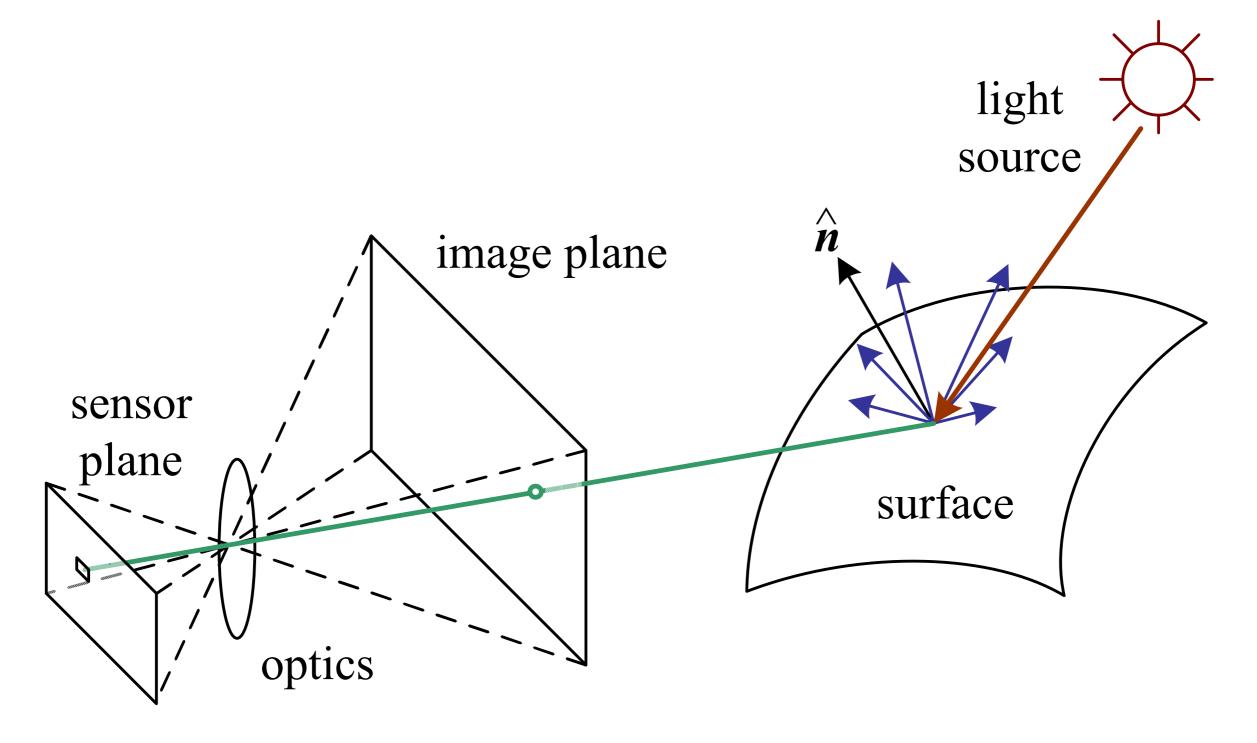
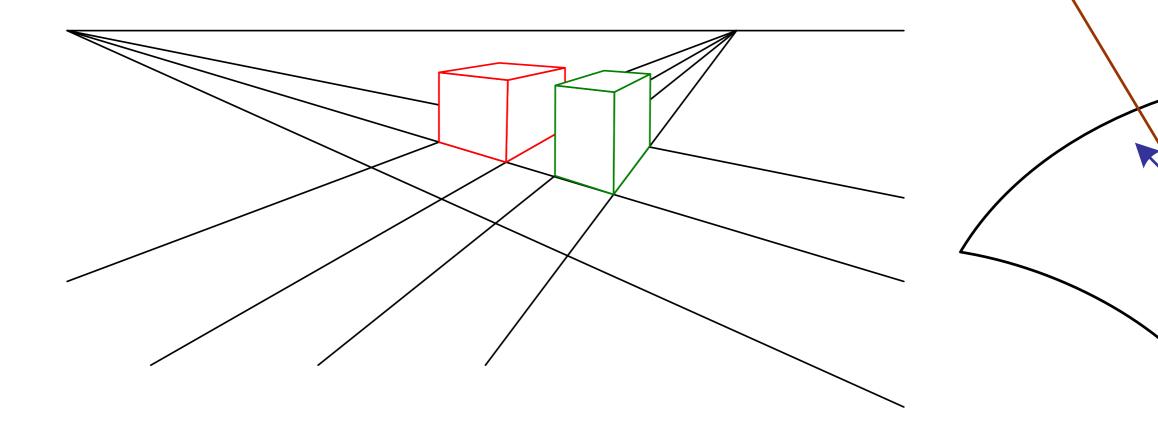
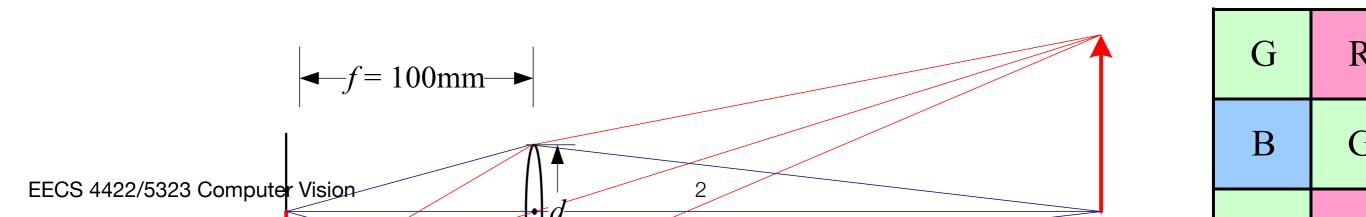
2. Image Formation





2.1 Geometric Primitives & Transformations









- Geometric primitives
- 2D transformations
- 3D transformations
- ✤ 3D rotations
- ✤ 3D to 2D projections
- Lens Distortions

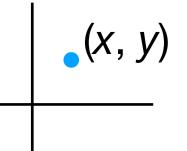




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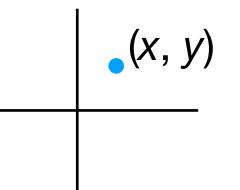


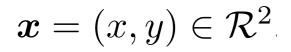


•(x, y)



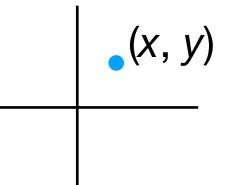


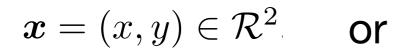
















•(*x*, *y*)

2D point (e.g., a pixel coordinate in an image):

$$oldsymbol{x} = (x,y) \in \mathcal{R}^2$$
 or $oldsymbol{x} = \left[egin{array}{c} x \ y \end{array}
ight]$





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In homogeneous coordinates:





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5



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Vectors that differ only by a scale considered equivalent:

 $s\tilde{x} = \tilde{x} \, \forall s \in \mathcal{R}$

Augmented Vectors

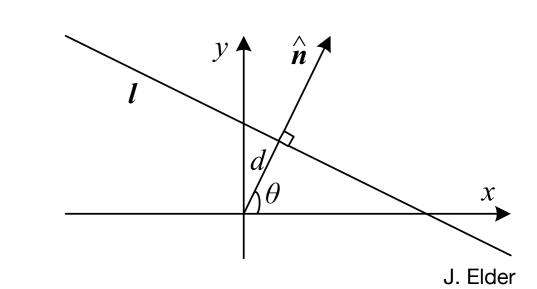


A homogenous vector can be converted back to an *inhomogeneous* vector by dividing by the last element:

$$\begin{split} & \tilde{\pmb{x}} = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, \tilde{w}) = \tilde{w}(x, y, 1) = \tilde{w}\bar{\pmb{x}} \\ & \swarrow \end{split}$$
 Homogeneous vector Augmented vector





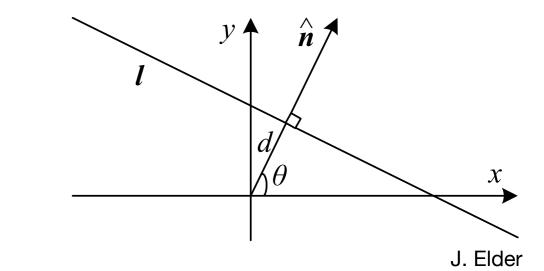


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2D lines can also be represented using homogeneous coordinates $\tilde{l} = (a, b, c)$.

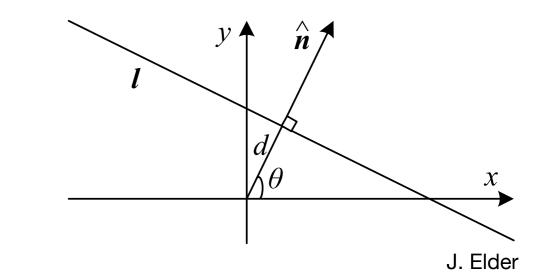




2D lines can also be represented using homogeneous coordinates $\tilde{l} = (a, b, c)$.

The corresponding *line equation* is

$$\bar{\boldsymbol{x}}\cdot\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}=ax+by+c=0.$$



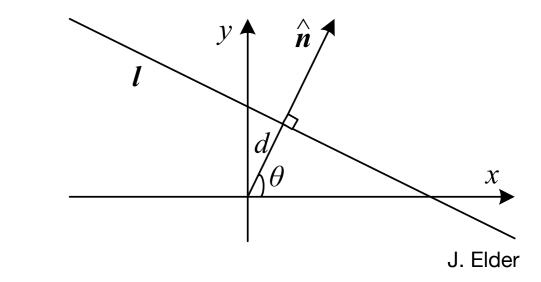


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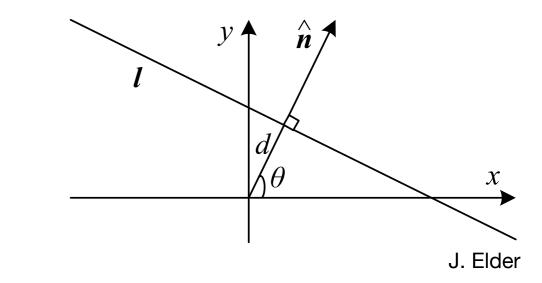
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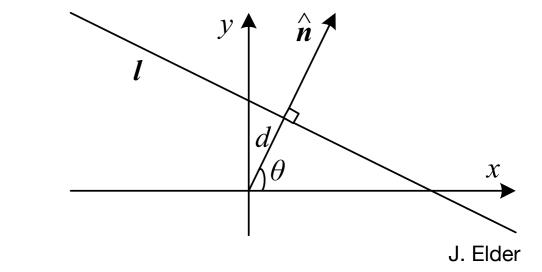
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Then:

 \hat{n} is the unit normal perpendicular to the line |d| is the distance of the line from the origin

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} = (\hat{n}_x, \hat{n}_y) = (\cos\theta, \sin\theta)$$







Intersections of 2D Lines



When using homogeneous coordinates, we can compute the intersection of two lines as

Intersections of 2D Lines



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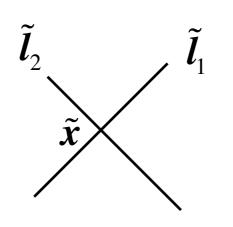
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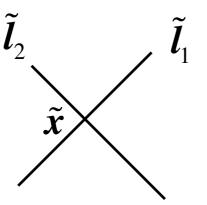




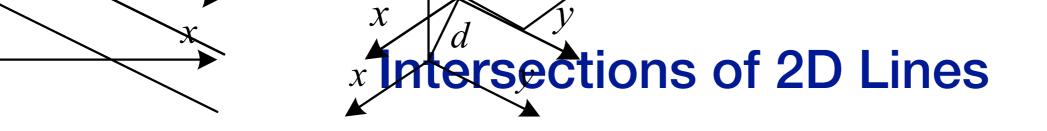


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Similarly, the line joining two points can be written as





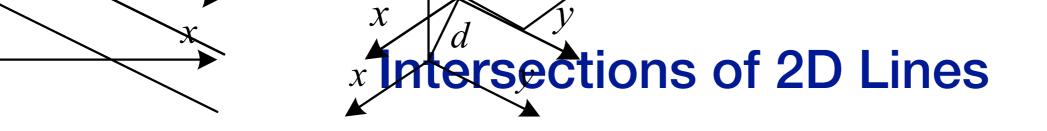
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 l_1

 $oldsymbol{ ilde{x}} = oldsymbol{ ilde{l}}_1 imes oldsymbol{ ilde{l}}_2 \ oldsymbol{ ilde{l}}_2 \ oldsymbol{ ilde{l}}_2 \ oldsymbol{ ilde{x}} oldsymbol{ ilde{l}}$

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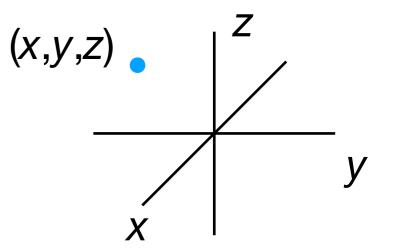
Straightforward extension from 2D:

Inhomogeneous: $\boldsymbol{x} = (x, y, z) \in \mathcal{R}^3$

Homogeneous: $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, \tilde{z}, \tilde{w}) \in \mathcal{P}^3$

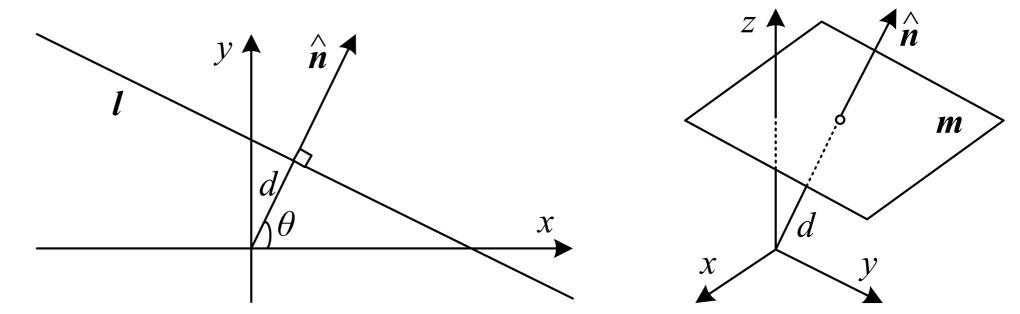
Augmented: $\bar{\boldsymbol{x}} = (x, y, z, 1)$

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = \tilde{w} \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}$$









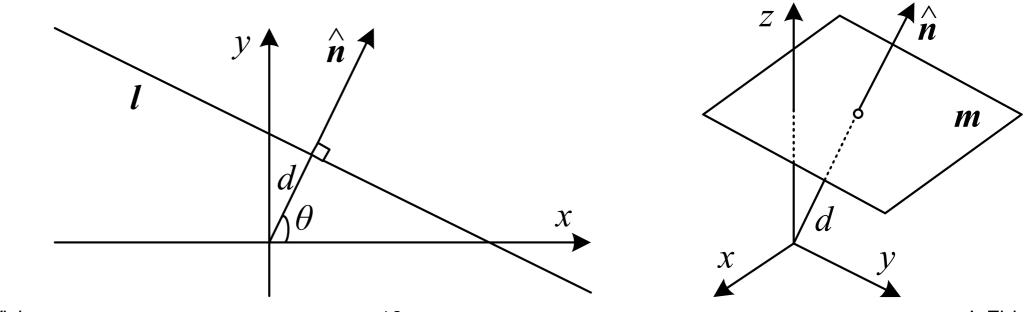
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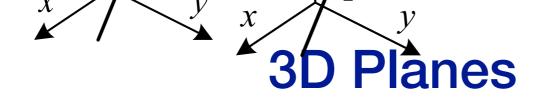




3D planes can also be represented as homogeneous coordinates $ilde{m{m}}=(a,b,c,d)$

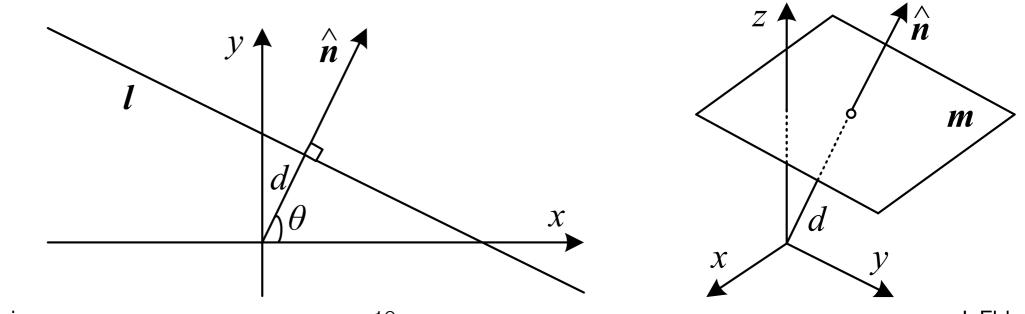


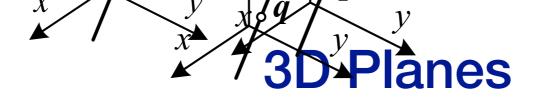
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$$\bar{\boldsymbol{x}}\cdot\tilde{\boldsymbol{m}} = ax + by + cz + d = 0$$

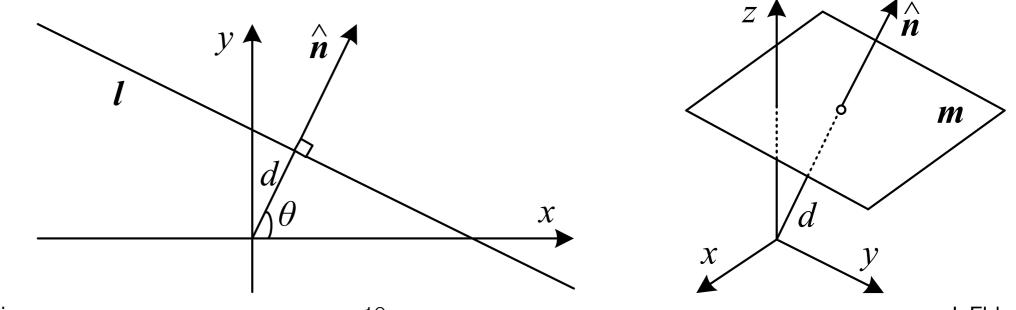


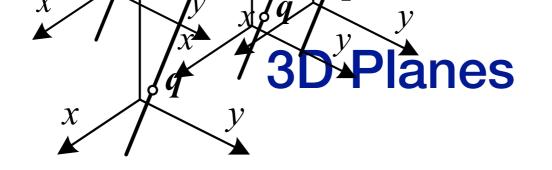




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We can also normalize the plane equation as $\boldsymbol{m} = (\hat{n}_x, \hat{n}_y, \hat{n}_z, d) = (\boldsymbol{\hat{n}}, d)$ with $\|\boldsymbol{\hat{n}}\| = 1$.



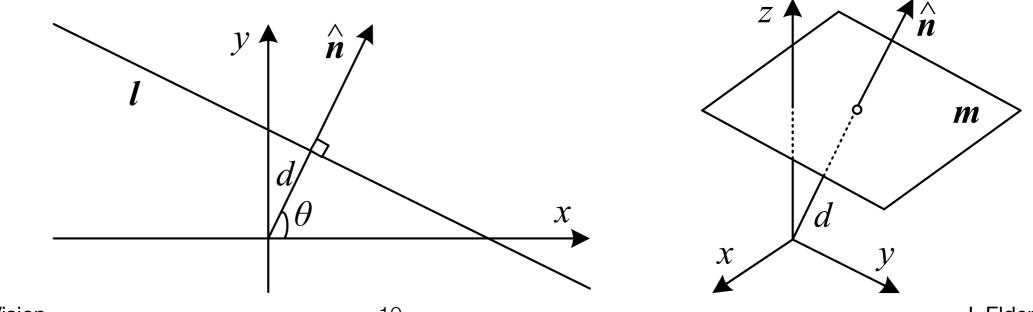


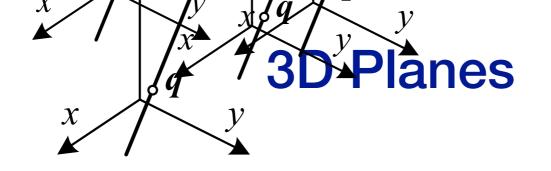


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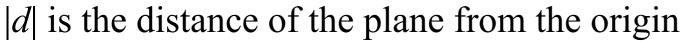


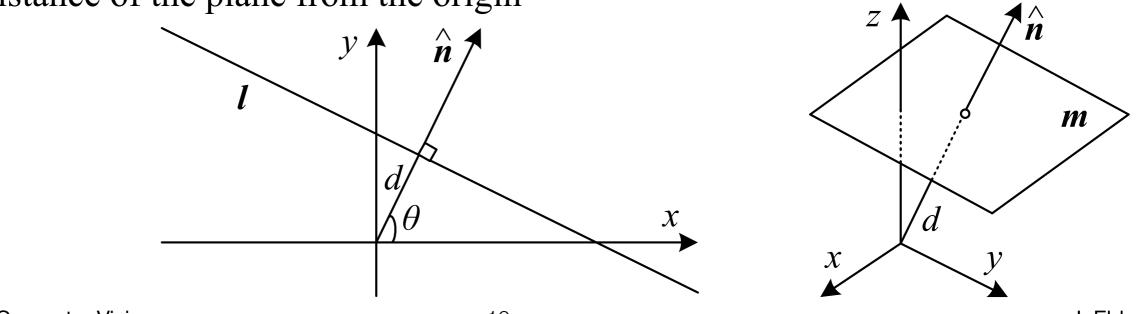


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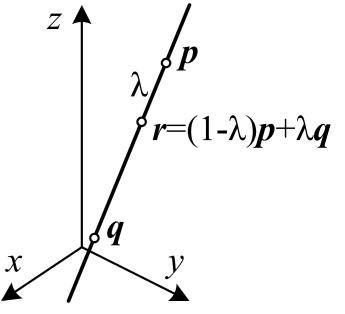
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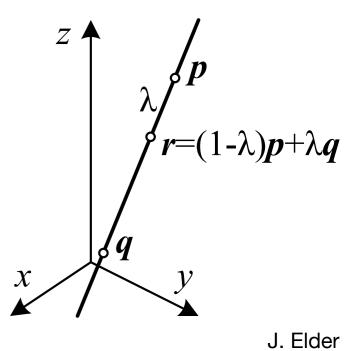


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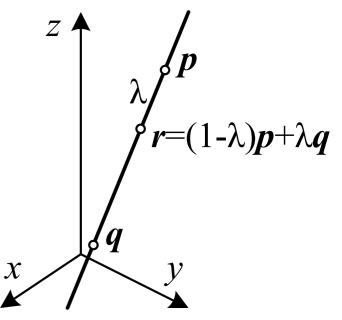
A 3D line can be represented using two points p and q that lie on the line.





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Any point r that also lies on the line can then be represented as

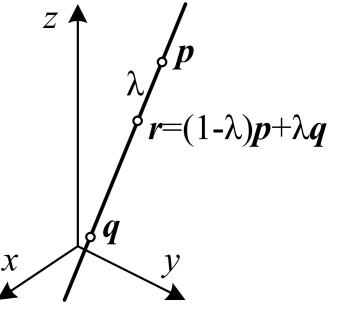




A 3D line can be represented using two points p and q that lie on the line.

Any point r that also lies on the line can then be represented as

 $\boldsymbol{r} = (1 - \lambda) \boldsymbol{p} + \lambda \boldsymbol{q}$



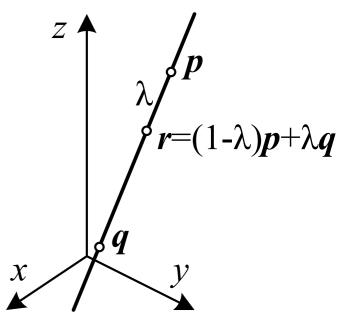


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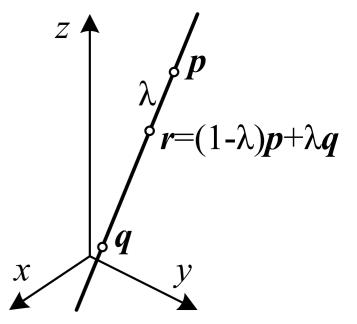
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If we use homogeneous coordinates, we can write the line as

 $\tilde{\boldsymbol{r}} = \mu \tilde{\boldsymbol{p}} + \lambda \tilde{\boldsymbol{q}}.$





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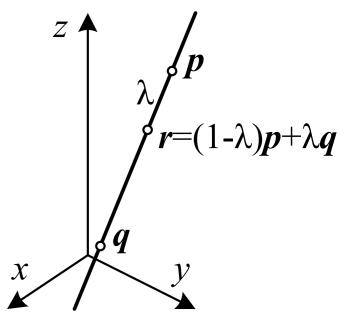
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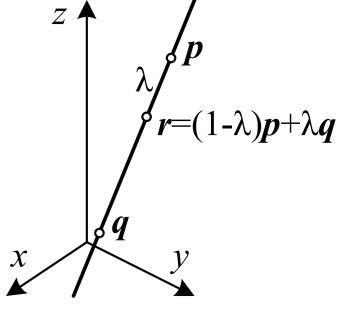
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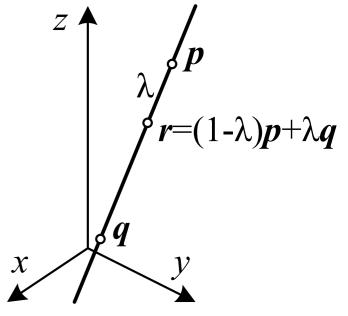
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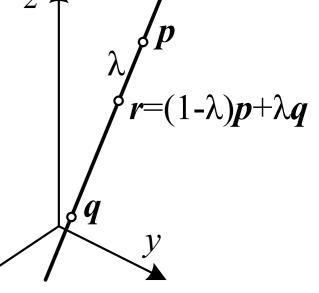
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$$m{r} = m{p} + \lambda m{\hat{d}}$$



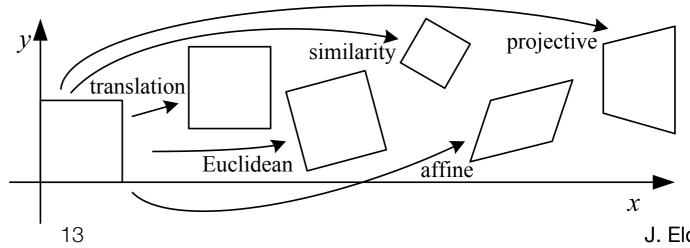




- Geometric primitives
- ***** 2D transformations
- 3D transformations
- ✤ 3D rotations
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- Lens Distortions

2D Translation





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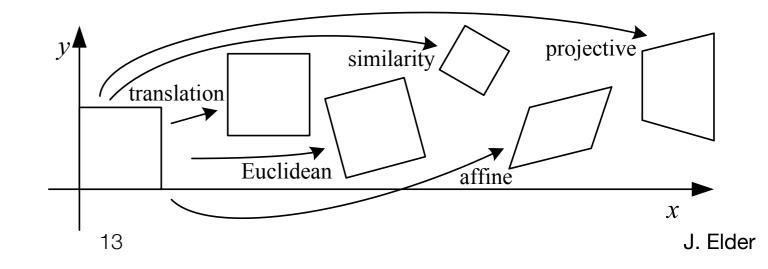
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2D Translation



2D translations can be written as x' = x + t or

$$oldsymbol{x}' = \left[egin{array}{cc} oldsymbol{I} & t \end{array}
ight]ar{oldsymbol{x}}$$

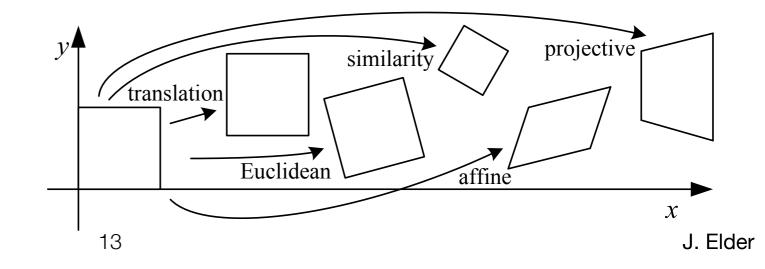


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$$oldsymbol{x}' = \left[egin{array}{cc} oldsymbol{I} & t \end{array}
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where I is the (2×2) identity matrix

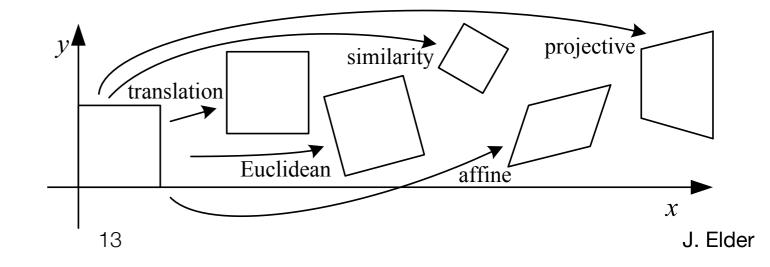




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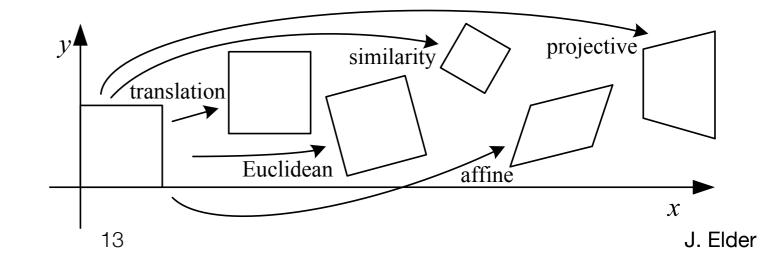


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ight]ar{x}$$

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or

$$ar{x}' = \left[egin{array}{ccc} I & t \ \mathbf{0}^T & 1 \end{array}
ight]ar{x}$$





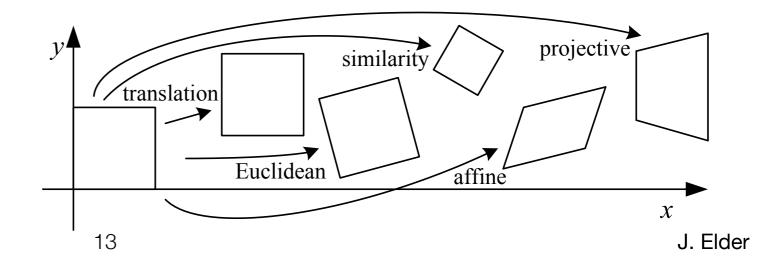
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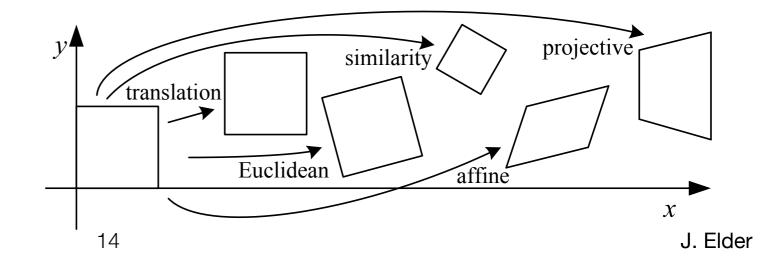
Note: Whenever an augmented vector appears on both sides, it can be replaced by a full homogenous vector.



Euclidean Transformation (2D Rotation +

$$x' = Rx + t$$
 or
 $x' = \begin{bmatrix} R & t \end{bmatrix} \overline{x}$
where
 $R = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$
is an orthonormal rotation matrix with RR^T - L and $|R| = 1$

is an orthonormal rotation matrix with $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{R}^T = \mathbf{I}$ and $|\mathbf{R}| = 1$.



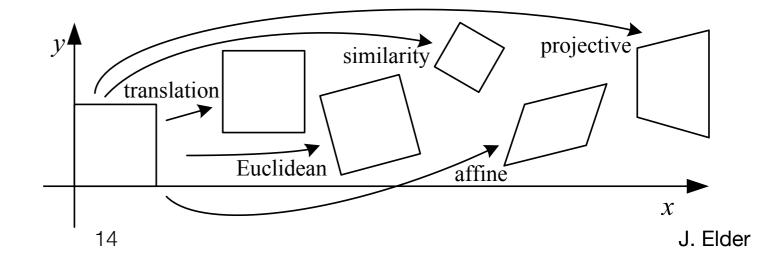
Euclidean Transformation (2D Rotation +

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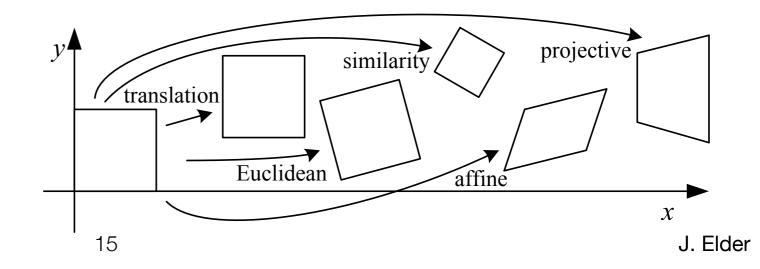
$$x' = \begin{bmatrix} R & t \end{bmatrix} \bar{x}$$
where
$$R = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

is an orthonormal rotation matrix with $\mathbf{R}\mathbf{R}^T = \mathbf{I}$ and $|\mathbf{R}| = 1$.

Preserves Euclidean distances



Similarity Transformation



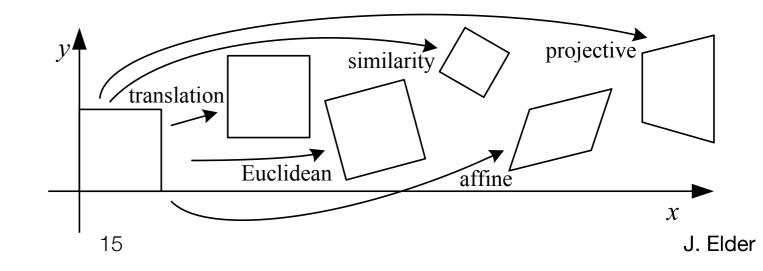
YORK

UNIVERSIT

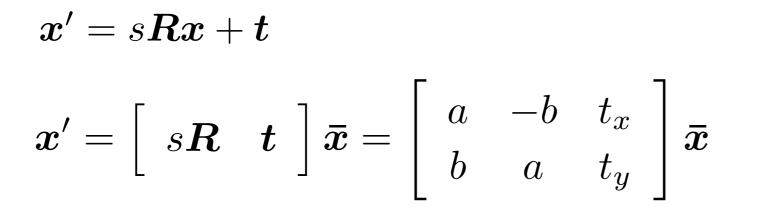


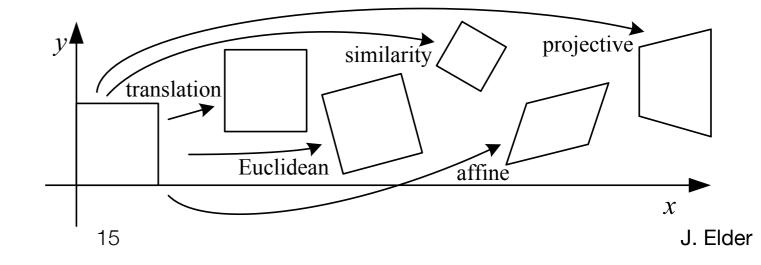


x' = sRx + t



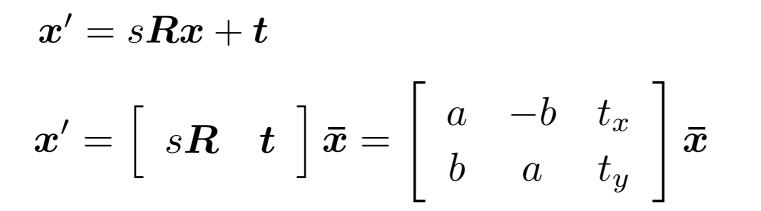
Similarity Transformation



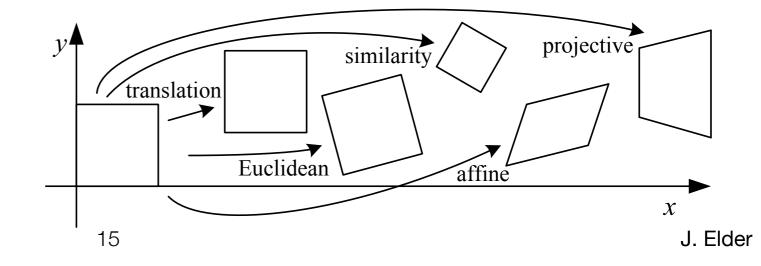


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Similarity Transformation



Preserves angles



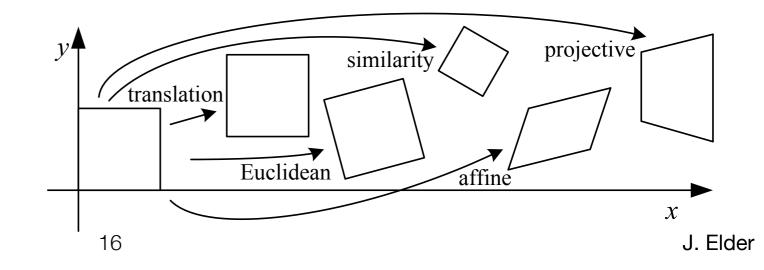
Y()R]

Affine Transformation



 $x' = A\bar{x}$, where A is an arbitrary 2×3 matrix

$$m{x}' = \left[egin{array}{cccc} a_{00} & a_{01} & a_{02} \ a_{10} & a_{11} & a_{12} \end{array}
ight] m{ar{x}}$$



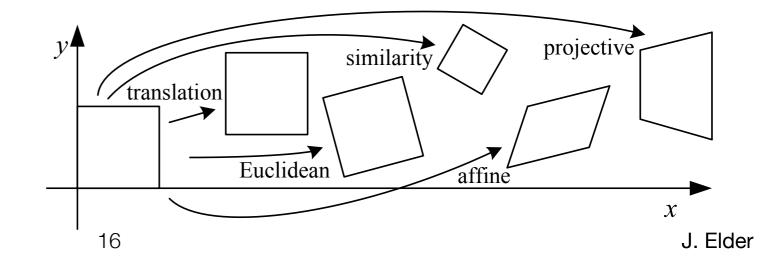
Affine Transformation

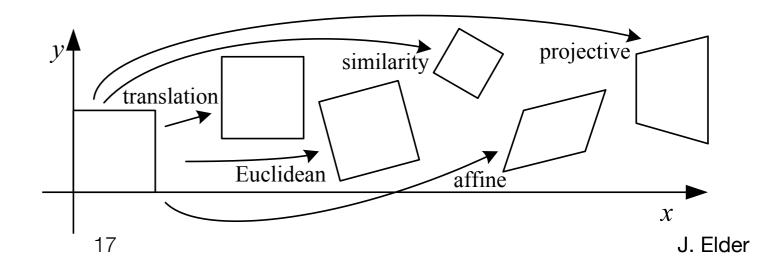


 $x' = A\bar{x}$, where A is an arbitrary 2×3 matrix

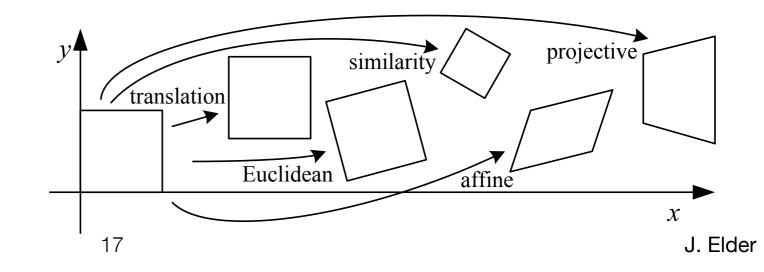
$$m{x}' = \left[egin{array}{cccc} a_{00} & a_{01} & a_{02} \ a_{10} & a_{11} & a_{12} \end{array}
ight] m{ar{x}}$$

Preserves parallelism



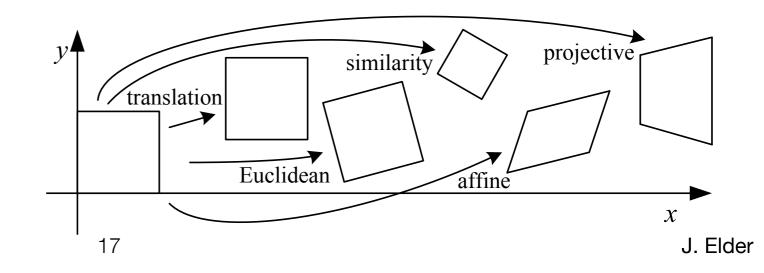


 $ilde{x}' = ilde{H} ilde{x}$



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where \tilde{H} is an arbitrary 3×3 matrix.



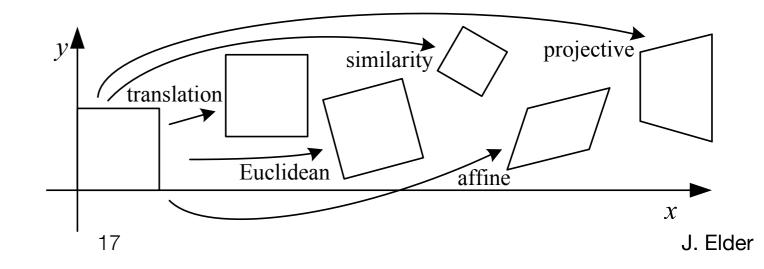


$ilde{m{x}}' = ilde{m{H}} ilde{m{x}}$

where \tilde{H} is an arbitrary 3×3 matrix.

 \tilde{H} is homogenous:

Two \tilde{H} matrices that differ only by a scale factor are equivalent.





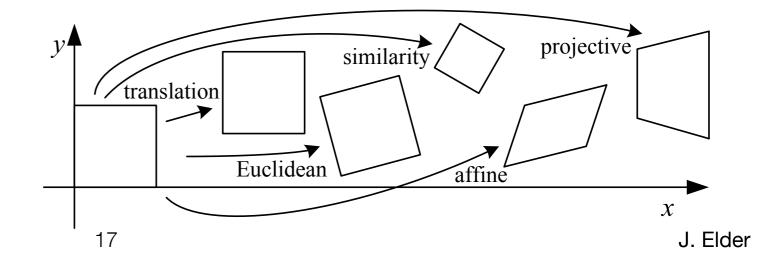
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where \tilde{H} is an arbitrary 3×3 matrix.

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Two \tilde{H} matrices that differ only by a scale factor are equivalent.

$$x' = \frac{h_{00}x + h_{01}y + h_{02}}{h_{20}x + h_{21}y + h_{22}} \text{ and } y' = \frac{h_{10}x + h_{11}y + h_{12}}{h_{20}x + h_{21}y + h_{22}}$$





 $ilde{m{x}}' = ilde{m{H}} ilde{m{x}}$

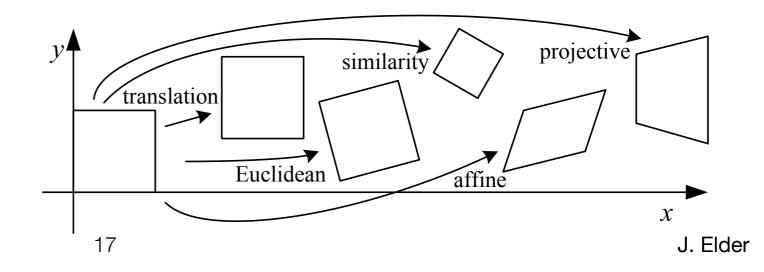
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Preserves straight lines



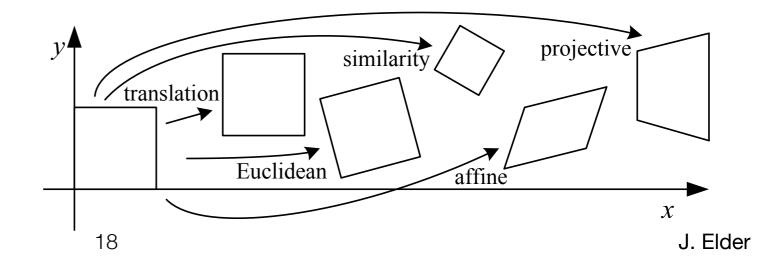
Summary of 2D Transformations



Nested set of groups

- Closed under composition
- Each transformation has an inverse that is a member of the same group

Transformation	Matrix	# DoF	Preserves	Icon
translation	$\left[egin{array}{c c} m{I} & t \end{array} ight]_{2 imes 3}$	2	orientation	
rigid (Euclidean)	$\left[egin{array}{c c} m{R} & t \end{array} ight]_{2 imes 3}$	3	lengths	\bigcirc
similarity	$\left[\begin{array}{c c} s oldsymbol{R} & t \end{array} ight]_{2 imes 3}$	4	angles	\bigcirc
affine	$\left[egin{array}{c} m{A} \end{array} ight]_{2 imes 3}$	6	parallelism	
projective	$\left[egin{array}{c} ilde{m{H}} \end{array} ight]_{3 imes 3}$	8	straight lines	







We now know how to transform points. How do we transform lines?



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 $\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}\cdot\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}=0$



We now know how to transform points. How do we transform lines?

 $\tilde{l} \cdot \tilde{x} = 0$ $\tilde{x}' = \tilde{H}\tilde{x}$



We now know how to transform points. How do we transform lines?

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}} \cdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = 0$$

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}' = \tilde{\boldsymbol{H}} \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}$$

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}' \cdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}' = \tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}'^T \tilde{\boldsymbol{H}} \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = (\tilde{\boldsymbol{H}}^T \tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}')^T \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{l}} \cdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = 0$$

Co-vectors



We now know how to transform points. How do we transform lines?

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}} \cdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = 0$$

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}' = \tilde{\boldsymbol{H}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}$$

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}' \cdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}' = \tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}^{T}\tilde{\boldsymbol{H}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = (\tilde{\boldsymbol{H}}^{T}\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}')^{T}\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{l}} \cdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = 0$$
Thus

Co-vectors



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Thus
$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}' = \tilde{\boldsymbol{H}}^{-T}\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}.$$

Co-vectors



We now know how to transform points. How do we transform lines?

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}} \cdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = 0$$

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}' = \tilde{\boldsymbol{H}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}$$

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}' \cdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}' = \tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}^{T}\tilde{\boldsymbol{H}}\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = (\tilde{\boldsymbol{H}}^{T}\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}')^{T}\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = \tilde{\boldsymbol{l}} \cdot \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}} = 0$$
Thus
$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}' = \tilde{\boldsymbol{H}}^{-T}\tilde{\boldsymbol{l}}.$$

i.e., the action of a projective transformation on a *co-vector* such as a 2D line can be represented by the transposed inverse of the matrix.





- Geometric primitives
- 2D transformations
- *** 3D transformations**
- ✤ 3D rotations
- ✤ 3D to 2D projections
- Lens Distortions

3D Translation



3D translations can be written as x' = x + t or

$$oldsymbol{x}' = \left[egin{array}{cc} oldsymbol{I} & t \end{array}
ight]oldsymbol{ar{x}}$$

where I is the (3×3) identity matrix



 $egin{aligned} x' &= oldsymbol{R} x + t \ x' &= igg[egin{aligned} R & t \ igg] oldsymbol{ar{x}} \end{aligned}$

where R is a 3×3 orthonormal rotation matrix with $RR^T = I$ and |R| = 1

Preserves Euclidean distances

Similarity Transformation



$$egin{aligned} x' &= s oldsymbol{R} x + t \ x' &= egin{bmatrix} s oldsymbol{R} & t \end{bmatrix} oldsymbol{ar{x}} \end{aligned}$$

Preserves angles

Affine Transformation



 $x' = A\bar{x}$, where A is an arbitrary 3×4 matrix

Preserves parallelism

Projective Transformation (Homography)



 $ilde{x}' = ilde{H} ilde{x}$

where \tilde{H} is an arbitrary 4×4 homogeneous matrix

Preserves straight lines

Summary of 3D Transformations

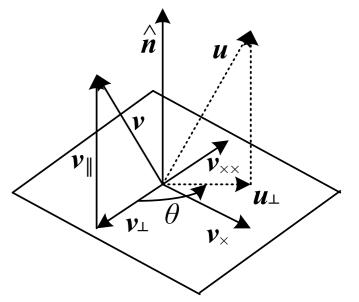
Transformation	Matrix	# DoF	Preserves	Icon
translation	$\left[egin{array}{c c} oldsymbol{I} & oldsymbol{I} \end{array} ight]_{3 imes 4}$	3	orientation	
rigid (Euclidean)	$\left[egin{array}{c c} m{R} & t \end{array} ight]_{3 imes 4}$	6	lengths	\bigcirc
similarity	$\left[\begin{array}{c c} s oldsymbol{R} & t \end{array} ight]_{3 imes 4}$	7	angles	\bigcirc
affine	$\left[egin{array}{c} egin{arr$	12	parallelism	
projective	$\left[egin{array}{c} ilde{oldsymbol{H}} \end{array} ight]_{4 imes 4}$	15	straight lines	

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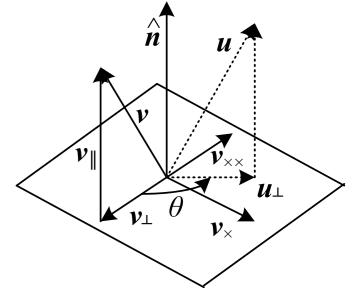


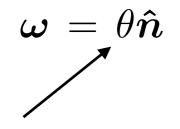


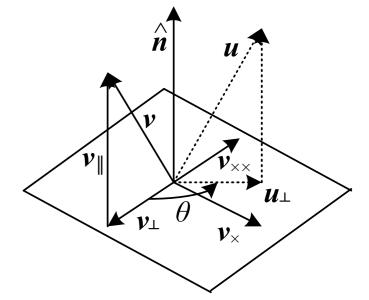
- Geometric primitives
- 2D transformations
- 3D transformations
- *** 3D rotations**
- ✤ 3D to 2D projections
- Lens Distortions



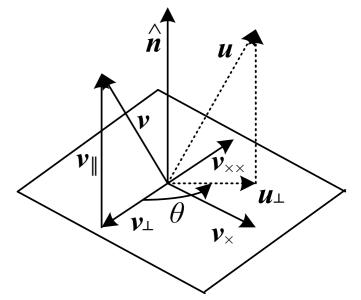
 $oldsymbol{\omega} = heta \hat{oldsymbol{n}}$



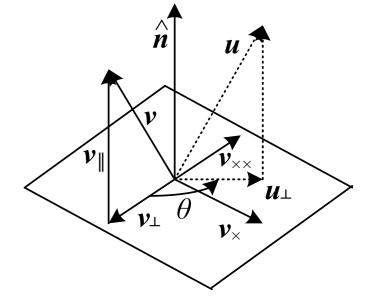




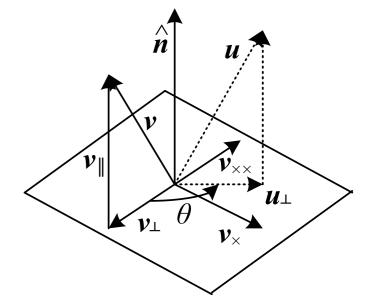
 $\omega = heta \hat{n}$ Amount of rotation

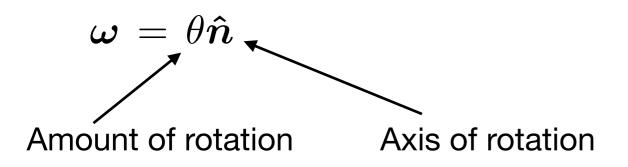


 $oldsymbol{\omega} \,=\, heta \hat{oldsymbol{n}}$, Amount of rotation

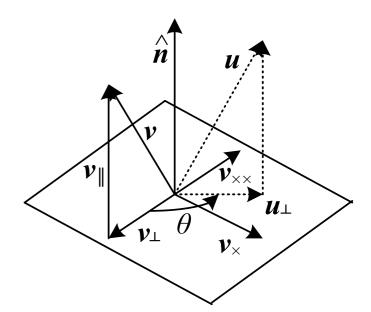


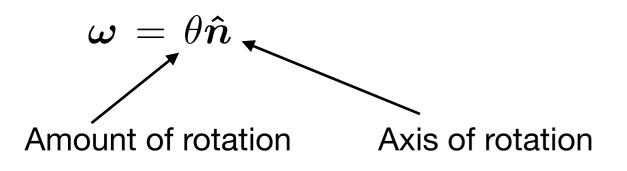
 $\boldsymbol{\omega} = heta \hat{\boldsymbol{n}}$ Amount of rotation Axis of rotation





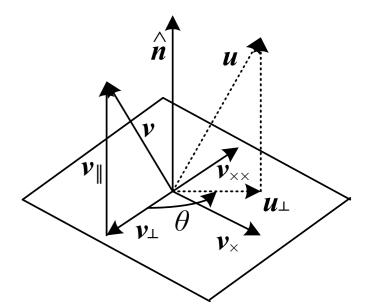
Let *u* be the result of rotating vector *v* about axis \hat{n} by the angle θ .

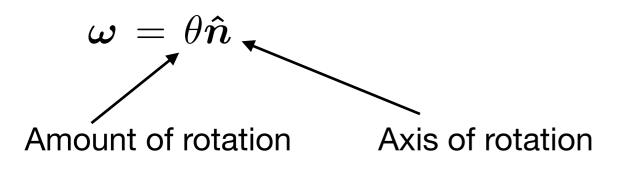




Let u be the result of rotating vector v about axis \hat{n} by the angle θ .

First, project the vector v onto the axis \hat{n} :

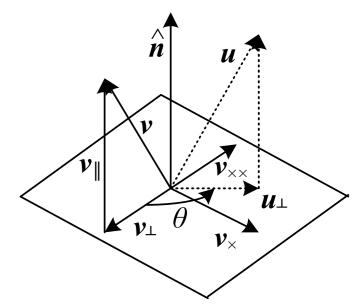


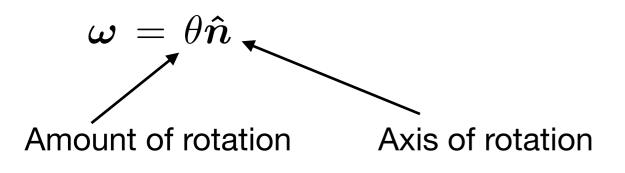


Let u be the result of rotating vector v about axis \hat{n} by the angle θ .

First, project the vector v onto the axis \hat{n} :

 $\boldsymbol{v}_{\parallel} = \hat{\boldsymbol{n}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} \cdot \boldsymbol{v}) = (\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}^T)\boldsymbol{v}$



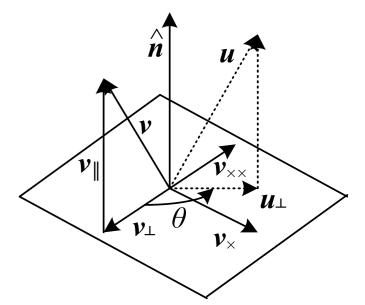


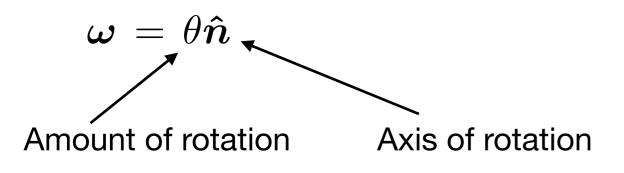
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Next, compute the perpendicular residual:





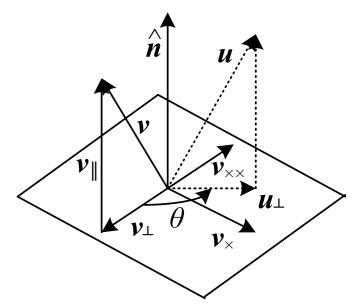
Let u be the result of rotating vector v about axis \hat{n} by the angle θ .

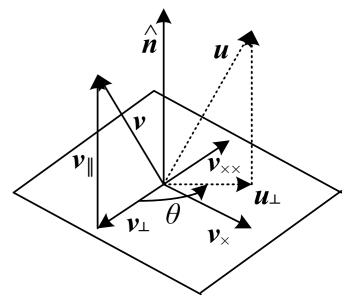
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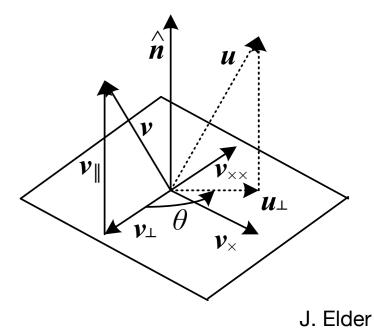
$$\boldsymbol{v}_{\perp} = \boldsymbol{v} - \boldsymbol{v}_{\parallel} = (\boldsymbol{I} - \boldsymbol{\hat{n}} \boldsymbol{\hat{n}}^T) \boldsymbol{v}$$





We can rotate this vector by 90° using the cross product,

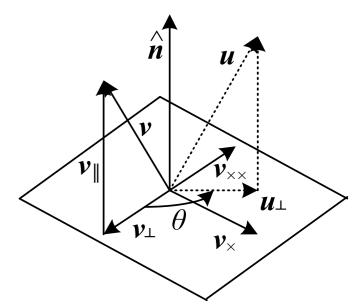
$$\boldsymbol{v}_{\times} = \boldsymbol{\hat{n}} \times \boldsymbol{v} = [\boldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{\times} \boldsymbol{v},$$



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where $[\hat{n}]_{\times}$ is the matrix form of the cross product operator with the vector $\hat{n} = (\hat{n}_x, \hat{n}_y, \hat{n}_z)$,

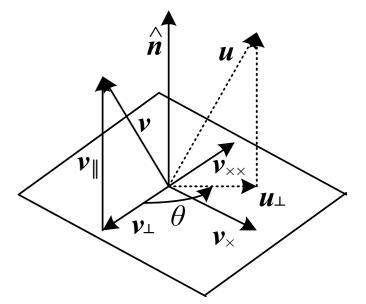


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$$[\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}]_{\times} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\hat{n}_z & \hat{n}_y \\ \hat{n}_z & 0 & -\hat{n}_x \\ -\hat{n}_y & \hat{n}_x & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



We can rotate this vector by 90° using the cross product,

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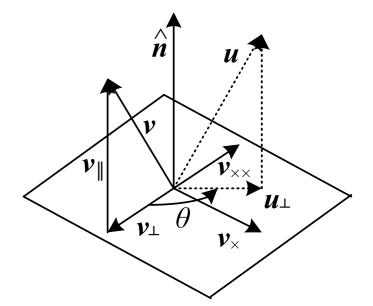
$$[\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}]_{\times} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\hat{n}_z & \hat{n}_y \\ \hat{n}_z & 0 & -\hat{n}_x \\ -\hat{n}_y & \hat{n}_x & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that rotating this vector by another 90° is equivalent to taking the cross product again,

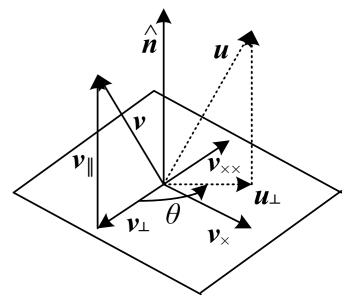
$$oldsymbol{v}_{ imes imes} = oldsymbol{\hat{n}} imes oldsymbol{v}_{ imes} = [oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]^2_{ imes} oldsymbol{v} = -oldsymbol{v}_{ot},$$

and hence

$$oldsymbol{v}_{\parallel} = oldsymbol{v} - oldsymbol{v}_{\perp} = oldsymbol{v} + oldsymbol{v}_{ imes imes} = (oldsymbol{I} + [oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]^2_{ imes})oldsymbol{v}.$$



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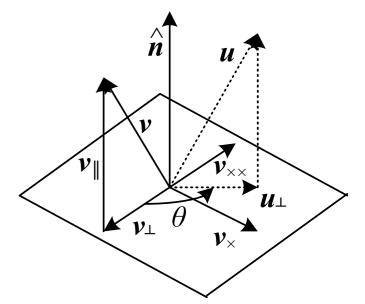


We can now compute the in-plane component of the rotated vector \boldsymbol{u} as

$$oldsymbol{u}_{\perp} = \cos heta oldsymbol{v}_{\perp} + \sin heta oldsymbol{v}_{ imes} = (\sin heta [oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{ imes} - \cos heta [oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{ imes}^2) oldsymbol{v}.$$

Putting all these terms together, we obtain the final rotated vector as

$$\boldsymbol{u} = \boldsymbol{u}_{\perp} + \boldsymbol{v}_{\parallel} = (\boldsymbol{I} + \sin\theta [\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}]_{\times} + (1 - \cos\theta) [\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}]_{\times}^2) \boldsymbol{v}.$$



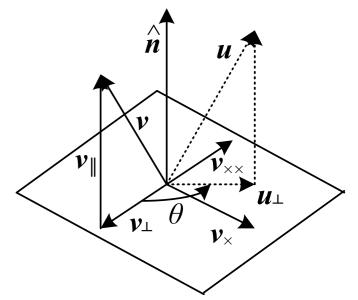
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We can therefore write the rotation matrix corresponding to a rotation by θ around an axis \hat{n} as



We can now compute the in-plane component of the rotated vector \boldsymbol{u} as

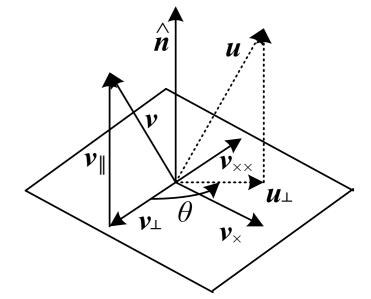
$$oldsymbol{u}_{\perp} = \cos heta oldsymbol{v}_{\perp} + \sin heta oldsymbol{v}_{ imes} = (\sin heta [oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{ imes} - \cos heta [oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{ imes}^2) oldsymbol{v}.$$

Putting all these terms together, we obtain the final rotated vector as

$$\boldsymbol{u} = \boldsymbol{u}_{\perp} + \boldsymbol{v}_{\parallel} = (\boldsymbol{I} + \sin\theta [\boldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{\times} + (1 - \cos\theta) [\boldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{\times}^2) \boldsymbol{v}.$$

We can therefore write the rotation matrix corresponding to a rotation by θ around an axis \hat{n} as

$$\boldsymbol{R}(\boldsymbol{\hat{n}},\theta) = \boldsymbol{I} + \sin\theta[\boldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{\times} + (1-\cos\theta)[\boldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{\times}^2$$



We can now compute the in-plane component of the rotated vector \boldsymbol{u} as

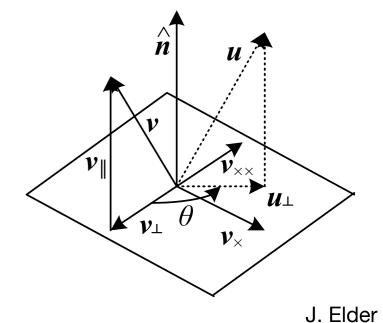
$$oldsymbol{u}_{\perp} = \cos heta oldsymbol{v}_{\perp} + \sin heta oldsymbol{v}_{ imes} = (\sin heta [oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{ imes} - \cos heta [oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{ imes}^2) oldsymbol{v}.$$

Putting all these terms together, we obtain the final rotated vector as

$$oldsymbol{u} = oldsymbol{u}_{\perp} + oldsymbol{v}_{\parallel} = (oldsymbol{I} + \sin heta [oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{ imes} + (1 - \cos heta) [oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{ imes}^2) oldsymbol{v}.$$

We can therefore write the rotation matrix corresponding to a rotation by θ around an axis \hat{n} as

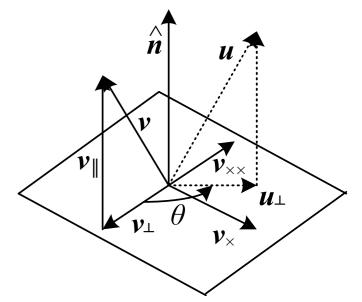
 $R(\hat{n}, \theta) = I + \sin \theta [\hat{n}]_{\times} + (1 - \cos \theta) [\hat{n}]_{\times}^2$ (Rodriquez' formula)



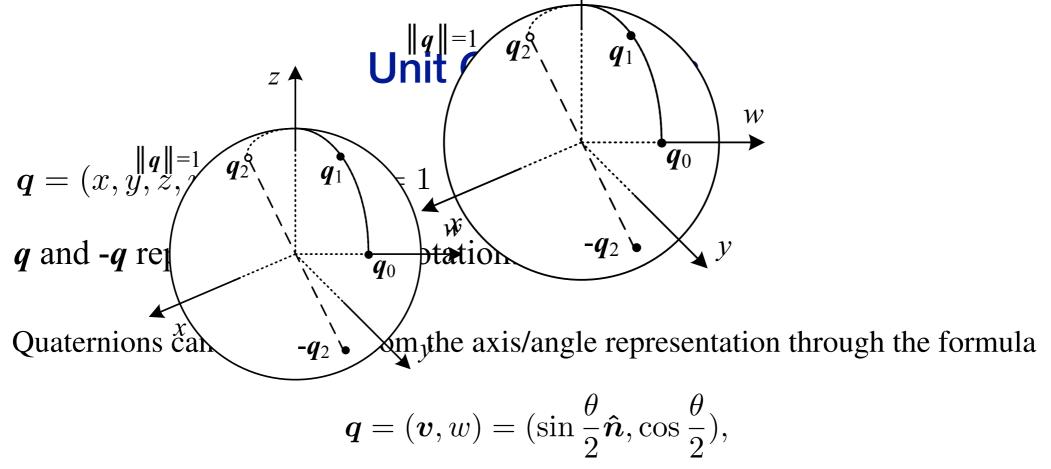
 $\boldsymbol{R}(\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}, \theta) = \boldsymbol{I} + \sin \theta [\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}]_{\times} + (1 - \cos \theta) [\hat{\boldsymbol{n}}]_{\times}^2$ (Rodriquez' formula)

For small rotations:

$$oldsymbol{R}(oldsymbol{\omega}) pprox oldsymbol{I} + \sin heta [oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{ imes} pprox oldsymbol{I} + [heta oldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{ imes} = egin{bmatrix} 1 & -\omega_z & \omega_y \ \omega_z & 1 & -\omega_x \ -\omega_y & \omega_x & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



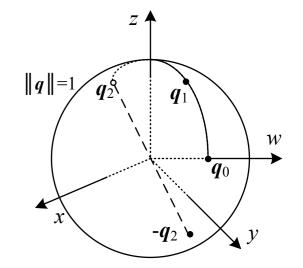




where \hat{n} and θ are the rotation axis and angle.

Rodriguez' formula now becomes (see textbook):

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{R}(\boldsymbol{\hat{n}}, \theta) &= \boldsymbol{I} + \sin \theta [\boldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{\times} + (1 - \cos \theta) [\boldsymbol{\hat{n}}]_{\times}^2 \\ &= \boldsymbol{I} + 2w [\boldsymbol{v}]_{\times} + 2 [\boldsymbol{v}]_{\times}^2. \end{aligned}$$



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Quaternion Algebra

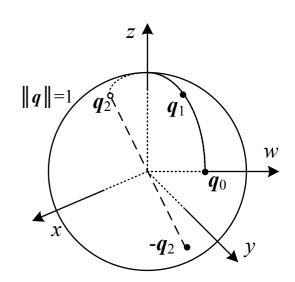


$$\boldsymbol{q} = (\boldsymbol{v}, w) = (\sin \frac{\theta}{2} \boldsymbol{\hat{n}}, \cos \frac{\theta}{2})$$

Composition (multiplication): $\boldsymbol{q}_2 = \boldsymbol{q}_0 \boldsymbol{q}_1 = (\boldsymbol{v}_0 \times \boldsymbol{v}_1 + w_0 \boldsymbol{v}_1 + w_1 \boldsymbol{v}_0, w_0 w_1 - \boldsymbol{v}_0 \cdot \boldsymbol{v}_1)$

$$\boldsymbol{R}(\boldsymbol{q}_2) = \boldsymbol{R}(\boldsymbol{q}_0)\boldsymbol{R}(\boldsymbol{q}_1)$$

Inverse: flip the sign of v or w (but not both). i.e., if q = (v, w), then $q^{-1} = (-v, w) = (v, -w)$.

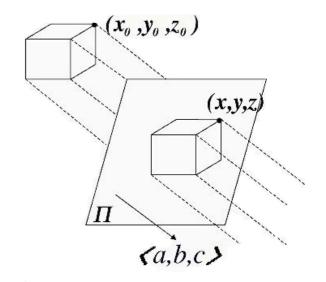






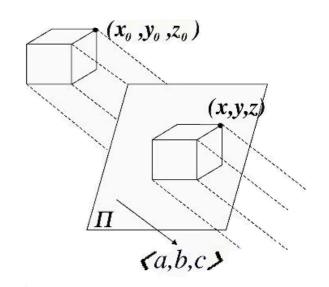
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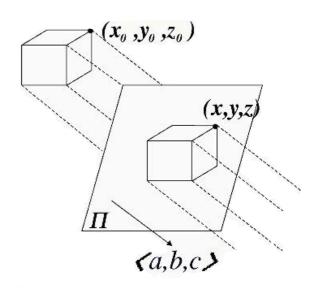


Reasonable approximation to perspective projection when % depth variation within field of view is small.

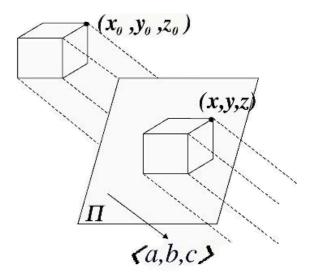




- Reasonable approximation to perspective projection when % depth variation within field of view is small.
- This is often the case for telephoto lenses (long viewing distances, small field of view)

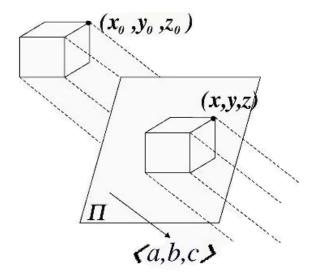


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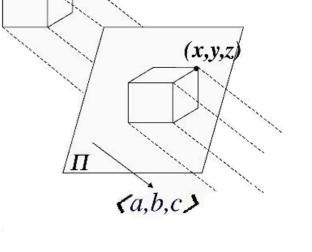




Orthographic (Parallel) Projection

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 $oldsymbol{x} = [oldsymbol{I}_{2 imes 2}|oldsymbol{0}] oldsymbol{p}$



 (x_0, y_0, z_0)

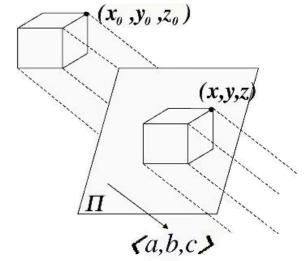


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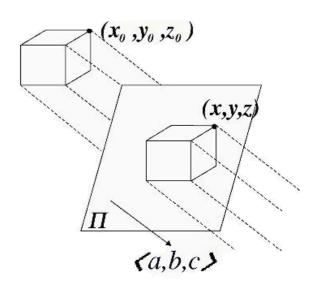
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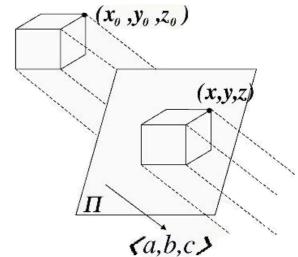
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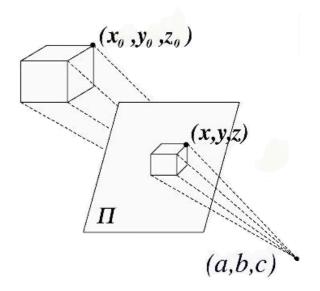
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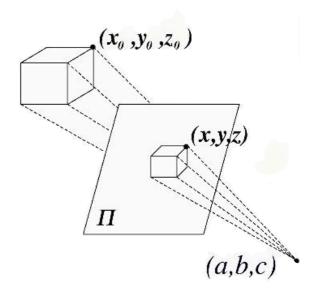








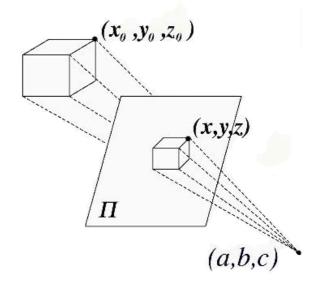
Points projected onto image plane by dividing them by their z component.





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$$ar{m{x}} = \mathcal{P}_z(m{p}) = \left[egin{array}{c} x/z \ y/z \ 1 \end{array}
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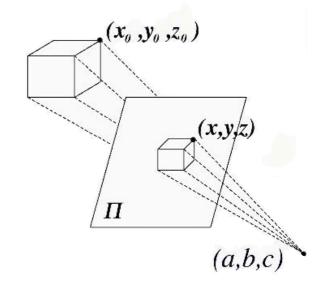
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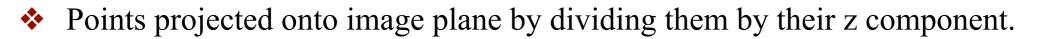
Perspective Projection

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ight]$$

In homogeneous coordinates:

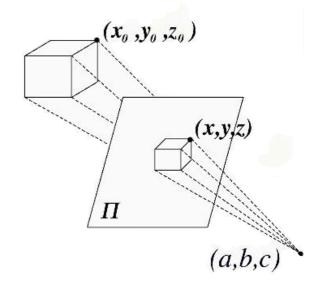




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$$ilde{m{x}} = \left[egin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}
ight] ilde{m{p}}_{2}$$

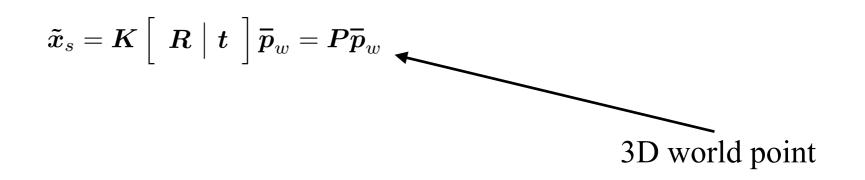




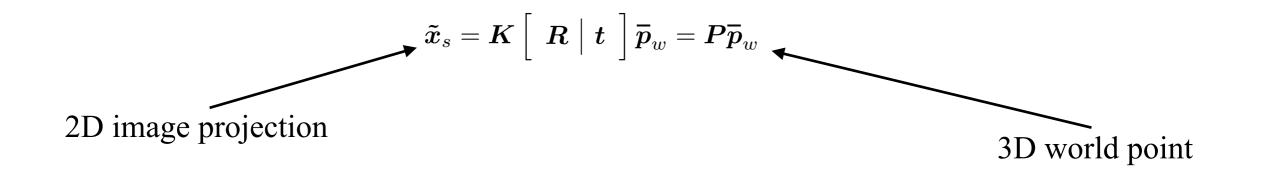


$$ilde{oldsymbol{x}}_{s} = oldsymbol{K} \left[egin{array}{c} oldsymbol{R} & ig| oldsymbol{t} \end{array}
ight] oldsymbol{ar{p}}_{w} = oldsymbol{P} oldsymbol{ar{p}}_{w}$$

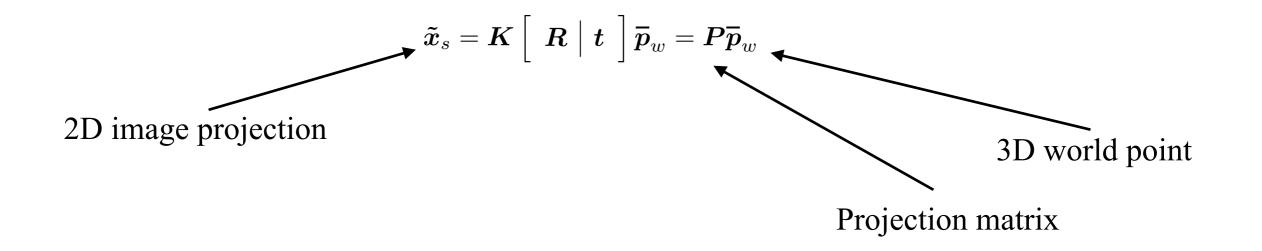




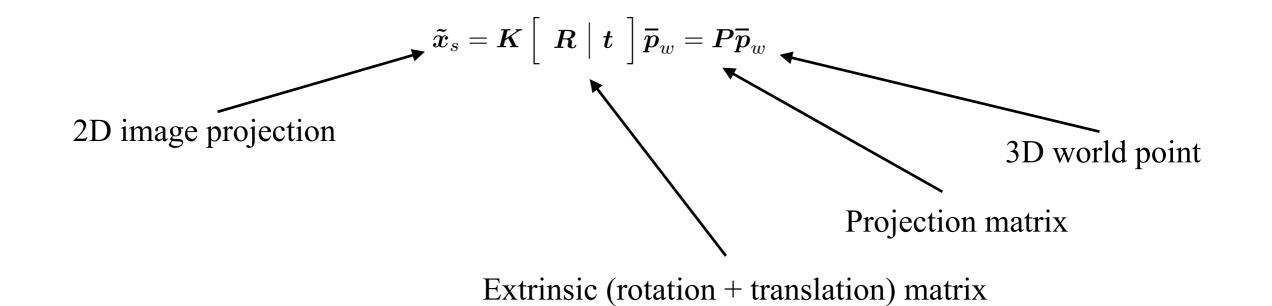




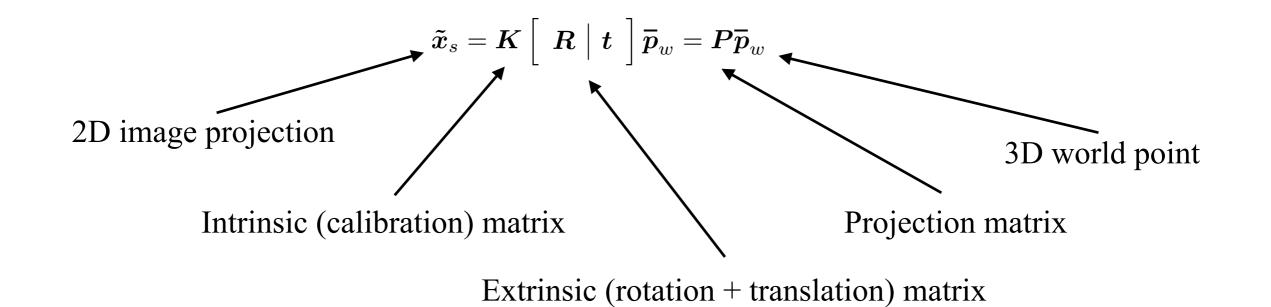






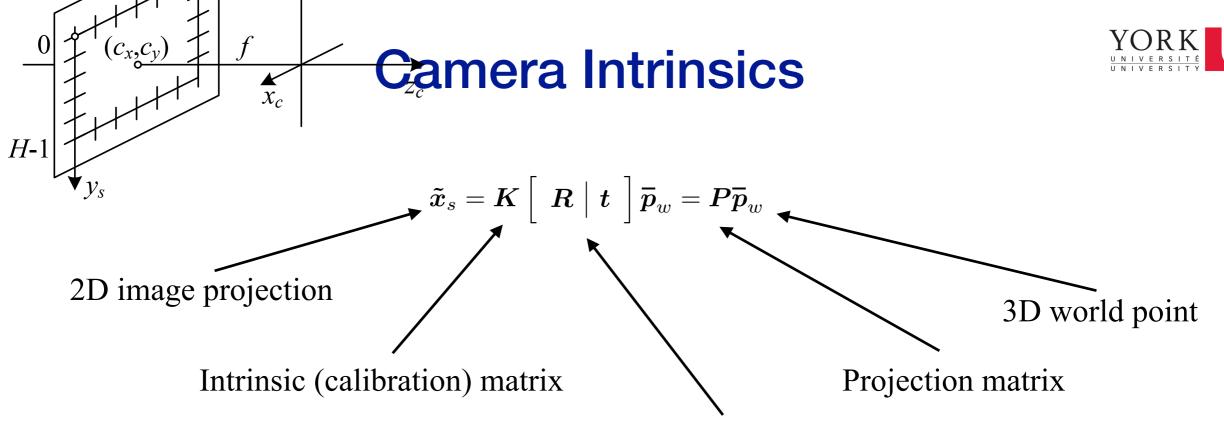






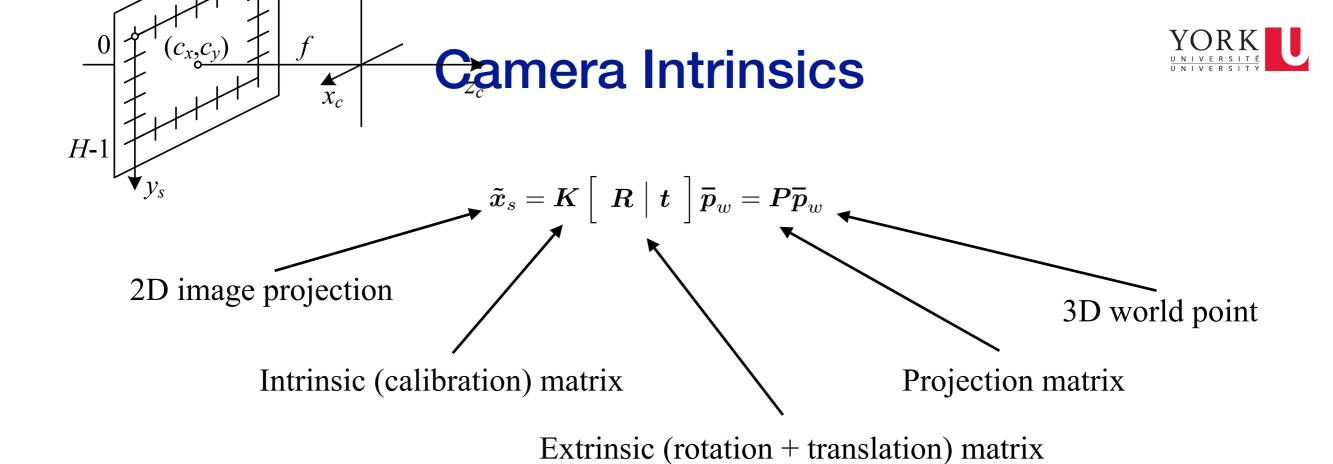
EECS 4422/5323 Computer Vision

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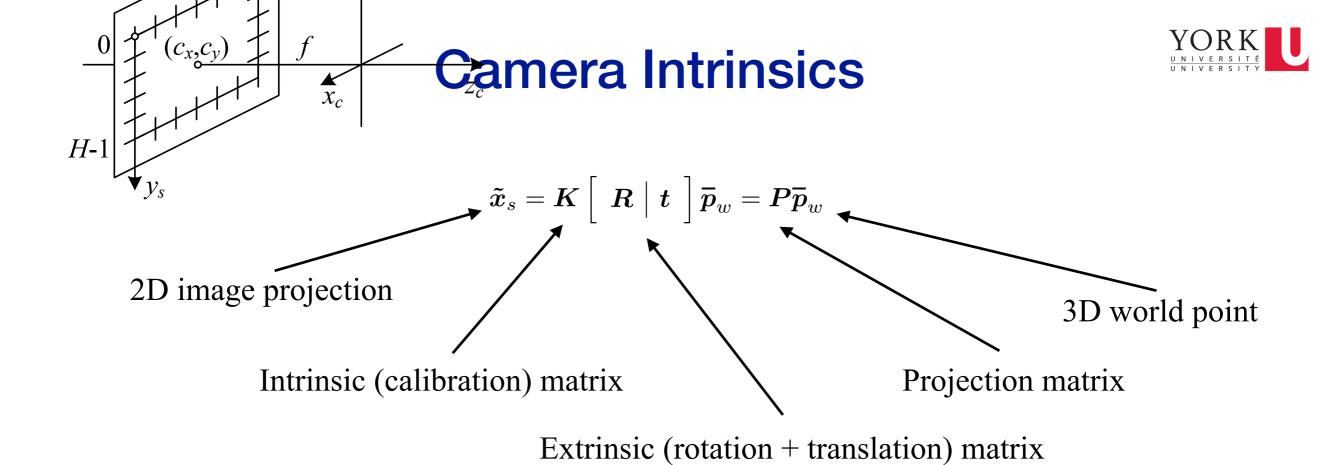


Extrinsic (rotation + translation) matrix

$$\boldsymbol{K} = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} f_x & s & c_x \\ 0 & f_y & c_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

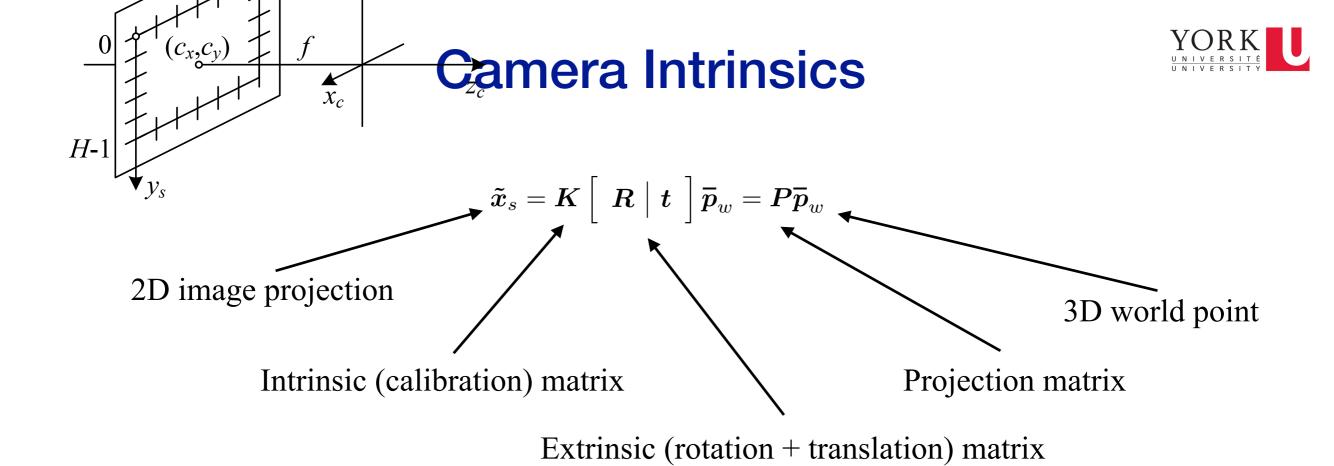


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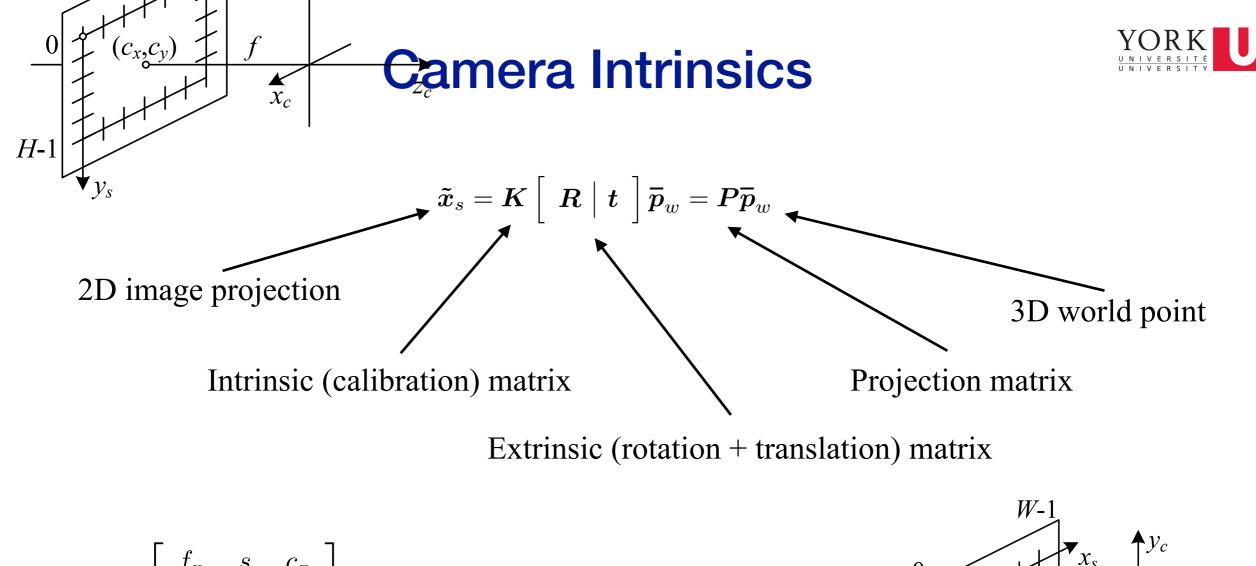
 c_x and c_y : encode principal point (intersection of optic axis with sensor plane) - usually very close to centre of image



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H-1

s: encodes possible skew between sensor axes (usually close to 0).

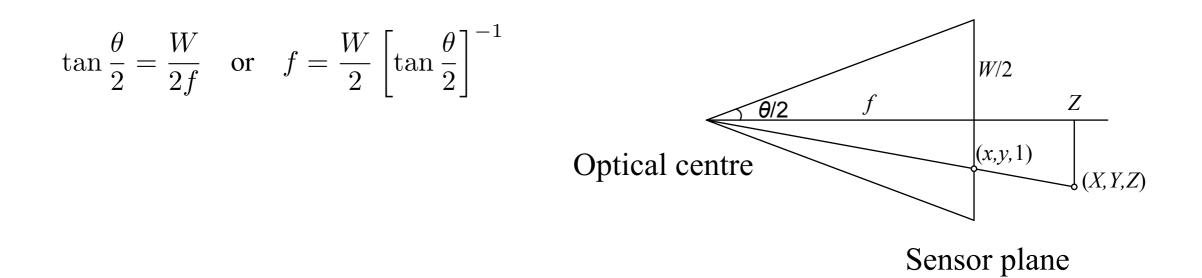
 Z_{c}

 X_c



Focal Lengths

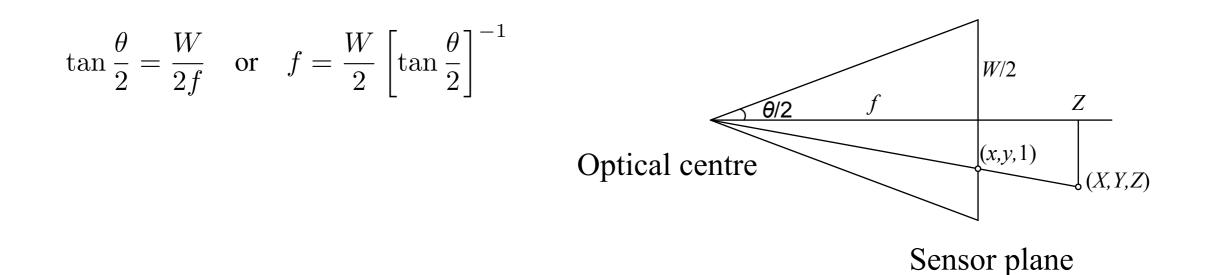
◆ Focal length can be measured either in pixels or in mm.







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Example: Consider the FLIR BlackFly S BFS-PGE-122S6C-C paired with a 10mm lens:

- Resolution: 4096 x 3000 pixels
- Sensor width: 1.1" = 27.94mm







- Geometric primitives
- 2D transformations
- 3D transformations
- ✤ 3D rotations
- ✤ 3D to 2D projections
- ***** Lens Distortions





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$$x_c = \frac{\boldsymbol{r}_x \cdot \boldsymbol{p} + t_x}{\boldsymbol{r}_z \cdot \boldsymbol{p} + t_z}$$
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In radial distortion, points are displaced radially by an amount that increases with their distance from the image centre

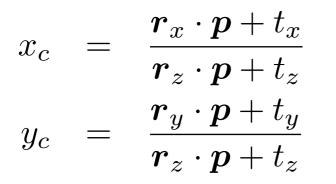




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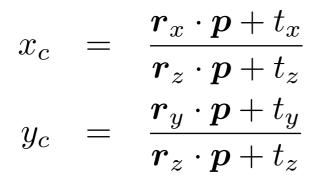
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