

Chapter 7: Computation of the Camera Matrix P

Arco Nederveen

Eagle Vision

March 18, 2008

1 Chapter 7: Computation of the camera Matrix P

- Basic Equations
- Geometric error
- Restricted camera estimation
- Radial distortion

Basic equations

- Chapter 7: Numerical methods for estimation of the camera matrix.
- Given point correspondences $\mathbf{X}_i \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}_i$ between 3D points \mathbf{X}_i and 2D image points \mathbf{x}_i find the camera matrix \mathbf{P} .
- Where \mathbf{P} is a 3×4 matrix, such that $\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{X}_i$ for all i
- For each correspondence:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0}^\top & -w_i \mathbf{X}_i^\top & y_i \mathbf{X}_i^\top \\ w_i \mathbf{X}_i^\top & \mathbf{0}^\top & -x_i \mathbf{X}_i^\top \\ -y_i \mathbf{X}_i^\top & x_i \mathbf{X}_i^\top & \mathbf{0}^\top \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{P}^1 \\ \mathbf{P}^2 \\ \mathbf{P}^3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (1)$$

Where each $\mathbf{P}^{i\top}$ is a 4-vector, the i -th row of \mathbf{P} .

Basic equations

- Alternatively:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0}^\top & -w_i \mathbf{X}_i^\top & y_i \mathbf{X}_i^\top \\ w_i \mathbf{X}_i^\top & \mathbf{0}^\top & -x_i \mathbf{X}_i^\top \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{P}^1 \\ \mathbf{P}^2 \\ \mathbf{P}^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

- A set of n correspondences results in $2n \times 12$ matrix \mathbf{A} .
- The projection matrix \mathbf{P} is computed by solving. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{0}$. Where \mathbf{p} contains the entries of \mathbf{P} .
- Minimal solution: \mathbf{P} has 12 entries and 11 degrees of freedom, therefore $5\frac{1}{2}$ correspondences are needed.
- Overdetermined solution: Minimize algebraic or geometric error.

Basic equations

- Algebraic error: minimize $\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}\|$ with a normalization constraint. like $\|\mathbf{p}\| = 1$ or $\|\hat{\mathbf{p}}^3\| = 1$ where $\hat{\mathbf{p}}^3$ is the vector. $(p_{31}, p_{32}, p_{33})^T$ from \mathbf{P}
- Algebraic error: the residual $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}$.
- The DLT algorithm can be used to compute \mathbf{P} in the same manner as computing \mathbf{H} .

Basic equations

- Degenerate configurations:
 - The camera and points all lie on a twisted cubic.
 - The points lie on a union of a plane and a single straight line containing the camera center.
- Data normalization:
 - 2D points: Centroid of data at origin and their RMS distance from the origin is $\sqrt{2}$.
 - 3D points: If variation of depth of points is relatively small than position centroid of data on the origin and scale the RMS of the points to $\sqrt{3}$

Basic equations

- Using Line correspondences in the DLT algorithm
 - Line in 3D can be represented by \mathbf{X}_0 and \mathbf{X}_1
 - The plane formed by back-projecting the image line \mathbf{l} is equal to $\mathbf{P}^\top \mathbf{l}$
 - Than \mathbf{X}_j lies on this plane if:

$$\mathbf{P}^\top \mathbf{l}_j = 0 \text{ for } j = 0, 1$$

- Each choice for j gives a single linear equation which may be added to equation 1.

Geometric error

- If world points \mathbf{X}_i are exactly known and the 2D image points contain noise then the geometric error is given by:

$$\sum_i d(\mathbf{x}_i, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i)^2$$

Where \mathbf{x}_i is the measured point and $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i$ is the point $P\mathbf{X}_i$.

- If the measurement noise is Gaussian then:

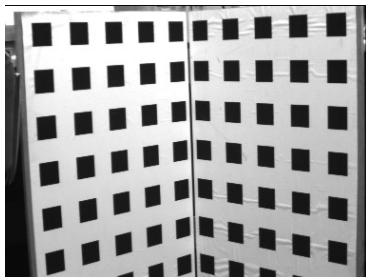
$$\min_P \sum_i d(\mathbf{x}_i, P\mathbf{X}_i)^2$$

is the Maximum Likelihood estimate of P .

- To minimize the geometric a iterative method must be used. Such as used in the Gold Standard algorithm in table 7.1.

Geometric Error

- Example 7.1: Camera estimation from a calibration object.
 - DLT algorithm compared to Gold Standard.
 - Rule of thumb: point measurements should exceed the number of unknowns by a factor five.
 - Table 7.1 shows the results: slight improvement with Gold Standard algorithm.



Errors in the world points

- Its possible world points cannot be determined with absolute accuracy.
- If this is the case the 3D geometric error is defined as:

$$\sum_i d(\mathbf{X}_i, \hat{\mathbf{X}}_i)^2$$

Where $\hat{\mathbf{X}}_i$ is the closest point in space to \mathbf{X}_i that maps exactly onto \mathbf{x}_i via $\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{P}\hat{\mathbf{X}}_i$.

- If both the world and image coordinates contain errors the sum of world and image errors is minimized.

$$\sum_i^n d_{\text{Mah}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{P}\hat{\mathbf{X}}_i)^2 + d_{\text{Mah}}(\mathbf{X}_i, \hat{\mathbf{X}}_i)^2$$

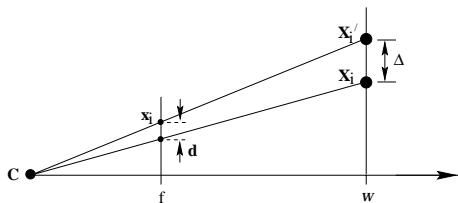
Where d_{Mah} represents the Mahalanobis distance.

Geometric interpretation of algebraic error

- Points \mathbf{X}_i in the DLT algorithm are normalized such that $\mathbf{X}_i = (X_i, Y_i, Z_i, 1)^\top$ and $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_i, y_i, 1)^\top$
- The quantity minimized is then given by: $\sum_i (\hat{w}_i d(\mathbf{x}_i, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i))^2$ where $\hat{w}_i (\hat{x}_i, \hat{y}_i, 1)^\top = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{X}_i$
- But given, $\hat{w}_i = \pm \|\hat{\mathbf{p}}^3\| \text{depth}(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{P})$ we see that \hat{w}_i can be seen as the depth of point \mathbf{X}_i from the camera in the direction of principle ray if $\|\hat{\mathbf{p}}^3\|^2 = 1$.

Geometric interpretation of algebraic error

- As seen in figure 7.2 $\hat{w}_i d(\mathbf{x}_i, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i)$ is proportional to $fd(\mathbf{X}', \mathbf{X})$
- The algebraic distance being minimized is equal to $f \sum_i d(\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{X}'_i)^2$



Transformation invariance

- Scaling and translation in either the image or world coordinates have no influence on minimizing $\|\mathbf{Ap}\|$.

Estimation of an affine camera

- Affine camera is one for which the projection matrix has $(0, 0, 0, 1)$ as last row.
- Given $\mathbf{X}_i = (X_i, Y_i, Z_i, 1)^\top$ and $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_i, y_i, 1)^\top$ equation 1 reduces to:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0}^\top & -w_i \mathbf{X}_i^\top \\ \mathbf{X}_i^\top & \mathbf{0}^\top \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{P}^1 \\ \mathbf{P}^2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} y_i \\ -x_i \end{pmatrix}$$

which shows that the squared algebraic error in this case equals the squared geometric error

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}\|^2 = \sum_i (x_i - \mathbf{P}^{1\top} \mathbf{X}_i)^2 + (y_i - \mathbf{P}^{2\top} \mathbf{X}_i)^2 = \sum_i d(\mathbf{x}_i, \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i)^2.$$

- A linear estimation algorithm is given in algorithm 7.2.

Restricted camera estimation

- Matrix P with centre at finite point $P = K[R | -R\tilde{C}]$. With

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_x & s & x_0 \\ & \alpha_y & y_0 \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- With common assumptions:
 - The skew s is zero.
 - The pixels are square: $\alpha_x = \alpha_y$.
 - The principal point (x_0, y_0) is known.
 - The complete camera calibration matrix K is known.

Restricted camera estimation

- Some assumptions can make it possible to estimate the restricted camera matrix with a linear algorithm.
- Example: fit a pinhole camera model ($s = 0$ and $\alpha_x = \alpha_y$) to a set of point measurements.
- Minimize geometric error.
 - Parameterize the camera model using the remaining 9 parameters. ($x_0, y_0, \alpha, 6$ from \mathbb{R} and $\tilde{\mathbf{C}}$ denoted collectively by \mathbf{q})
 - Iterative minimization of geometric error.
- Minimizing algebraic error.
 - Iterative minimization problem becomes smaller.
 - Equivalent to minimizing $\|Ag(\mathbf{q})\|$.

Restricted camera estimation

- The reduced measurement matrix.
 - Possible to replace matrix A with a square 12×12 matrix \hat{A} such that $\|A\mathbf{p}\| = \mathbf{p}^\top A^\top A \mathbf{p} = \|\hat{A}\mathbf{p}\|$.
 - By SVD: Let $A = UDV^\top$ be the SVD of A , and define $\hat{A} = DV^\top$. Then

$$A^\top A = (VDU^\top)(UDV^\top) = (VD)(DV^\top) = \hat{A}^\top \hat{A}$$

- Given a set of n world to image correspondence, $\mathbf{X}_i \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}_i$, the problem of finding a constrained camera matrix P that minimizes the sum of algebraic distances $\sum_i d_{\text{alg}}(\mathbf{x}_i, P\mathbf{X}_i)^2$ reduces to the minimization of a function $\mathbb{R}^9 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{12}$, independent of the number n correspondences.

Restricted camera estimation

- Initialization of the iteration
 - Use a linear algorithm such as DLT to find initial camera matrix.
 - Clamp fixed parameters
 - Set variable parameter to their values obtained by decomposition of initial camera matrix
- The values obtained from the DLT can differ significant from the real values. Therefore use soft constraints and add extra terms to the cost function. E.g. if $s = 0$ and $\alpha_x = \alpha_y$ the geometric error becomes:

$$\sum_i d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{P}\mathbf{X}_i)^2 + ws^2 + w(\alpha_x - \alpha_y)^2$$

Restricted camera estimation

- Exterior orientation
 - All internal parameters of the camera are known.
 - Only position and orientation of the camera unknown.
 - Six degrees of freedom remain and can be determined with three points.
- Experimental evaluation (table 7.2)
 - Same results
 - Algebraic method is quicker (12 errors vs. $2n = 396$)

Restricted camera estimation

- Covariance estimation

- Similar to 2D homography case.
- Assuming all errors are in the image measurements the residual error is equal to:

$$\epsilon_{\text{res}} = \sigma(1 - d/2n)^{1/2}$$

With d the number of camera parameters being fitted. (Example 7.1: $\epsilon = 0.365$ results in $\sigma = 0.37$).

Restricted camera estimation

- Covariance ellipsoid for an estimated camera.
- Backpropagate covariance of the point measurements back to camera models. Which results in:

$$\Sigma_{\text{camera}} = (\mathbf{J}^T \Sigma_{\text{points}}^{-1} \mathbf{J})^{-1}$$

With \mathbf{J} Jacobian of measured points.

- Error bounds of ellipsoid can now be computed.

$$(\mathbf{C} - \bar{\mathbf{C}})^T \Sigma_{\mathbf{C}}^{-1} (\mathbf{C} - \bar{\mathbf{C}}) = k^2$$

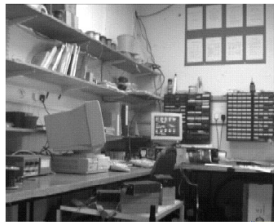
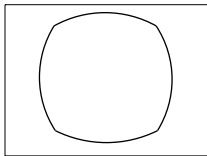
Where $k^2 = F_n^{-1}(\alpha)$ from the inverse cumulative χ_n^2 with confidence level α and n the number of variables.

Radial distortion

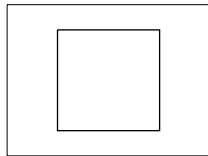
- Assumed that a linear model is accurate for imaging.
- Not the case for real lenses.
- Radial distortion



radial distortion



linear image



correction



Radial distortion

- Radial distortion is modeled by:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_d \\ y_d \end{pmatrix} = L(\tilde{r}) \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{x} \\ \tilde{y} \end{pmatrix}$$

- (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) is the ideal position
- (x_d, y_d) actual image position
- \tilde{r} is the radial distance $\sqrt{\tilde{x}^2 + \tilde{y}^2}$ from the centre of distortion
- $L(\tilde{r})$ is a distortion factor

Radial distortion

- Correction of the coordinates in pixel coordinates is given by:

$$\hat{x} = x_c + L(r)(x - x_c)$$

$$\hat{y} = y_c + L(r)(y - y_c)$$

Where (x, y) are the measured coordinates, (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) corrected coordinates, (x_c, y_c) the center of radial distortion, and $r^2 = (x - x_c)^2 + (y - y_c)^2$.

- $L(r)$ is approximated by a Taylor expansion

$$L(r) = 1 + \kappa_1 r + \kappa_2 r^2 + \kappa_3 r^3 + \dots$$

Radial distortion

- Principal point is taken as the centre of radial distortion.
- $L(r)$ may be computed by minimizing a cost based on a the deviation from a linear mapping.
- Parameters κ_i can be computed together with P during minimization of the geometric error.
- Alternatively one can use known straight lines to guide minimization process.
- Example 7.3 and 7.4 show an example of radial distortion compensation and the effect on the residual error (Table 7.3).