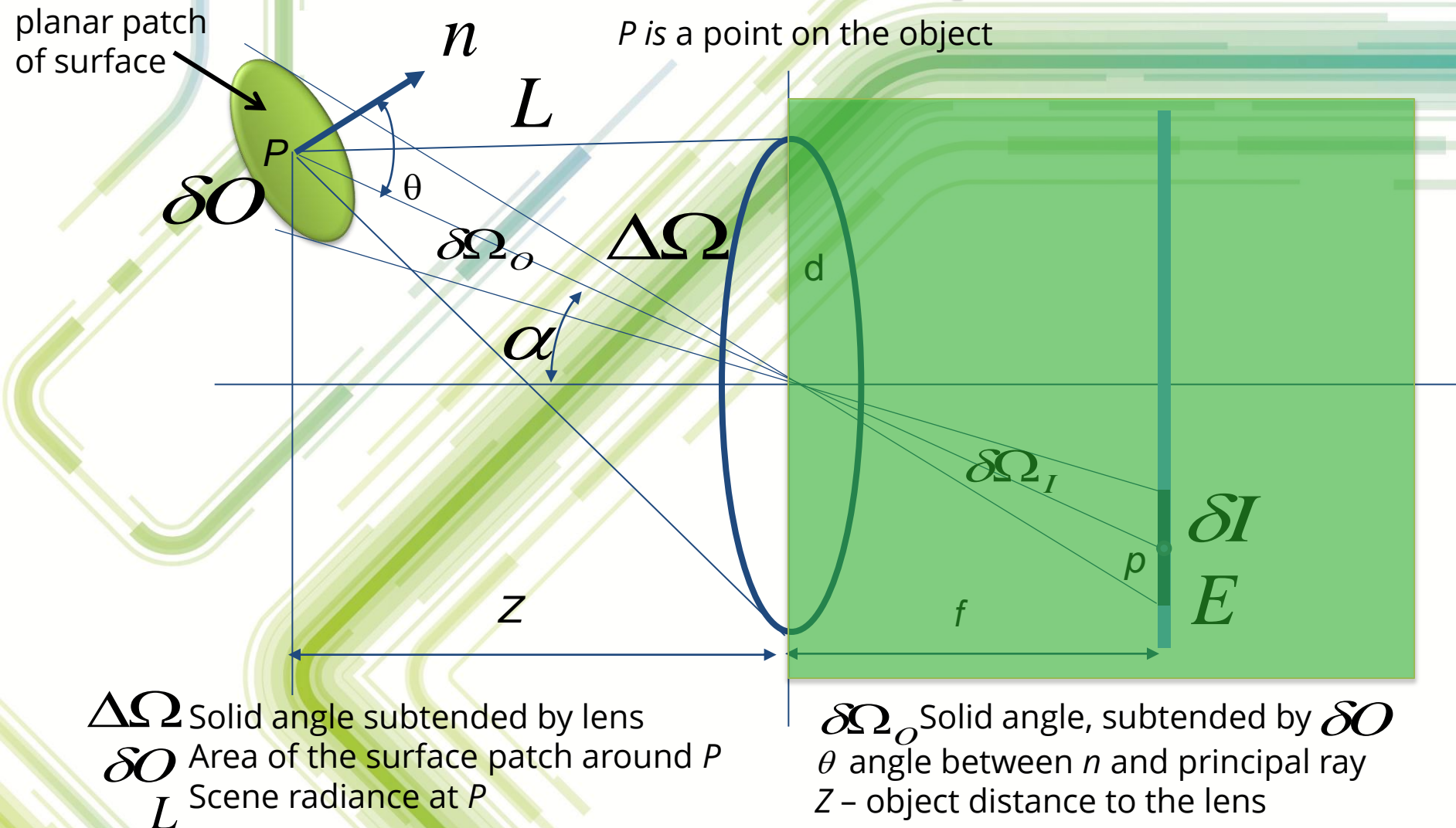


Measuring light

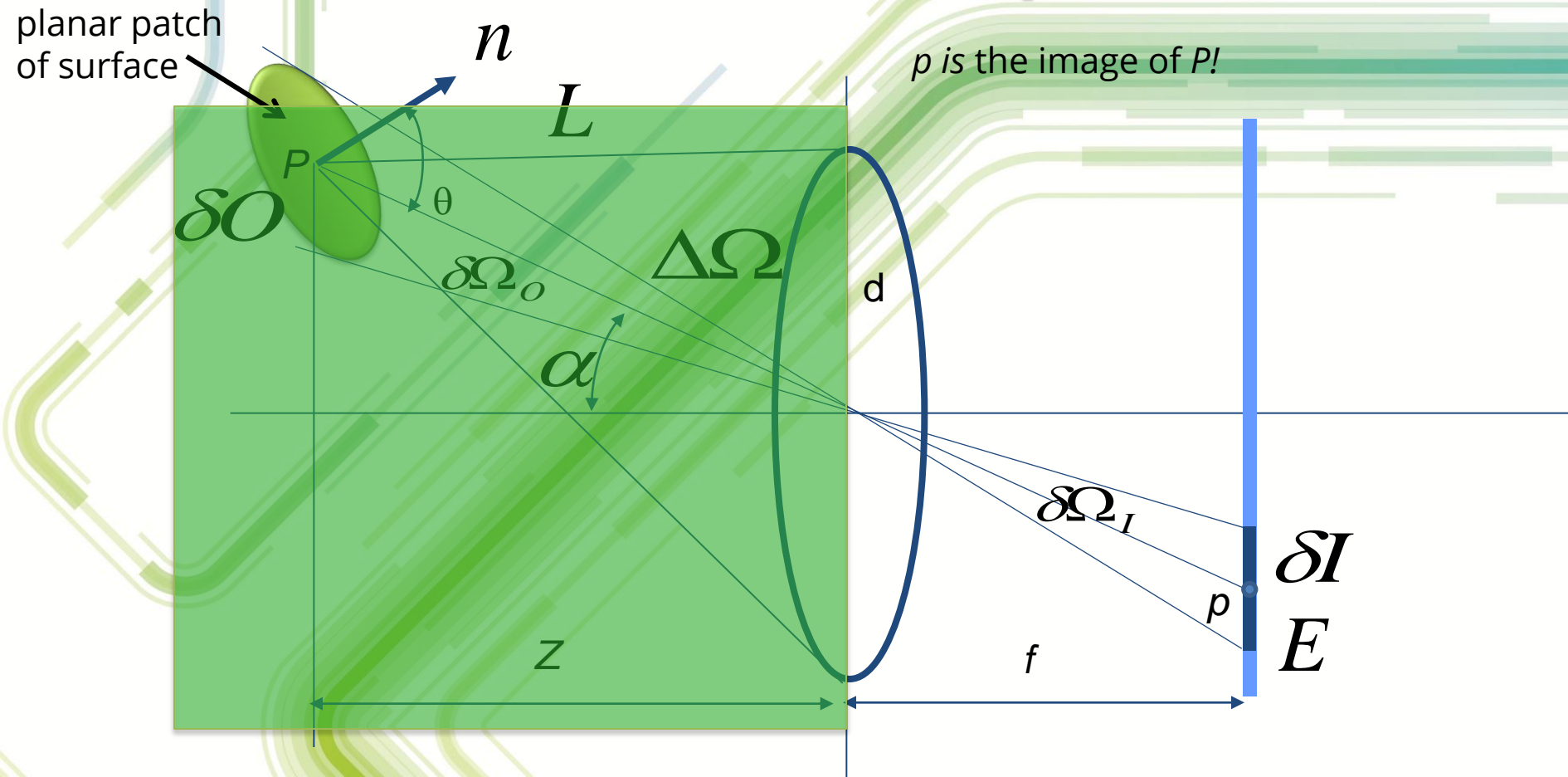


- L - luminance
- E - illuminance
- I - intensity

Photometric lens equation



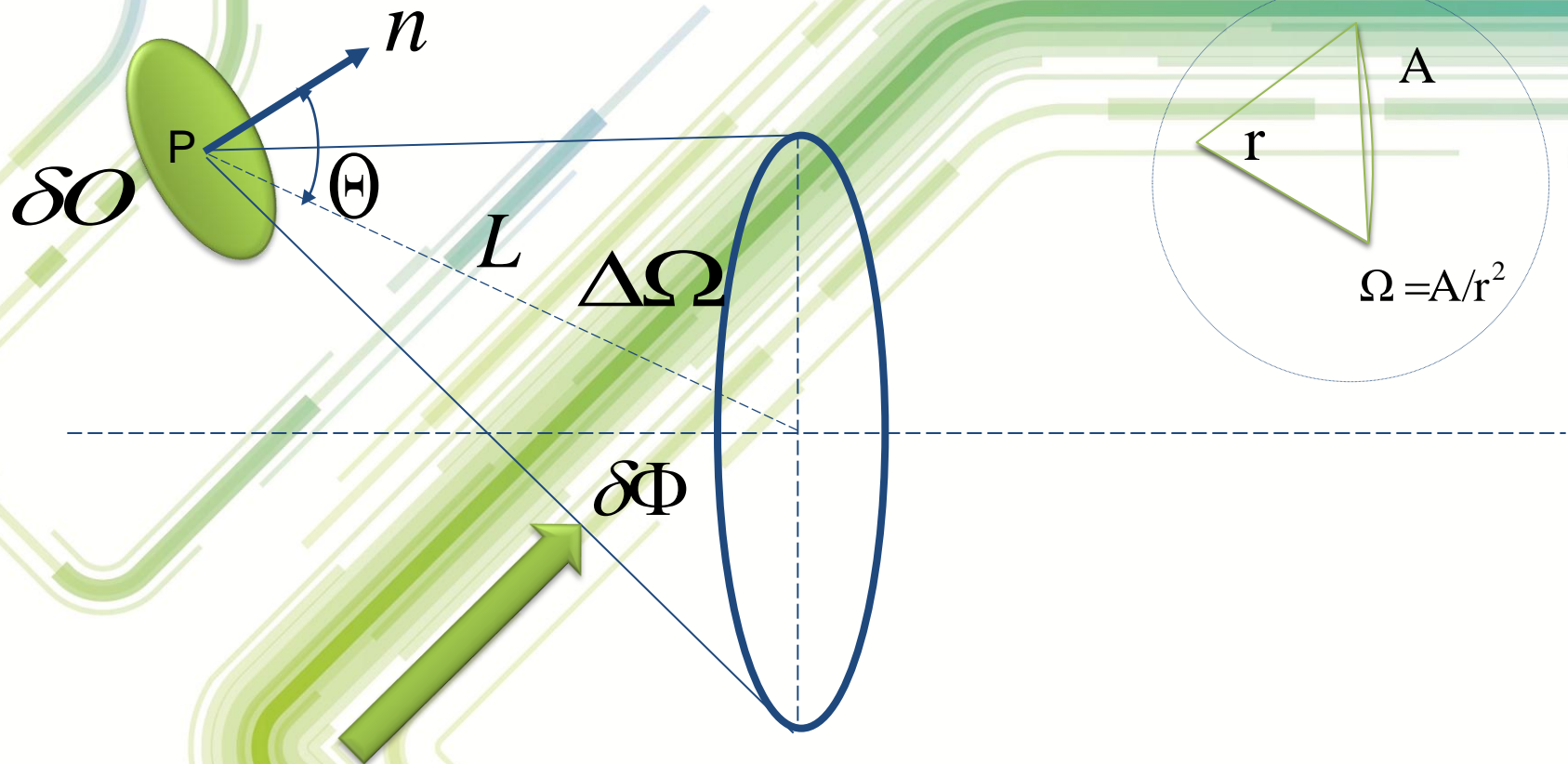
Photometric lens equation



$\delta \Omega_I$ Solid angle, subtended by image patch δI
 f focal length (distance between lens and the image)

E Illumination of the image at p

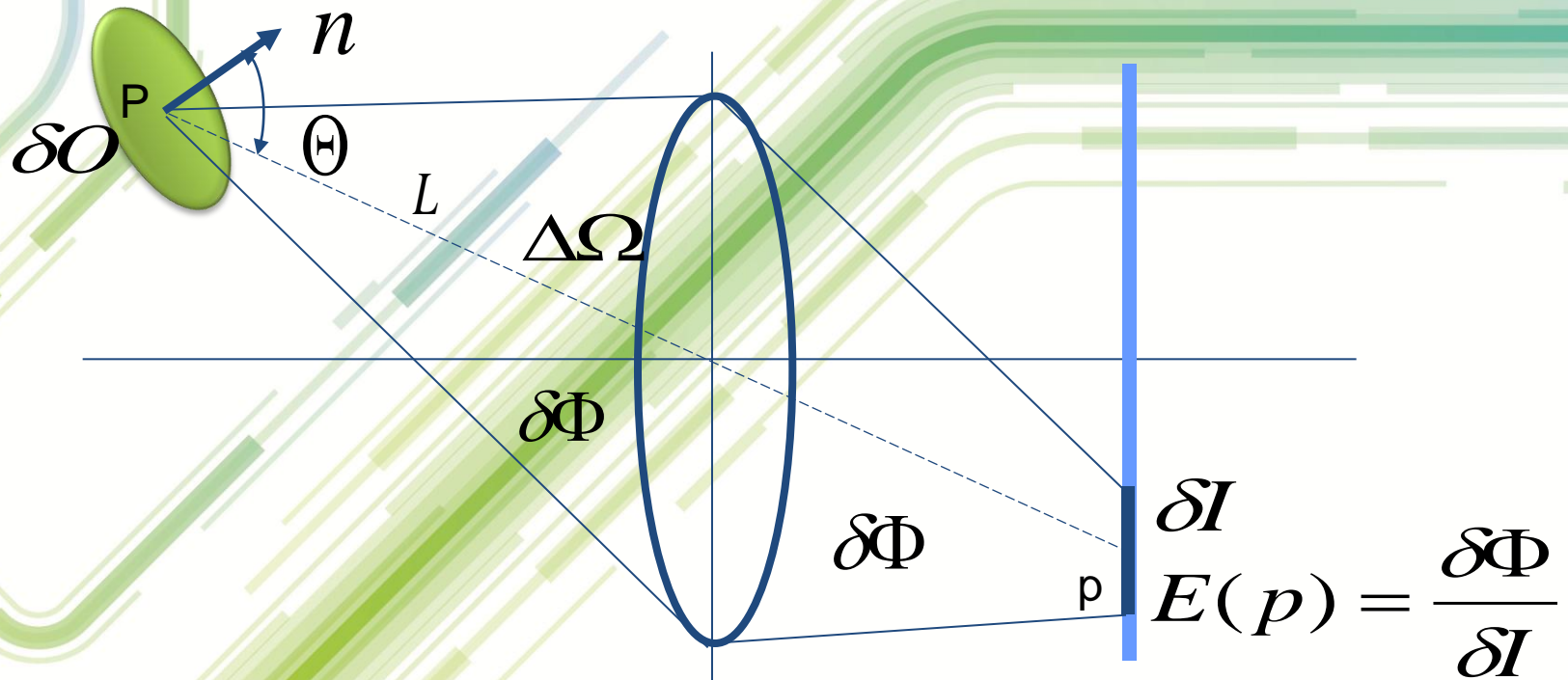
Photometric lens equation



Light energy (power) hitting the lens:

$$\delta\Phi = L(P) \times \Delta\Omega \times (\delta O \times \cos \Theta)$$

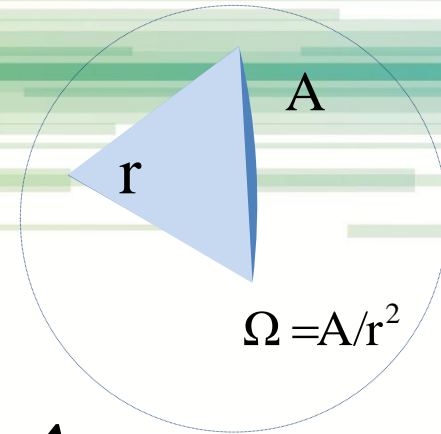
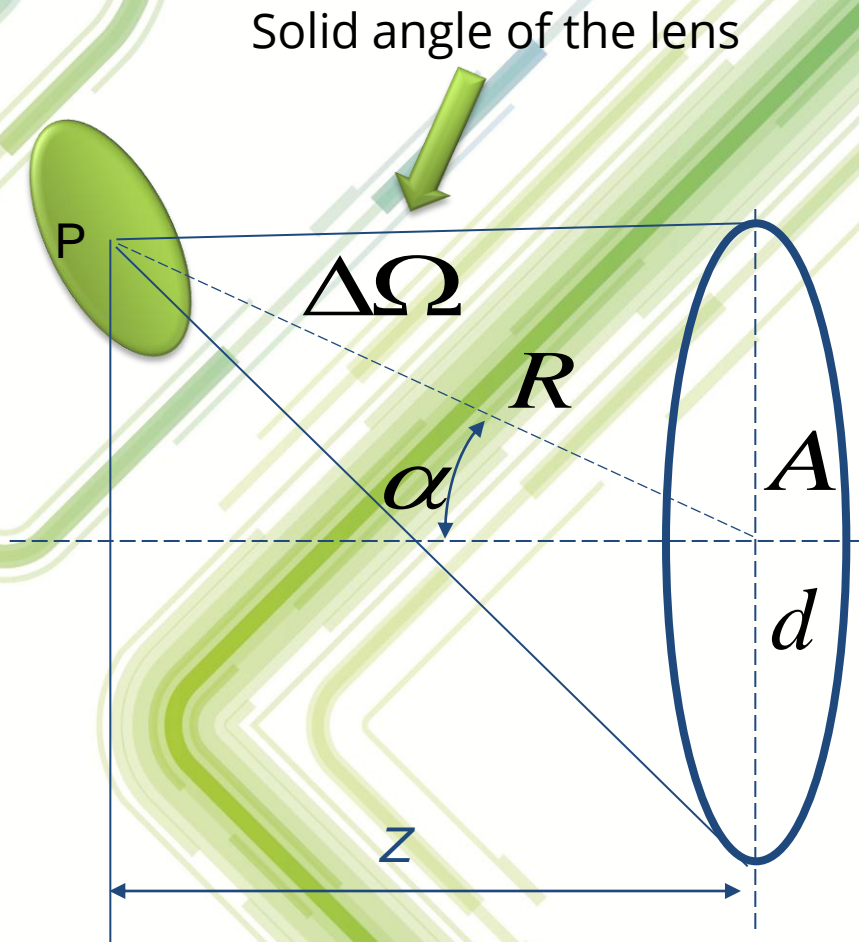
Photometric lens equation



Illuminance of a pixel (power density)

$$E(p) = L(P) \times \Delta\Omega \times \cos \Theta \times \frac{\delta O}{\delta I}$$

Photometric lens equation



$$\Delta\Omega = \frac{A}{R^2} \cos \alpha$$

$$A = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2$$

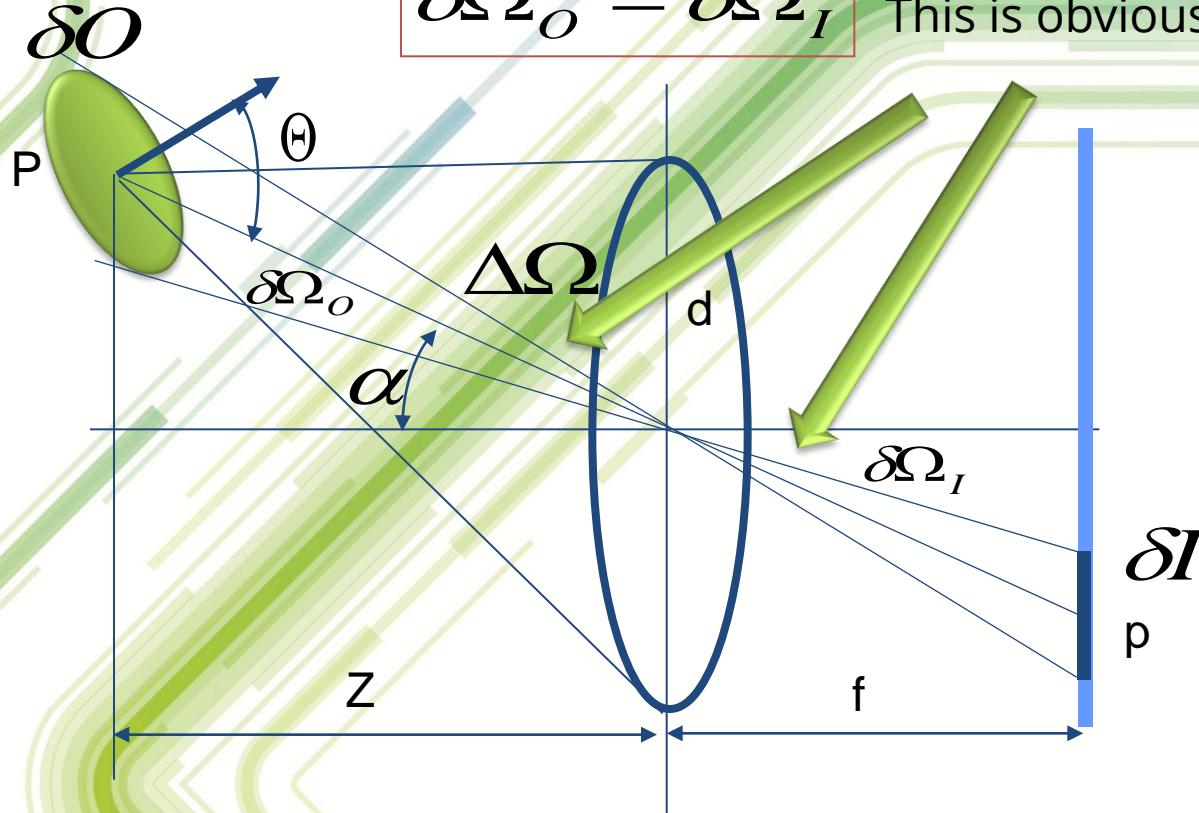
$$R = Z / \cos \alpha$$

$$\Delta\Omega = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 \frac{\cos^3 \alpha}{Z^2}$$

Photometric lens equation

$$\delta\Omega_o = \delta\Omega_I$$

This is obvious from the figure!



$$\delta\Omega_o = \frac{\delta O \cos \Theta}{(Z / \cos \alpha)^2}$$

$$\delta\Omega_I = \frac{\delta I \cos \alpha}{(f / \cos \alpha)^2}$$

Photometric lens equation

$$\delta\Omega_o = \delta\Omega_I$$

$$\frac{\delta O \cos \Theta}{(Z / \cos \alpha)^2} = \frac{\delta I \cos \alpha}{(f / \cos \alpha)^2}$$

Area of the surface patch around P



$$\frac{\delta O}{\delta I} = \frac{\cos \alpha}{\cos \Theta} \left(\frac{Z}{f} \right)^2$$

Area of the image patch around p

Angle of the principal ray (relative to the optical axis)



Angle between n and the principal ray

Photometric lens equation

$$E(p) = L(P) \times \Delta\Omega \times \cos \Theta \times \frac{\delta O}{\delta I}$$

$$\Delta\Omega = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 \frac{\cos^3 \alpha}{Z^2}$$

$$\frac{\delta O}{\delta I} = \frac{\cos \alpha}{\cos \Theta} \left(\frac{Z}{f} \right)^2$$

$$E(p) = L(P) \frac{\pi}{4} \left(\frac{d}{f} \right)^2 \cos^4 \alpha$$

This is the photometric lens equation!

Photometric lens equation

$$E(p) = L(P) \frac{\pi}{4} \left(\frac{d}{f} \right)^2 \cos^4 \alpha$$

- Image illuminance at p is proportional to the object luminance (brightness) at P
- Illuminance goes down with the 4th power of cosine of the *angle of incidence* α !
 - ($\cos^4 11^\circ = 0.93$, $\cos^4 22^\circ = 0.74$, $\cos^4 45^\circ = 0.25$)
- Image illuminance depends on the optical power (,speed') of the lens, "F number"

F-number (F#)

$$F\# = \frac{f}{d}$$

- f – effective focal length, d – lens aperture diameter
- various notations for $F\#$ are in use:
 - F/1.4, F-1.4, 1:1.4,...
- Scale on the lens aperture ring:
 - 1.4, 2, 2.8, 4, 5.6, 8, 11, 16, 22,...

$$E(p) = L(P) \frac{\pi}{4} \left(\frac{1}{F\#} \right)^2 \cos^4 \alpha$$

- Light energy/power gets halved from mark to mark
- Required exposition time doubles from mark to mark

Thin lens equation

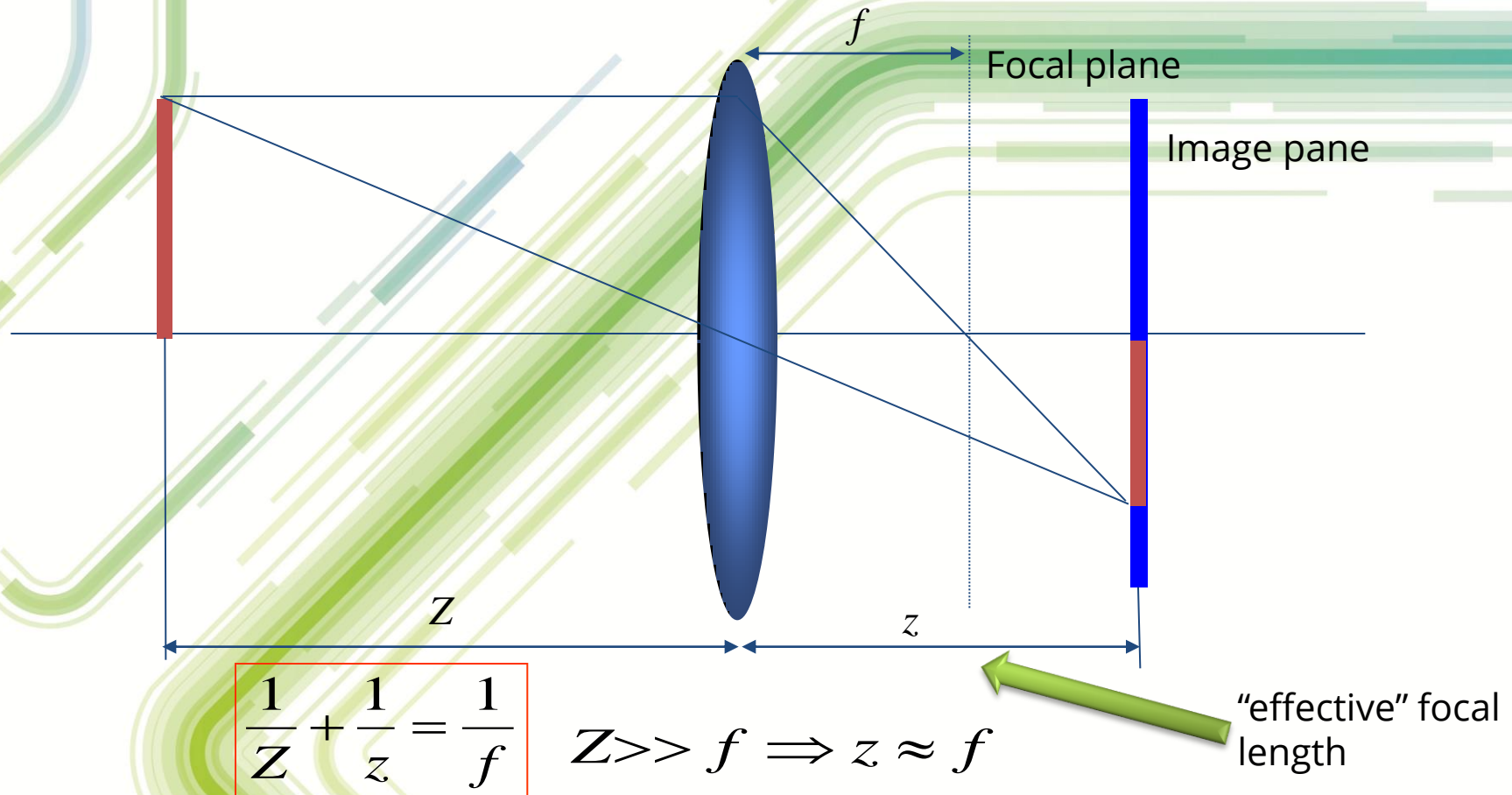


Image / image sensor is very close to the focal plane!

Phtometric lens equation again

$$\alpha = 0, \quad m \ll 1$$

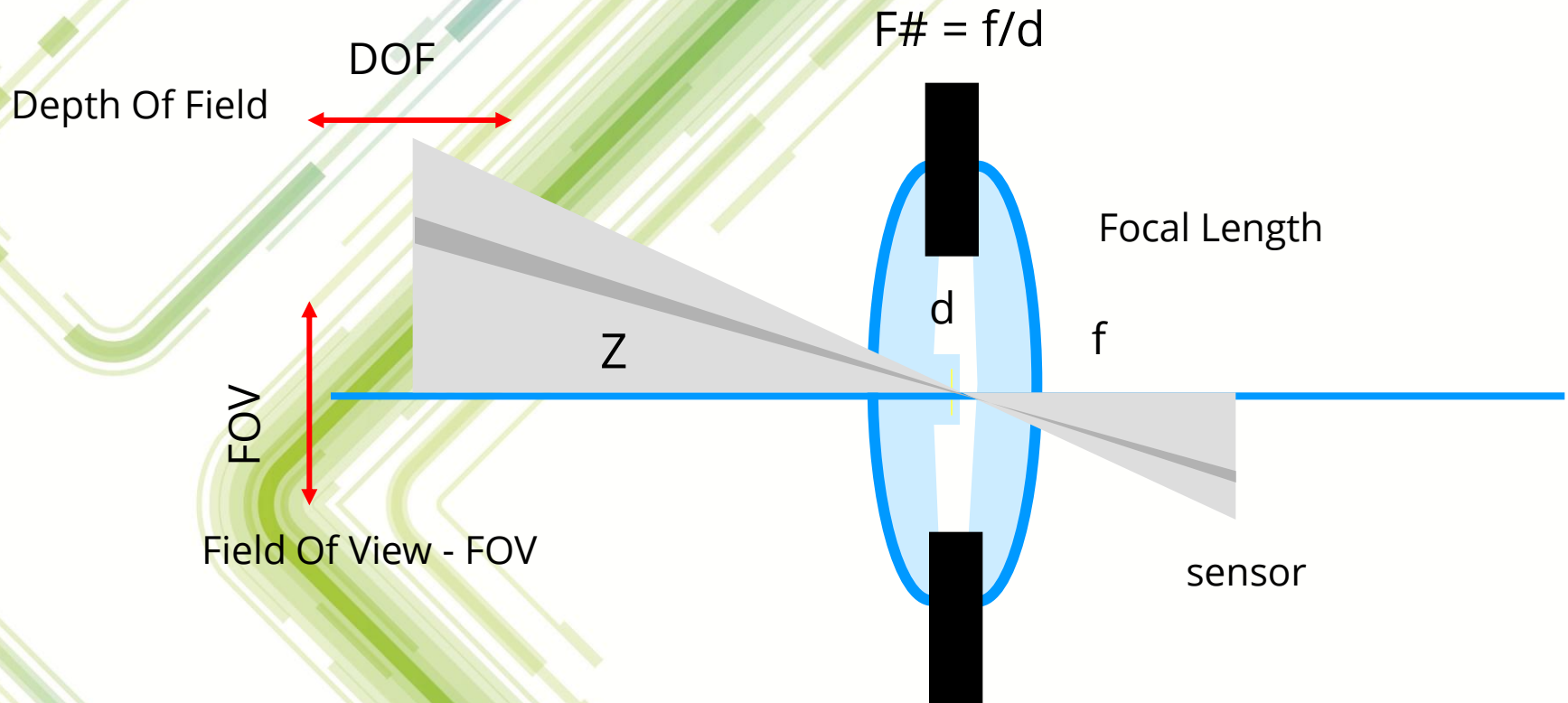
$$\alpha = 0, \quad m = \frac{z - f}{f}, \rightarrow \frac{z}{f} = m + 1$$

$$F\# = \frac{z}{d} = \frac{zf}{df} = F\# \frac{z}{f} = F\#(m + 1)$$

$$E(p) = \frac{\pi}{4} \frac{1}{[F\#(m + 1)]^2} L(P)$$

Lens parameters

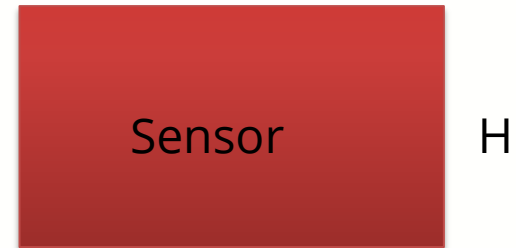
- Conventional lens:
 - image size depends on the object-to-lens distance



Field of view - FOV

- FOV is parameter specified by the manufacturer.
 - Nevertheless, we should always consider the size of the sensor.

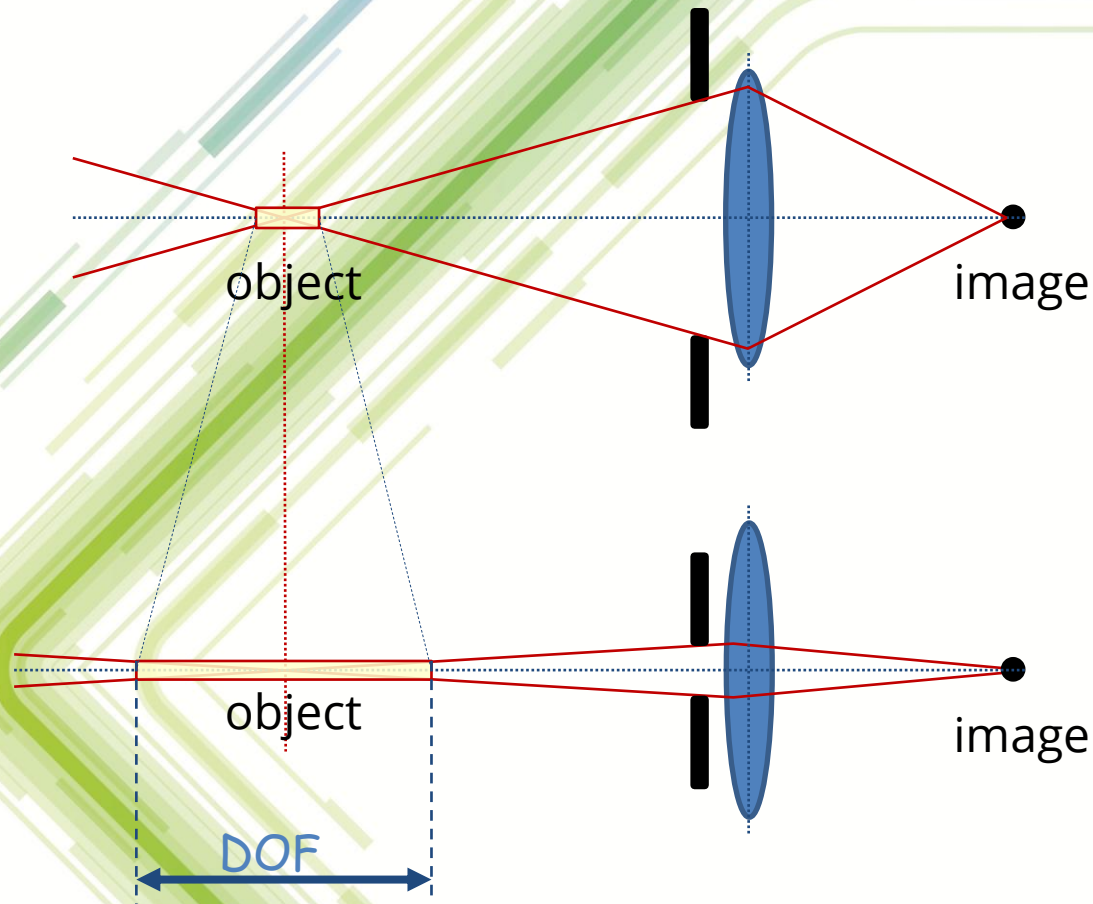
$$FOV = 2 \times \arctan \frac{H}{2f}$$



- Wide angle lens – small f
- H is the smaller sensor dimension

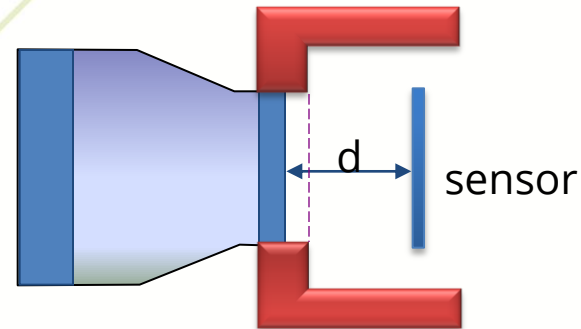
Depth of field - DOF

- DOF largely depends on the lens aperture.



C mount and CS mount

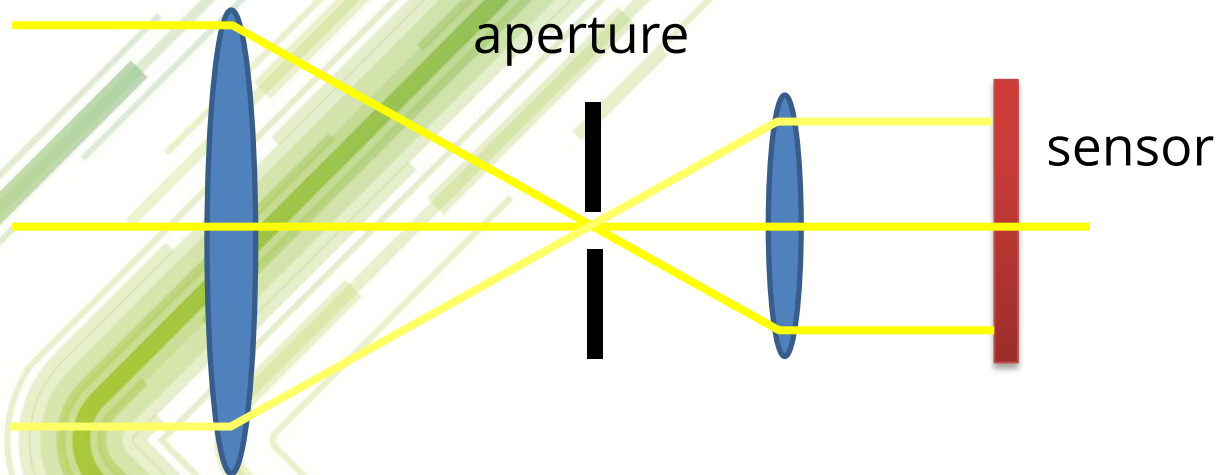
- The difference between the two is in *the distance d* between the lens and the sensor.
 - $d = 12.5$ mm for CS mount
 - $d = 17.5$ mm for C mount



- It should be taken into account when selecting lens for a particular camera (lens and camera pairing)

Telecentric lens

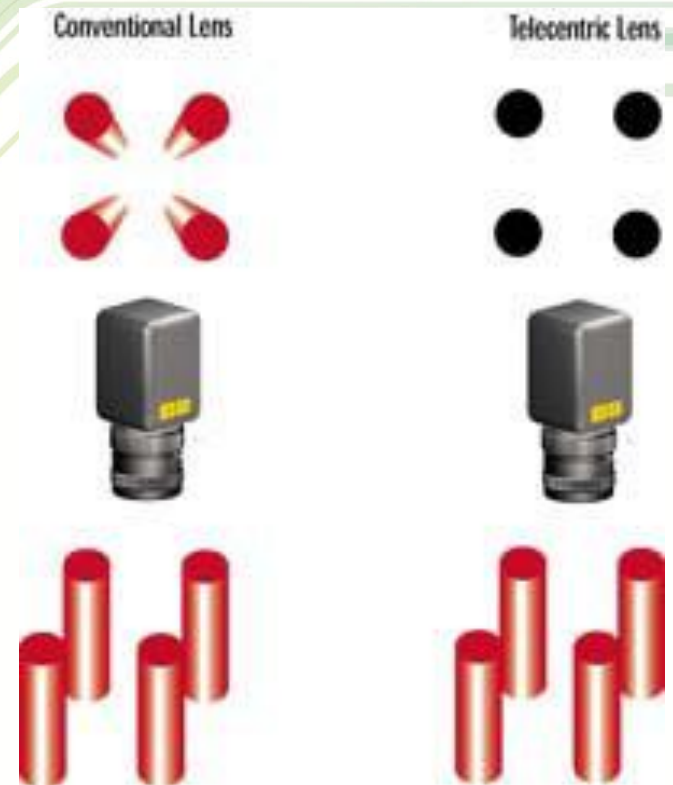
- Image size does not depend on object distance
 - Image sharpness does not change with object distance (to some extent)



- Lens can be telecentric outside (object side) or inside (sensor side)

Telecentric lens

- Ideally:
 - No parallax
 - No size difference
- In practice
 - Telecentric only to certain limit
 - And within certain error
- Important parameters
 - Working distance (e.g. 100 mm)
 - Lens diameter (e.g. 70 mm)
 - Telecentric range
 - The distance difference that causes 1 micrometer size difference



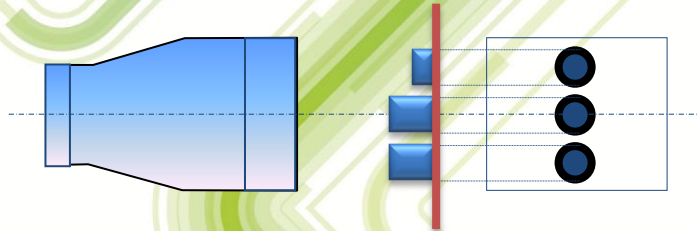
Telecentric lens



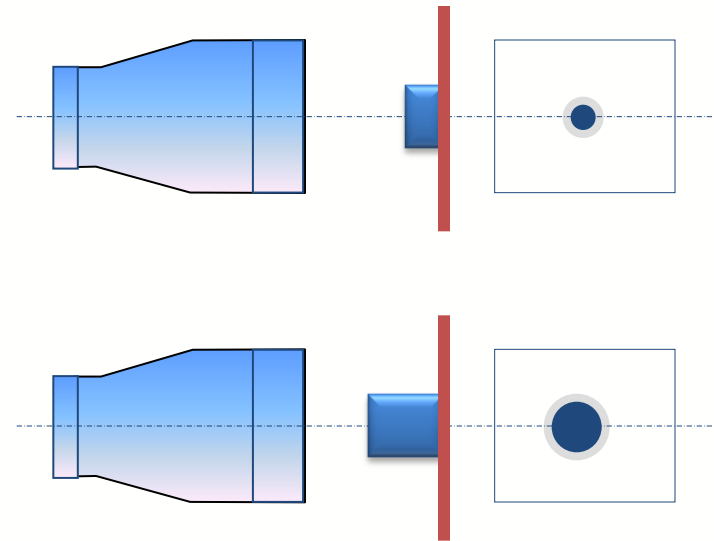
By Laserlicht (Own work) [CC BY-SA 4.0 (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/4.0/>)], via Wikimedia Commons

Entocentric lens

- The effect of perspective projection is extremely emphasized
 - There is strong dependence between image size and object distance
 - Used for quality control - e.g. of object height



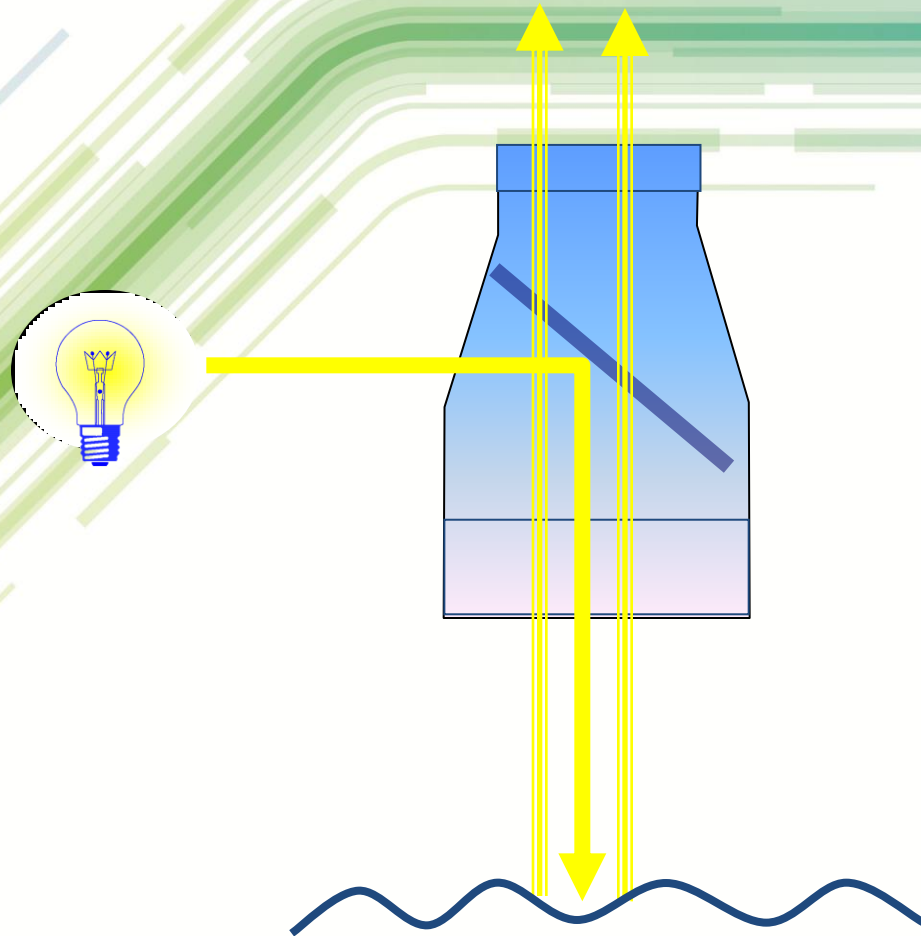
Telecentric lens



Entocentric lens

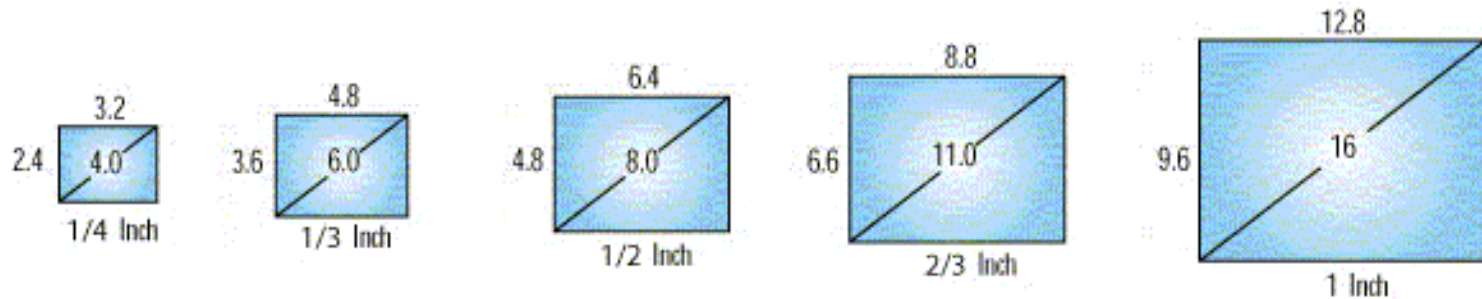
Special lenses

- Co-axial lighting
 - No shadows!



Array sensors (“array cameras”)

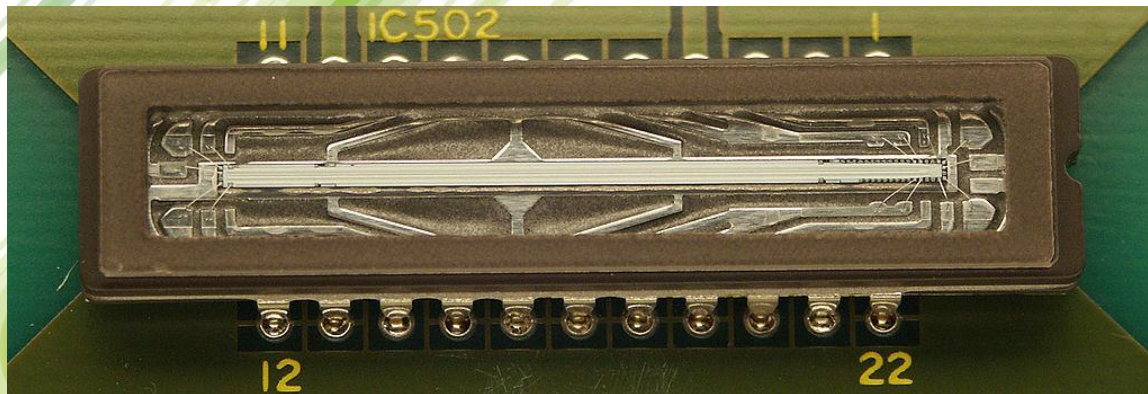
- This is the most common type
 - Sensor sizes are not intuitive!
 - 1 inch = 25.4 mm



- “inches” in sensor sizes refer to obsolete Vidicon tubes
 - This made sense – for a while & long time ago!
- Lens for larger sensor size can be used with smaller sensor (affects magnification!)
 - But not vice versa!

Line sensors (“line cameras”)

- Somewhat exotic
 - Only 1 row of image sensing elements
 - Makes very high resolutions possible
 - But we need to move/scan either the object or the camera to acquire 2D image



By Stefan506 (dewiki userpage) (Own work) [GFDL (<http://www.gnu.org/copyleft/fdl.html>) or CC-BY-SA-3.0 (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/3.0/>)], via Wikimedia Commons

The background features a series of abstract, flowing lines in various shades of green and blue. These lines originate from the left side and curve towards the right, creating a sense of movement and depth. The lines vary in thickness and opacity, with some appearing as solid, vibrant strokes and others as lighter, more ethereal trails. The overall composition is clean and modern, typical of a professional presentation slide.

Lighting techniques

You must have been asking yourself...

- Why do we need to know this?
- Why camera geometry?
 - All you wanted was to make robots that see!
- Why photometric lens equation?
- And now, LIGHTING TECHNIQUES?!

The reason

- In general, computer vision is tricky
 - Methods often don't work as you would expect (At least the basic methods you will hear about in the remaining of the semester)
- We make it work by controlling *all* aspects of the vision system
 - Honestly, algorithms come *after* you choose and set up cameras, lighting, etc.
 - Also known as “machine vision”. Approach widely used in industrial deployment. With success measured in \$\$\$
- To do this, you need to know a lot about image formation

The lighting

- Lighting is one of elements of a computer vision system
 - Manipulating lighting can have dramatic effect on the performance of computer vision methods
 - Often problem is solved when you *finally* find proper way to light the object you are trying to observe
- Manipulating lighting can be often easier than changing other components
 - And lighting elements may be less expensive than other elements of the optical system (lens, camera, actuators).
 - Lighting optics can be of lesser quality than imaging optics

Interaction between light & surface

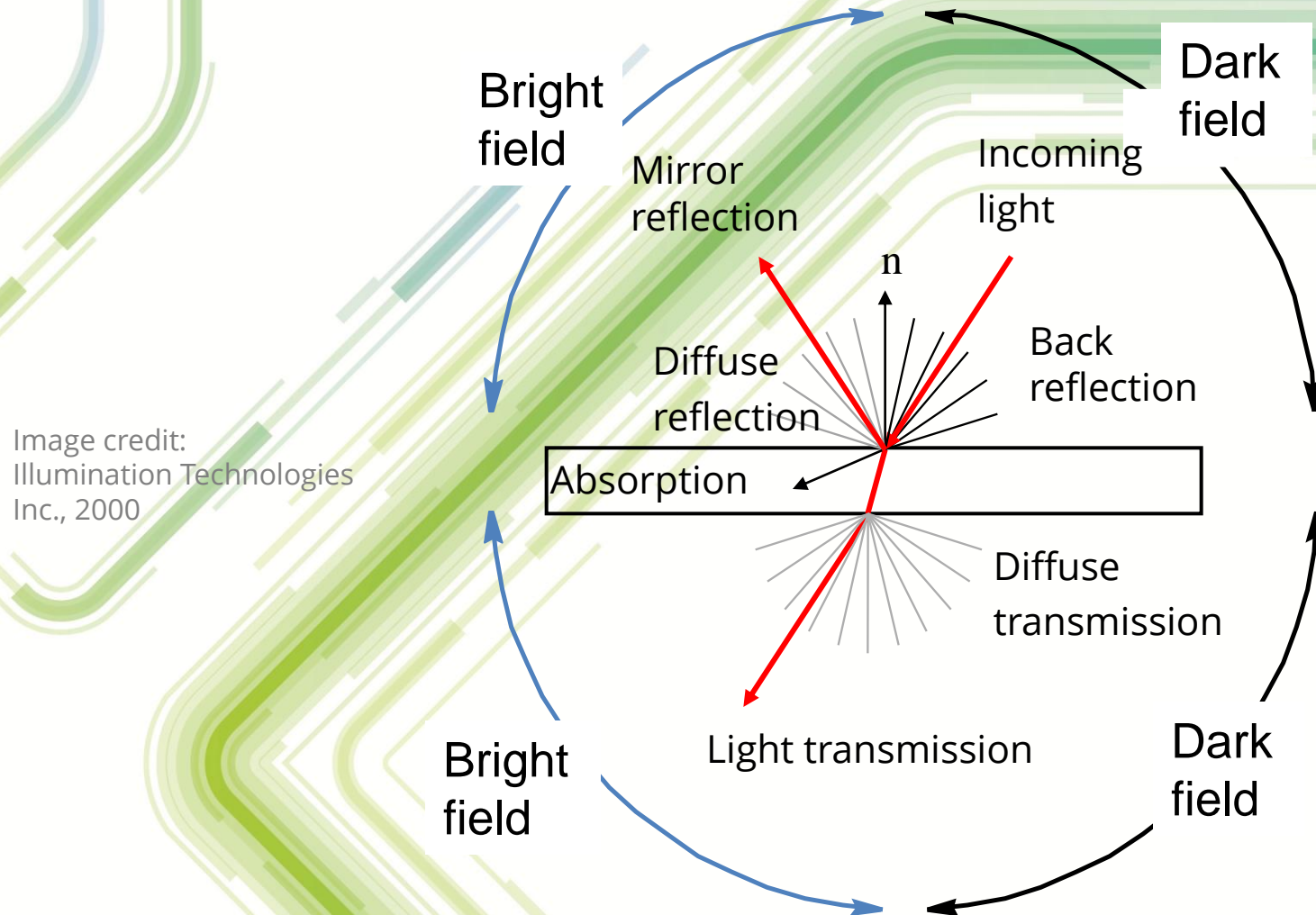
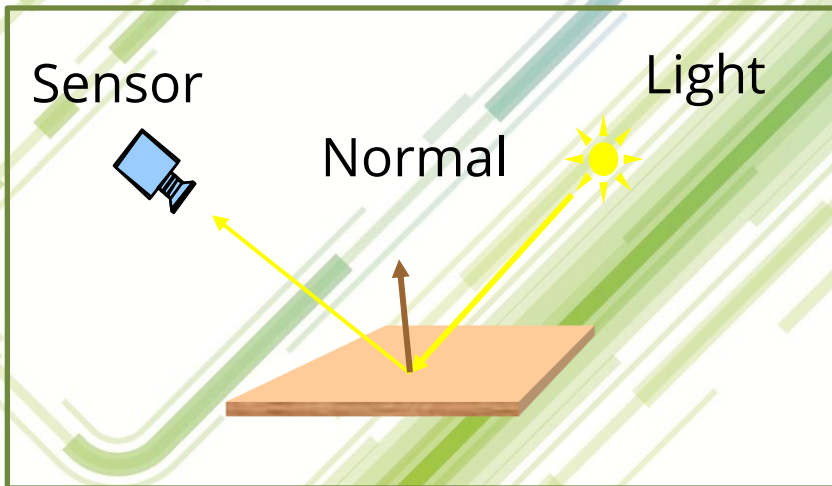


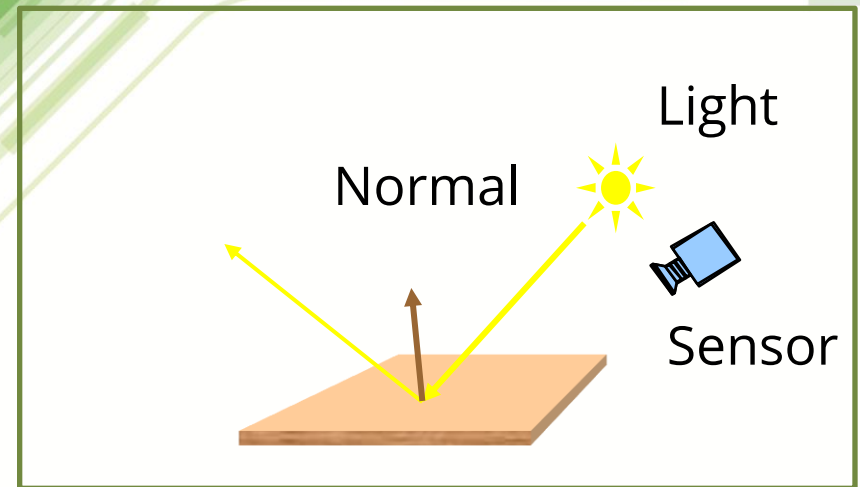
Image credit:
Illumination Technologies
Inc., 2000

Dark field – bright field

Bright field



Dark field



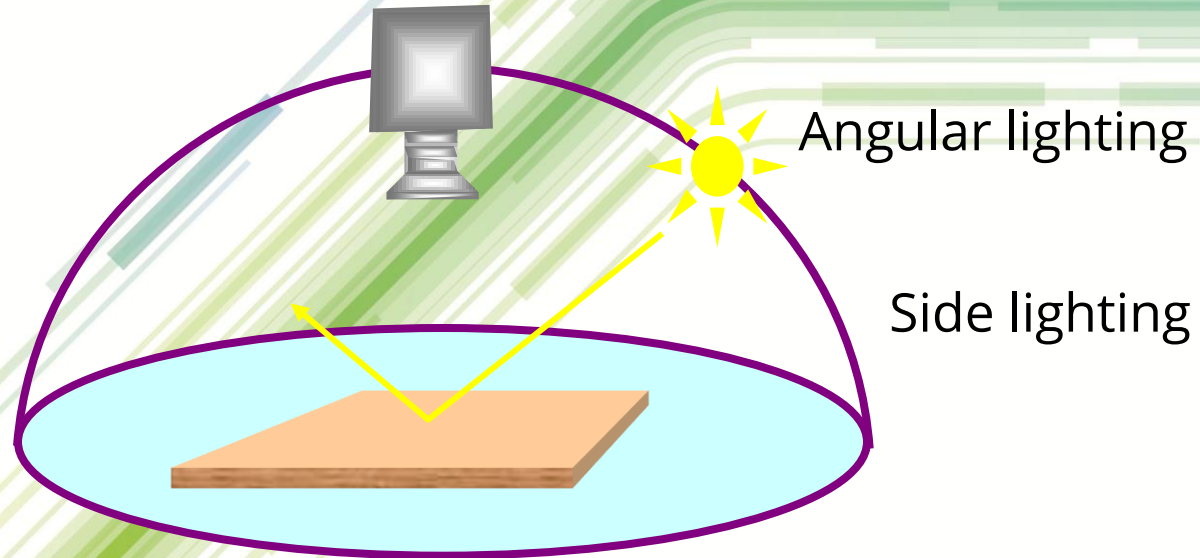
- Why would anyone use dark field?
 - The point of manipulating light is to make things well visible
 - Some features are visible in dark field, e.g. relief

Dark field illumination



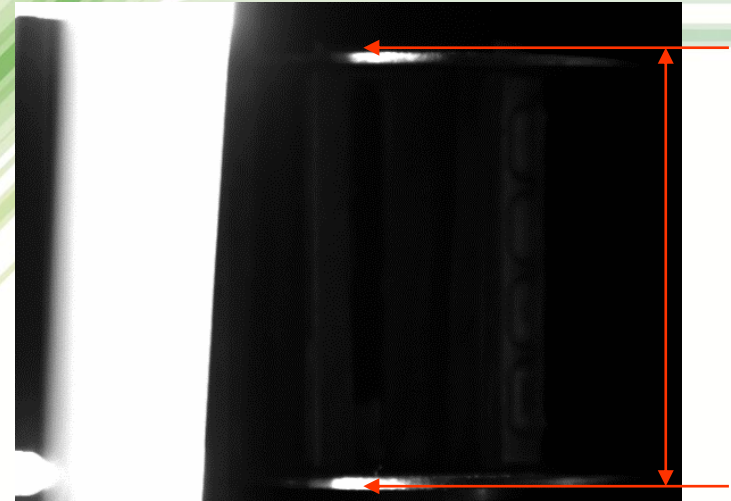
Images credit: Stemmer Imaging

Front/angular/side lighting



- Depending on an angle:
 - Produces shadows, and reflections due to surface defects
 - Useful for controlling flattness

Side lighting - example

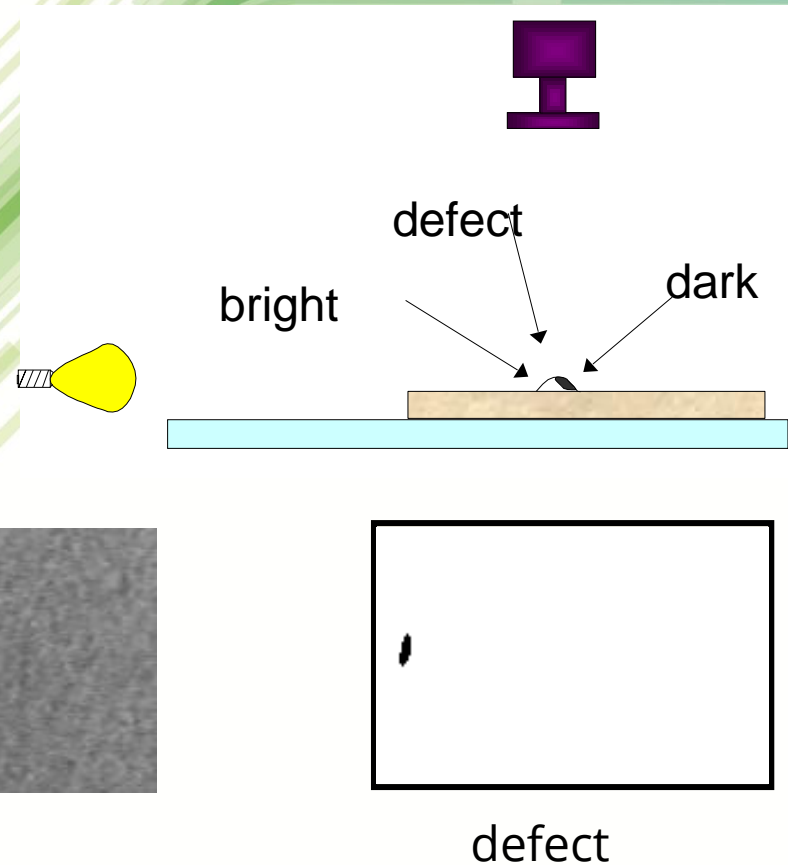


side lighting, directed

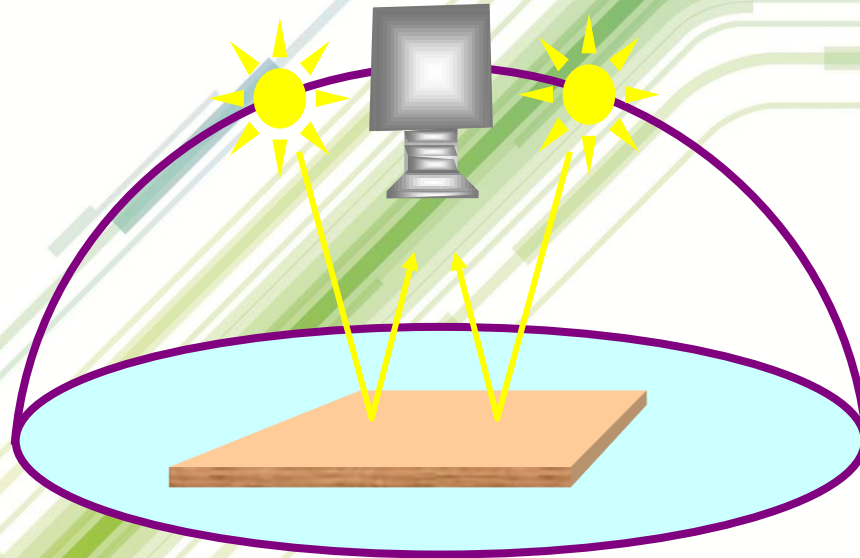
- Very important
 - The image does not have to *look good* to human!
 - It needs to show what we need to observe/measure!

Angular lighting - example

- Task:
 - Find defects in ceramic tiles (bumps)



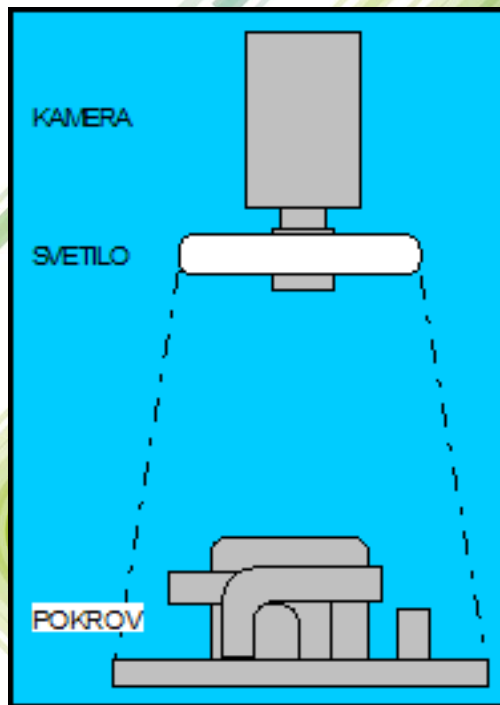
Top lighting



- Top lighting, directed or diffuse, bright field, does not cause shadows
 - Co-axial illumination for flat surfaces (e.g. PCB)

Top lighting - an example

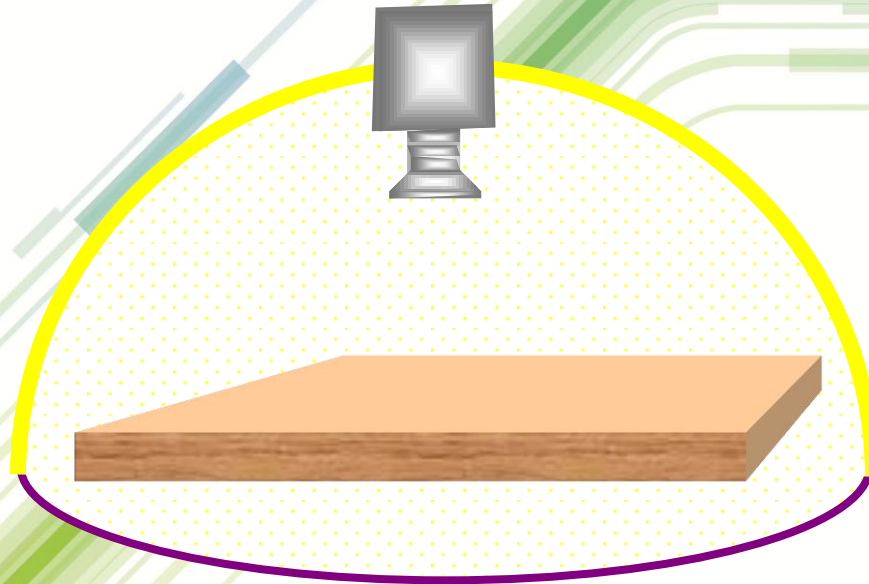
- Light ring (lighting from the top)
 - To prevent shadows



Fuel filter - top view



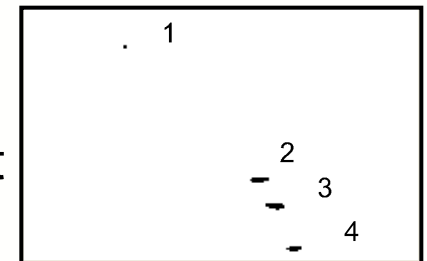
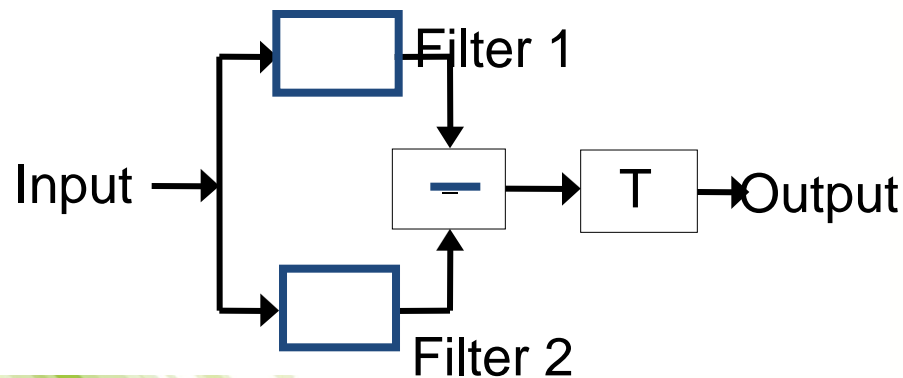
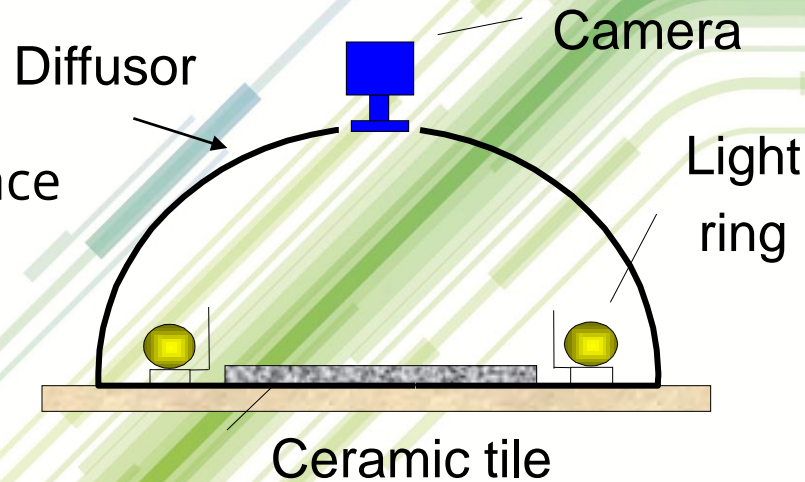
Diffuse lighting



- Does not cause shadows, less reflections
 - Appropriate for metallic/reflective surfaces

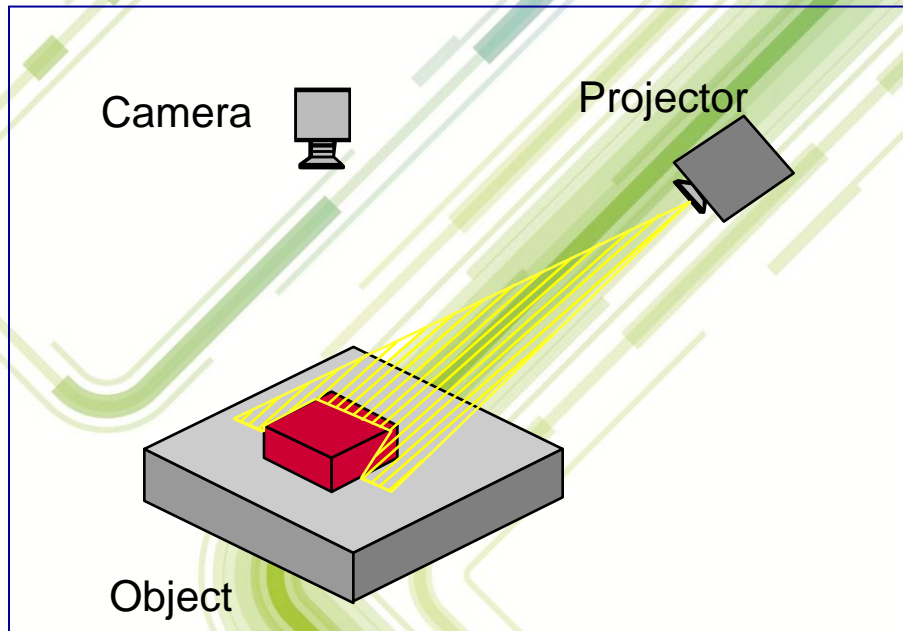
Diffuse lighting - an example

- Task: find surface spots

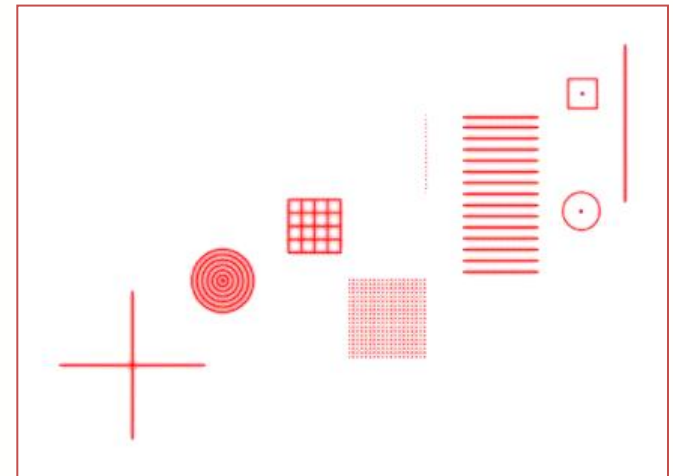


Structured lighting

- Used for 3D shape/surface analysis

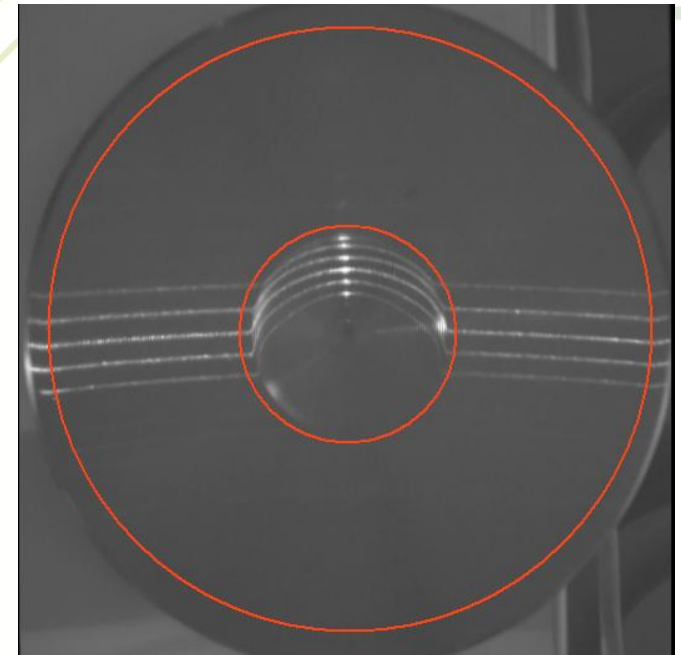
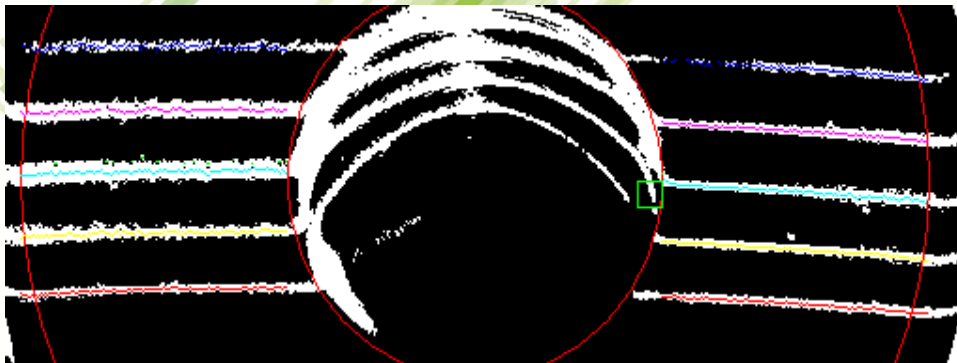


Light patterns



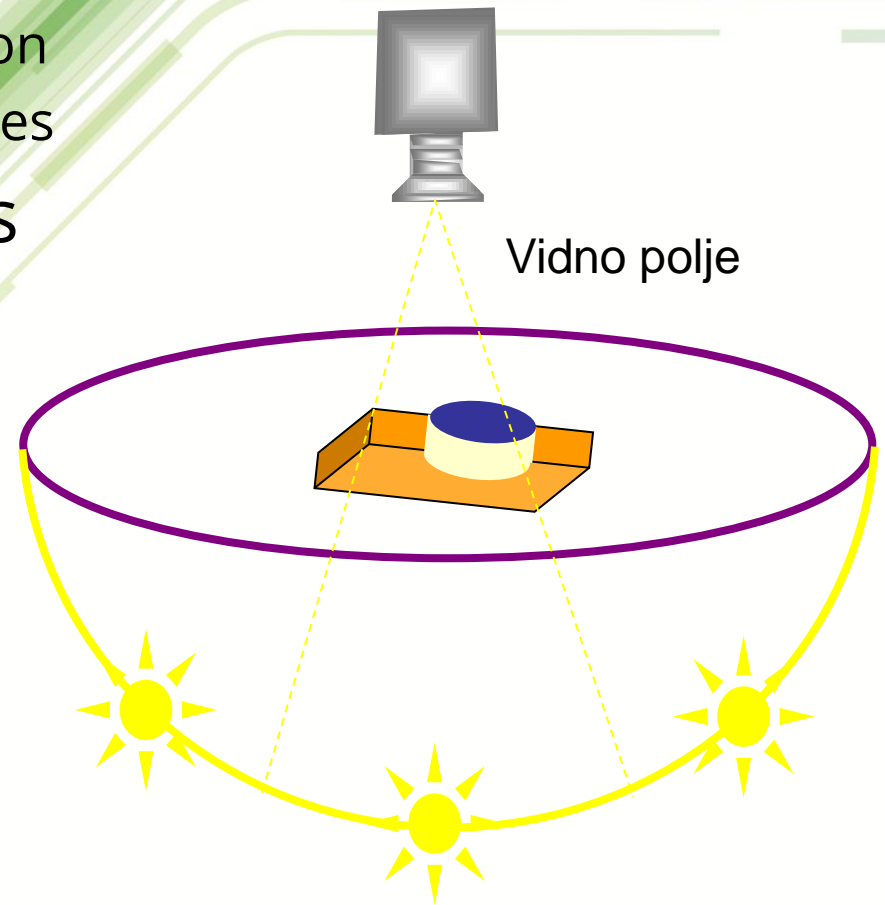
Structured lighting - an example

- Measurement of concavity (cooking plates)
 - Select area of interest
 - Binarize the image
 - Calculate the parameters of straight lines



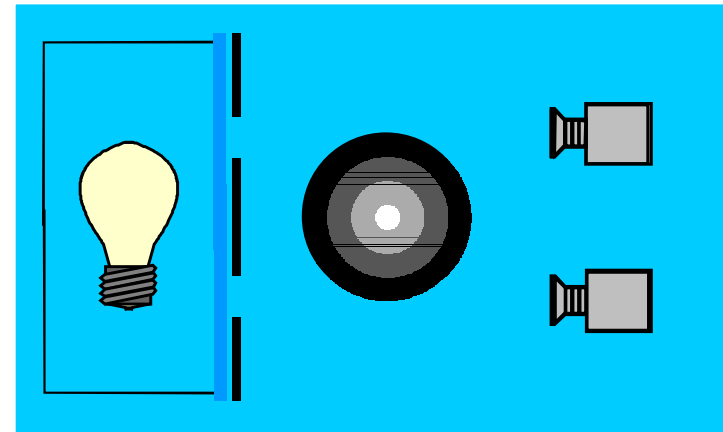
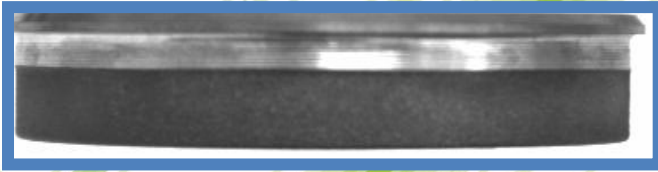
Back lighting

- For opaque objects
 - Shape & silhouette acquisition
 - Provides sharp & stable edges
- For translucent objects
 - analysis of composition



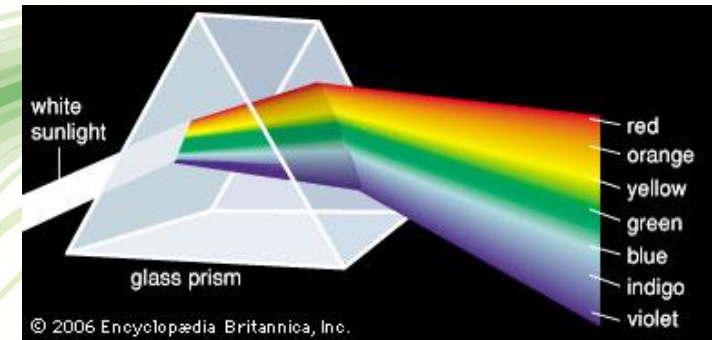
Back lighting - an example

- Dimensional measurement of cooking plates
 - Collimated, directional lighting
 - Telecentric lighting
 - Telecentric lens!



Next lecture

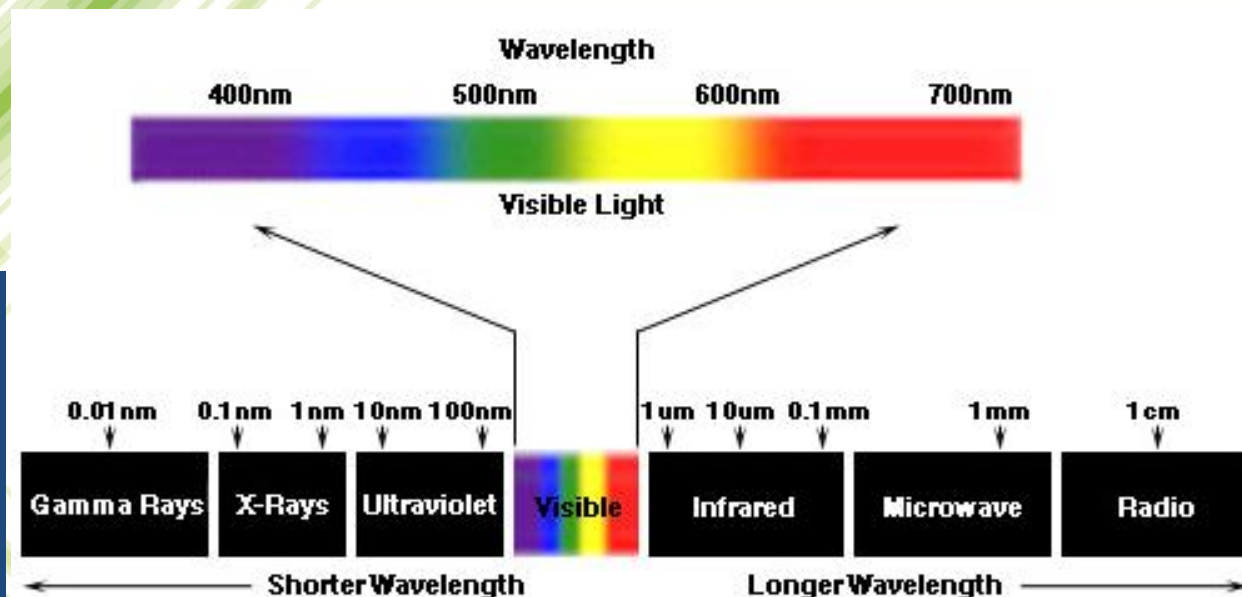
Light is electromagnetic radiation



But colors only exist due to the human visual system

Visible light

Vijolična	380-420	Violet
Modra	440-490	Blue
Zelena	490-560	Green
Rumena	560-590	Yellow
Oranžna	590-630	Orange
Rdeča	630-760	Red



The background features a series of overlapping, curved lines in various shades of green and blue, creating a sense of depth and movement. The lines are of varying thicknesses and some have a slight gradient, giving them a three-dimensional appearance. They are arranged in a way that suggests a complex, interconnected network or a stylized representation of data flow.

Questions?