## ECE-161C Cameras

Nuno Vasconcelos

## ECE Department, UCSD

## Image formation

- all image understanding starts with understanding of image formation:
- projection of a scene from 3D world into image on 2D plane



## Image formation

- first of all, why do we care about this?
-1) allows us to create ("render") imaginary scenes
- special effects, games, architecture/visualization, etc.
- build a CAD model of the scene and then render from different views



## Image formation

- e.g. a "fly-through" camera that allows you to see a sports event from new angles

- where the camera is
- knowing the projection equations allows us to recreate the image from a 3D model of the scene
- computer graphics is mostly about this


## Image formation

- 2) even better, we could reconstruct the 3D model from images
- rendering:
- 3D world to 2D image
- scene reconstruction:
- 2D images to 3D model
- this turns out to be much harder because a 2 D projection is consistent with many 3D scenes

- one image is usually not enough, but can be done from a collection of images


## Image formation

- when multiple images are available, it is possible to
- register them
- deduce the mapping from 2D to 3D
- extract a 3D model of the scene
- render from different angles



## Image formation

- even when we do not care about the 3D scene per se
- knowing the geometry is important for many tasks
- note the appearence changes as the cars move
- this is due to perspective
- has to be accounted for even though the goal is tracking not reconstruction



## Image formation

- even for rigid scenes that do not change that much
- a change of perspective will create massive pixel changes
- to compensate for this, one has to understand the projection equations
- this turns out to be quite complicated
- as usual in science, we simplify as much as we can
- for example, we adopt the pinhole camera model



## Pinhole camera

- we assume that a camera is
- a black box
- with an infinitesimally small hole on one face
- the hole is so small that only one ray of light passes through it and hits the other side

real pinhole camera made by Kodak for schools, circa 1930


## Pinhole camera

- by placing photo-sensitive material in the back wall you will get an upside-down replica of the scene
- this is the image plane
- to avoid the mathematical inconvenience of this inversion
- we consider a plane outside of the camera
- this is called the virtual image plane



## Pinhole camera

- the virtual image plane

- it is an abstraction
- exactly the same as the image plane, with the exception that there is no inversion


## Pinhole camera

- one important property:
- objects that are far away become smaller in the image plane

- we suspect that distance to the camera plays an important role in perspective projection
- in particular we would expect image size proportional to $1 / \mathrm{d}$


## Coordinates

- to relate world point $P$ to image point $P^{\prime}$
- we need a coordinate system
- the $1 /$ d dependence suggests using pinhole as origin
- we also make two coordinate axes (i,j) a basis of the image plane and the third (k) orthogonal to it (measures depth)



## Pinhole camera

- definitions:
- line perpendicular to image plane, through pinhole, is the optical axis
- point where optical axis intersects image plane is the image center
- distance $f$ between image plane and pinhole is the focal length



## Projection equations

- note that
- $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{P}$ ' are on the same line
- this implies that there is a $\lambda$ such that $O P^{\prime}=\lambda O P$, and



## Perspective projection

- this is the basic equation of perspective projection

- note that
- there is indeed an inverse dependence on the depth $Z$
- far objects become small


## Perspective projection

- this is a very powerful cue for scene understanding
- and fun too!
- note that the visual system infers all sorts of properties from perspective cues
- e.g. size



## Perspective projection

- or shape
or proximity



## Perspective projection

- is conceptually very simple
$\binom{x^{\prime}}{y^{\prime}}=f\binom{x / z}{y / z}$
- but is highly non-linear and usually hard to work with
- e.g. assume you have a big plane on the scene, e.g. a wall

$$
z=a x+b y
$$

- then

$$
\binom{x^{\prime}}{y^{\prime}}=f\binom{x /(a x+b y)}{y /(a x+b y)}
$$

- the image coordinates depend highly non-linearly on the world coordinates


## Prospective projection

- this is the reason why we see this



## Prospective projection

- instead of this



## Projective projection

- since the size of the wall is constant
- far away (large z) distances appear to shrunk in the image
- in many cases, this non-linearity is too much to handle
- we look for approximations



## Affine projection

- consider a plane parallel to the image plane
- this plane has equation $z=C$ and the projection equation becomes

$$
\binom{x^{\prime}}{y^{\prime}}=\frac{f}{C}\binom{x}{y}=m\binom{x}{y}, \quad m=\frac{f}{C}
$$

- image coordinates are simply a re-scaling of the 3D coordinates



## Affine projection

- scaling:
- if $m<1$ image points are closer than 3D points,
- else they are further away
- this can be seen by noting that, for $P=\left(x_{p}, y_{p}\right), Q=\left(x_{q}, y_{q}\right)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
d\left(P^{\prime}, Q^{\prime}\right) & =\sqrt{\left(x_{p}^{\prime}-x_{q}^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\left(y_{p}^{\prime}-y_{q}^{\prime}\right)^{2}} \\
& =\sqrt{m^{2}\left(x_{p}-x_{q}\right)^{2}+m^{2}\left(y_{p}-y_{q}\right)^{2}} \\
& =|m| d(P, Q)
\end{aligned}
$$

- this is also captured by the relation through a scaling matrix

$$
\binom{x^{\prime}}{y^{\prime}}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
m & 0 \\
0 & m
\end{array}\right]\binom{x}{y}
$$

## Affine projection

- when can we use this approximation?
- we are assuming z constant
- this is acceptable if the variation of depth in the scene is much smaller than the average depth
- e.g. an airplane taking aerial photos



## Orthographic projection

- if the camera is always at (approximately) the same distance from the scene:
- m only contributes a change of scale that we do not care much about (e.g. measure in centimeters vs meters)
- it is common to normalize to $m=1$
- this is orthographic projection

$$
\binom{x^{\prime}}{y^{\prime}}=\binom{x}{y}
$$



## Orthographic projection

- this is, of course, very convenient:
- "image coordinates = world coordinates"
- there are not that many scenarios in which it is a good approximation
- nevertheless can be a good model for a preliminary solution
- which is then refined with a more complicated model



## Lenses

- so far we have assumed the pinhole camera
- in practice we cannot really build such a camera and obtain decent quality
- problems:
- when pinhole is too big
- many directions are averaged, blurring the image



## Lenses

- pinhole problems:
- if the pinhole is too small
- we have diffraction effects which also blur the image

- there is a correct pinhole size from an image distortion point of view, but that introduces other problems


## Lenses

- pinhole problems:
- for the "correct" pinhole size
- we cannot get enough light in the camera to sufficiently excite the recording material
- generally, pinhole cameras are dark,
- a very small set of rays from a particular point hits the screen

- this is the reason why we need camera lenses


## Lenses

- the basic idea is:
- lets make the aperture bigger so that we can have many rays of light into the camera
- to avoid blurring we need to concentrate all the rays that start in the same 3D point
- so that they end up on the same image plane point



## Lenses

- the geometry is as follows


R : radius of curvature of the lens
$\mathrm{d}_{1}$ : distance from 3D point to lens
$\mathrm{d}_{2}$ : distance to image plane

## Lenses

- we assume all angles are small ( $\mathrm{d}_{2}$, h are in microns):
- $\alpha=\sin \alpha=\operatorname{tg} \alpha$



## Lenses

- we assume all angles are small ( $\mathrm{d}_{2}$, h are in microns):
- $\alpha=\sin \alpha=\operatorname{tg} \alpha$



## Lenses

- Snell's law
- for light propagating between two media of indexes of refraction $\mathrm{n}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{n}_{2}$


$$
\alpha_{1} \approx \frac{h}{R}+\frac{h}{d_{1}} \alpha_{2} \approx \frac{h}{R}-\frac{h}{d_{2}} \Rightarrow n_{1} h\left(\frac{1}{R}+\frac{1}{d_{1}}\right) \approx n_{2} h\left(\frac{1}{R}-\frac{1}{d_{2}}\right)
$$

## Lenses

- which means that $\frac{1}{d_{1}} \approx \frac{1}{n_{1}}\left(\frac{n_{2}-n_{1}}{R}-\frac{n_{2}}{d_{2}}\right)$
- given distance $\mathrm{d}_{2}$, we can compute distance $\mathrm{d}_{1}$ of the 3D point



## Lenses

- which means that $\frac{1}{d_{1}} \approx \frac{1}{n_{1}}\left(\frac{n_{2}-n_{1}}{R}-\frac{n_{2}}{d_{2}}\right)$
- note that it does not depend on the vertical position of $P$
- we can show that it holds for all rays that start in the plane of $P$



## Lenses

- note that, in general,
- we can only have in focus objects that are in a certain depth range
- this is why the background is sometimes out of focus on photographs

- by controlling the focus you are effectively changing the plane of the rays that converge on the image plane without blur


