

# Summary 3D Vision (SS2016)

by 1026803

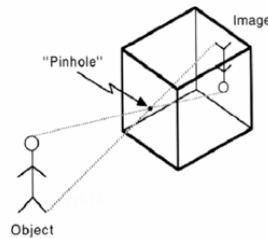
## 1. Image Acquisition

### 1.1. Human Eye

Retina, Fovea (center of view), Optic Disc, Lens, Cornea, Iris, Pupil, Muscles;  
Rods (brightness), Cones (Colors)

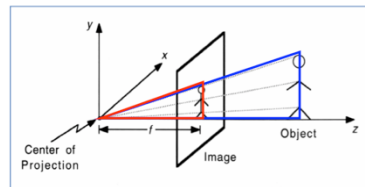
### 1.2. Pinhole Camera

- Aperture  $\approx 0$
- upside down and flipped image
- "Camera Obscura"
- Perspective Projection



### 1.3. Perspective Projection

- Angles are not preserved
- Non-Linear Projection!
- Points  $\rightarrow$  Points,  
Lines  $\rightarrow$  Lines,  
Planes  $\rightarrow$  whole/half image
- Degenerate cases:  
Plane through focal point  $\rightarrow$  line, etc.
- Use case: Structure from motion

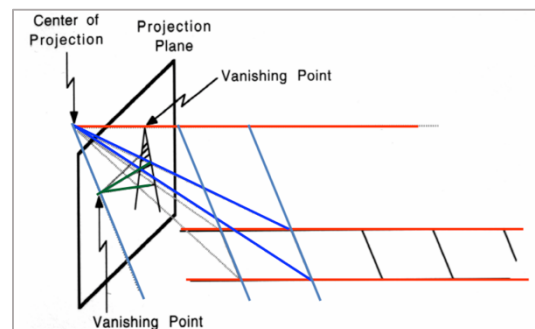


$$\frac{x}{X} = \frac{f}{Z}$$

$$\frac{y}{Y} = \frac{f}{Z}$$

### Vanishing Point:

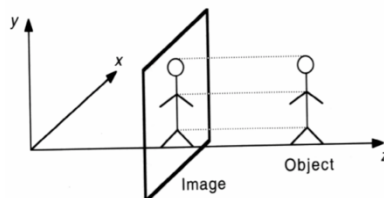
Each set of parallel lines meet in a different point (Vanishing point)



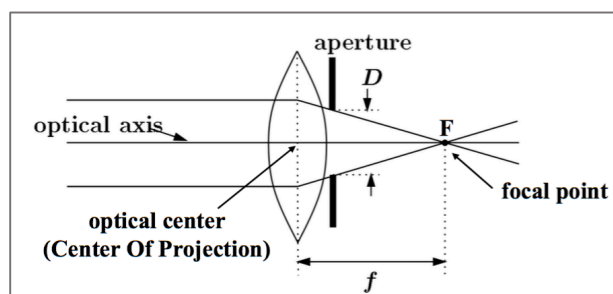
### 1.4. Normal Projection

$$x = X,$$

$$y = Y$$



### 1.5. Lens



### Assumptions for Thin Lens Equation

- Spherical Lens surface
- Small angles of light rays to optical axis
- Small lens
- Same refractive index on both sides of lens

Then:  $\frac{1}{u} + \frac{1}{v} = \frac{1}{f}$

### 1.6. Focus and Depth of Field

- Only objects in a certain distance are imaged sharply at the image plane
- The bigger the aperture, the bigger the blur circles
- The smaller the aperture, the sharper is the image (too small → diffraction, dark)

### 1.7. Radiometry

- **Radiance** = Amount of light that is reflected by a surface point
- **Irradiance** = Amount of light that is projected from this point onto the image
- Unit = W/m<sup>2</sup>

### 1.8. Camera Sensors

- CCD – integrative method
- CMOS – non-linear method, directly addressable

### 1.9. Shannon Theorem

Exact reconstruction of a continuous-time baseband signal from its samples is possible if the signal is band-limited and the sampling frequency is greater than twice the signal bandwidth.

$$f_{\text{Sampling}} > 2 \cdot f_{\text{max}}$$

### 1.10. Camera Problems

- Optical Distortion
  - Blur
  - Lens glare (tray inter-reflections of light when very bright sources are present)
  - Vignetting
  - Aberration (Geometrical, Chromatic)
  - Lens distortions
- CCD artifacts
  - motion blur
  - blooming (e.g. high dynamic light in CCD) / smearing (lines of image)
- Gamma distortion

### Aberrations

2 Types:

- Geometrical (Spherical, Astigmatism, radial/tangential Distortion, Coma)
- Chromatic (refractive index is function of wavelength)

Further Parameters: White-Balance, Color, SNR, Resolution, Thermal-/ Photon Shot Noise

## 2. Camera Calibration

### 2.1. Calibration

Correct 3D information from 2D images

#### Extrinsic Parameters (location and orientation)

- 3 Euler angles
- 3 Translational vector components

#### Intrinsic Parameters (pixel coordinates w.r.t. camera reference frame)

- Focal length  $f$  (distance image plane – projection center)
- Lens distortion coefficient  $\kappa$  ( $\kappa_1, \kappa_2$ )
- Scaling Factor  $s$  (sampling factor in x-direction)
- Principal Point  $C_x, C_y$  (Intersection of optical axis with image plane)

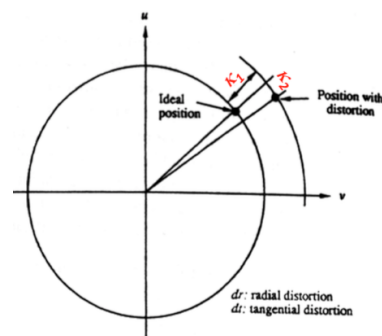
### 2.2. Geometrical Aberrations

- Spherical aberration
- Astigmatism
- Distortion
- Chromatic aberration

→ Can be reduced by combining lenses

### 2.3. Lens Distortion

- Radial distortion  $\kappa_1$  (barrel/pincushion)
- Tangential distortion  $\kappa_2$



### 2.4. Principal Point

Determination in **3 ways**

- Mathematical model fit (radial distortion)
- Direct optical method (Laser beam is projected through the lens onto the sensor)
- Variation of focal length (a: variation of image plane, b: Use 2 lenses)

### 2.5. Calibration Procedure

#### Linear with Target

- Use calibration plate with known structure
- Positioning in view of camera and find edges
- Calculate parameters

#### Image Processing

- Canny edge detection
- Straight line fitting to detect long edges
- Intersection of lines to find image corners
- matching of image corners and 3D checkerboard corners

## Nonlinear Methods

Linear methods have problems: too many parameters, does not model lens distortion  
→ Tsai Calibration. Covers all intrinsic and extrinsic parameters

4 Steps:

- World COS → Camera COS (R,T)
- Camera COS → undistorted image COS (f)
- Consider lens distortion ( $\kappa$ )
- Metric image COS → pixel image COS ( $C_x, C_y, s$ )

## 2D Motion

- Structure from motion
  - Track points over sequence of images
  - calibrate internal parameters beforehand
- Self-Calibration
  - Ultimate Solution (-;

## Radiometric Calibration

Radiometric Errors:

- Different Sensitivity
- Same Brightness → Scaling coefficient for every pixel
- Different Brightness → Gamma correction

### 3. Range Scanner

#### 3.1. Time of Flight Range Finder

Determine distance by runtime measurement (optical or ultrasound)

- Transmitter → Deflector → Receiver → Phase comparator
- Other method: Sending light pulses

#### 3.2. Laser Radar ToF

$$d = \frac{c \cdot t}{2} \Rightarrow \text{for 1 meter: } t = 6.7 \text{ ns!}$$

Phase detection leads to ambiguities by  $n \cdot \frac{\lambda}{2}$  (solution: sweeping to finer wavelengths)

→ Continuous wave needed

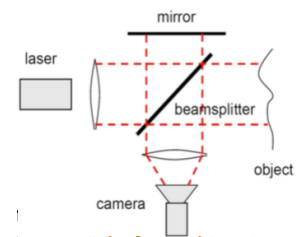
Time of Flight	Pulse-based (AMCW)
Large distances: up to 1000 m	Distances up to 100 m
Lower measuring speed: 1000-10000 points / s	High measuring speed: up to 650000 points / s
Short pulse: eye save	Reflectance of material also determined
Absolute depth measured	Ambiguity of distance

	Measurement uncertainty
Triangulation Range camera	0.1 mm
TOF based laser scanner (AM, PM)	2-20 mm
Laser Radar (FM CW)	0.1 mm

#### 3.3. Interferometry

- Coherent laser light is split into two paths (reference mirror, object)
- Beams are added again (Interference)

High accuracy (nm), works only with smooth/mirror-like surfaces



#### 3.4. Ultrasound/Infrared Range Finder

##### Advantages

- Illumination independent
- Low speed of measurement beam

##### Disadvantage

- Poor resolution
- Low accuracy
- Deflector necessary

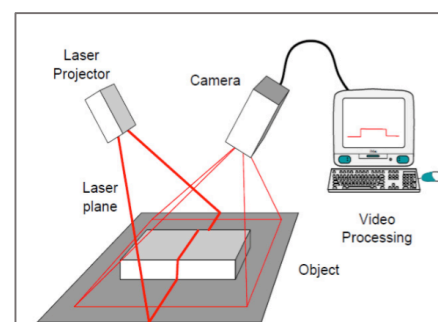
**Applications:** Car Parking radar, filling measurement, underwater meas.

#### 3.5. Triangulation Range Finder

- Projection of light plane into measuring area
- Distortion defines distance from camera via triangulation

##### Coded light approach

- Moiré techniques
- Pattern projection
- Gray-Code
- Color coding



## Problems

- Occlusions
- Contrast and sharpness of laser
- Speckle noise from laser

## 3.6. Types of Range Finder

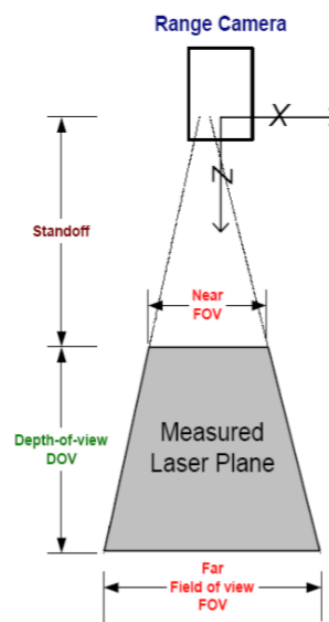
- Spot Projection (point by point measurement and triangulation)
- Light point stereo Analysis (use 2 cameras, laser point)
- Light strip range finder (projecting light planes)
- Shadow scanning (like light strip but using shadows)
- Pattern projection (use pattern instead of point/line)
  - Random patterns
  - Encoded patterns (e.g. gray code, phase/freq./amp. modulation, color coding)

## 3.7. Errors in optical triangulation

- Laser width limits accuracy (e.g. at sharp edges)
- Different surface colors/reflectivity
- Occlusions (solution: use more lasers or cameras)

## 3.8. Specifications for 3D Scanners

- Standoff
- Depth of view (DOV)
- Near field of view (near FOV)
- Far field of view (far FOV)
  
- Accuracy
- Reproducibility
- Uncertainty of Precision
- Systematic Errors
- Random Errors
- Resolution



## 4. Shape from Monocular Images

Shape from	How many images	Method type
Stereo	2 or more	passive
Motion	a sequence	active/passive
Focus/defocus	2 or more	active
Zoom	2 or more	active
Contours	single	passive
Texture	single	passive
Shading	single	passive

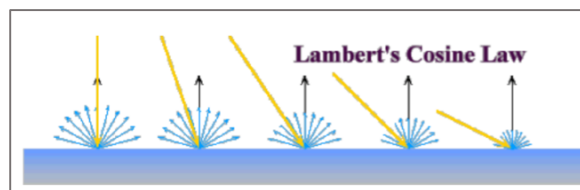
### 4.1. Shape from Shading

- Shading on the surface gives the depth information
- Surface reflection of untextured objects includes depth information
- Surface boundaries play crucial role in interpretation by humans

#### Mechanisms for Reflection

- Body Reflection: Diffuse, matte, non-homogeneous - (e.g. paper, clay)
  - Surface Reflection: Glossy, specular (=mirror-like) - (e.g. metals)
- Many materials have both types

For simplification normal projection is always used (object far away and close to optical axis)



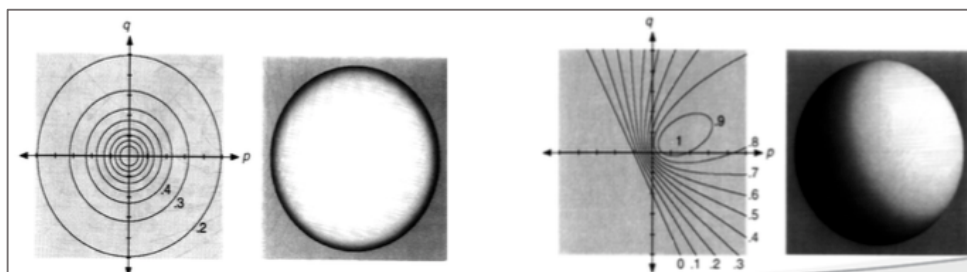
### 4.2. Reflectance Map

#### Lambertian Surface

Brightness depends only on the direction of illumination, not observation

#### Reflectance Map

2D plot of gradient space  $(p, q)$  of normalized image brightness of a surface as function of surface orientation.



Straight line is called Terminator and separates illuminated from shaded regions.

**Problem:** in reality combination of matte and specular reflection

- Weighted average of diffuse and specular component
- Reflectance map must be determined experimentally
- not possible for general shape from shading (with known standard forms like ellipse, parable, hyperbola and line/terminator)

**Another Problem:** Rounded corners lead to overshooting

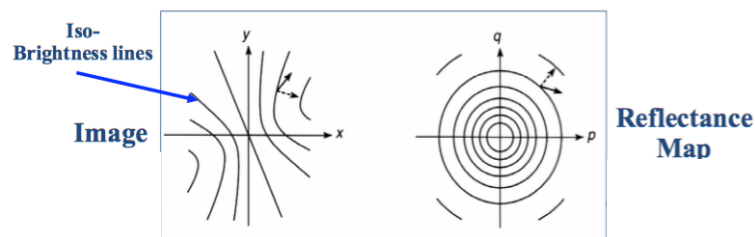
#### 4.3. Shape determination in Shape from Shading

**Methods:** Strip Method, Photometric Stereo, Polarized Light

##### Strip Method

- For each brightness value of a pixel  $\rightarrow$  Reflectance Map restricts surface orientation
- Strips of equal brightness in the picture = height lines
- Starting point with known surface normal
- Small movement in the direction of greatest change in brightness  
 $\rightarrow$  small movement in the direction of greatest slope
- Requires one or more starting points

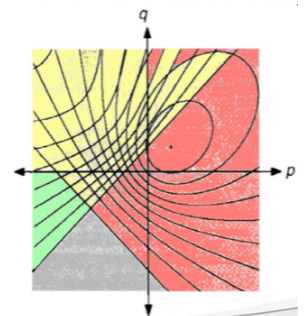
Disadvantage: Errors cumulate, no stable solution (depending on starting point)



##### Photometric Stereo

Basis: 2 images with same geometry but different illumination directions

- 1 Reflectance Map limits surface orientation only by one iso-brightness contour (many solutions possible)
- 2 RM restrict possible directions of a surface normal to 2 candidates (intersection of lines in gradient space)
- Clear solution by using third light source
- Practical application: using colored light or use of a chrome sphere



##### Procedure

1. Estimate light source directions
2. Compute surface normals
3. Compute albedo values
4. Estimate depth from surface normals
5. Relight the object (with original texture and uniform albedo)



### **Prerequisites for SfS**

- Surfaces with constant albedo → rotationally invariant
- Orthographic projection
- Distant and calibrated sources of illumination
- No drop shadows
- No reflection illumination - inter reflection

### 4.4. Shape from Shading Variants

- Shape from Specularity (for highly reflective Surfaces)
- Extension for non-lambertian surfaces by using polarized light (exact surface normal but only approximate position)
- Shape from Shadow (Reconstruct surface topography from self-occlusion)

### 4.5. Shape from Texture

#### **Texture**

- Repetition of a basic pattern
- Pattern repetition neither regular nor deterministic (e.g. human made texture), only statistically regularly (e.g. grass, ocean, etc.)

#### **Statistical Texture Analysis**

- Suitable for all natural textures
- Used for classification rather than for shape determination

#### **Structural Texture Analysis**

For deterministic textures (mostly made by humans), made out of elements called texels.

#### Shape from Texels

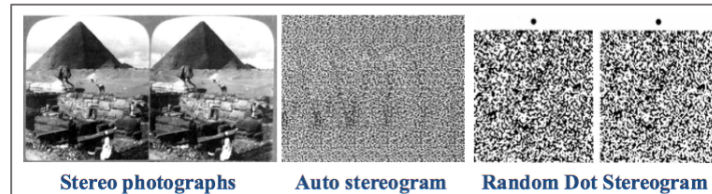
- Is based on the distortion of the single texel
- Texel must be clearly identifiable and must not overlap
- All texels have the same spatial extent
- Texel are "small", i.e. are planar and have unique surface normal

## 5. Shape from Stereo / Stereo Vision

Correct 3d information using 2d images:

- 2 or more images taken from different positions plus geometric calibration of camera
- Tries to imitate human visual system
- Is also used in the entertainment industry

### Examples



### 5.1. Entertainment Industry

- Dual Displays (Oculus, HTC Vive, etc.)
- 3D Glasses
  - Anaglyph (cyan/red)
  - Polarized Displays
  - Active shutter/Field sequential
- Lenticular Display / Barrier strip Displays

### 5.2. Stereo Geometry

#### Objective

- Given two images of a scene acquired by known cameras compute the 3D position of the scene (structure recovery)
- Basic principle: triangulate from corresponding image points

#### Disparity

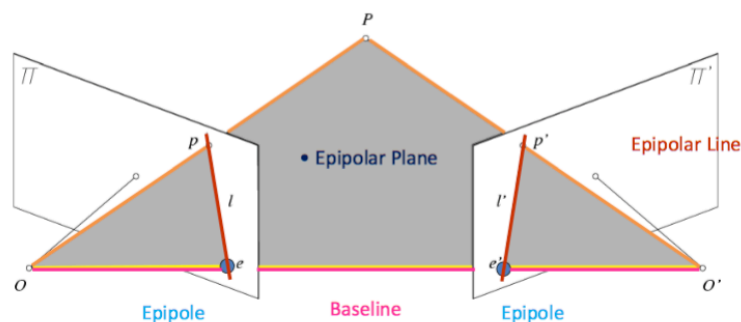
Disparity:  $D = x_1 - x_2$

Distance to center of projection:  $-Z = \frac{f \cdot B}{D}$

B...Baseline, f...focal length, Z...distance of object point

#### Epipolar Constraint

Each point of the left image can lie only on a specific line in the right image: the Epipolar Line

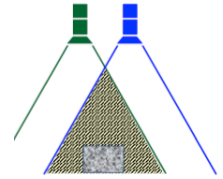


→ Reduced to 1D search problem!

## Rectification

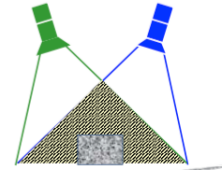
### Normal Case

- Disadvantage: small distance between the centers of projection
- Advantage: low computational complexity



### General Case

- the larger the distance between projection centers, the more accurate
- but larger distance leads to large occlusion areas



We can always get to the normal case by image re-projection

- Re-project image planes onto common plane parallel to line between optical centers
- Notice, only focal point of camera really matters

## 5.3. Correspondence Analysis

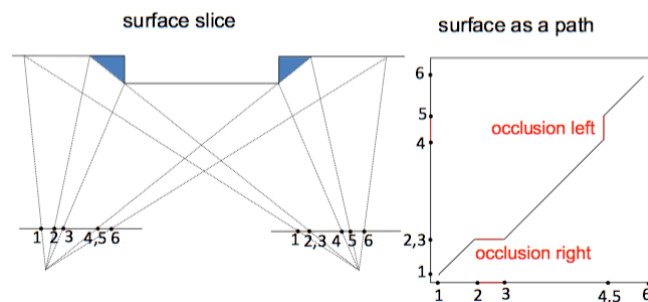
### Area Based

- Compare intensity levels of left and right image
- Correspondence due to similarity of intensity levels
- Correspondence for each pixel

### Feature Based

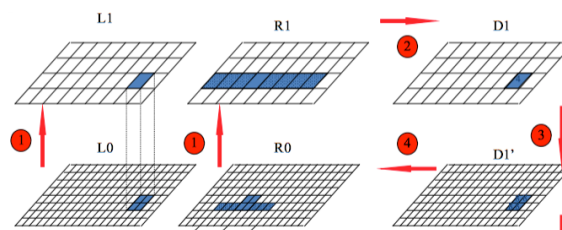
- Compare features of left and right image
- Correspondence on basis of selected characteristics (edge, gradient, etc.)
- Correspondence only for selected Pixels
- more accurate (sub-pixel positioning)

**Problem:** Point does not exist or is not distinct



## 5.4. Hierarchical Stereo Matching

- Faster Computation
- Deals with large disparity ranges



### 5.5. Energy Minimization

- Matching pixels should have similar intensities
  - Most nearby pixels should have similar disparities
- Labeling problem

### 5.6. Feature-based Correspondence Analysis

- Look for a feature in an image that matches a feature in the other
- Set of geometric features is used (e.g. edges, line segments, corners, etc.)
- Need for interpolation if only sparse set of points available

### 5.7. Active Stereo

- Feature-based methods cannot be used when objects have smooth surfaces or surfaces of uniform intensity
- Patterns of light can be projected onto the surface of objects, creating “interesting” points even in regions which would be otherwise smooth

**Problem:** Ambiguity

→ Using multiple cameras reduces likelihood of false matches

### 5.8. Components of Stereo Vision Systems

- **Camera calibration:** Find inner and outer parameters of cameras
- **Image rectification:** simplifies the search for correspondences
- **Correspondence:** which item in the left image corresponds to item in the right image
- **Reconstruction:** recovers 3-D information from the 2-D correspondences

## 6. Shape from Multiple Images

### 6.1. Depth from Focus

- Range from focus using  $\frac{1}{u} + \frac{1}{v} = \frac{1}{f}$
- Take pictures along axis
- find image having highest frequency (best focus)
- more than 10 images needed (monocular)
- use Gaussian interpolation to form a set of approximations

**Disadvantage:** many images must be captured to find best focus → Depth from defocus

### 6.2. Depth from Defocus

- Assume a blurring function (blur model)
- Diffusion parameter is related to blur radius
- Depth can be computed from the two measurements (2 unknowns: depth and image frequencies)
- Needs textured surfaces
- Active depth from defocus: project pattern onto surface (frequency of scene is then known)

**Problem:** Ambiguity (object too near or too far)

**Solution:** Use two sensor planes

If no texture available → project structured lighting onto surface (Active Depth from Defocus)

### 6.3. Shape from Motion

- Motion of an observer relative to the environment
- Problem: moving direction and amount of camera movement
- Prerequisites:
  - Known moving direction of camera
  - Known speed of camera 3rd Dimension = time dimension
- Correct Assumptions → Depth calculation possible

#### **Motion Field**

...is characterized by vectors that represent the movement of the corresponding scene points.

If camera does not rotate:

- Vectors point radially to or from a focus
- Point where motion vector of camera intersects image plane:
  - FOE: Focus of Expansion (forward movement)
  - FOC: Focus of Contraction (backward movement)
- Length of the vector is:
  - inversely proportional to distance of point
  - proportional to sine of the angle between moving direction and image point

→ movement zero = FOE or FOC (except for points at infinity!)

## Motion Field Determination

Task: Determination of corresponding points in two images

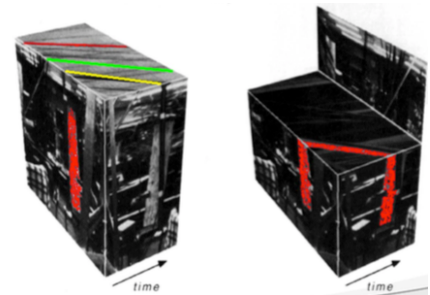
- sparse vector field
- same problem as stereo - only moving direction of camera not known
- Epipolar line not known at the beginning

To find correspondence between images:

- high temporal sampling = slight differences
- either unchanged intensities in both images, or unchanged edges in both images

### 2 Strategies for determination:

- **Spatio-temporal derivation:**  
Intensities do not change in timeline, gray values are continuously differentiable
- **Spatio-temporal coherence:**  
Intensity and edges are preserved

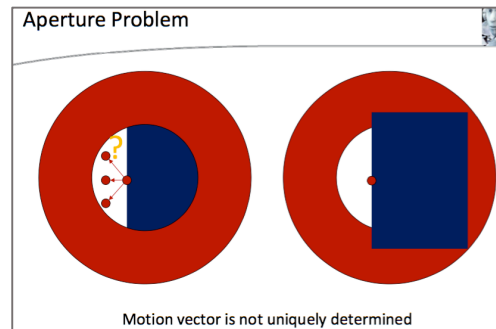
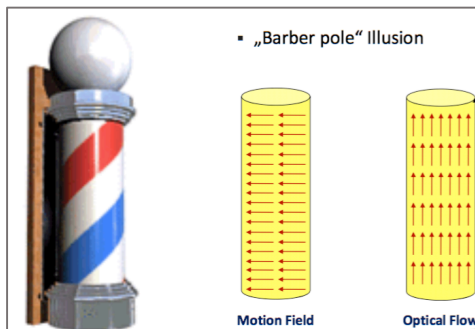


## Motion Field vs. Optical Flow

Motion Field: Projection of movement onto the image plane

Optical Flow: Observed flow in the image plane (constant brightness constraint)

Assumption: motion field = optical flow



We can only determine the motion parallel to the gradient but not normal to the gradient!

## 7. Registration

Range Images are 2.5 D – Full 3D is made of multiple range images.

Process of putting single images together → **Registration**

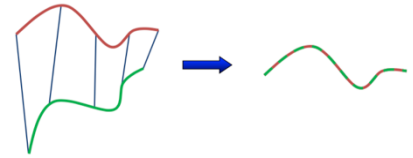
The result of a single scan is called Range Map (depth value for each pixel → point grid) and is an incomplete 3D Model. Multiple shots are needed!

### The Scanning Pipeline

1. Scanning (data acquisition)
2. Alignment of data
3. Merging to get single surface
4. Manipulation (simplification, coloring, mesh cleaning)
5. Visualization

### 7.1. Alignment

- Each part has its own COS
- Objective: bring all parts in common reference system
- First step: roughly positioning to have an overlap region



### 2 Approaches

- Target based registration
- Surface based registration

### 7.2. Target based Registration

- Align scans by using reference markers
- Automatic matching possible



#### Advantage

- Less computational effort
- Geo-Referencing to a higher reference system

#### Disadvantage

- Longer fieldwork time
- Accuracy

### 7.3. Surface based Registration

- Only point cloud data used for registration
- uses more scans

#### Advantage

- Better accuracy
- Optimizing project cost and duration

#### Disadvantage

- Computationally expensive
- Not well-suited for geo-referencing

### Methods

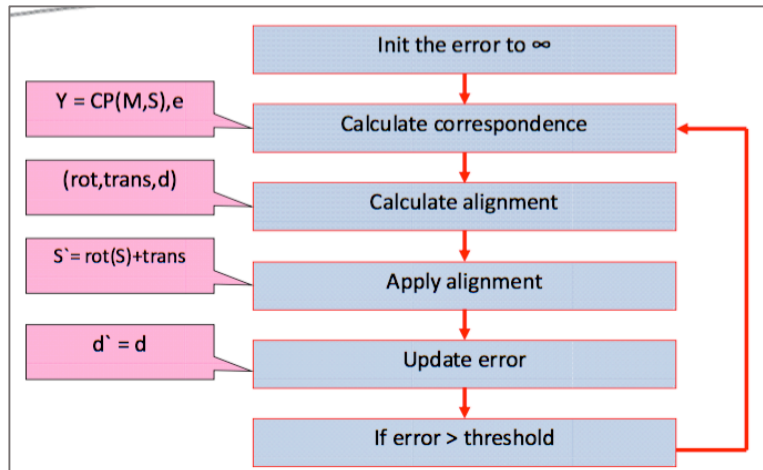
- Zippering
  - Scans are simply joined to one surface
  - Simple and fast
  - does not use redundancy to eliminate sampling error
- Volumetric Methods
  - Range Maps are mapped in a volumetric grid
- Marching Cube
  - Mostly used of merging software

### 7.4. Iterative Closest Points

**General:** Closest Point approach converges if starting position is “close enough”



## Algorithm



The ICP algorithm always converges to a local minimum

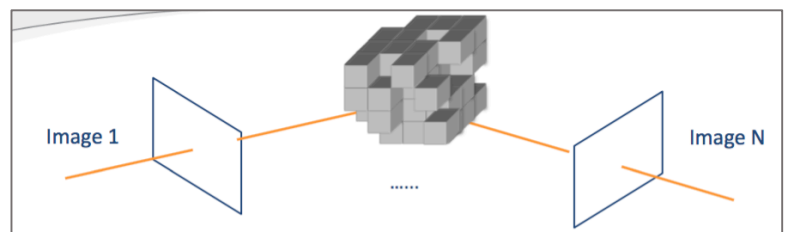
## Variations

- Selection of Points: all available, random samples, uniform subsampling
- Matching: Closest point, normal shooting, reverse calibration, include color/intensity
- Weighting of Pairs: w.r.t. distance, compatibility of normal vectors, scanner uncertainty
- Rejecting Pairs: w.r.t. distance, worst n%, points at and of lines, not consistent neighboring pairs
- Error Metric: sum of squared distance, SVD, orthonormal matrices

## 8. Space Carving

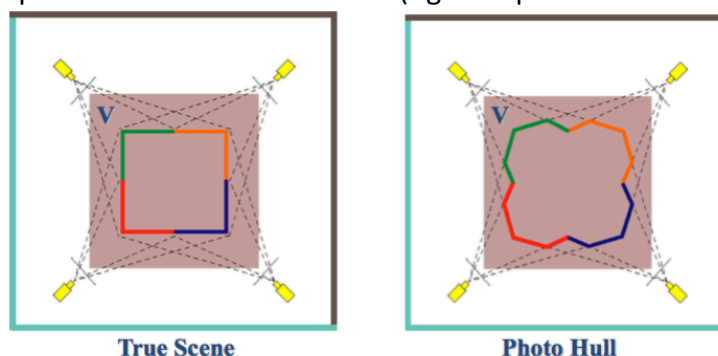
### Algorithm

- Initialize a volume  $V$  containing the true scene
- Choose a voxel on the surface
- Project to visible input images
- Carve if not photo-consistent
- Repeat until convergence



### Photo Hull

...is the union of all photo-consistent scenes in  $V$  (tightest possible bound on the scene)

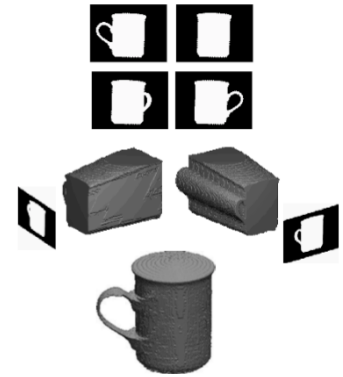




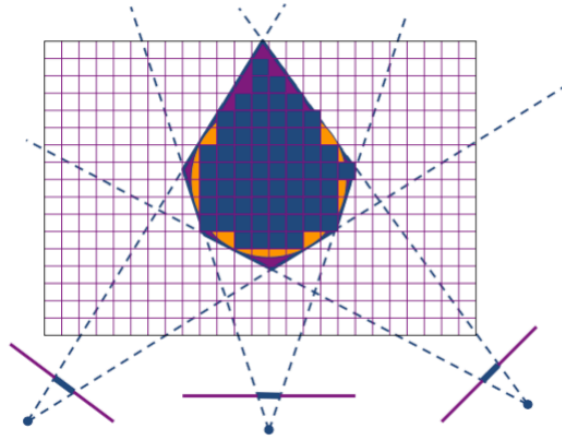
## 9. Shape from Silhouette

### Basics

- Silhouette of object contains 3D information
- Only binary images used
- Voxel is photo-consistent if it lies inside silhouettes of all views



Final model: intersection of all conic volumes



**Visual hull** is a good starting point for optimizing photo-consistency

- Easy to compute
- Tight outer bound
- parts already lie on the surface and thus are photo-consistent

### Algorithms

- Voxel based method (standard)
- Marching intersections
- Image-Based visual hulls
- Exact polyhedral methods

### Strengths

- Reconstructs visual hull of object that is never larger than model
- can reconstruct handle (of a cup?)

### Weaknesses

- Unable to reconstruct concavities
- Flat surfaces reconstructed poorly
- Sufficient for convex, oval objects

## 10. Medical 3D Scanning / Volume Scanners

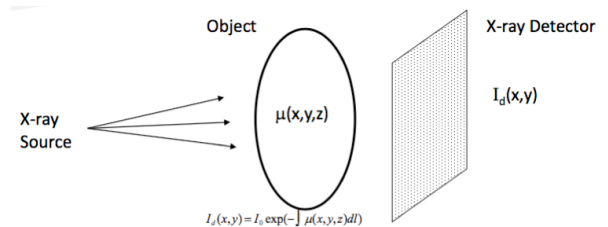
### Types

- X-Ray Projection (Radiography)
- X-Ray Computed Tomography (CT)
- Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI)
- Nuclear Medicine (PET)
- Ultrasound

### 10.1. Radiography

X-Ray density increases for different tissues

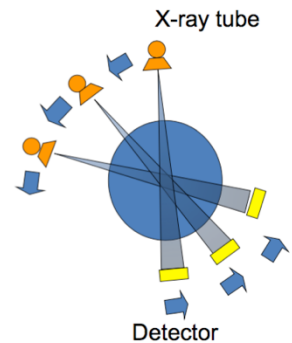
- Air (minimal absorption)
- Adipose tissue
- connective tissue of organs
- Bones (large nuclei, high density)



Application: Medicine, Safety

### 10.2. Computed Tomography

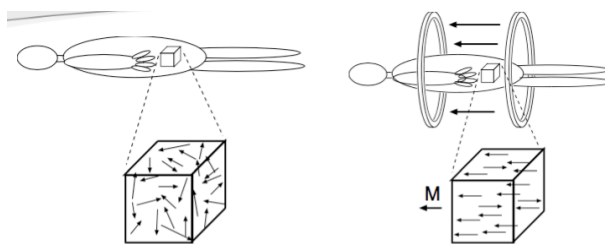
- X-rays that scan axial sections/layers of body
- Propagation delays produce scan data
- Computer calculates image



Used especially for the analysis of bone structures, low contrast in tissue

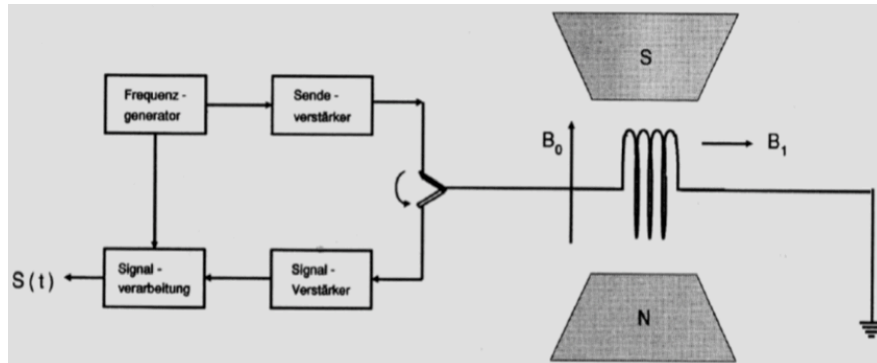
### 10.3. Magnetic Resonance Imaging

- Atomic nuclei and hydrogen nuclei,  $1H$ , in particular, have a magnetic moment
- Moments tend to become aligned to applied field
- Creates magnetization,  $m(x,y,z)$  (a tissue property)
- MRI makes images of  $m(x,y,z)$



### Working Principle

- object is located in a homogeneous static magnetic field  $B_0$
- $B_1$  is radiated perpendicular to  $B_0$
- Record the magnetic resonance signal



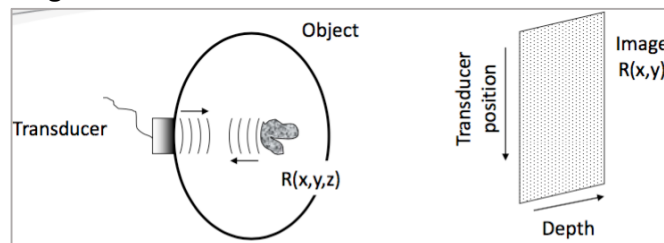
### 10.4. Nuclear Medicine / Positron Emission Tomography (PET)

- Radioactive test solutions are given to patients
- Evaluating the radioactive radiation

Example: administration of radioactively enriched oxygen to verify the brain activity zones  
Often combined with CT → PET/CT

### 10.5. Ultrasound Tomography

- Image reflectivity of acoustic wave
- Depth – function of time
- Lateral – focusing of wavefronts



### 10.6. Comparison

	X-Ray	CT	MR	US
Representation of				
• Bones	+++	+++	+	-
• Tissue	- / +	-	++	+
• Vessels	++	++	++	+
• Function	-	-	++	++
• Volumes	-	++	++	+
Real-time	*	+	+	++
Psychological stress	low	medium	high	low
Physical stress	high	high	low	low
Invasive	no	no	no	no
Cost (EUR)	~ 40	~ 100	~ 400	~ 10

## 11. 3D Printing

- Also known as: rapid prototyping, additive manufacturing
- Biggest market: Motor vehicles, consumer products
- Form of additive Manufacturing (joining material layer-by-layer)

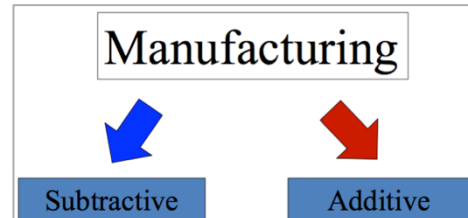
### 11.1. 3D Printing Techniques

#### Subtractive

- Milling
- Turning
- Drilling
- CNC

#### Additive

- Glue slices of object back together



#### Types of Additive Manufacturing

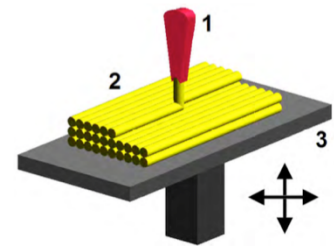
- SLS (Selective Laser Sintering)
- FDM (Fused Deposition Modeling)
- SLA (Stereo lithography)
- DLP (Digital Light Processing)
- EBM (Electron Beam Melting)

### 11.2. Selective Laser Sintering

- Platform with layer of powder
- Fuse powder with laser or by adding binder
- Lower platform, add powder and repeat

### 11.3. Fused Deposition Modeling

- Squirt semi-liquid material (plastic, wax, chocolate, etc)
- Add layer by layer
- Nozzle is heated to melt material and is moved horizontally and vertically



### 11.4. Stereo Lithography

- Tank of liquid polymer
- harden (polymerize) with laser beam
- Accurate, relatively fast

### 11.5. Digital Light Processing

Same as Stereo Lithography, but instead of a laser a DLP projector is used

### 11.6. Electron Beam Melting

- Power source: Electron beam
- Melting metal powder layer by layer in vacuum
- Parts are fully dense, void-free and extremely strong

## 11.7. Applications

- Medical procedures
- Advances in research
- Product prototyping
- Historic Preservation
- Architectural Engineering Construction
- Advanced Manufacturing
- Food Industries
- Automotive
- Accessories