

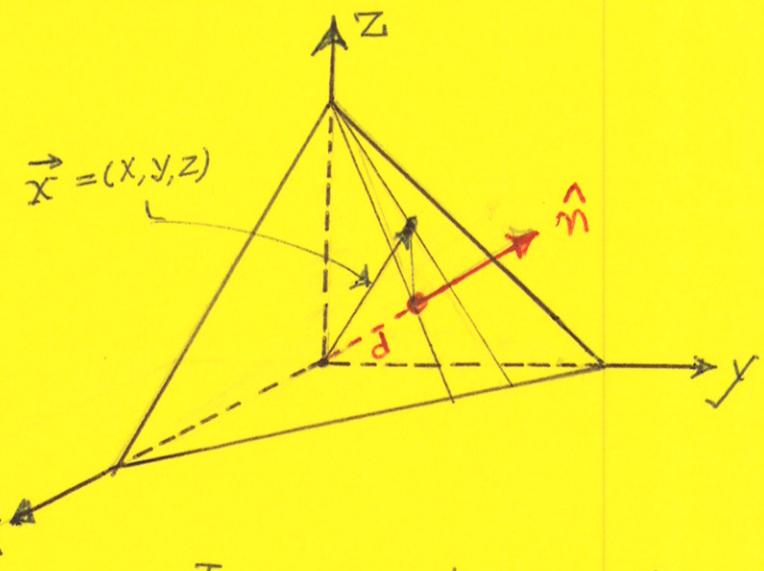
World 3D: Representing Points, Planes, and Lines

Reference: "Multiple View Geometry in Computer Vision" by Hartley and Zisserman

- We represent a point in 3D physical space \mathbb{R}^3 by $(x, y, z)^T$. Its homogeneous coordinates in $\mathbb{R}^4 - (0, 0, 0, 0)^T$ will be denoted by the vector $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)^T$ with $X = x_1/x_4$, $Y = x_2/x_4$, $Z = x_3/x_4$.
- All points $k \cdot (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)^T$ for all non-zero k form an equivalence class in \mathbb{R}^4 , in the sense that they all represent the same physical point in \mathbb{R}^3 .
- Using the same arguments as in Lecture 2, a point at infinity in physical \mathbb{R}^3 is represented by homogeneous coordinates of type $(x_1, x_2, x_3, 0)^T$.
- Using homogeneous coordinates, a transformation of the physical space \mathbb{R}^3 can be represented by a **4x4 homography**: $\vec{x}' = H \vec{x}$. Since only the ratios matter, in general, the homography H has 15 degrees of freedom.

Representing a Plane in 3D

- Perhaps the most common way to represent a plane is through the geometrical construction at right:
- The plane is characterized by a unit normal vector \hat{n} passing through the origin and the shortest distance d to the plane from the origin (this is along \hat{n}). Now given any point $\vec{x} = (x, y, z)^T$ on the plane, it follows straightforwardly that $\vec{x} \cdot \hat{n} = d$. This equation can be written as $n_x x + n_y y + n_z z - d = 0$ where n_x, n_y, n_z are the direction cosines associated with the unit normal \hat{n} .
- Therefore, we can write $\pi_1 x + \pi_2 y + \pi_3 z + \pi_4 = 0$ as a general representation of a plane through a 4-vector parameter $(\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3, \pi_4)^T$. Using homogeneous coordinates, this translates into $\pi_1 x_1 + \pi_2 x_2 + \pi_3 x_3 + \pi_4 x_4 = 0$.
- We thus have the following compact representation of a plane in homogeneous coordinates $\pi^T \vec{x} = 0$ where $\pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3, \pi_4)^T$ and $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)^T$. We also recognize that the unit normal to the plane is encoded in (π_1, π_2, π_3) and the perpendicular distance to the plane in π_4 . More precisely, (π_1, π_2, π_3) is the normal to the plane in physical \mathbb{R}^3 and $\|\pi\|/\|\pi\|$ the perpendicular distance



- We therefore say that for a point x to fall on a plane Π , the point must satisfy the condition $\Pi^T x = 0$, or equivalently, $x^T \Pi = 0$.
- A plane is obviously defined by any three non-collinear points. So, given three such points, x_1, x_2 , and x_3 , what is the equation of the plane passing through these three points? The following follows trivially from the previous bullet :

A modern SVD based approach can be used to find the null-space solution vector Π . You decompose the 3×4 matrix on the left by writing it as $U \Sigma V^T$. The last eigenvector in V , the one corresponding to the near-zero singular value, is your solution for Π

U is 3×4
 Σ is 4×4
 V is 4×4

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1^T \\ x_2^T \\ x_3^T \end{bmatrix} \Pi = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

This says that the plane must define the one-dimensional null space of the 3×4 matrix formed by the homogeneous coordinates of the 3 points

Note that we are talking about an under-determined system. ($m < n$)

That's when V contains the basis of null space

- Given three points, the approach described above defines a plane implicitly. Here is a more explicit approach : We recognize that if we construct a 4×4 matrix $M = [x, x_1, x_2, x_3]$ where x is a general point (as a vector variable) on the plane, and x_1, x_2 , and x_3 , the three given specific points, the determinant of such a matrix M must be zero since each point can be expressed as a linear combination of the other three. That is, $\det(M) = 0$. We have $M = \begin{bmatrix} x & x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ y & y_1 & y_2 & y_3 \\ z & z_1 & z_2 & z_3 \\ w & w_1 & w_2 & w_3 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow M$

- Let \tilde{M} denote the 4×3 submatrix formed by the known last three column vectors of M . And let D_{ijk} stand for the determinant calculated from the i^{th} , the j^{th} , and the k^{th} rows of \tilde{M} . Now we can express the determinant of M as :

$$\det(M) = x \cdot D_{234} - y \cdot D_{134} + z \cdot D_{124} - w \cdot D_{123} = 0$$

- Comparing the above equation with the definition $x^T \Pi = 0 = x \Pi_1 + y \Pi_2 + z \Pi_3 + w \Pi_4$ we get the following explicit solution for the plane Π \rightarrow

$$\Pi = \begin{pmatrix} D_{234} \\ -D_{134} \\ D_{124} \\ -D_{123} \end{pmatrix}$$

- It is interesting to note that when x_1, x_2 , and x_3 are all at infinity (that is, w_1, w_2 and w_3 are all zero), D_{234}, D_{134} , and D_{124} will all be zero. In this special case, the solution plane will be given by $\Pi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. This then is the definition of the plane at infinity.

Finding the Point at the Intersection of Three Planes

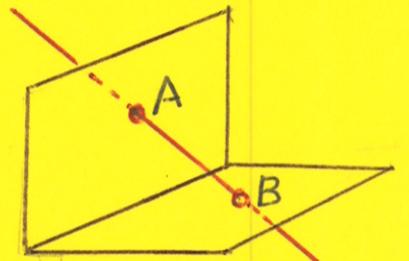
- Recall if a point x is on a plane Π , then $\Pi^T x = 0$. Given planes Π_1, Π_2 , and Π_3 , the common point of intersection must obey $\begin{bmatrix} \Pi_1^T \\ \Pi_2^T \\ \Pi_3^T \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$
- As you notice, this is dual to the problem of finding the plane that pass through three given points. The solution strategies are therefore the same.
- This is a good time to mention that points and planes are duals in 3D — in much the same manner that points and lines are duals in 2D. Lines are self-duals in 3D.

Applying a Projective Transformation to a Plane

- We want to know what happens to the homogeneous representation of a plane ~~when~~ when the space in which the plane resides undergoes a 4×4 homography, H .
- By definition $\mathbf{x}' = H\mathbf{x}$. Therefore, $\mathbf{x} = H^{-1}\mathbf{x}'$.
- We know that for \mathbf{x} to belong to plane Π , $\Pi^T \mathbf{x} = 0$. Substituting for \mathbf{x} , we get $\Pi^T H^{-1}\mathbf{x}' = 0$, which can be expressed as $(H^{-T}\Pi)^T \mathbf{x}' = 0$ implying that the "image" point \mathbf{x}' resides on a plane $\Pi' = H^{-T}\Pi$.

Representing Lines in 3D

- To say the least, the homogeneous representation for 3D lines is NOT as easy, or as straightforward, as it is for 3D points and planes in 3D.
- The fact that a 3D line ~~has four~~ degrees of freedom requires ideally that we use a five-dimensional homogeneous representations for lines in 3D. But such a representation would make them incompatible with the homogeneous representations for 3D points and planes. (In the figure at right, we do not factor in what it takes to specify the locations and the orientations of the two planes. Those are completely arbitrary, in the sense that we can choose any two planes.)
- The desire to keep the homogeneous representation of 3D lines compatible with those used for 3D points and for the planes in 3D has resulted in a number of different workarounds for the case of 3D lines. We will review some of these in what follows.



Both points A and B have two degrees of freedom. Therefore line AB has 4 DoF.

Representation of a 3D Line With a Vector Span

- A line may be represented either as the join of two points or as the intersection of two planes. The latter is the dual of the former and one can easily be derived from the other. A working algorithm frequently needs both forms as each is "optimum" for answering certain kinds of questions.

A 3D Line Formed by Joining Two Points A and B

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} A^T \\ B^T \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow[4]{\downarrow 2}$$

- Being underdetermined, the 2×4 W possesses a 2D null space. If P and Q are the basis vectors of the null space, then

A 3D Line Formed by the Intersection of Two Planes P and Q

- The line is represented by a 2×4 matrix

$$W^* = \begin{bmatrix} P^T \\ Q^T \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow[4]{\downarrow 2}$$

- Being underdetermined, the 2×4 W^* possesses a 2D null space.

- If A and B are the basis vectors of the null space, then

$$WP = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad WQ = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- The above implies

$$\begin{bmatrix} A^T P \\ B^T P \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} A^T Q \\ B^T Q \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Our definition of what it means to be a point on a plane implies that the null vector P and Q must be planes, and that the points A and B must reside on both these planes.

$$W^*A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad W^*B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad [6-4]$$

- the above implies

$$\begin{bmatrix} P^T A \\ Q^T A \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} P^T B \\ Q^T B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Our definition of what it means to be a point on a plane implies that the null vectors A and B are points that reside on both the planes P and Q . The intersection of the planes P and Q contains the line joining A and B .

$$W^*W^T = \begin{bmatrix} P^T \\ Q^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

EXERCISE : You are given two points $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and a plane $\Pi = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -10 \end{pmatrix}$. At what point does the line joining A and B pierce the plane Π ?

SOLUTION : A vector span representation of line AB

$$\text{is } W = \begin{bmatrix} A^T \\ B^T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

However, this problem is best solved with the dual representation $W^* = \begin{bmatrix} P^T \\ Q^T \end{bmatrix}$ for the line where P and

Q are two linearly independent basis vectors in the null space of W . Since we know that P and Q represent planes that contain the points A and B , for P we choose the plane xy . So $P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ because its normal is along Z and because

it passes through the origin. For Q , we choose the plane

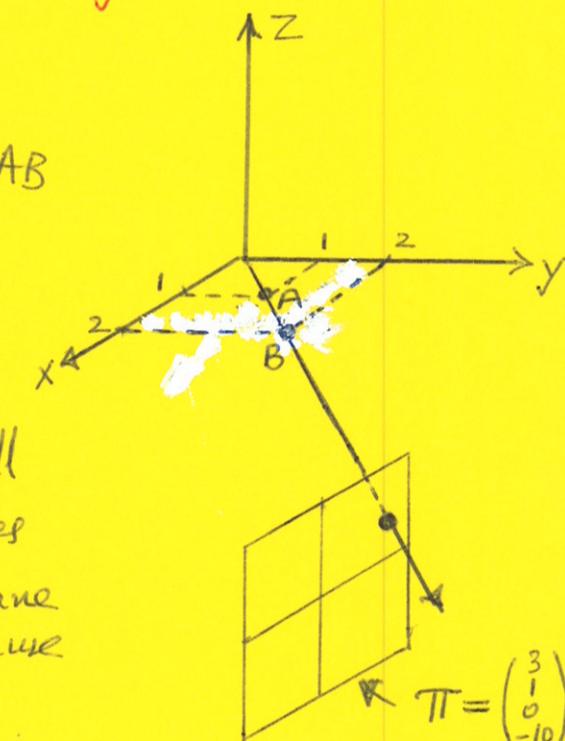
perpendicular to xy plane and that contains line AB . The normal to this plane is along $(-1, 1, 0)$ and since it also passes through origin, $Q = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

[In "real-life" you'd compute P and Q by an SVD analysis of W .] So we have

$W^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Now the point at which line AB pierces Π must be common

to all three planes P , Q , and Π . Therefore, the solution point is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} P^T \\ Q^T \\ \Pi^T \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 & -10 \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} x = 2.5 \\ y = 2.5 \\ z = 0 \end{array} \Rightarrow x = \begin{pmatrix} 2.5 \\ 2.5 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



rank of an outer product is always 1

Representing a 3D Line With a Plucker Matrix

It is possible to represent the line formed by joining the two points A and B by the 4x4 skew-symmetric matrix $L = A B^T - B A^T$. (Its dual consists of representing a line formed by the intersection of two planes P and Q by the 4x4 skew-symmetric matrix $L^* = P Q^T - Q P^T$.) L and L^* are examples of Plucker matrices. Suppose $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix}$, then $L = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a_1 b_2 - b_1 a_2 & a_1 b_3 - b_1 a_3 & a_1 b_1 - b_1 a_1 \\ a_2 b_1 - b_2 a_1 & 0 & a_2 b_3 - b_2 a_3 & a_2 b_1 - b_2 a_1 \\ a_3 b_1 - b_3 a_1 & a_3 b_2 - b_3 a_2 & 0 & a_3 b_1 - b_3 a_1 \\ b_1 - a_1 & b_2 - a_2 & b_3 - a_3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3_1 & 3_2 & 3_3 \\ -3_1 & 0 & 3_4 & 3_5 \\ -3_2 & -3_4 & 0 & 3_6 \\ -3_3 & -3_5 & -3_6 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

L is of the form It has only 6 independent elements.

L has only 4 degrees of freedom and a

rank of only 2. DoF being 4 follows from the fact that only ratios matter and the property $\det(L) = 0$. Note that L and L^* are related because P and Q are basis vectors of 2D null space of L .

DoF: How many vars for specifying

Rank: How many linearly ind. vecs. in col. or row space

One adv. of Plucker: Eqn of plane passing thru line L and point X
 $\Pi = L^* x$