

EPIPOLAR GEOMETRY and STEREO VISION

COMPSCI 773 S1T VISION GUIDED CONTROL

AP Georgy Gimel'farb





Binocular Viewing



- $\mathbf{O}_1 = (X_{o,1}, Y_{o,1}, Z_{o,1})$ and $\mathbf{O}_2 = (X_{o,1}, Y_{o,1}, Z_{o,1})$ -optical centres (poles) of cameras
- Stereo baseline: the line segment O_1O_2 between the optical centres
- $\mathbf{o}_1 = (X_{o,1}, Y_{o,1}, Z_{o,1})$ and $\mathbf{o}_2 = (X_{o,2}, Y_{o,2}, Z_{o,2})$ *principal points* of the images
- **e**₁ and **e**₂ *epipolar points* in the image planes
 - The projection of one optical centre (pole) onto the plane of another image





Binocular Viewing

- Conveniently described in terms of corresponding epipolar lines
- Definition:

The *epipolar line* through the pixel s in the image plane is a trace of the intersecting plane containing the 3D point S and the baseline O_1O_2 (that is, both optical centres O_1 and O_2)

- Let ${\bf s}$ denote the projection of a 3D point ${\bf S}$ onto an image plane
- Any spatial point laying in the plane $\mathbf{SO}_1\mathbf{O}_2$ is projected into the corresponding pair of the epipolar lines in the images
- For instance, ${\bf S}$ is projected into the lines e_1s_1 and e_2s_2





- Definition: the epipolar profile of the scene is the 2D profile of the 3D scene in the intersecting plane SO₁O₂
- Each epipolar profile of the scene is depicted by the corresponding epipolar lines e_1s_1 and e_2s_2 in the images
 - s_1 , s_2 projections of a 3D point S
 - e_1, e_2 epipoles
 - $\mathbf{e_1}$ the projection of the optical centre $\mathbf{O_1}$ (or pole) onto the second image
 - \mathbf{e}_2 the projection of the optical centre \mathbf{O}_2 (or pole) onto the first image







- The lines e_1s_1 and e_2s_2 are the corresponding epipolar lines





• Symmetric epipolar constraint:

- For a given point s_1 in the plane of the stereo image 1, all the possible stereo matches in the plane of another image 2 are on the epipolar line passing through the epipole e_2
- For a given point s_2 in the plane of the stereo image 2, all the possible stereo matches in the plane of another image 1 are on the epipolar line passing through the epipole e_1
- Corresponding epipolar lines are the intersections of the plane
 SO₁O₂ with the image planes





- Parallel epipolar lines:

a special case of a so-called horizontal stereo pair







- Epipolar relations between the image points:
 - Two cameras with the projection matrices $\mathbf{P}_i = [\mathbf{Q}_i \mathbf{q}_i]; i=1,2$
 - 3D point S relates to the corresponding image points $s_1 = P_1S$ and $s_2 = P_2S$





• The optical centre:

 $\mathbf{P}_{i}[\mathbf{O}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} 1]^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{Q}_{i}\mathbf{O}_{i} + \mathbf{q}_{i}1 = \mathbf{0} \rightarrow \mathbf{O}_{i} = -\mathbf{Q}_{i}^{-1}\mathbf{q}_{i}$ • An example: $\mathbf{O}_{1} = -\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} -1.5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = -\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1.5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $\mathbf{O}_{2} = -\begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1.5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$



- The epipole \mathbf{e}_j ; $j \neq i$, is given by the relationship: $\mathbf{e}_j = \mathbf{P}_j [\mathbf{O}_i^{\top} \mathbf{1}]^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{P}_j [(-\mathbf{Q}_i^{-1}\mathbf{q}_i)^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{1}]^{\mathsf{T}}$ and is one of the points of each epipolar line:
- An example: $\mathbf{e}_{1} = \mathbf{P}_{1} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0 & 0 & -1.5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $\mathbf{e}_{2} = \mathbf{P}_{2} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & 0 & 0 & 1.5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ COMPSCI 773 S1T



11



Epipolar Geometry

• Another point \mathbf{D}_i can be chosen at infinity of the optical ray $\mathbf{O}_i \mathbf{s}_i$, that is, $\mathbf{P}_i [\mathbf{D}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \ 0]^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{Q}_i \mathbf{D}_i + \mathbf{q}_i \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{s}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{D}_i = \mathbf{Q}_i^{-1} \mathbf{s}_i$

– An example:

$$\mathbf{D}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}; \quad \mathbf{D}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The image \mathbf{d}_j of this point in the second image plane is given by $\mathbf{d}_j = \mathbf{P}_j [\mathbf{D}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \ 0]^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{Q}_j \mathbf{Q}_i^{-1} \mathbf{s}_i$
- An example: $\mathbf{Q}_1 = \mathbf{Q}_2$ means that $\mathbf{d}_j = \mathbf{s}_i$



X

Vector Cross Product

- Let $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, x_3]^T$ and $\mathbf{y} = [y_1, y_2, y_3]^T$ denote two vectors
- The vector cross-product is the vector $z = x \times y$ being orthogonal to both x and y, i.e. $x^T z = y^T z = 0$

$$\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 y_3 - x_3 y_2 & -x_1 y_3 + x_3 y_1 & x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1 \end{bmatrix}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -x_3 & x_2 \\ x_3 & 0 & -x_1 \\ -x_2 & x_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}^{\mathsf{T}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -y_3 & y_2 \\ y_3 & 0 & -y_1 \\ -y_2 & y_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- An example: if **x** and **y** are homogeneous coordinates of two 2D points then a 2D line through these points has the parameter vector, $\mathbf{a} = [a_1, a_2, a_3]^T$, such that $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{y}$



- Epipoles: $\mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{P}_1 [(-\mathbf{Q}_2^{-1}\mathbf{q}_2)^T \ 1]^T \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = \mathbf{P}_2 [(-\mathbf{Q}_1^{-1}\mathbf{q}_1)^T \ 1]^T$
- Image points at infinity of the optical ray:

 $\mathbf{d}_1 = \mathbf{Q}_1 \mathbf{Q}_2^{-1} \mathbf{s}_2$ $\mathbf{d}_2 = \mathbf{Q}_2 \mathbf{Q}_1^{-1} \mathbf{s}_1$

- Given the two points e₁ and d₁ (e₂ and d₂), the epipolar line in the image plane 1 (2) in homogeneous coordinates is given by the vector cross product: e₁ x d₁ (e₂ x d₂)
- It follows that the cross products $e_1 \times d_1$ and $e_2 \times d_2$ can be written as $s_2^T F$ and Fs_1 , respectively
- F is a 3 x 3 fundamental matrix
- Any pixel \mathbf{s}_1 (\mathbf{s}_2) on the epipolar line of \mathbf{s}_2 (\mathbf{s}_1) satisfies the Longuet-Higgins equation: $\mathbf{s}_2^T \mathbf{F} \mathbf{s}_1 = 0$





- The parameters of the epipolar line of s_1 are given by the vector $s_2{}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{F}$ as well as the parameters of the epipolar line of s_2 by the vector \mathbf{Fs}_1
 - Let homogeneous coordinate vectors $\mathbf{s}_{k,j} = [x_{k,j} y_{k,j} 1]^T$; j = 1,2 denote the *k*-th pair of corresponding points in a stereo pair of images
 - The indices j = 1 and 2 represent the left and right image of the stereo pair, respectively
- Meaning of the fundamental matrix relationship: $\mathbf{s}_{k,2}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{F} \mathbf{s}_{k,1} = 0$
 - Any point $\mathbf{s}_{k,2}$ of the right image specifies in the left image an epipolar line which the corresponding point $\mathbf{s}_{k,1}$ lies on; the line parameters are $\mathbf{s}_{k,2}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{F}$
 - Alternatively, a point $\mathbf{s}_{k,1}$ specifies in the right image the parameters $\mathbf{F}\mathbf{s}_{k,1}$ of the corresponding epipolar line which the point $\mathbf{s}_{k,2}$ lies on



• Parameters of the epipolar lines are represented by the coordinates of the epipoles $\mathbf{e}_1 = [x_{e,1} \ y_{e,1}]^T$ and $\mathbf{e}_2 = [x_{e,2} \ y_{e,2}]^T$:

$$a_{1}(x_{k,1} - x_{e,1})(x_{k,2} - x_{e,2}) + a_{2}(y_{k,1} - y_{e,1})(y_{k,2} - y_{e,2}) + a_{4}(x_{k,1} - x_{e,1})(y_{k,2} - y_{e,2}) + a_{5}(y_{k,1} - y_{e,1})(x_{k,2} - x_{e,2}) = 0$$





• The fundamental matrix depends on four parameters

$$\mathbf{a} = [a_1, a_2, a_4, a_5]^{\mathsf{T}}$$

and four coordinates

$$\mathbf{e} = [x_{e,1}, y_{e,1}, x_{e,2}, y_{e,2}]^{\mathsf{T}}$$

of the epipoles:

$$\mathbf{F} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & -x_{e,1}a_1 - y_{e,1}a_2 \\ a_4 & a_5 & -x_{e,1}a_4 - y_{e,1}a_5 \\ -x_{e,2}a_1 - y_{e,2}a_4 & -x_{e,2}a_2 - y_{e,2}a_5 & x_{e,1}x_{e,2}a_1 + y_{e,1}x_{e,2}a_2 \\ +x_{e,1}y_{e,2}a_4 + y_{e,1}y_{e,2}a_5 \end{pmatrix}$$

• It is easily seen that the fundamental matrix has the rank 2 COMPSCI 773 S1T





Corresponding pixels $\mathbf{s}_{j,k}; j=1,2;$ k=1,2, and the epipolar lines for given parameters

17



Changes of the epipolar lines for new parameters **a**





Changes of the epipolar lines for new positions of the epipoles **e**





Distance to an Epipolar Line

• The unnormalised (or scaled) squared distance between a pixel an an epipolar line generated by the corresponding pixel can be represented as follows:

$$(\mathbf{s}_{k,2}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{F} \mathbf{s}_{k,1})^2 \equiv \mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{\Phi}_k(\mathbf{e})\mathbf{a}$$

with the following 4 x 4 matrix $\Phi_k(\mathbf{e}) = \mathbf{f}_k(\mathbf{e}) \mathbf{f}_k^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{e})$ where the vector $\mathbf{f}_k(\mathbf{e})$ combines the coordinates of the corresponding pixels and the epipoles: $[(x_{k+1} - x_{k+1})(x_{k+2} - x_{k+2})]$

$$\mathbf{f}_{k}(\mathbf{e}) = \begin{bmatrix} (x_{k,1} & x_{e,1})(x_{k,2} & x_{e,2}) \\ (y_{k,1} - y_{e,1})(x_{k,2} - x_{e,2}) \\ (x_{k,1} - x_{e,1})(y_{k,2} - y_{e,2}) \\ (y_{k,1} - y_{e,1})(y_{k,2} - y_{e,2}) \end{bmatrix}$$





Distance to an Epipolar Line

Therefore the squared distance d_{k,1}(a,e) of a pixel s_{k,1} from the epipolar line that corresponds to the pixel s_{k,2}, and the like distance d_{k,2}(a,e) of the pixel s_{k,2} from the epipolar line that corresponds to the pixel s_{k,1} are as follows:

$$d_{k,1}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{e}) = \frac{\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} \Phi_k(\mathbf{e}) \mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{C}_{k,1}(\mathbf{e}_2) \mathbf{a}}; \quad d_{k,2}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{e}) = \frac{\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} \Phi_k(\mathbf{e}) \mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{C}_{k,2}(\mathbf{e}_1) \mathbf{a}}$$

The denominators are the normalising factors:

$$\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{C}_{k,1}(\mathbf{e}_{2}) \mathbf{a} \equiv \left(a_{1} \cdot \left(x_{k,2} - x_{e,2}\right) + a_{2} \cdot \left(y_{k,2} - y_{e,2}\right)\right)^{2} \\ + \left(a_{4} \cdot \left(x_{k,2} - x_{e,2}\right) + a_{5} \cdot \left(y_{k,2} - y_{e,2}\right)\right)^{2} \\ \mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{C}_{k,2}(\mathbf{e}_{1}) \mathbf{a} \equiv \left(a_{1} \cdot \left(x_{k,1} - x_{e,1}\right) + a_{4} \cdot \left(y_{k,1} - y_{e,1}\right)\right)^{2} \\ + \left(a_{2} \cdot \left(x_{k,1} - x_{e,1}\right) + a_{5} \cdot \left(y_{k,1} - y_{e,1}\right)\right)^{2}$$

$$\mathbf{C}_{k,1}(\mathbf{e}_{2}) = \begin{pmatrix} (x_{k,2} - x_{e,2})^{2} & (x_{k,2} - x_{e,2}) \cdot & 0 & 0 \\ (y_{k,2} - y_{e,2}) & (y_{k,2} - y_{e,2}) & 0 & 0 \\ (x_{k,2} - x_{e,2}) \cdot & (y_{k,2} - y_{e,2})^{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & (x_{k,2} - x_{e,2})^{2} & (x_{k,2} - x_{e,2}) \cdot \\ 0 & 0 & (x_{k,2} - x_{e,2}) \cdot & (y_{k,2} - y_{e,2}) \\ 0 & 0 & (x_{k,2} - x_{e,2}) \cdot & (y_{k,2} - y_{e,2})^{2} \\ 0 & 0 & (x_{k,1} - x_{e,1}) \cdot & 0 \\ (y_{k,1} - y_{e,1})^{2} & 0 & (x_{k,1} - x_{e,1}) \cdot \\ 0 & (x_{k,1} - x_{e,1})^{2} & 0 & (x_{k,1} - x_{e,1}) \\ (x_{k,1} - x_{e,1})^{2} & 0 & (y_{k,1} - y_{e,1}) \\ (y_{k,1} - y_{e,1}) \cdot & 0 & (y_{k,1} - y_{e,1})^{2} \\ 0 & (x_{k,1} - x_{k,1}) \cdot & 0 & (y_{k,1} - y_{k,1})^{2} \\ 0 & (x_{k,1} - x_{k,1}) \cdot & 0 & (y_{k,1} - y_{k,1})^{2} \\ 0 & (x_{k,1} - x_{k,1}) \cdot & 0 & (y_{k,1} - y_{k,1})^{2} \\ 0 & (x_{k,1} - x_{k,1}) \cdot & (x_{k,1} - x_{k,1}) \cdot & (x_{k,1} - x_{k,1}) \cdot \\ 0 & (x_{k,1} - x_{k,1}) \cdot & (x_{k,1} - x_{k,1}) \cdot & (x_{k,1} - x_{k,1}) \cdot \\ 0$$



Normalised Fundamental Matrix

- Components of the fundamental matrix have to be normalised to exclude the singular case of $\mathbf{F}=\mathbf{0}$
- An ideal horizontal stereo pair with the epipolar lines $y_1 = y_2 = y$ that are parallel to the *x*-axis of the images has the following fundamental matrix: $\mathbf{F} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 & -1/\sqrt{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$
- Here, the parameters $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$ and the parameters $\mathbf{e} = [-\infty, c_1, \infty, c_2]^T$ where the constants c_i may have arbitrary values
 - It is impossible to normalise only the parameters **a**: all the components which are present in the normalising factors for the distance should be taken into account, i.e. all the components of $\mathbf{F} = [f_{ij}]_{ij=1,2,3}$ excepting the component $f_{3,3}$





Fundamental Matrix: Computation

- Given a large set of corresponding points {($\mathbf{s}_{1,k}, \mathbf{s}_{2,k}$): i = 1,...,n}, the equation $\mathbf{s}_1^T \mathbf{F} \mathbf{s}_2 = 0$ can be used to estimate \mathbf{F}
- Each point match $\mathbf{s}_{1,k} = [x_{1,k}, y_{1,k}, 1]^T$ and $\mathbf{s}_{2,k} = [x_{2,k}, y_{2,k}, 1]^T$ results in one linear equation for the unknown entries of **F**:

$$\begin{aligned} x_{1,k} x_{2,k} f_{11} + x_{1,k} y_{2,k} f_{12} + x_{1,k} f_{13} \\ &+ y_{1,k} x_{2,k} f_{21} + y_{1,k} y_{2,k} f_{22} + y_{1,k} f_{23} \\ &+ x_{2,k} f_{31} + y_{2,k} f_{32} + f_{33} \end{aligned} = 0, \text{ or }$$

 $[x_{1,k}x_{2,k}, x_{1,k}y_{2,k}, x_{1,k}, y_{1,k}x_{2,k}, y_{1,k}x_{2,k}, y_{1,k}, x_{2,k}, y_{2,k}, 1]\mathbf{f} = 0$

• For a set of *n* point matches: a set of linear equations: $\mathbf{Af} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1,1}x_{2,1}, x_{1,1}y_{2,1}, x_{1,1}, y_{1,1}x_{2,1}, y_{1,1}y_{2,1}, y_{1,1}, x_{2,1}, y_{2,1}, 1\\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{1,n}x_{2,n}, x_{1,n}y_{2,n}, x_{1,n}, y_{1,n}x_{2,n}, y_{1,n}y_{2,n}, y_{1,n}, x_{2,n}, y_{2,n}, 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{f} = \mathbf{0}$ COMPSCI 773 S1T





Fundamental Matrix: Computation

- The set of equations Af=0 is homogeneous: so f can be determined up to scale
 - For a solution to exist, A should have rank at most 8
 - If the rank is exactly 8, then the solution is unique (up to scale), and can be found by linear methods
- A least-squares solution for noisy data: $\min_{\mathbf{f}} ||\mathbf{A}\mathbf{f}||$
 - The data are not exact (noisy) and the rank of A is greater than 8 (i.e. equal to 9 because A has 9 columns)
 - The least-squares solution for f is the singular vector corresponding to the smallest singular value of A, i.e. the last column of the matrix V in the singular value decomposition (SVD) $A = UDV^T$
 - The solution vector \mathbf{f} found in this way minimises the vector norm $||\mathbf{A}\mathbf{f}||$ subject to the condition $||\mathbf{f}||=1$
 - The singularity constraint: the fundamental matrix ${\bf F}$ has rank 2



The 8-Point Algorithm

- Enforcing the singularity constraint by correcting the matrix F found by the SVD solution from A
 - Close approximation of **F** with the matrix **F**' with zero determinant $|\mathbf{F}'| = 0$
 - Can be done by the SVD: if $\mathbf{F}=\mathbf{U}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}}$ is the SVD of \mathbf{F} where \mathbf{D} is the diagonal matrix $\mathbf{D}=\operatorname{diag}\{\alpha,\beta,\gamma\}$ such that $\alpha \ge \beta \ge \gamma$, then $\mathbf{F}'=\mathbf{U}\operatorname{diag}\{\alpha,\beta,0\}\mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}}$
- The normalised 8-point algorithm
 - Initial normalisation of input data: translation and scaling of each image so that the centroid of reference points is at the origin of the coordinates and the root mean square (RMS) distance of the points from the origin is equal to $\sqrt{2}$
 - (*i*) *Linear solution* \mathbf{F} is obtained from the vector \mathbf{f} corresponding to the minimal singular value of \mathbf{A} specifying the system of equations $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{0}$
 - (*ii*) Singularity constraint is enforced by replacing F by F', the closest singular matrix to F, using the SVD
 - **Denornalisation**: the linear transformation of **F**' to fit the non-normalised data





Singular Value Decomposition

- Any generic m x n rectangular matrix A can be written as the product of three matrices: A = UDV^T
 - The columns of the *m* x *m* matrix U are mutually orthogonal unit vectors
 - The columns of the *n* x *n* matrix V are mutually orthogonal unit vectors
 - The *m* x *n* diagonal matrix **D** has diagonal elements σ_i called singular values such that $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge ... \ge \sigma_N \ge 0$ (*N* = min{*m*,*n*}))
 - The matrices ${\bf U}$ and ${\bf V}$ are not unique, but the singular values are fully determined by the matrix ${\bf A}$
- A square matrix A is non-singular if and only if all its singular values are different from zero
 - Ratio $C = \sigma_1 / \sigma_n$ (condition number) the degree of singularity of **A**
 - If 1/C is comparable with the arithmetic precision of a computer, the matrix **A** is ill-conditioned and for all practical purposes should be considered singular





Singular Value Decomposition

- If A is a rectangular matrix, the number of non-zero singular values σ_i equals the rank of A
 - Given a fixed tolerance, ϵ , being typically of order 10⁻⁶, the number of singular values greater than ϵ equals the effective rank of A
- If A is a square, non-singular matrix, its inverse $A^{-1} = VD^{-1}U^{T}$
 - Be A singular or not, the **pseudoinverse** of A, A⁺, is $A^+ = VD_0^{-1}U^T$
 - \mathbf{D}_0^{-1} is equal to \mathbf{D}^{-1} for all nonzero singular values and zero otherwise
 - If A is nonsingular, then $\mathbf{D}_0^{-1} = \mathbf{D}^{-1}$ and $\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$
- The columns of \mathbf{U} are eigenvectors of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}$
- The columns of $\mathbf V$ are eigenvectors of $\mathbf A^\mathsf{T} \mathbf A$





Singular Value Decomposition

- Property of the SVD: $\mathbf{A}v_i = \sigma_i u_i$ and $\mathbf{A}^T u_i = \sigma_i v_i$
 - Here, u_i and v_i are the columns of U and V corresponding to σ_i
- The squares of the nonzero singular values are the nonzero eigen-values of both the *n* x *n* matrix A^TA and *m* x *m* matrix AA^T
- There is another definition of SVD:

with the $m \ge n$ matrix **U** and $n \ge n$ matrices **D** and **V**

• The latter definition is typically used in computations because of a smaller memory space for the matrices: $mn + 2N^2$ rather that $m^2 + mn + N^2$ for the initial definition as typically $N \ll m$



SVD: An Example

 $\boxed{}$

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow AA^{\mathsf{T}} = A^{\mathsf{T}}A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow & \mathsf{Eigenvalues and eigenvectors for } AA^{\mathsf{T}} = A^{\mathsf{T}}A : \\ \lambda_{1,2} &= 1; \ e_1 &= u_1 = v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix}; \ e_2 &= u_2 = v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -\sin\theta \\ \cos\theta \end{bmatrix};; \ \lambda_3 &= 0; \ e_3 &= u_3 = v_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \\ Av_i &= \sigma_i u_i; \ i &= 1, 2, 3 \Rightarrow & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma_1 = 1; \ \cos\theta &= \sin\theta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}; \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma_2 = -1; & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma_3 = 0 \Rightarrow \\ A &= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} e_1 & e_2 & e_3 \end{bmatrix} \operatorname{diag} \{\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3\}}_{D} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} e_1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ e_2^{\mathsf{T}} \\ v^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix}}_{V^{\mathsf{T}}} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{D} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{V^{\mathsf{T}}} \end{aligned}$$



V^T

Ď

$$\begin{split} A &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow AA^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad A^{\mathsf{T}}A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \\ \\ \text{Eigenvalues and eigenvectors for } AA^{\mathsf{T}} : (1-\lambda)[(2-\lambda)(1-\lambda)-1] - (1-\lambda) = (3-\lambda)(1-\lambda)\lambda = 0 \Rightarrow \\ \lambda_1 &= 3; \quad u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 2/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix}; \quad \lambda_2 = 1; \quad u_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}; \quad \lambda_3 = 0; \quad u_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} \\ -1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix}; \\ \\ \text{Eigenvalues and eigenvectors for } A^{\mathsf{T}}A : (2-\lambda)^2 - 1 = (3-\lambda)(1-\lambda) = 0 \Rightarrow \\ \lambda_1 &= 3; \quad v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}; \quad \lambda_2 = 1; \quad v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}; \Rightarrow \\ \\ Av_i &= \sigma_i u_i; \quad i = 1, 2 \quad \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} \\ 2/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma_1 = \sqrt{3}; \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \sigma_2 = -1 \\ \\ \Rightarrow \quad A = \underbrace{[u_1 & u_2 & u_3]}_{U} \underbrace{diag\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2\}}_{U} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} e_1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ e_2^{\mathsf{T}} \\ v_{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{6} & 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} & -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

COMPSCI 773 S1T

Ù



Rectification of Stereo Images

- Rectification of a stereo pair is a transformation (warping) of each image such that pairs of conjugate epipolar lines become collinear and parallel to one of the axes, usually the horizontal one
 - Rectification reduces generally 2D search for correspondence to a 1D search on scan-lines having the same *y*-coordinate in both the images
- This transformation can be computed using the known intrinsic parameters of each camera and the extrinsic parameters of the stereo system
 - The rectified images can be thought of as acquired by a new stereo rig obtained by rotating the original cameras around their optical centres





Rectification of Stereo Images

- Without losing generality, let us assume that in both cameras:
 - (*i*) the origin of the image reference frame is the principal point (i.e. the trace of the optical axis), and
 - (*ii*) the focal length is equal to f
 - (*iii*) **T** and **R** are the translation vector $(\mathbf{O}_1\mathbf{O}_2)$ and the rotation matrix, respectively, relating the coordinate frames of the left and right cameras
- The rectification algorithm consists in four steps:
 - 1. Rotate the left camera by the rotation matrix \mathbf{R}_{rect} so that the epipole goes to infinity along the horizontal axis (i.e. the left image plane becomes parallel to the baseline of the system)
 - 2. Apply the same rotation to the right camera to recover the original geometry
 - 3. Rotate the right camera by the rotation matrix \mathbf{R}
 - 4. Adjust the scale in both camera reference frames



Rotation Matrix R_{rect}

$$R_{\text{rect}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_{1}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \mathbf{e}_{2}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \mathbf{e}_{3}^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } \mathbf{e}_{1} = \frac{\mathsf{T}}{\|\mathbf{T}\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T_{x}^{2} + T_{y}^{2} + T_{z}^{2}}} \begin{bmatrix} T_{x} \\ T_{y} \\ T_{z} \end{bmatrix}; \quad \mathbf{e}_{2} = \frac{\mathbf{e}_{1} \times [0,0,1]^{\mathsf{T}}}{\|\mathbf{e}_{1} \times [0,0,1]^{\mathsf{T}}\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T_{x}^{2} + T_{y}^{2}}} \begin{bmatrix} -T_{y} \\ T_{x} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix};$$
$$\mathbf{e}_{3} = \mathbf{e}_{1} \times \mathbf{e}_{2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(T_{x}^{2} + T_{y}^{2})(T_{x}^{2} + T_{y}^{2} + T_{z}^{2})}} \begin{bmatrix} -T_{x}T_{z} \\ -T_{y}T_{z} \\ T_{x}^{2} + T_{y}^{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Partially arbitrary choice of a triple of mutually orthogonal unit vectors e:
- e_1 is given by the epipole (since the image centre is in the origin, the vector e_1 coincides with the direction of translation T)
- \mathbf{e}_2 a vector orthogonal to \mathbf{e}_1 (an arbitrary choice: $\mathbf{e}_2 = \mathbf{e}_1 \times \mathbf{OZ}$ (the optical axis) before normalisation
- $\mathbf{e}_3 = \mathbf{e}_1 \times \mathbf{e}_2$
- The remaining steps are straightforward



Rectification Algorithm

Input: the intrinsic and extrinsic parameters of a stereo system; a set of points in each camera to be rectified (could be the whole images) **Build** the rotation matrix \mathbf{R}_{rect} Set $\mathbf{R}_{l} = \mathbf{R}_{rect}$ and $\mathbf{R}_{r} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{R}_{rect}$ for each left-camera point, $\mathbf{p}_{I} = [x, y, f]^{\mathsf{T}}$, **compute** the coordinates of the corresponding rectified point, \mathbf{p}'_{l} , as $\mathbf{p}'_{l} = [fx'/z', fy'/z', f]$ where $[x', y', z'] = \mathbf{R}_{l}\mathbf{p}_{l}$ Repeat the previous step for the right camera using \mathbf{R}_r and \mathbf{p}_r Output: the pair of transformations to be applied to the two cameras in order to rectify the two input point sets; the rectified sets of points





Rectification of a Stereo Pair











