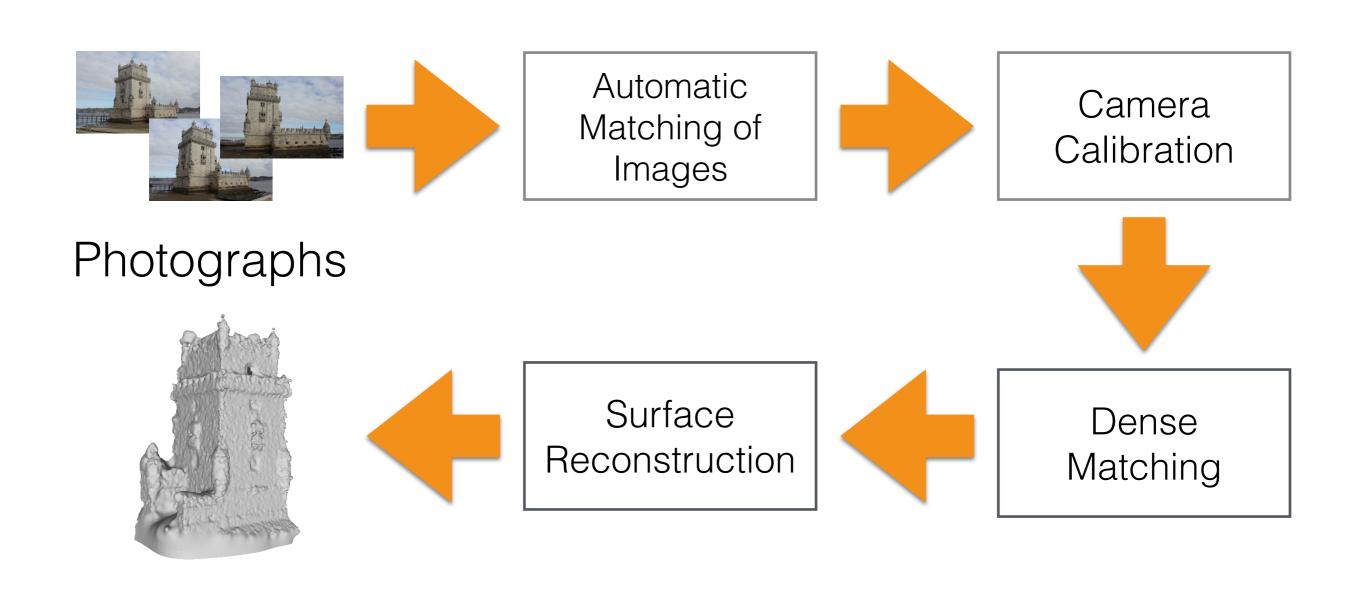
3D from Photographs: Dense Matching

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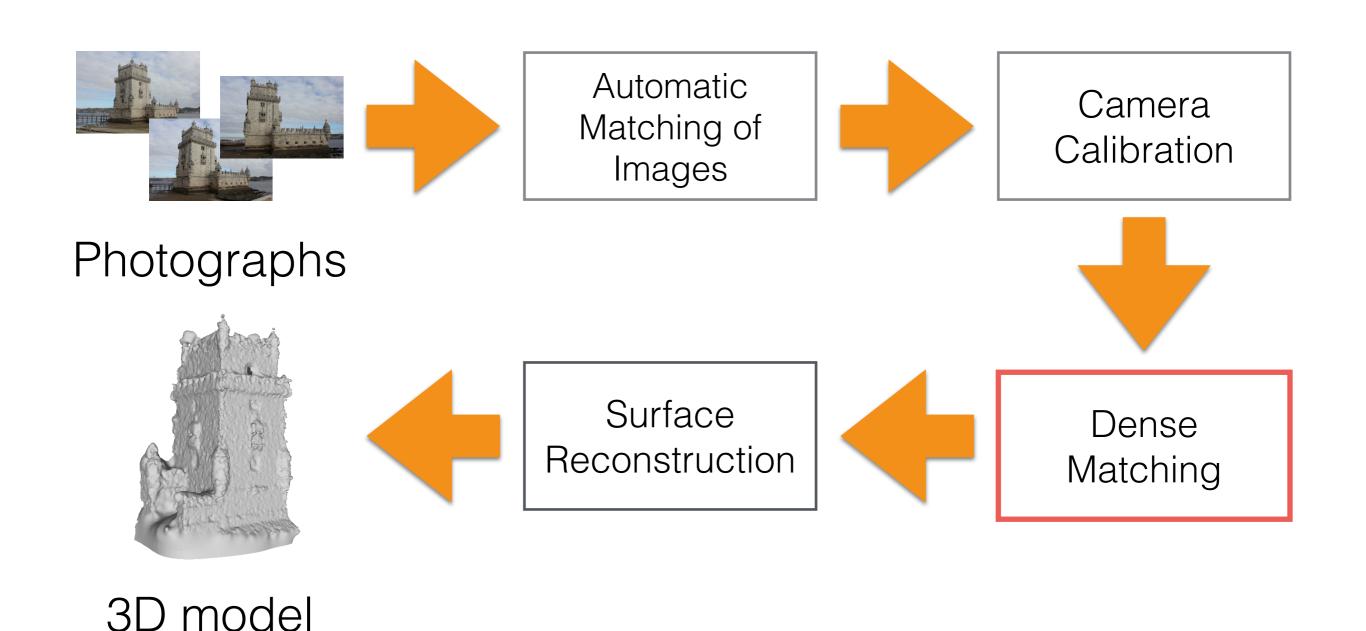
Note: in these slides the optical center is placed back to simplify drawing and understanding.

3D from Photographs



3D model

3D from Photographs



Dense Matching

- Once we have cameras and sparse matching we can proceed in several ways:
 - Stereo.
 - Multi-View Stereo.

Stereo

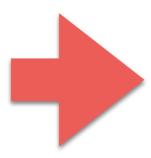
Stereo

- **Input**: two images, I_1 and I_2 , of the same scene taken from different positions (no pure rotational!) and their camera matrices (P_1 and P_2):
 - Optionally, we can have sparse 3D points or matched points if this is a SfM input.
- Output: a depth map for each image; i.e., two depth maps.

Stereo: Example

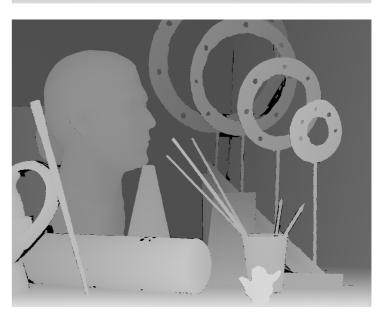


 $+ P_1$





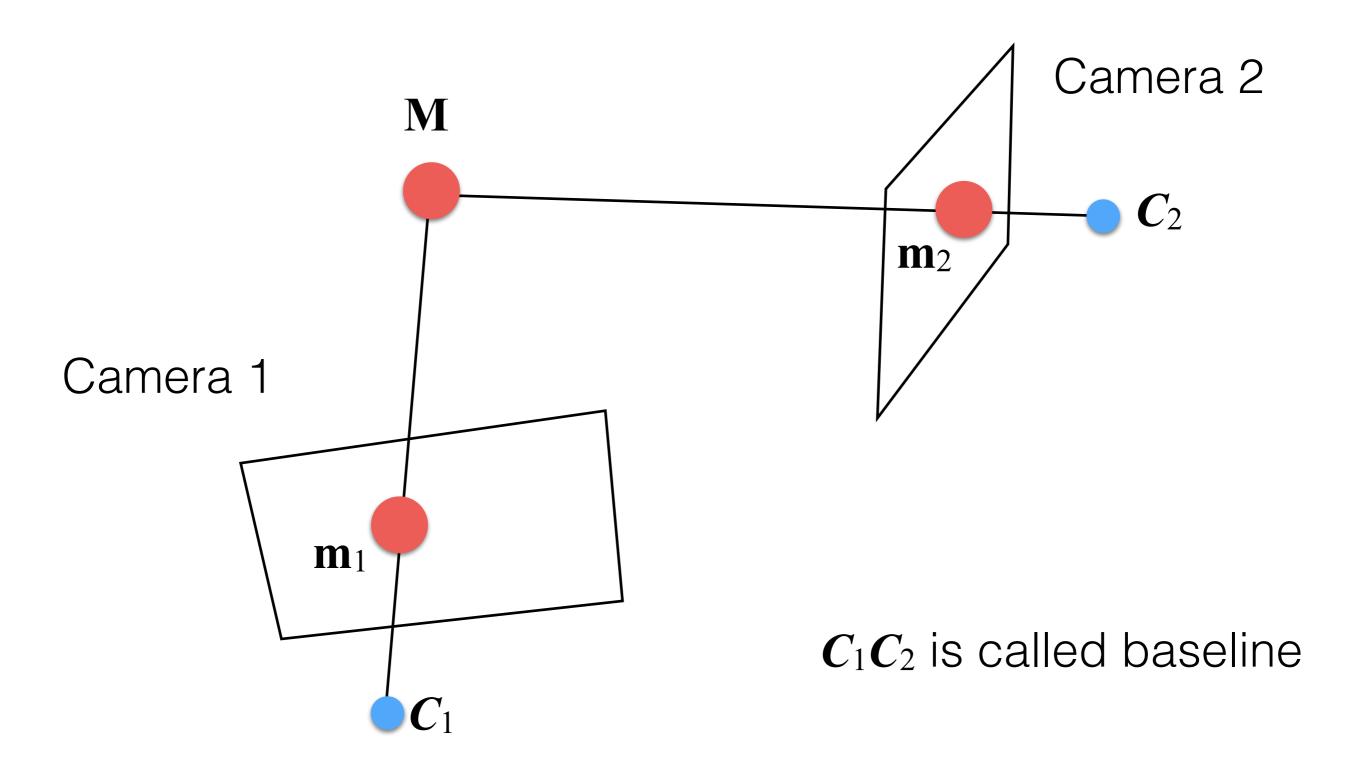
 $+ P_2$

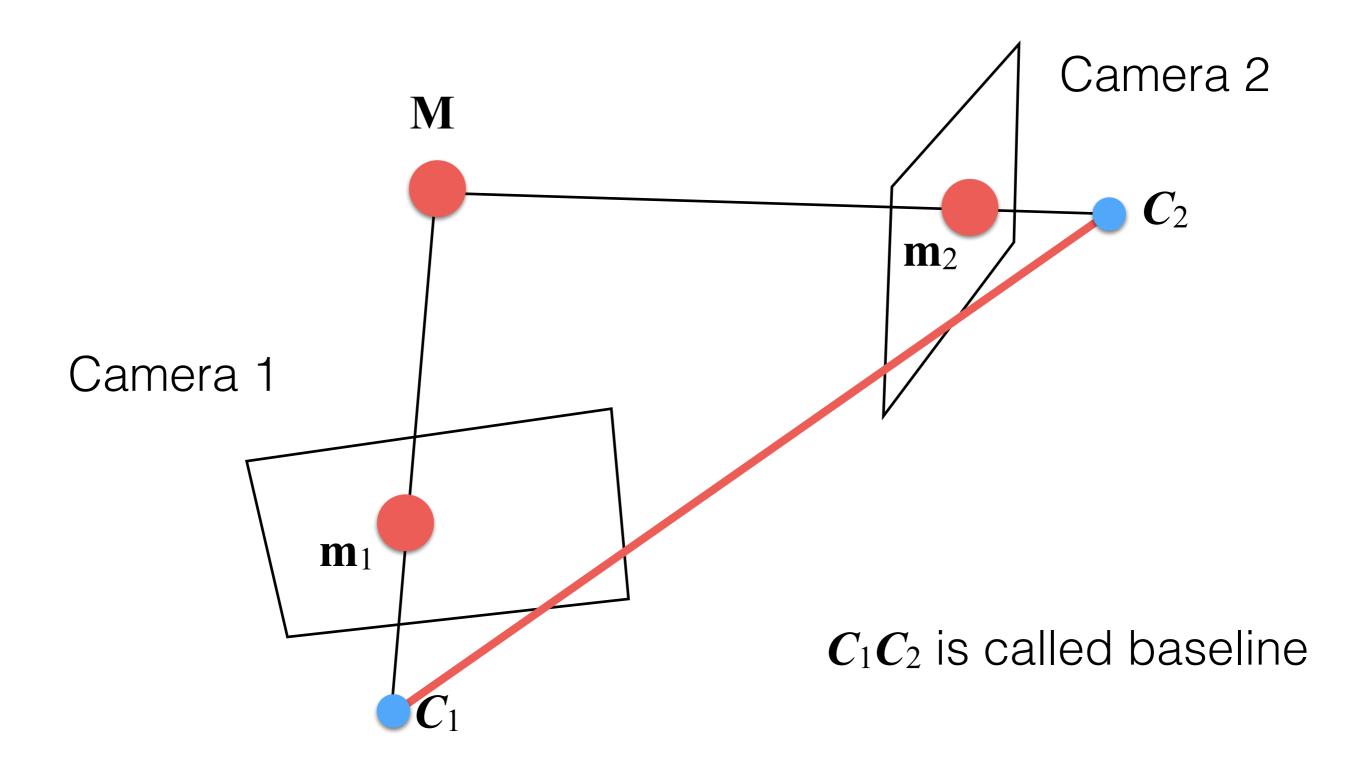


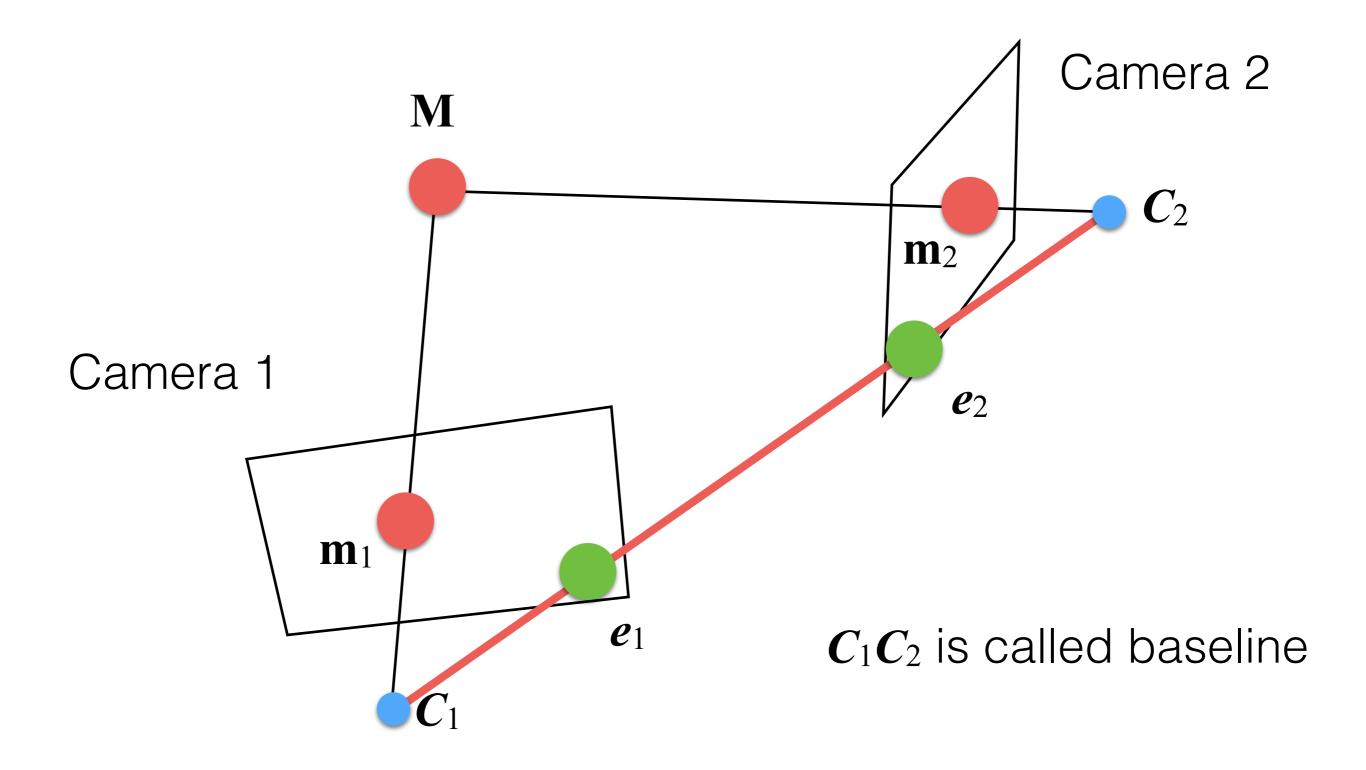
Output

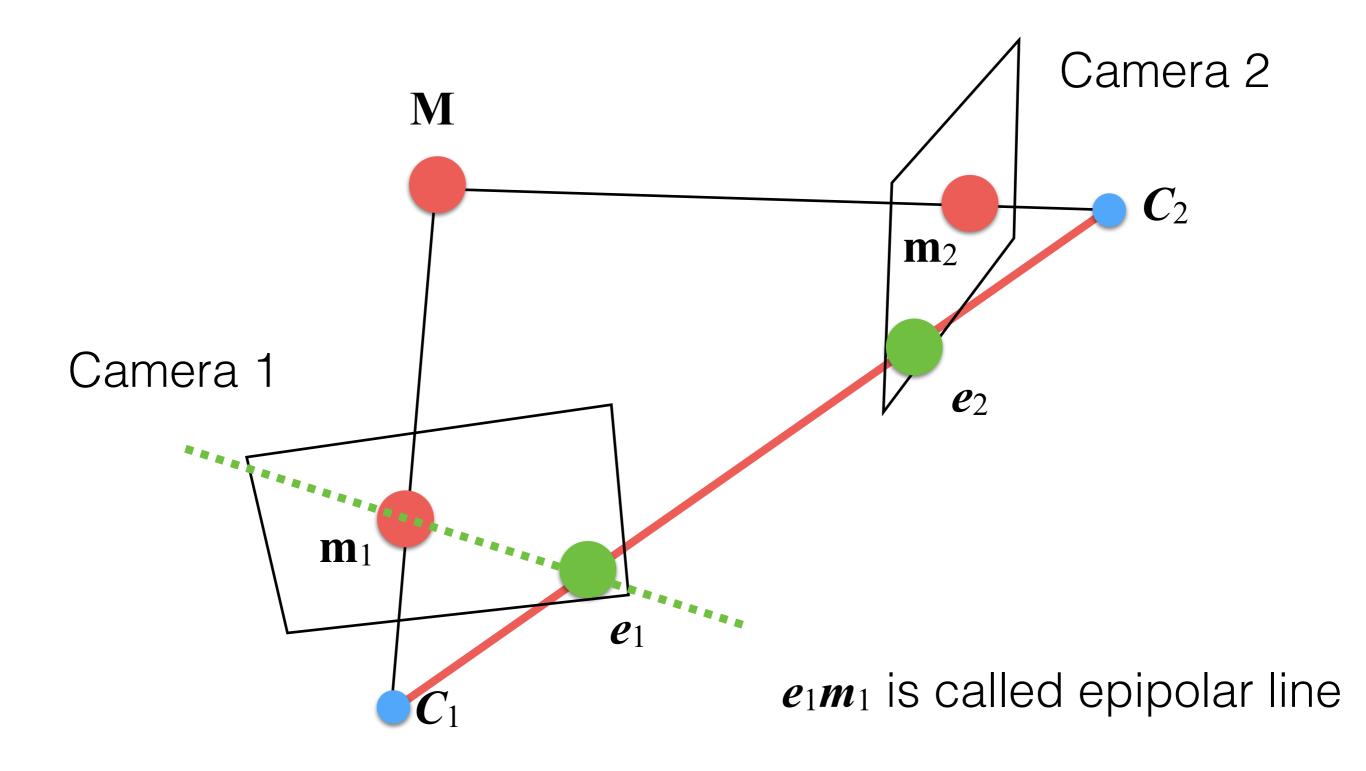
Input

Images from the Middlebury Dataset: http://vision.middlebury.edu/stereo/data/scenes2005/









Epipolar Geometry: Epipoles

- An epipole is the intersection of the baseline with the two image planes.
- Therefore, it is defined as

$$\mathbf{e}_1 \sim P_1 \cdot C_1$$
$$\mathbf{e}_2 \sim P_2 \cdot C_2$$

Note that, the projection matrices can be viewed as:

$$P_1 = [Q_1|\mathbf{q}_1] \quad P_2 = [Q_2|\mathbf{q}_2]$$

Epipolar Geometry: Epipolar Lines

The fundamental matrix can be also defined as

$$F = [e_1]_{\times} \cdot Q_1 \cdot Q_2^{-1}$$

and recalling

$$\mathbf{l} = F \cdot \mathbf{m}_1 \leftrightarrow (l_1 x + l_2 y + l_3) = 0$$
$$\mathbf{l} = F^{\top} \cdot \mathbf{m}_2 \leftrightarrow (l_1 x + l_2 y + l_3) = 0$$

we have:

$$\mathbf{m}_1 \sim (Q_1 \cdot Q_2^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}_2) \cdot t + \mathbf{e}_1$$

 $\mathbf{m}_2 \sim (Q_2 \cdot Q_1^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}_1) \cdot t + \mathbf{e}_2$

Epipolar Geometry: Epipolar Lines

- This equation is very important because it implies that:
 - If we have a point \mathbf{m}_2 in image I_2 , its match, \mathbf{m}_1 , is located in image I_1 along that line!
 - This means that we need to find the match along a line! 1D search instead of a 2D search around the whole image!





Left (I_1)

Right (I_2)



Left (I_1)



Right (I_2)



Left (I_1)



Right (I_2)



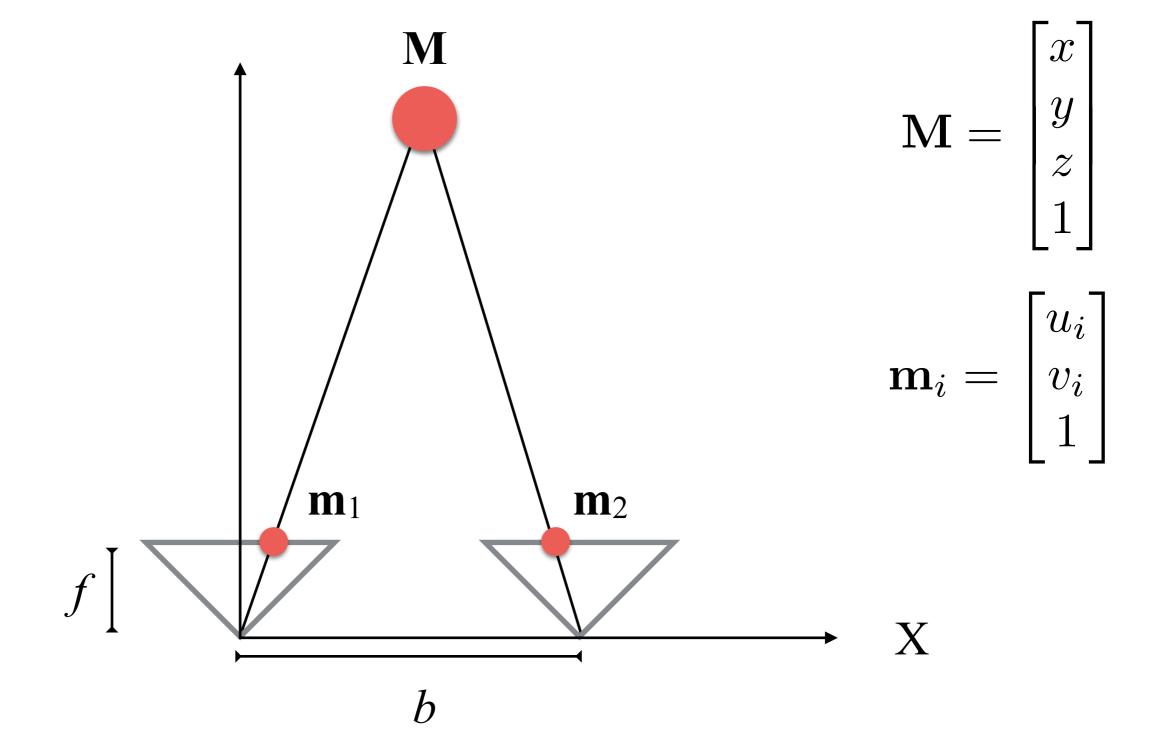
Left (I_1)

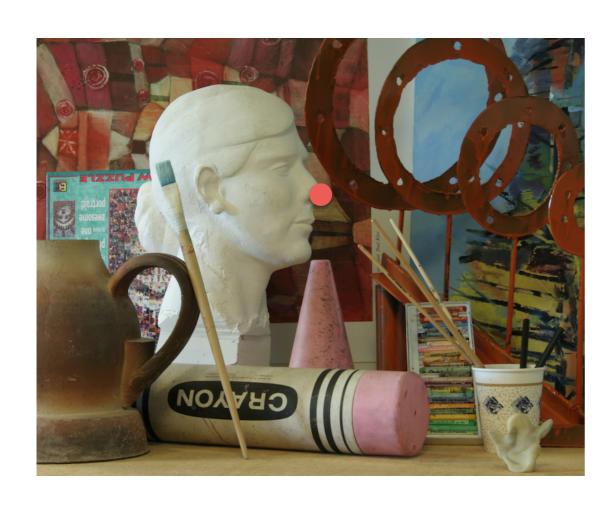


Right (I_2)

Epipolar Geometry: Epipolar Lines

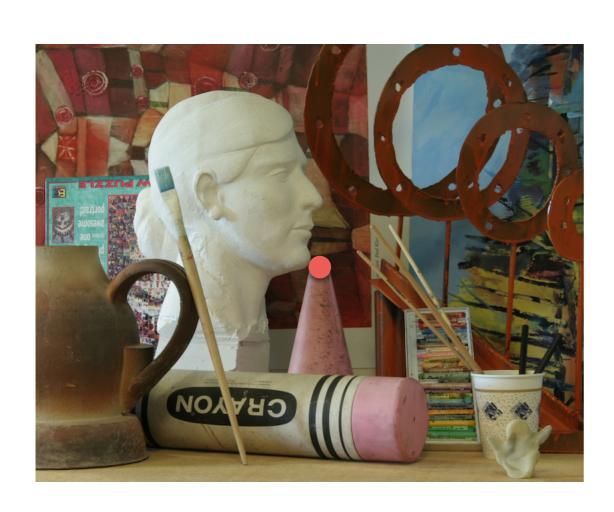
- So do we search along that line?
- Not really, it is not very computationally efficient:
 - At each check we need to apply bilinear interpolation and to compute pixel coordinates.

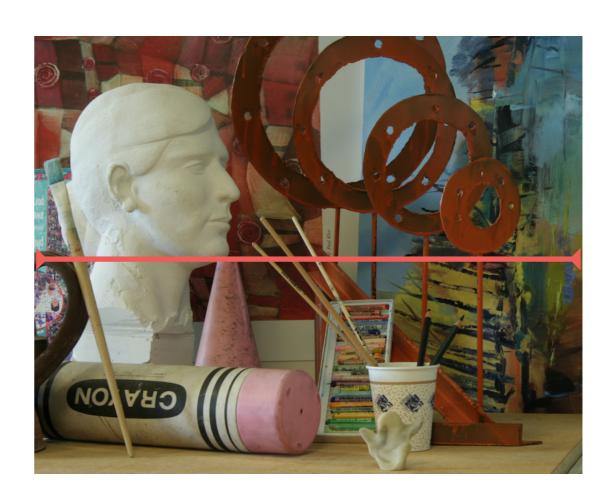




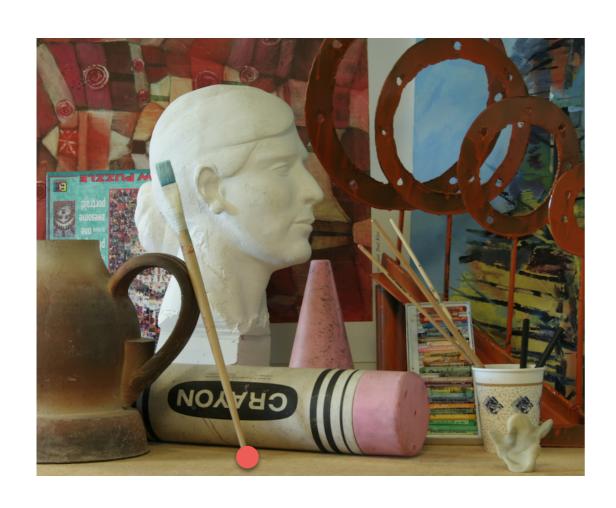


Left Right





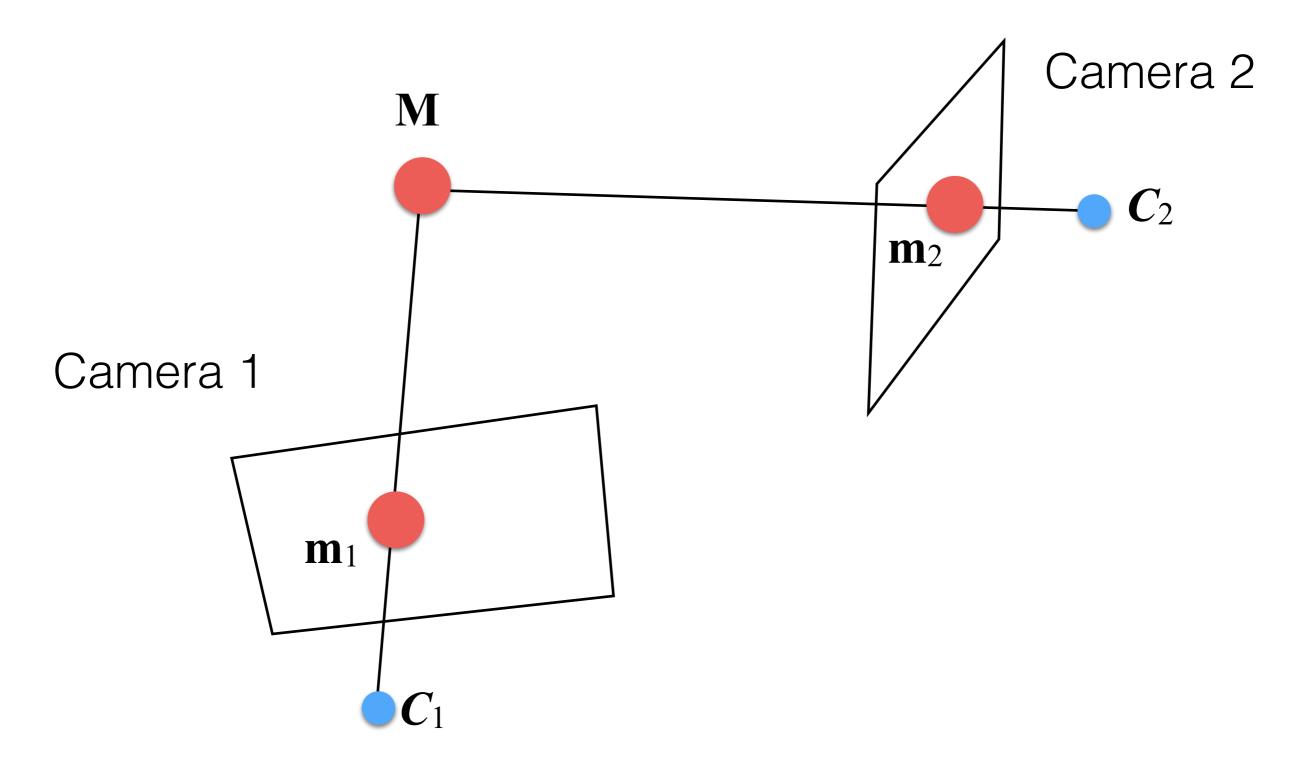
Left Right



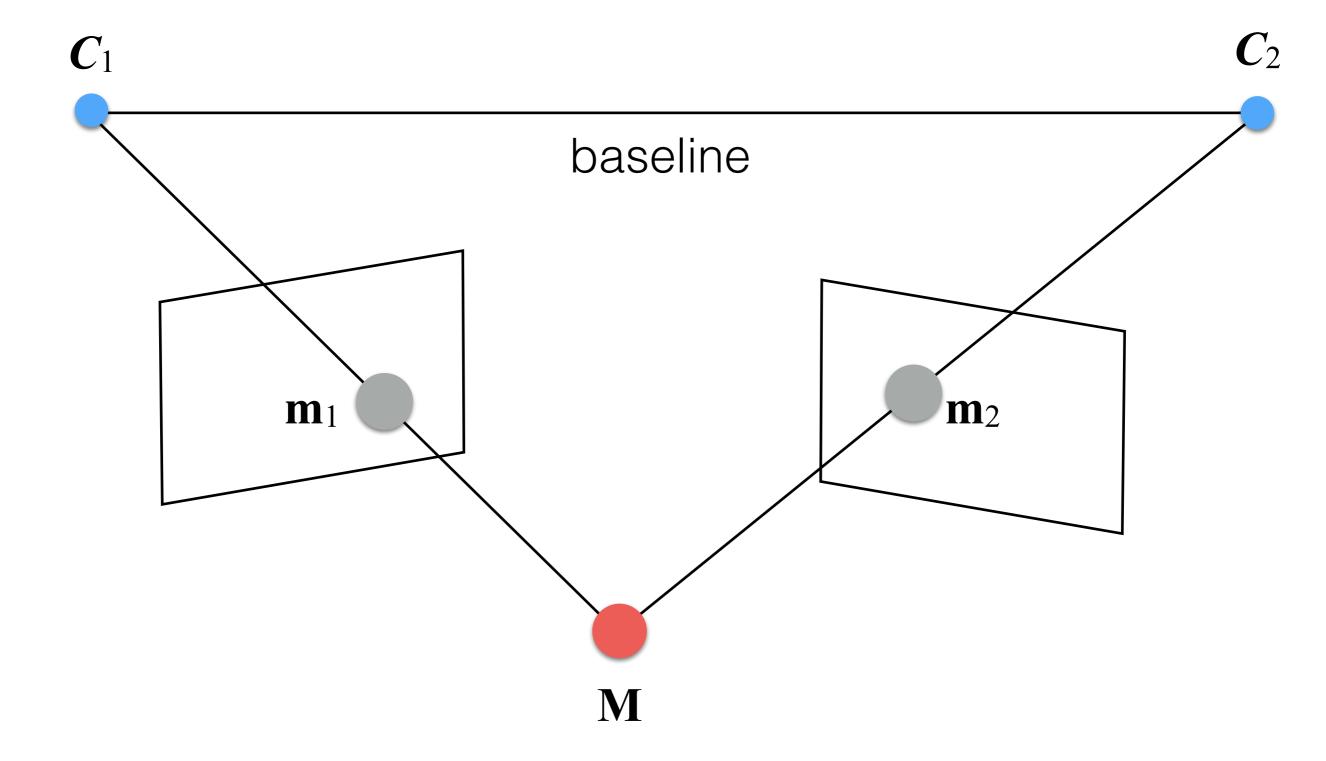


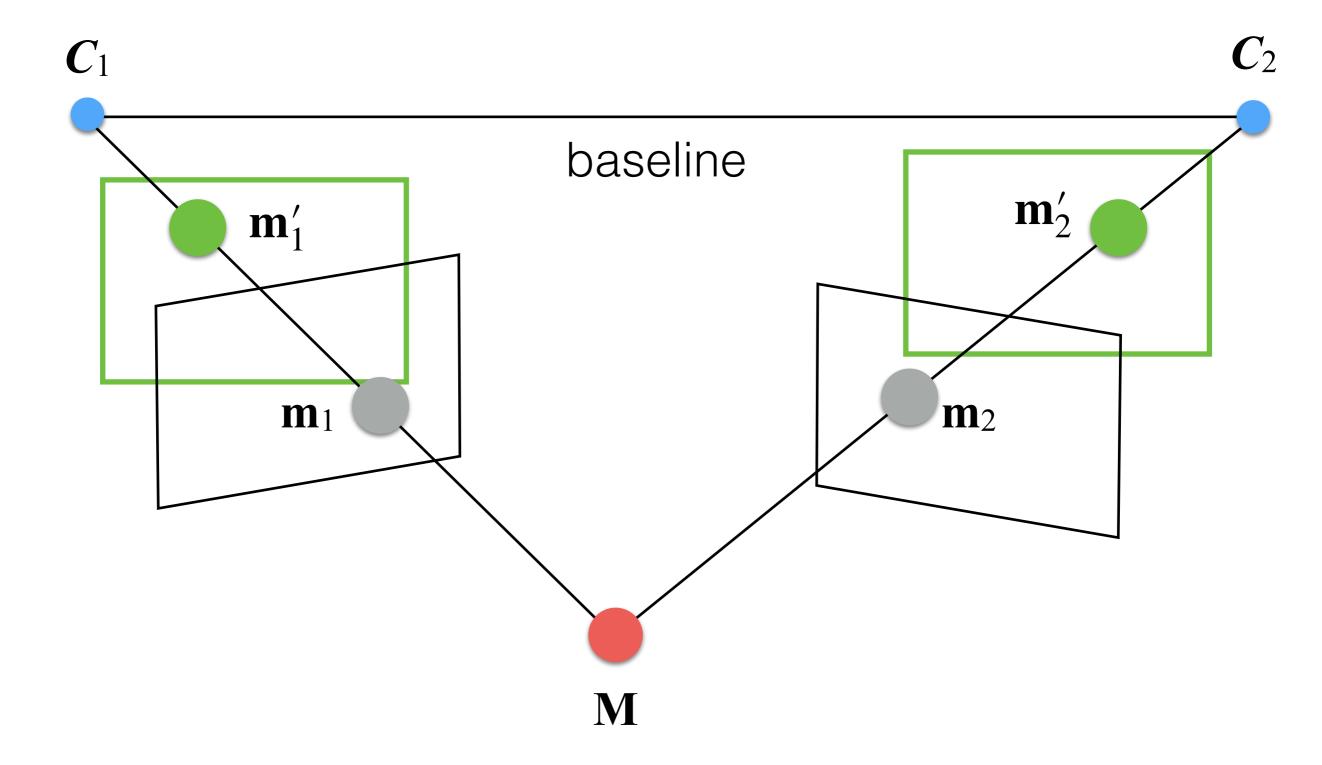
Left Right

Epipolar Geometry: The General Case



- What do we need to do to transform the general case into the ideal one?
 - We keep the optical centers where they are.
 - We rotate both image planes to go back to the ideal case.





• So we need to modify P_1 and P_2 . Both matrices can be defined as

$$P_1 = K_1 \cdot [R_1| - R_1 \cdot \mathbf{C}_1]$$

 $P_2 = K_2 \cdot [R_2| - R_2 \cdot \mathbf{C}_2]$

where

$$\mathbf{C}_i = -Q_i^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{q}_i \qquad P_i = [Q_i | \mathbf{q}_i]$$

- So we need to compute a new R' matrix for both cameras.
- Let's see the process for a generic camera with a starting rotation matrix R:

$$R = [\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3].$$

• Given that the optical centers do not move (they define the X -axis), the X-axis or \mathbf{r}_1' is:

$$\mathbf{r}_1' = \frac{\mathbf{C}_1 - \mathbf{C}_2}{\|\mathbf{C}_1 - \mathbf{C}_2\|}$$

• The new Y-axis or \mathbf{r}_2' is defined as:

$$\mathbf{r}_2' = \mathbf{r}_3 \times \mathbf{r}_1'$$

- ${\bf r}_3$ is the old Z-axis vector. Why? The camera is still looking towards the same direction.
- The new Z-axis is obviously computed as the cross product of the twos:

$$\mathbf{r}_3' = \mathbf{r}_1' \times \mathbf{r}_2'.$$

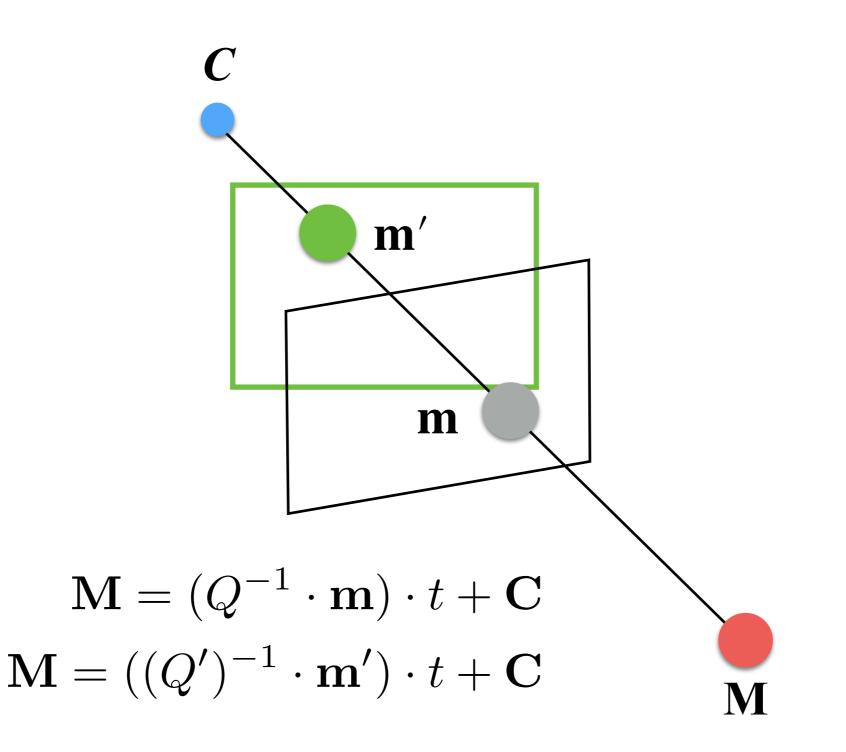
• Once we computed the new P' for a view (i.e., a new R), we need to compute the transform from P to P'. We know that:

$$\mathbf{m} \sim P \cdot \mathbf{M}$$

 $\mathbf{m}' \sim P' \cdot \mathbf{M}$

and that:

$$\mathbf{M} = (Q^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}) \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$$
$$\mathbf{M} = ((Q')^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}') \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$$



$$\mathbf{m} \sim P \cdot \mathbf{M}$$
 $\mathbf{M} = (Q^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}) \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$
 $\mathbf{m}' \sim P' \cdot \mathbf{M}$ $\mathbf{M} = ((Q')^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}') \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$

$$\mathbf{m} \sim P \cdot \mathbf{M}$$

$$\mathbf{m}' \sim P' \cdot \mathbf{M}$$

$$\mathbf{M} = (Q^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}) \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$$

$$\mathbf{M} = ((Q')^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}') \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$$



$$\mathbf{m} \sim P \cdot \mathbf{M}$$

$$\mathbf{m}' \sim P' \cdot \mathbf{M}$$

$$\mathbf{M} = (Q^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}) \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$$

$$\mathbf{M} = ((Q')^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}') \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$$



$$\mathbf{m}' \sim Q' \cdot Q^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}$$

$$\mathbf{m} \sim P \cdot \mathbf{M}$$

$$\mathbf{m}' \sim P' \cdot \mathbf{M}$$

$$\mathbf{M} = (Q^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}) \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$$

$$\mathbf{M} = ((Q')^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}') \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$$



$$\mathbf{m}' \sim Q' \cdot Q^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}$$



$$\mathbf{m} \sim P \cdot \mathbf{M}$$

$$\mathbf{m}' \sim P' \cdot \mathbf{M}$$

$$\mathbf{M} = (Q^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}) \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$$

$$\mathbf{M} = ((Q')^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}') \cdot t + \mathbf{C}$$



$$\mathbf{m}' \sim Q' \cdot Q^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{m}$$



$$\mathbf{m}' \sim T \cdot \mathbf{m}$$

$$\mathbf{m}' \sim T \cdot \mathbf{m}$$
 $T = Q' \cdot Q^{-1}$

Epipolar Geometry: Rectification Example





Left Right

Epipolar Geometry: Rectification Example





Left Right

- For each pixel at coordinate [x, y] in the left/right image, we extract a patch p_1 of size $n \times n$.
- Then, we look along the horizontal line at height y in the other image the patch p_2 that is closest to p_1 .



Left



Left



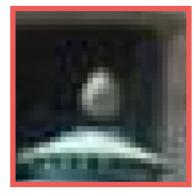
Left





Extracted
Patch
(Left Image)

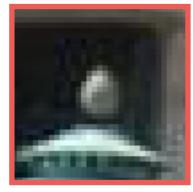
Left



Extracted
Patch
(Left Image)



Right



Extracted
Patch
(Left Image)



Right





Extracted
Patch
(Left Image)



Right



Extracted
Patch
(Left Image)



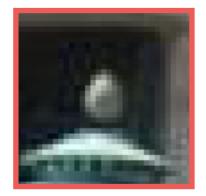




Extracted
Patch
(Left Image)

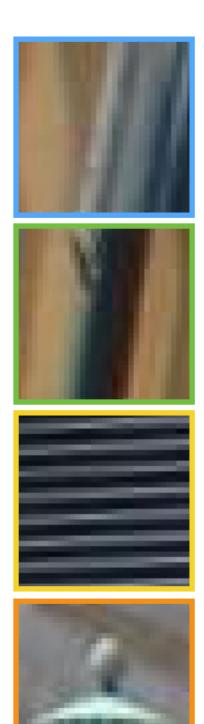






Extracted
Patch
(Left Image)





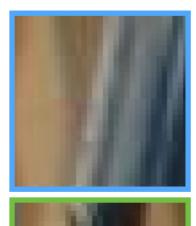


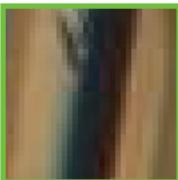


Extracted
Patch
(Left Image)



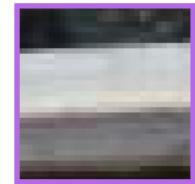
Right







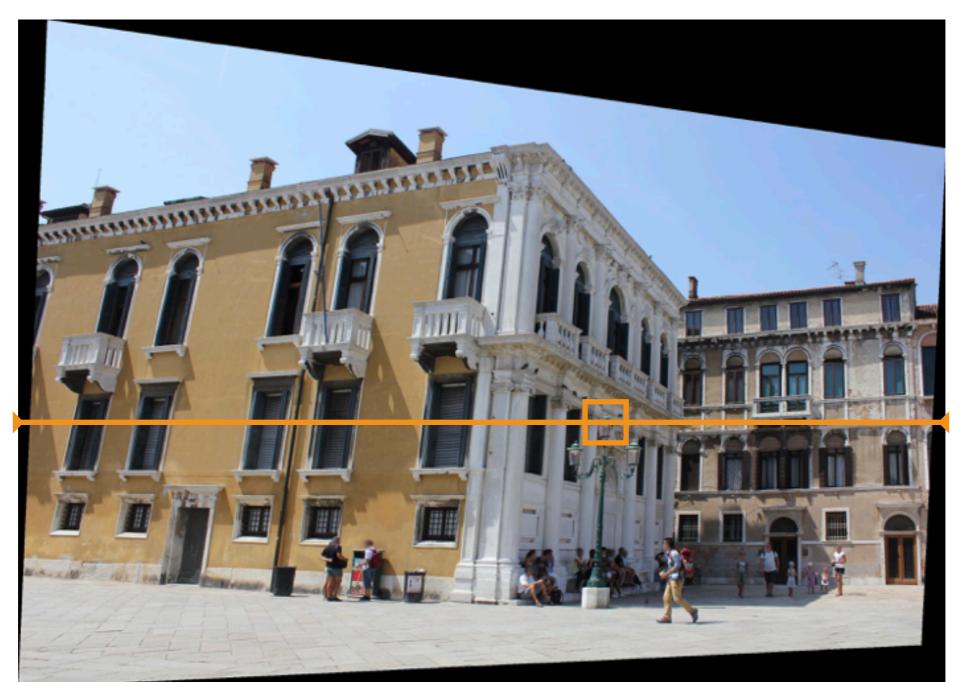






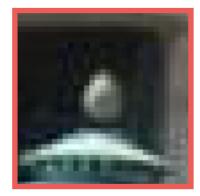


Right

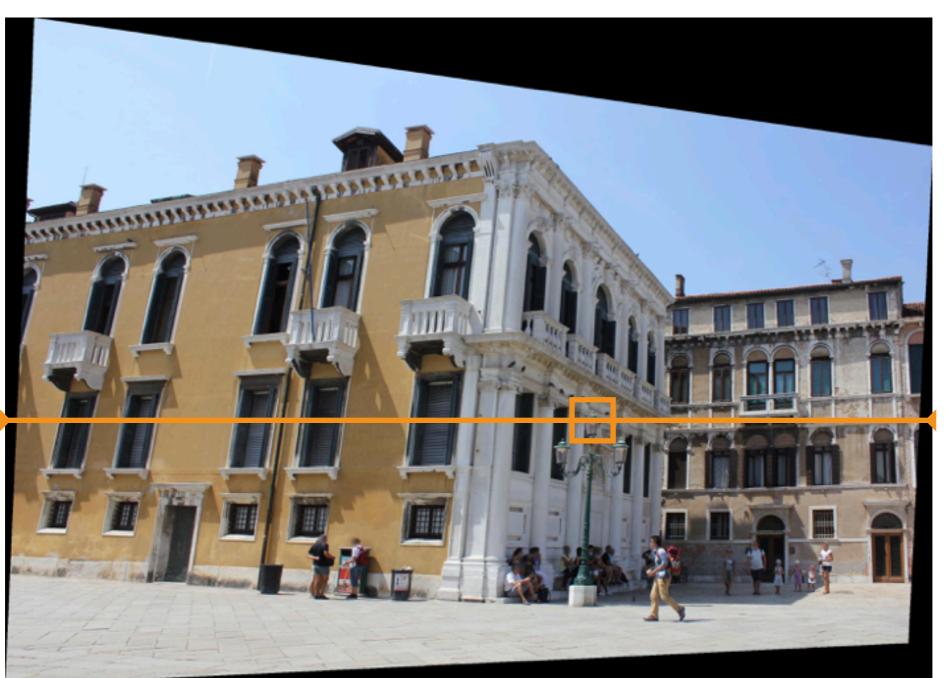




Right



Extracted
Patch
(Left Image)





Right

 How do we compute if a patch is closer than another?

$$SSD(p_1, p_2) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} ||p_1(i, j) - p_2(i, j)||^2$$

$$SAD(p_1, p_2) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |p_1(i, j) - p_2(i, j)|$$

 We are looking for the closest, so for SSD and SAD the lower the closer.

- There are many other metrics such as normalized cross correlation, zero mean normalized cross correlation, etc.
- To improve the matching quality, we can compute descriptors for each pixel:
 - Computationally expensive, typically not done!

- In practice, for dense matching, we do not extract patches in an explicit way.
- We formalize the problem as an energy minimization problem:

$$\arg\min_{d} E(x, y, I_1, I_2, d)$$

In the case of SAD, E is defined as:

$$E(x,y,d) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |I_1(x+i,y+j) - I_2(x+i+d,y+j)|$$

• Note that $SAD(p_1, p_2) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |p_1(i, j) - p_2(i, j)|$ and

$$E(x,y,d) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |I_1(x+i,y+j) - I_2(x+i+d,y+j)|$$

are the same formulation when:

- p_1 is extracted at (x, y) in I_1
- p_2 is extracted at (x+d, y) in I_2

• When we minimize:

$$\arg\min_{d} E(x, y, I_1, I_2, d)$$

We compute d, which is the disparity. To compute the depth, we need to apply:

$$z = \frac{b \cdot f}{d}$$

- where b is the baseline and f is the focal length.
- This is done for each pixel in the disparity map in order to obtain a depth map!

Dense Matching Example

Input

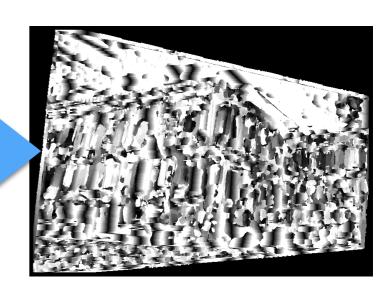


Left



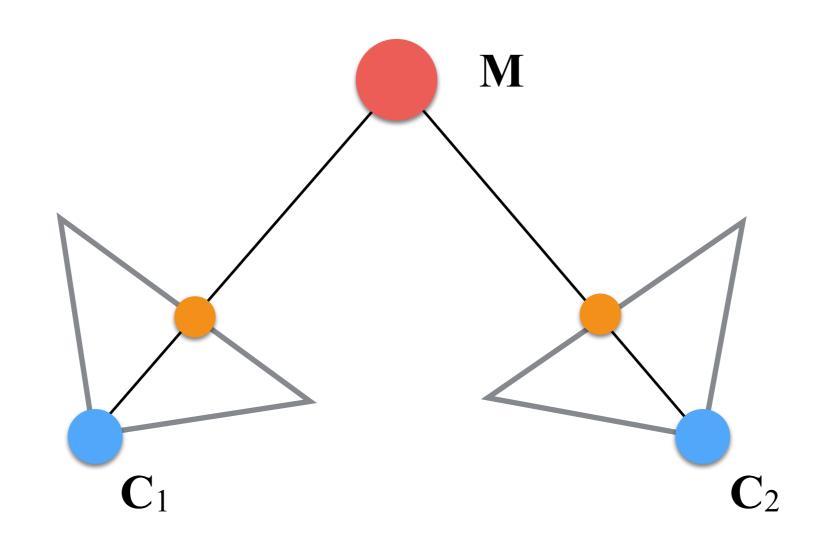
Right

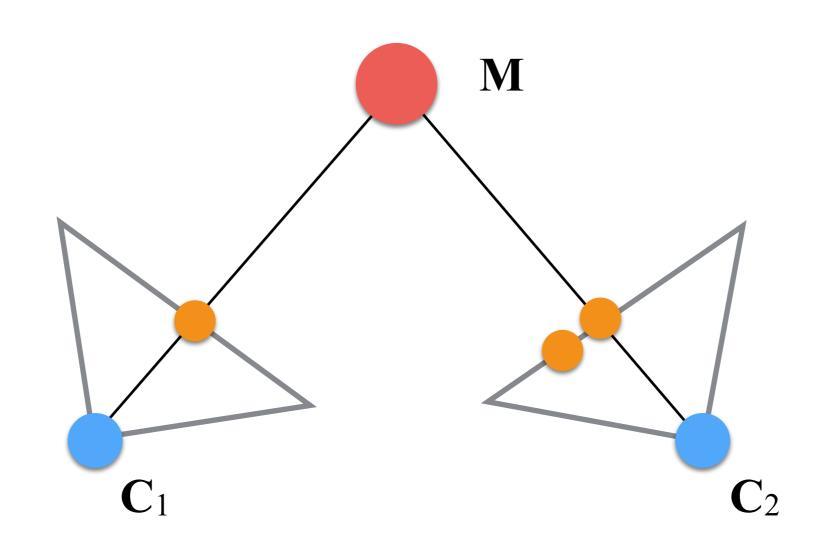
Output

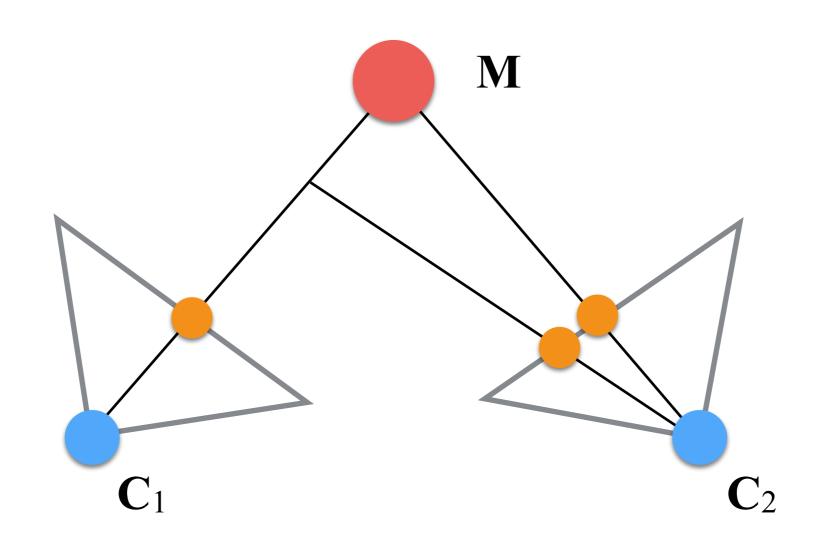


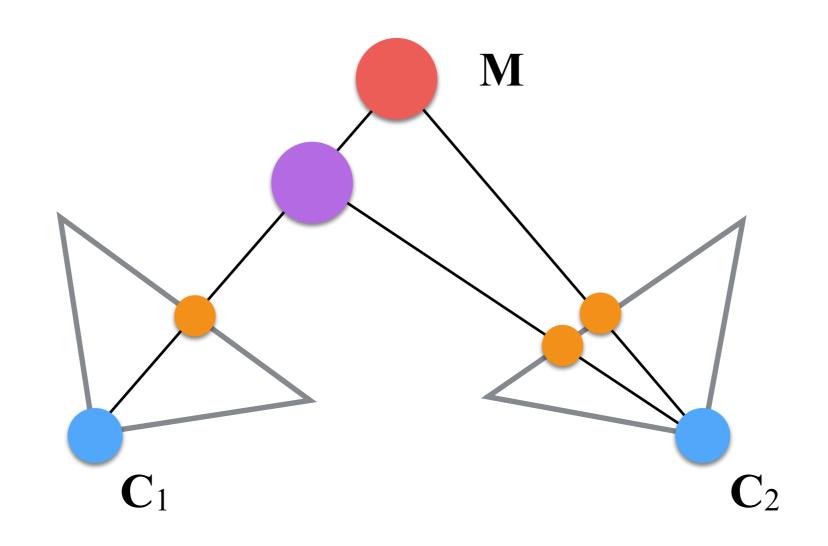
Disparity Map for the Left Image

From previous example the disparity map is very noisy! How can we improve?



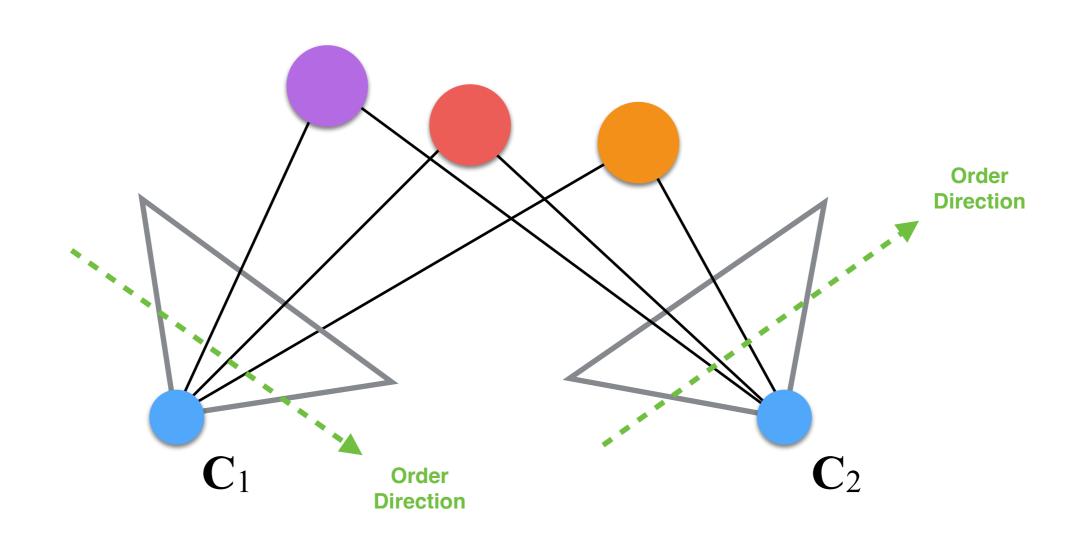






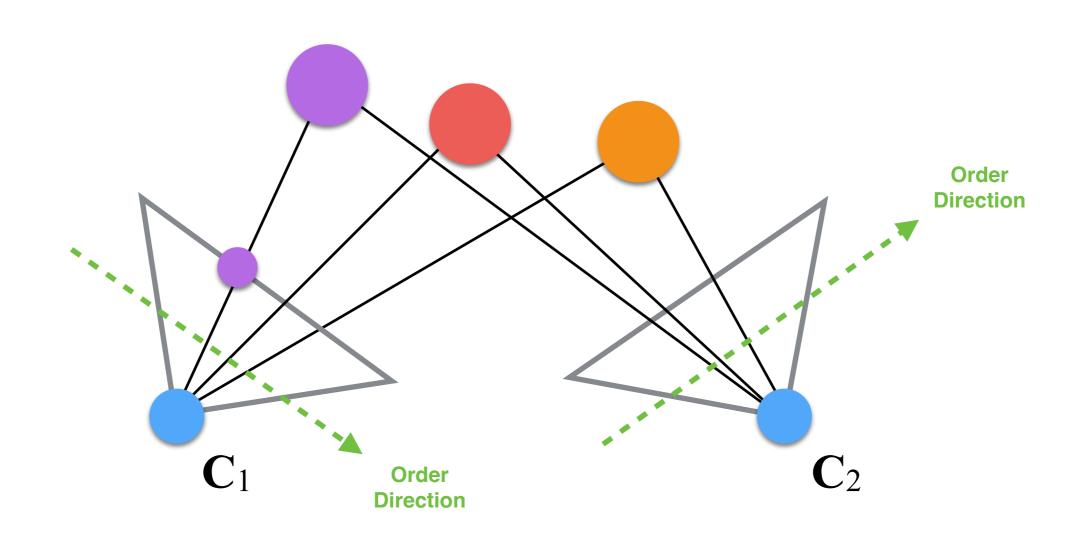
Non-Local Constraints: Correct Ordering

 Corresponding points should be in the same order in both views.



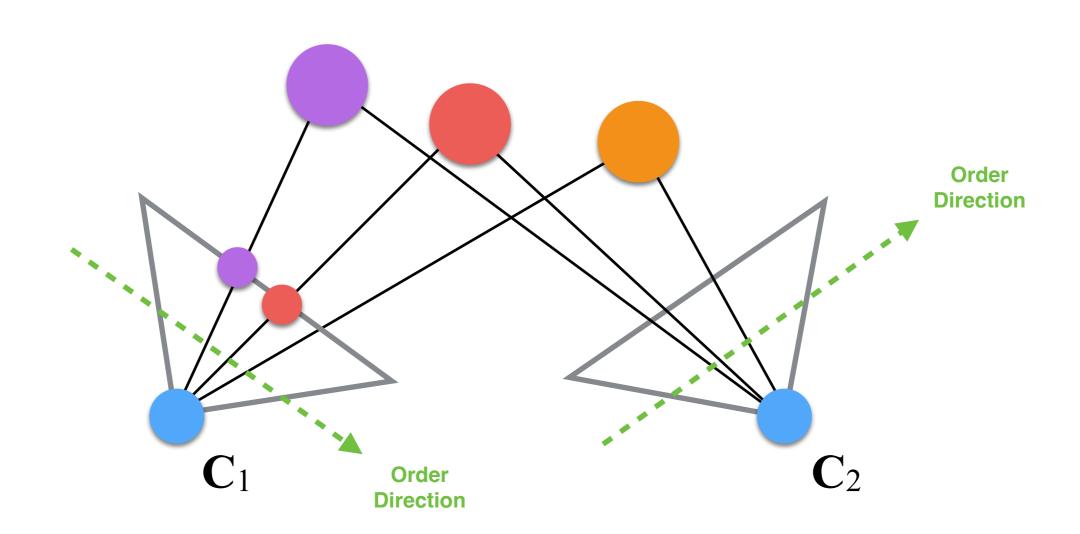
Non-Local Constraints: Correct Ordering

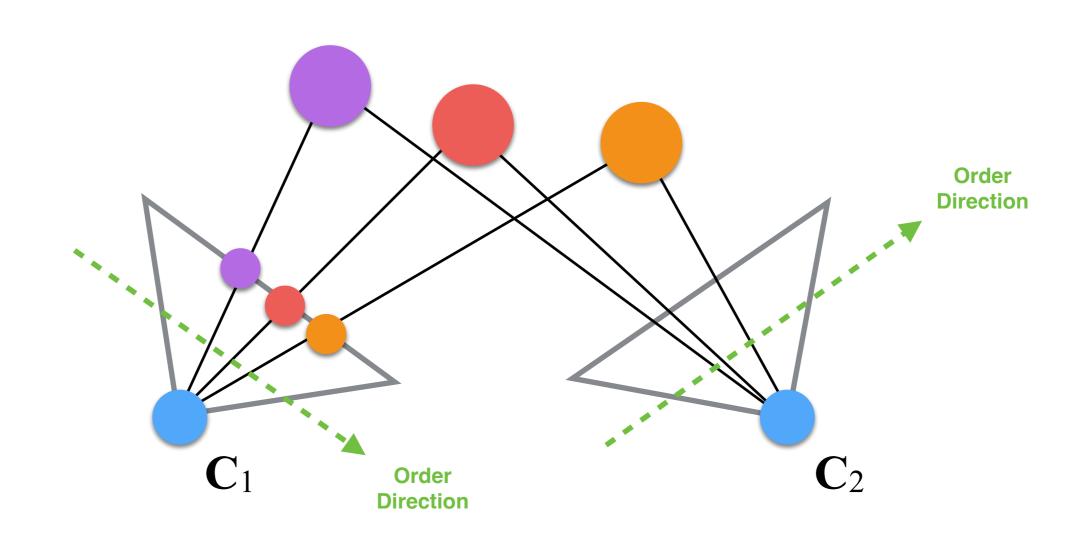
 Corresponding points should be in the same order in both views.

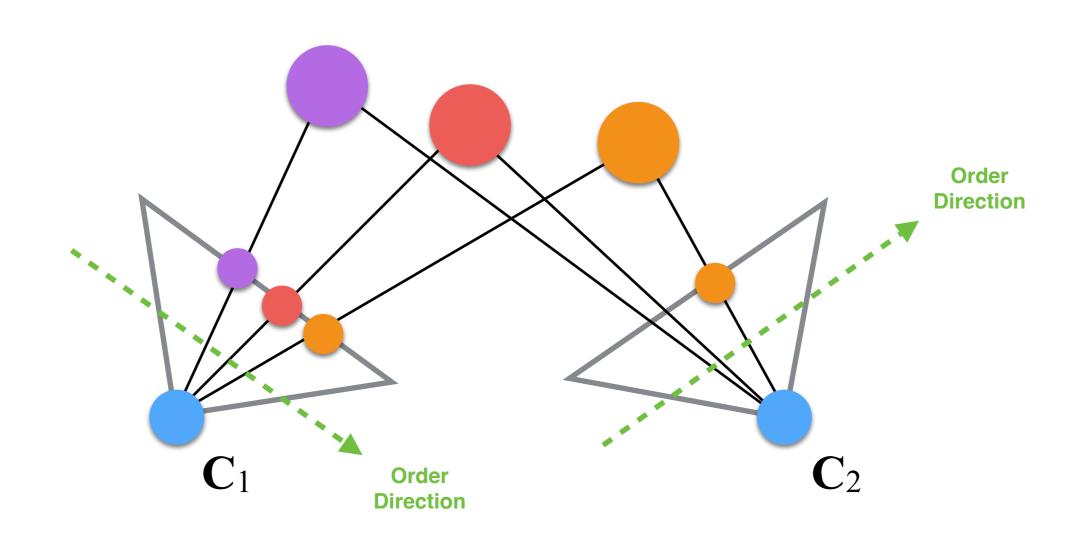


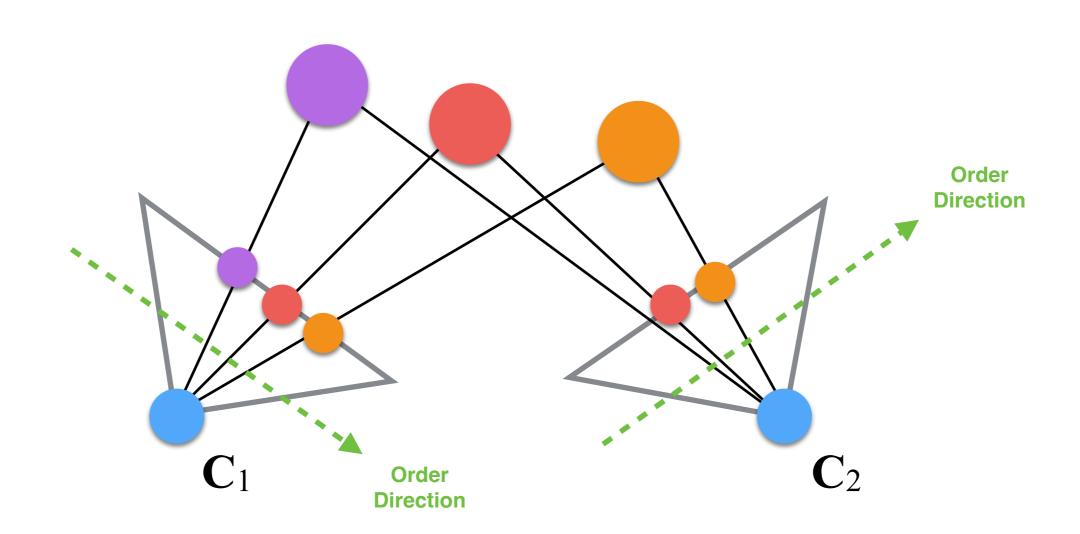
Non-Local Constraints: Correct Ordering

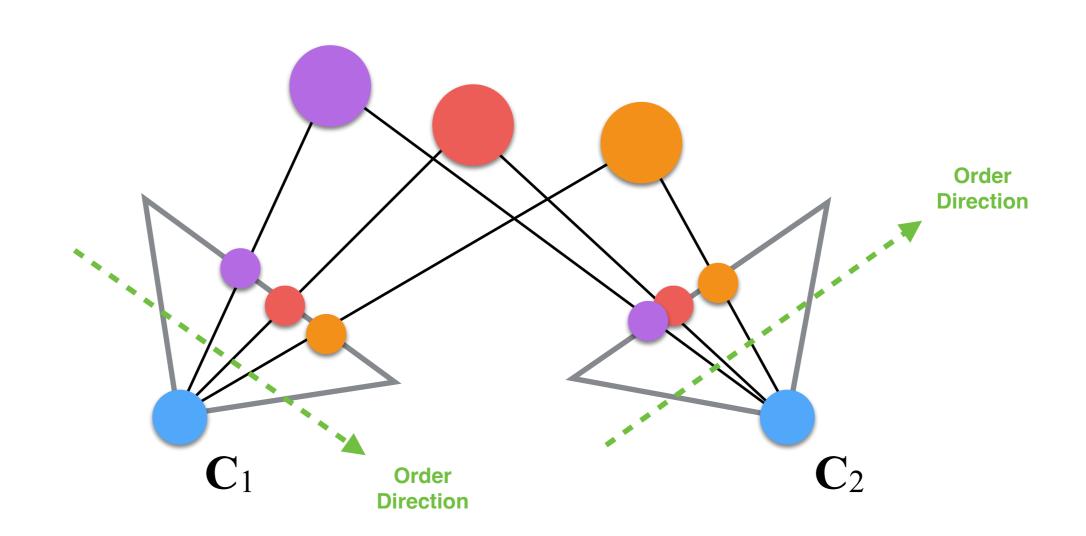
 Corresponding points should be in the same order in both views.

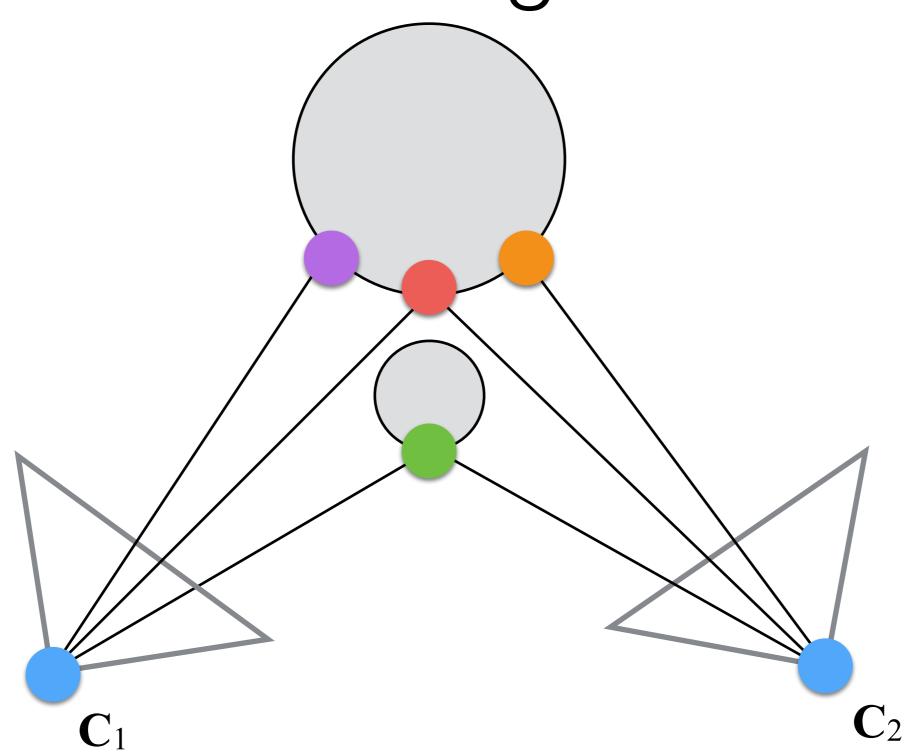


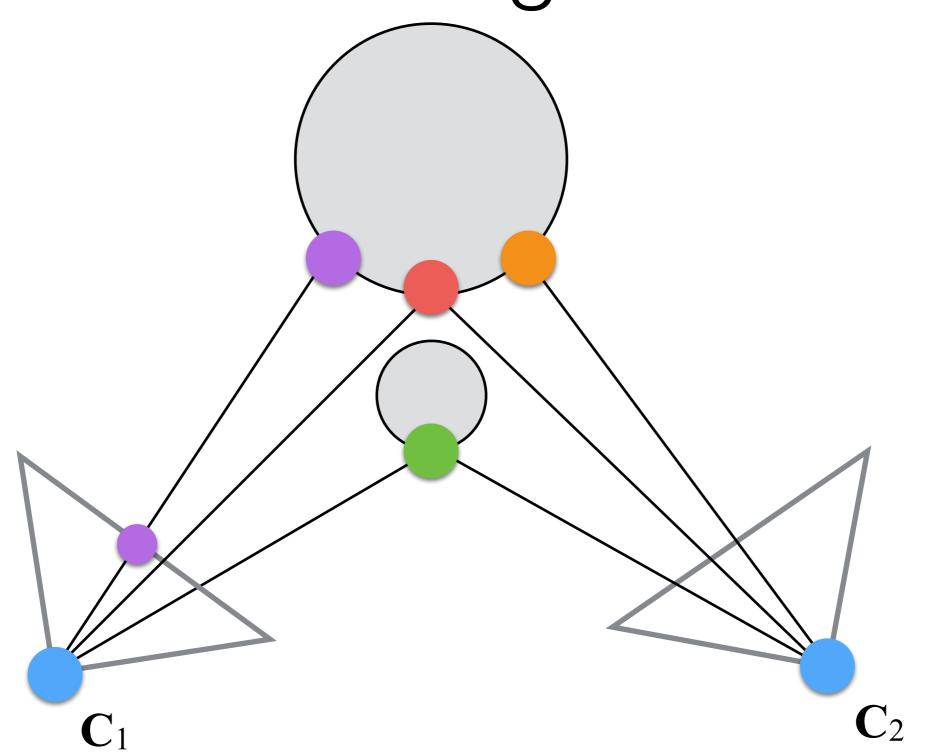


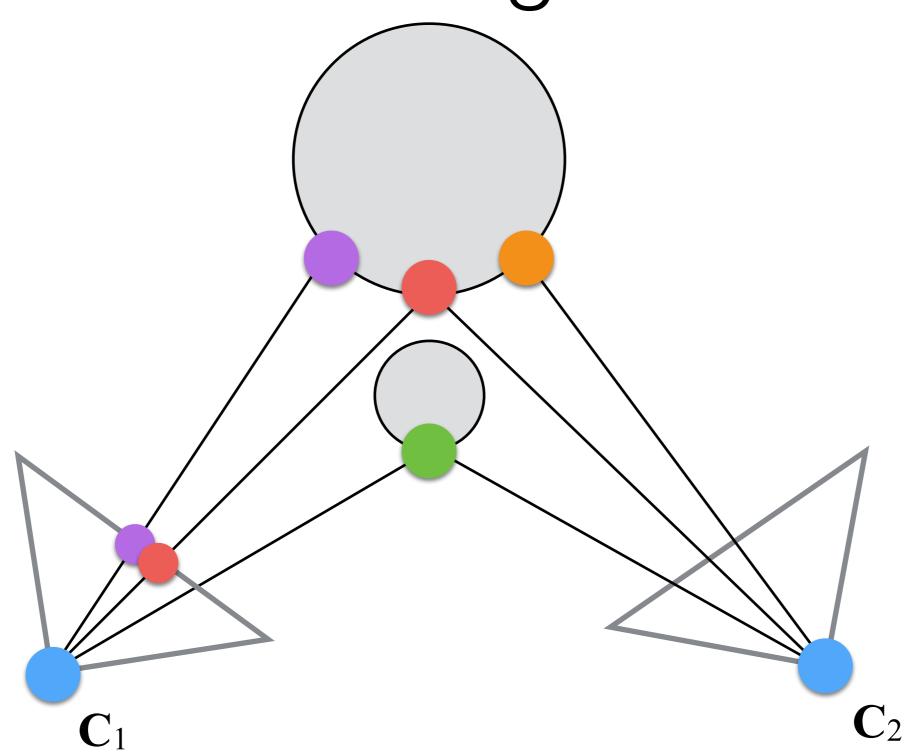


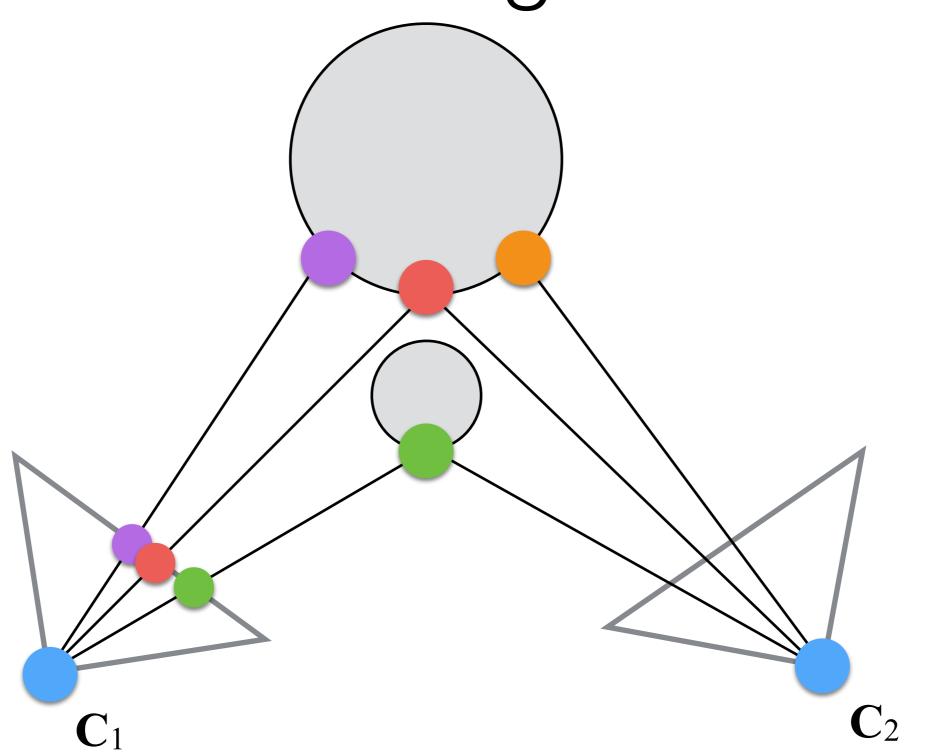


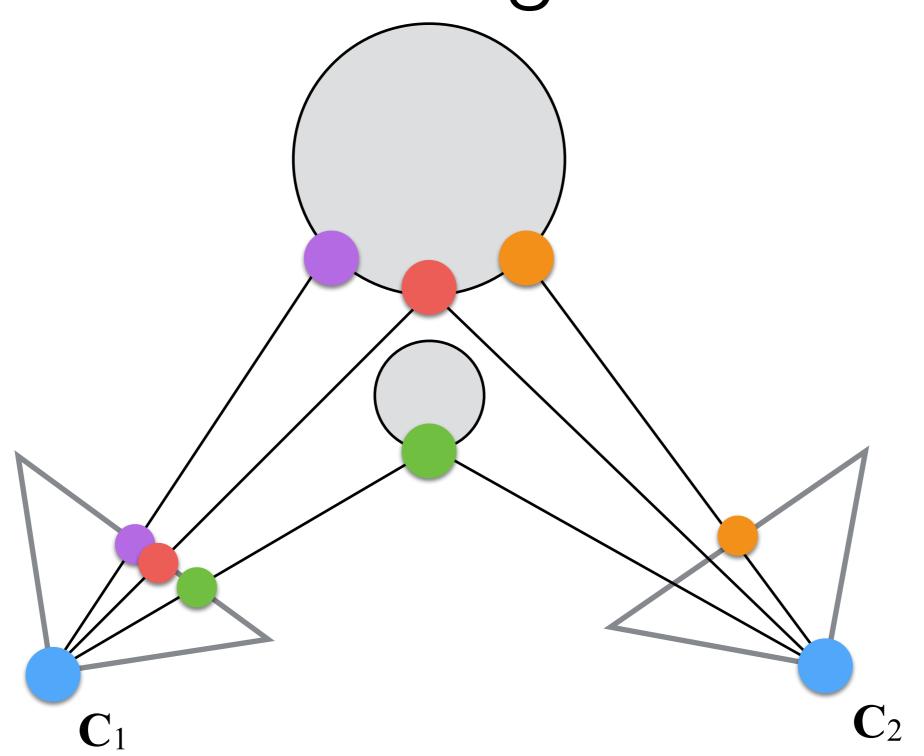


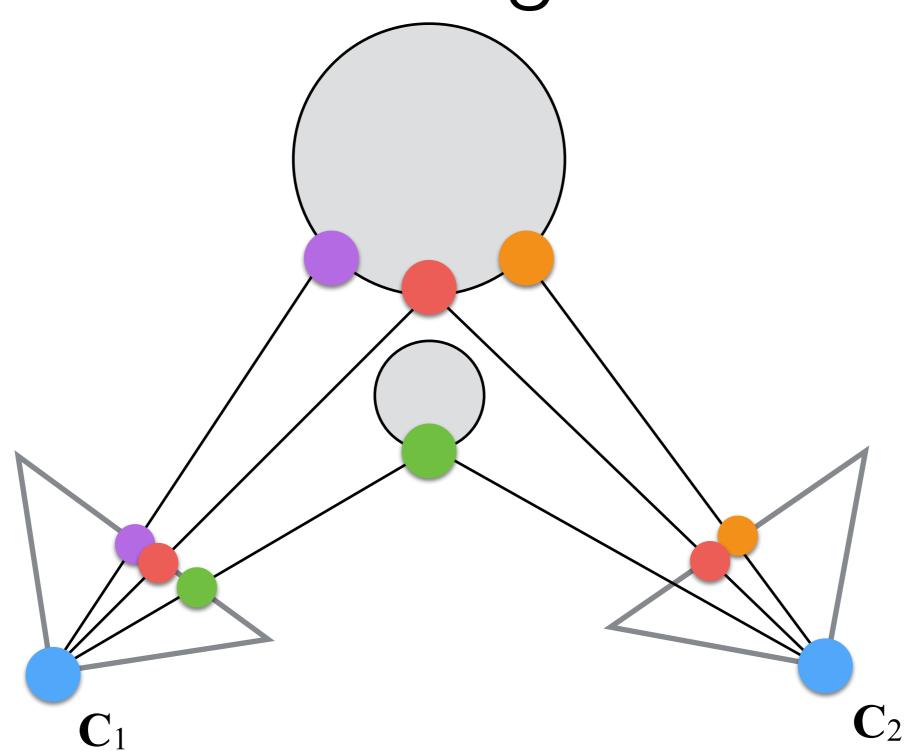


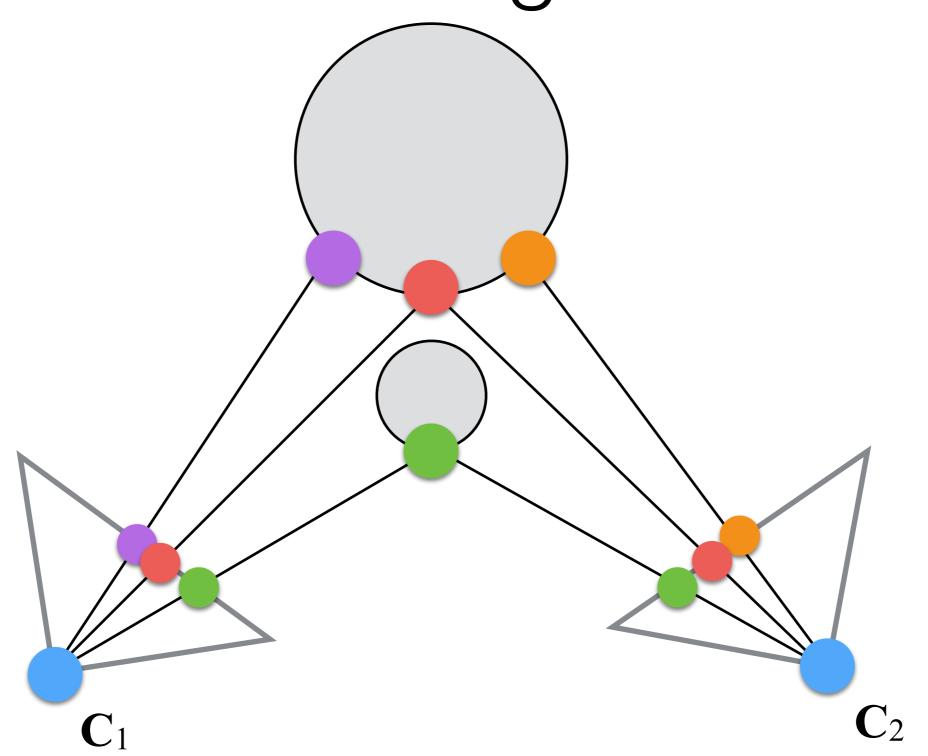




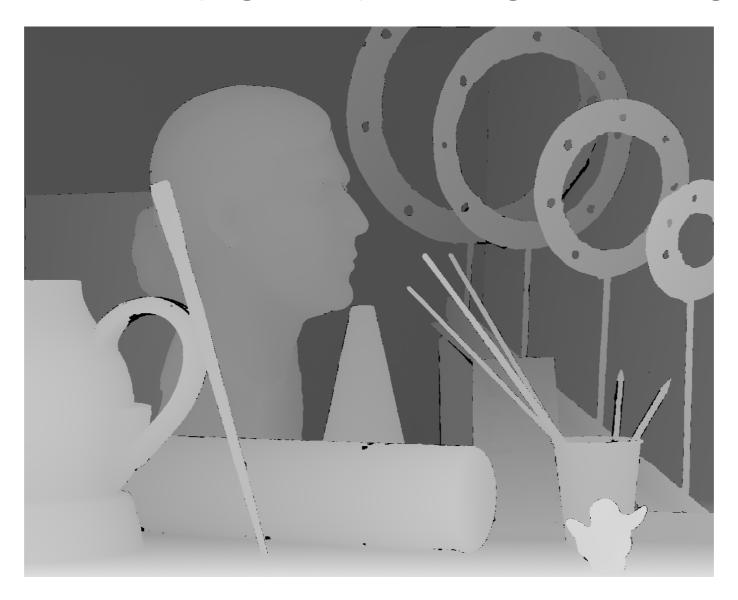








 We expect that disparity varies smoothly over the image, and it only greatly changes at edges.



• We can easily add a smoothness constraint E_s to the energy to minimize E obtaining a new energy to minimize called E_t :

$$E_t(x, y, d) = E(x, y, d) + \lambda E_s(x, y, d)$$

- where $\lambda > 0$ is the smoothing term, the higher the more the smoothness is enforced:
 - Typically, a value between 10% or 20% of the maximum disparity, $d_{\rm max}$.
 - if $\lambda = 0$ this implies $E_t = E$

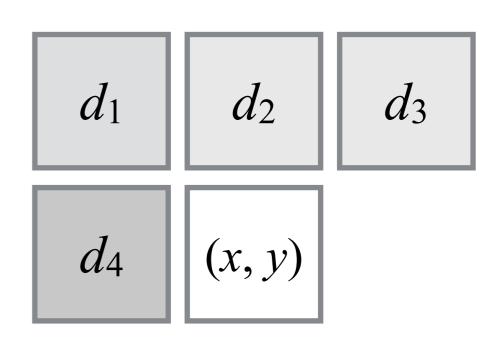
- The computation of the disparity map follows (as usual) the scan order; i.e., from left to right and from top to bottom.
- So at the current pixel (x, y), we have already computed the disparity, D, at these previous locations:

•
$$d_1 = D(x - 1, y - 1)$$

•
$$d_2 = D(x, y - 1)$$

•
$$d_3 = D(x + 1, y - 1)$$

•
$$d_4 = D(x - 1, y)$$



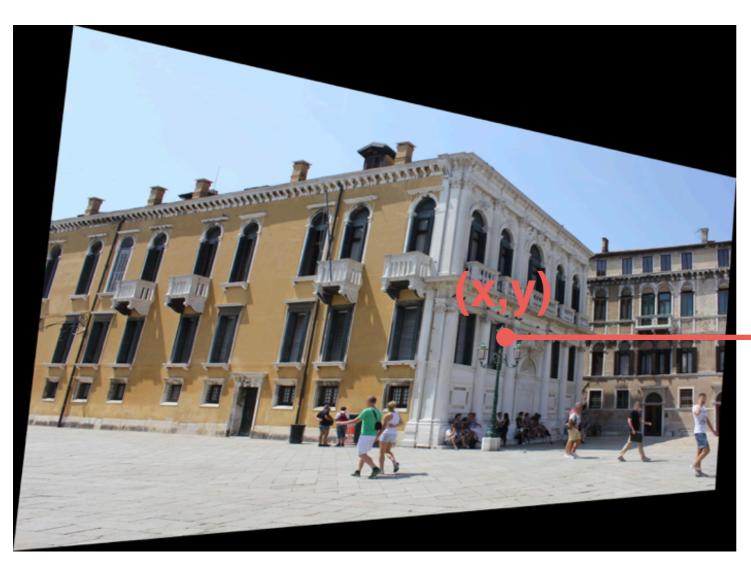
• When defining E_s , we can enforce that the next disparity value is similar to one of the previous computed ones:

$$E_s(x, y, d) = \frac{1}{2} |D(x - 1, y) - d| + \frac{1}{2} |D(x, y - 1) - d|$$



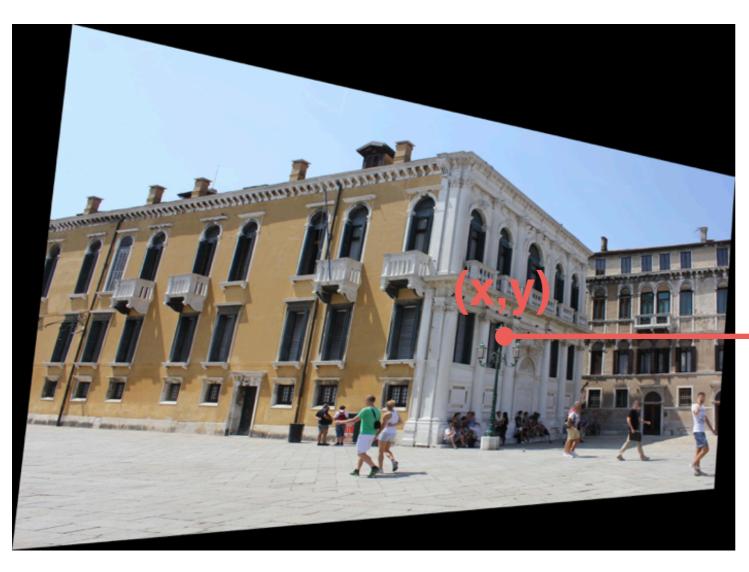
Left (I_1)

$$d_2 = 8$$
$$d_4 = 10$$

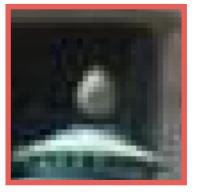


Left (I_1)

$$d_2 = 8$$
$$d_4 = 10$$



Left (I_1)



 P_1

$$d_2 = 8$$
$$d_4 = 10$$



Right
$$(I_2)$$

$$E_s = 0.5 |d_2 - (-40)| + 0.5 |d_4 - (-40)|$$

= 0.5(8 + 40) + 0.5(10 + 40) = 49

$$E_t = E + \lambda E_s = 30 + 0.2 \cdot 49 =$$

= 30 + 9.8 = 39.8 $\lambda = 0.2$

$$d = -40$$



Right (
$$I_2$$
)

$$E = \begin{vmatrix} P_1 & P_2 \end{vmatrix} = 30$$

$$E_s = 0.5 \left| d_2 - (-40) \right| + 0.5 \left| d_4 - (-40) \right|$$

= 0.5(8 + 40) + 0.5(10 + 40) = 49

$$E_t = E + \lambda E_s = 30 + 0.2 \cdot 49 =$$

= 30 + 9.8 = 39.8 $\lambda = 0.2$

$$d = -40$$



$$E_s = 0.5 \left| d_2 - (-16) \right| + 0.5 \left| d_4 - (-16) \right|$$

= 0.5(8 + 16) + 0.5(10 + 16) = 25

$$E_t = E + \lambda E_s = 32 + 0.2 \cdot 25 =$$

= 32 + 5 = 37 \(\lambda = 0.2\)

Right
$$(I_2)$$

$$d = -16$$



$$E = \begin{vmatrix} P_1 & P_2 \end{vmatrix} = 32$$

$$E_s = 0.5 |d_2 - (-16)| + 0.5 |d_4 - (-16)|$$

= 0.5(8 + 16) + 0.5(10 + 16) = 25

$$E_t = E + \lambda E_s = 32 + 0.2 \cdot 25 =$$

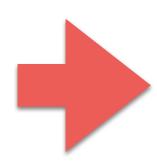
= 32 + 5 = 37 \(\lambda = 0.2\)

Right
$$(I_2)$$

$$d = -16$$

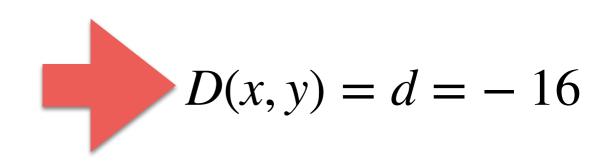
$$E_t$$
 This is lower than 39.8!

$$d = -16$$



$$E_t$$
 = 37 This is lower than 39.8!

$$d = -16$$

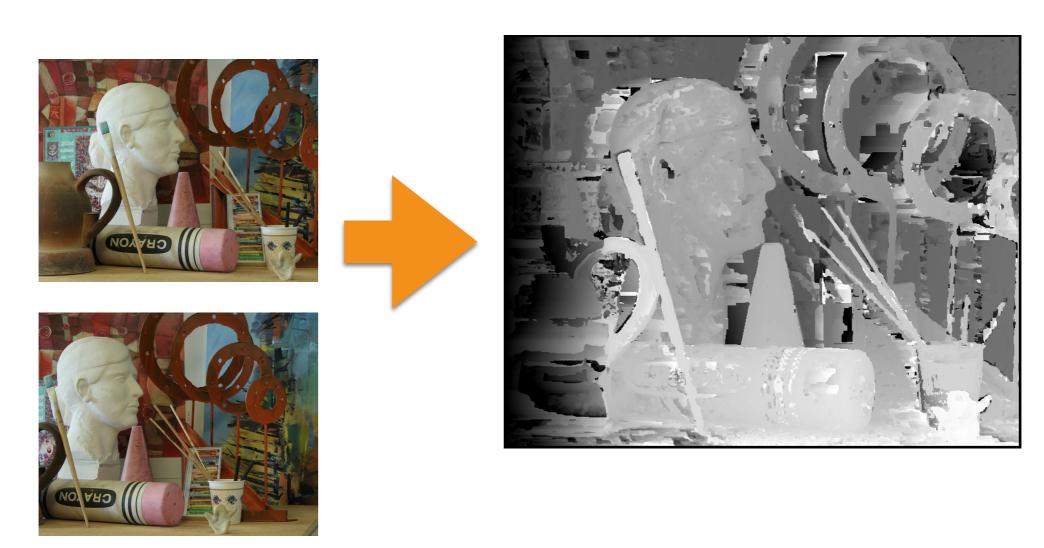


$$E_t$$
 This is lower than 39.8!

$$d = -16$$

How do we choose parameters?

Dense Matching: Choosing *n*



Input n=3

Smaller n —> more details but more noise!

Dense Matching: Choosing *n*



Input n = 21

• Larger *n* —> less noise but less details!

Dense Matching: Choosing *n*

- A way to detect the correct a suitable windows size is to start with a size n=3.
- Iteratively, we increase n by one up to a maximum value, and we choose the window that minimizes this cost function:

$$C(n) = \overline{E_t} + \alpha \cdot \text{Var}(E_t) + \frac{\beta}{n+\gamma}$$

$$\alpha = 1.5 \quad \beta = 7 \quad \gamma = -2$$

Dense Matching: Scanning the Line

- We do not have to check the whole line!
- If we have sparse matches from feature points, we have a bound to the maximum disparity, d_{max} .
- We compute d_{max} as the maximum disparity that we have in input feature points.
- This means: $d \in [-d_{\max}, d_{\max}]$

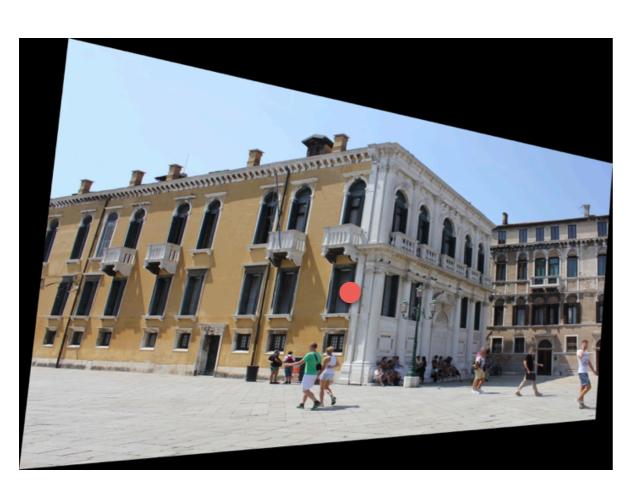
Dense Matching: Scanning the Line without d_{max}





Left Right

Dense Matching: Scanning the Line with d_{\max}





Left Right

Dense Matching: Limitations

- Failure cases:
 - No textures; e.g., a white wall.
 - Specular surfaces; e.g., a mirror or shiny surface.
 - Repeated occlusions; a gate.
 - Baseline is too short (e.g., very close cameras) implies high error in the disparity. This means that the two images look the same.

Handling Occlusions

- Given two views, one view cannot "see" everything that the other does!
- In many cases we have to handle occlusions!
- If we generate two disparity/depth maps, we can use them to test if they are coherent!

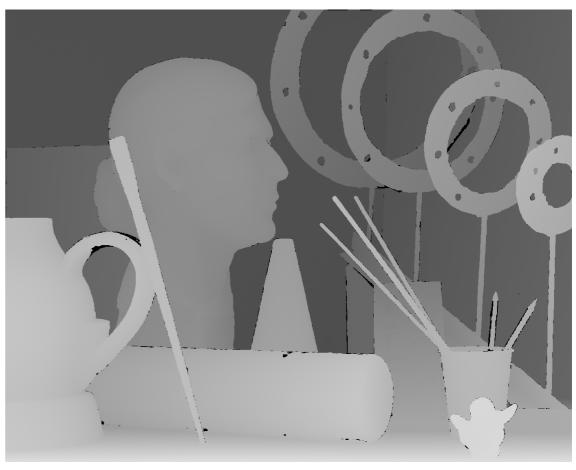
Handling Occlusions: Example

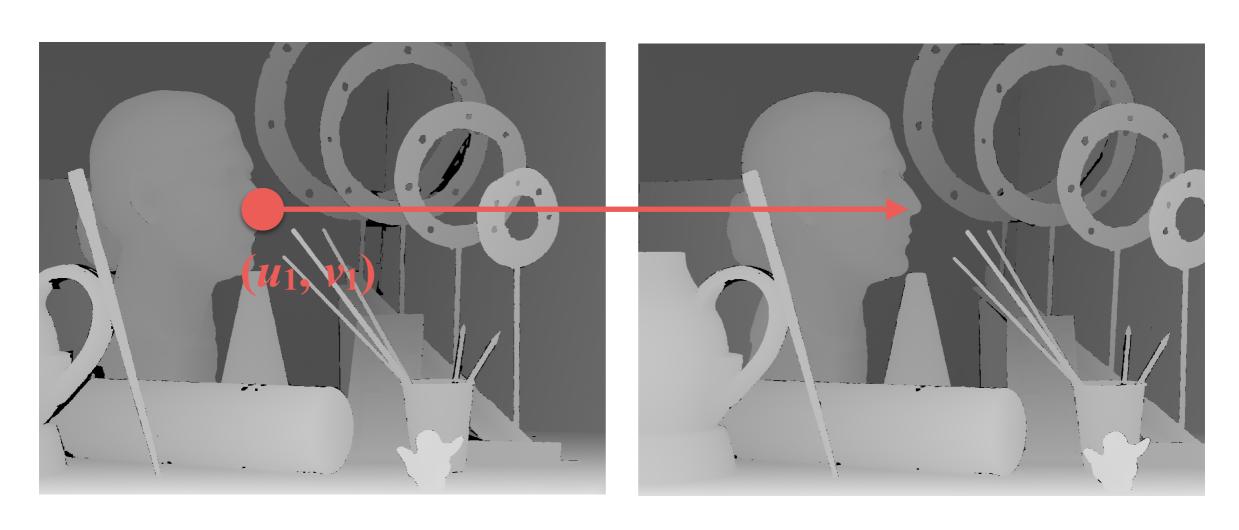


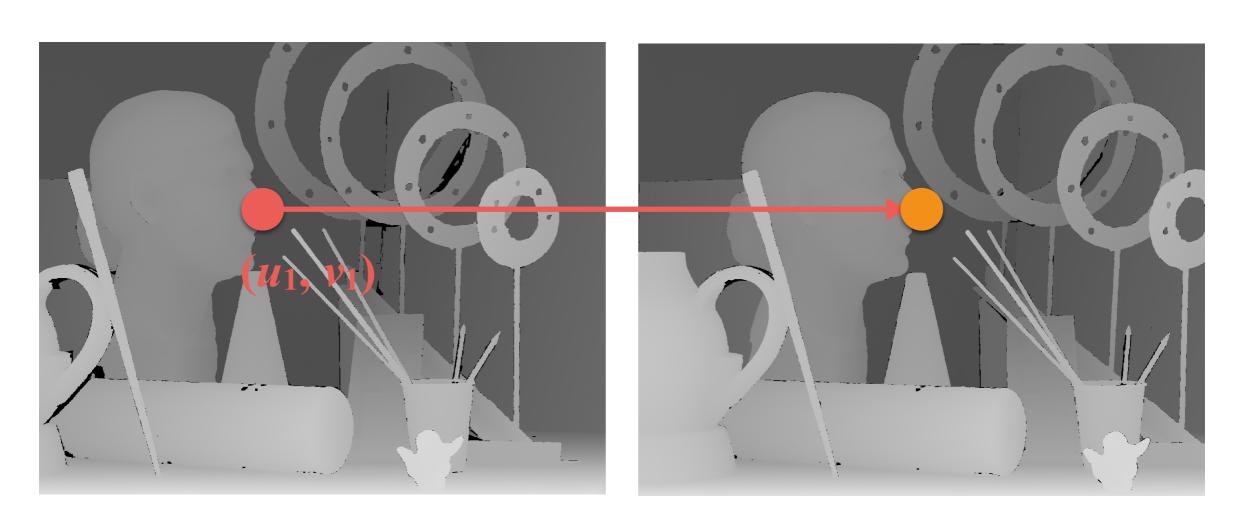


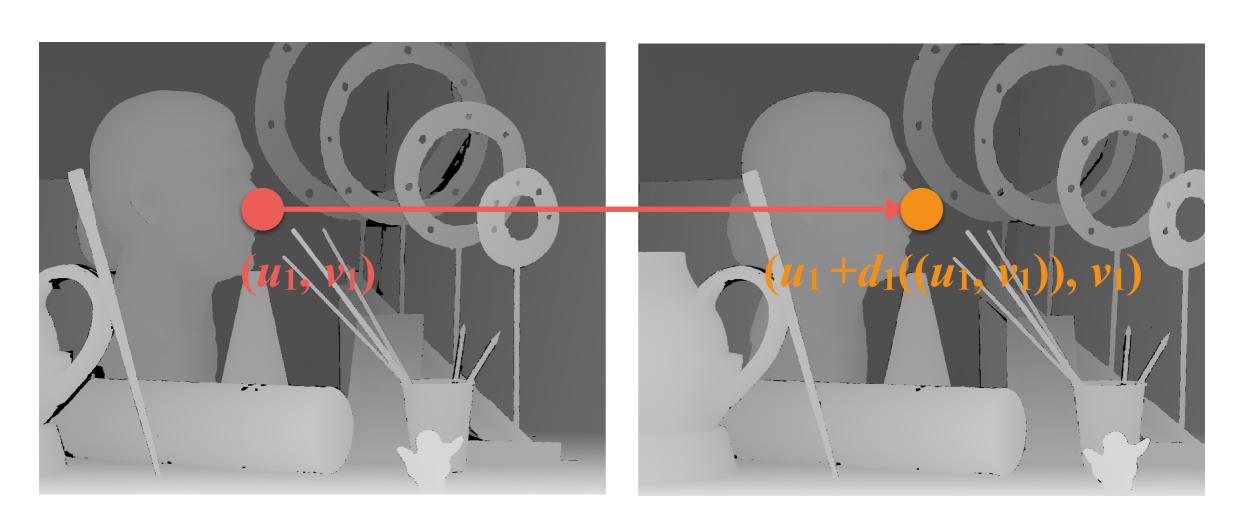
Left Right

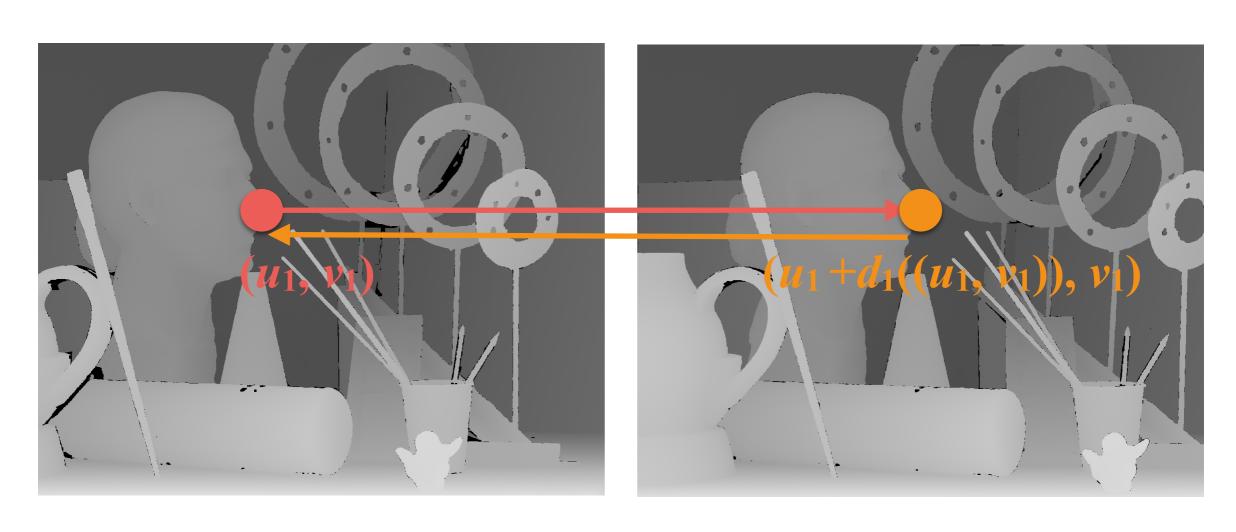


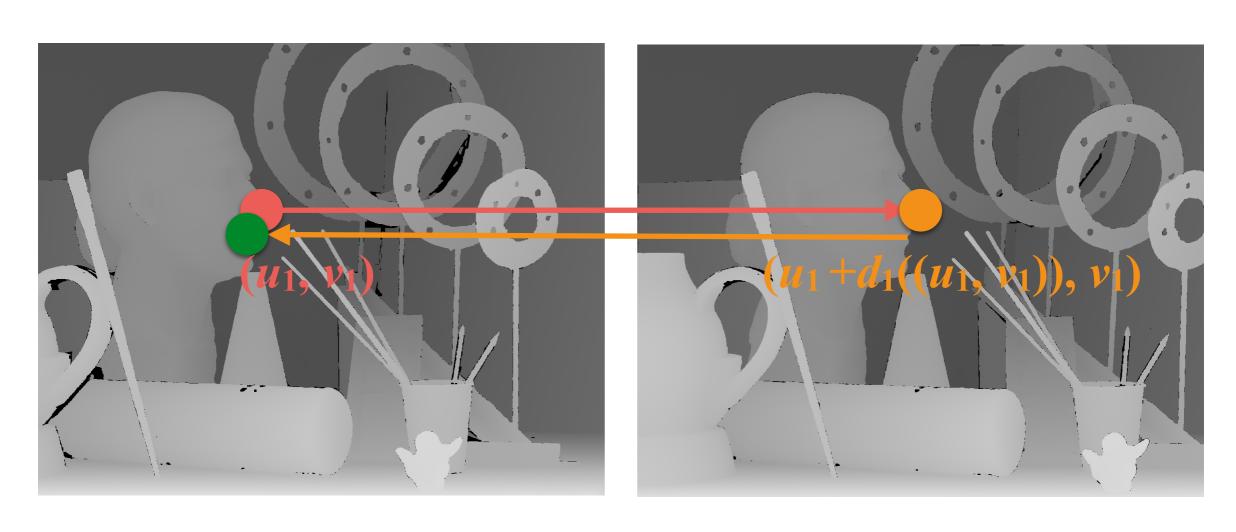


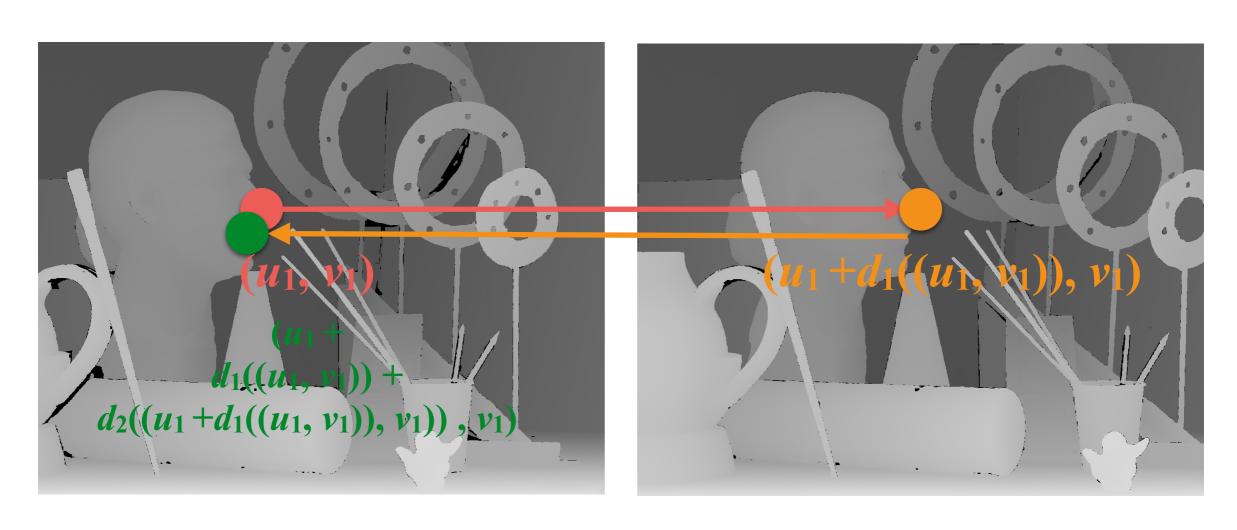


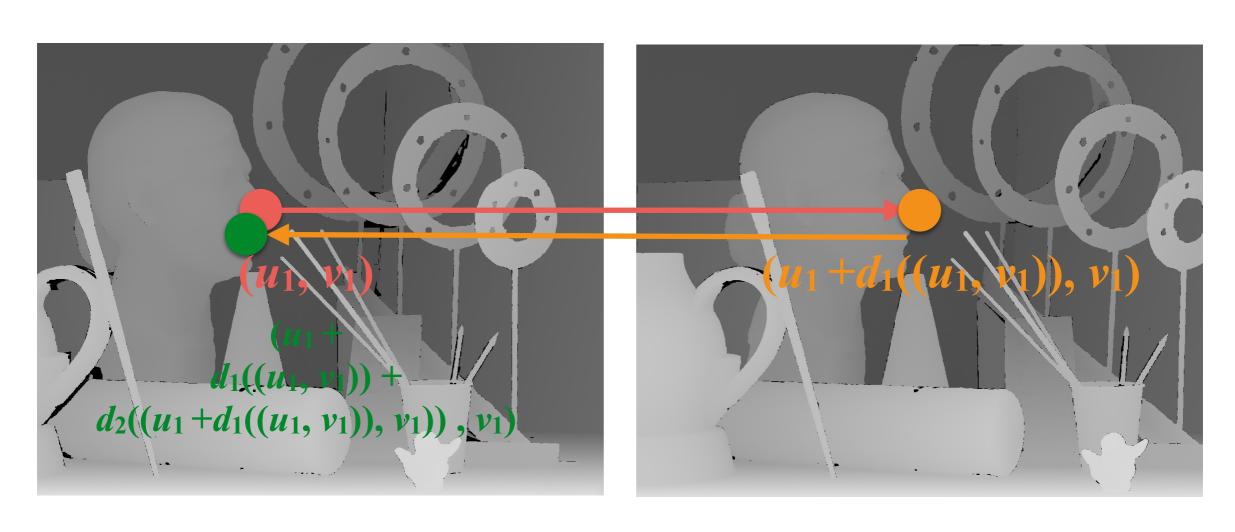




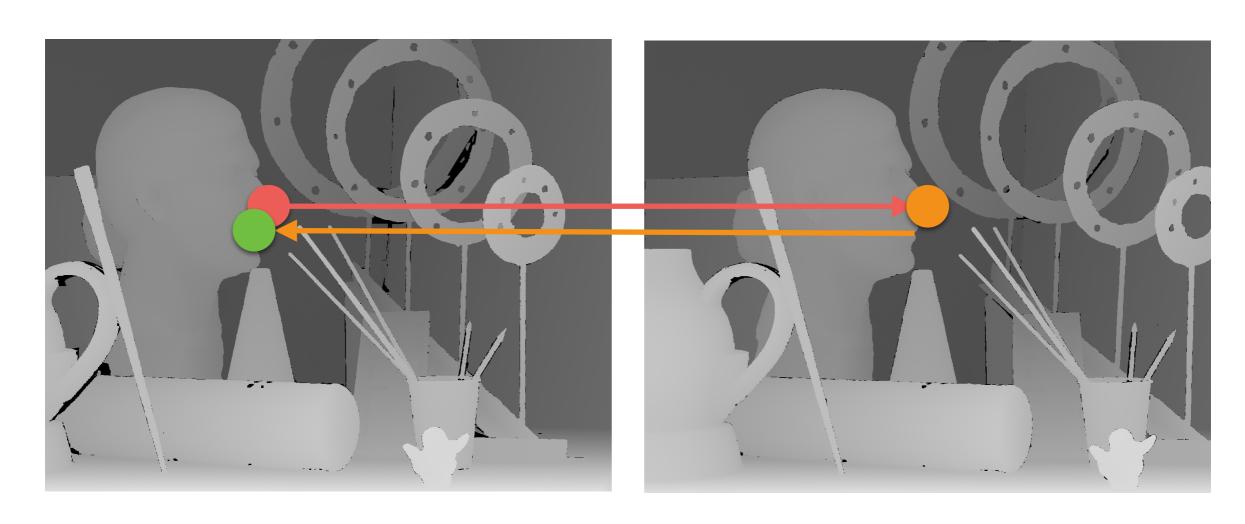








Left Right for and are similar, both disparity values are fine.



Left Right

Otherwise we have an occlusion and we set to **NULL** both values.

Handling Occlusions: Math

• We computed two **disparity maps** (d_1 and d_2) such that:

$$I_1(u_1, v_1) = I_2(u_1 + d_1(u_1, v_1), v_1)$$

$$I_2(u_2, v_2) = I_1(u_2 + d_2(u_2, v_2), v_2)$$

Then the check is defined as (where t is a threshold, e.g., 1-2 pixels)

$$D = d_1(u_1, v_1)$$

$$u'_2 = u_1 + D$$

$$D' = d_2(u_1 + D, v_1)$$

$$u'_1 = u_2 + D'$$

$$\begin{cases} \text{valid} & \text{if } |u_1 - u'_1| < t \\ \text{occlusion} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Multi-View Stereo

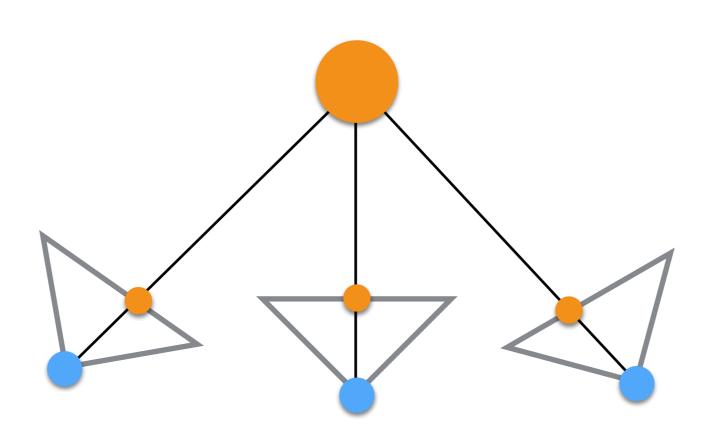
Multi-View Stereo

- Input: three or more images of the same scene taken from different positions (no pure rotational motion!) and their camera matrices:
 - We can have sparse 3D points if this is an input from SfM.
- Output: either several depth maps (as many as the input images) or a densified point cloud. In the past volumes as well.

Multi-View Stereo

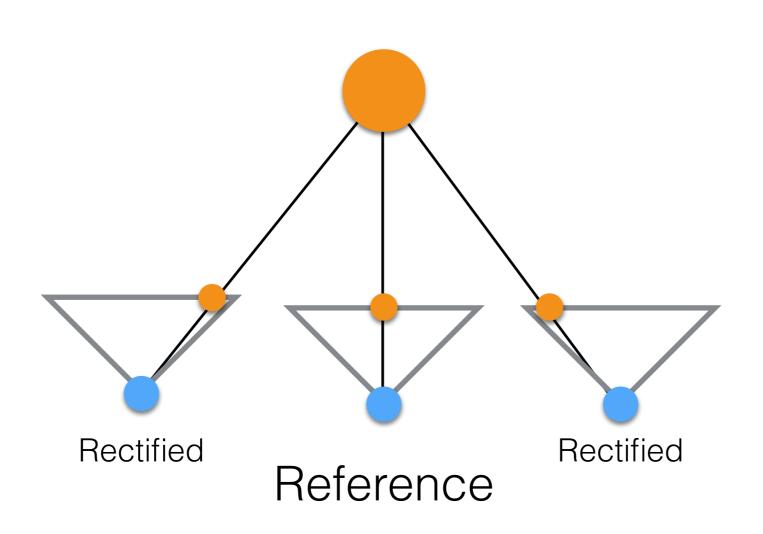
- There are three main approaches:
 - Computing depth-maps from n images:
 - The same formulation of Stereo, but more images!
 - Volume Carving.
 - Propagating the known 3D information of the sparse point cloud.

- Stereo is extended to handle multiple views.
- These views need to "see" the object or partially see it, otherwise they fail.



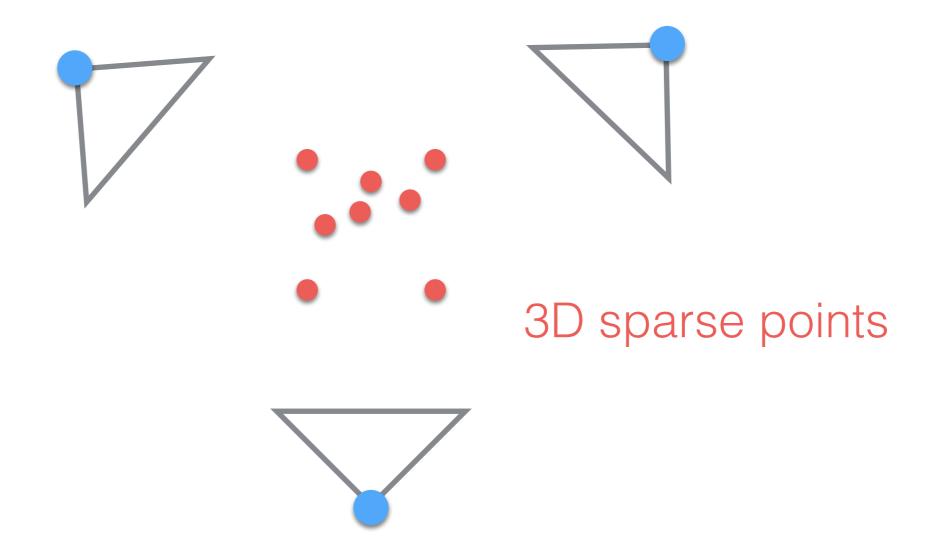
Reference

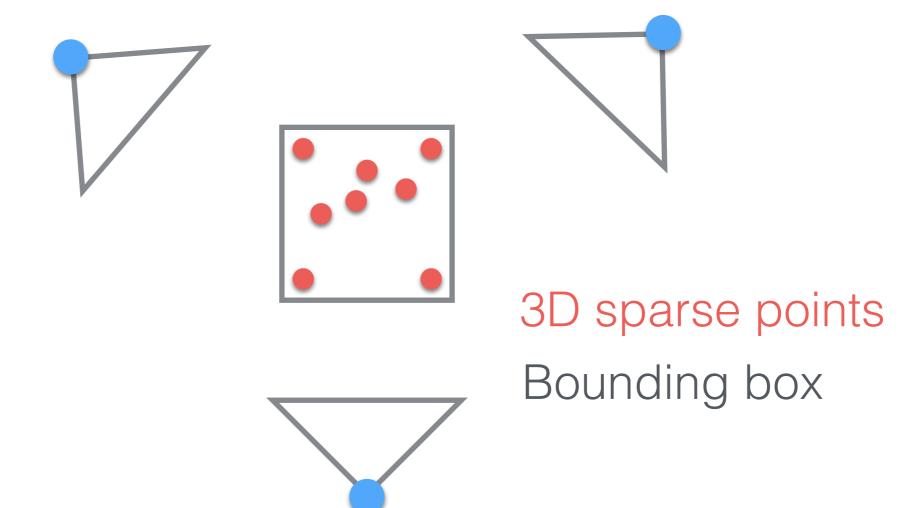
- Select a reference camera:
 - The one that has the most number of shared features with all other cameras.

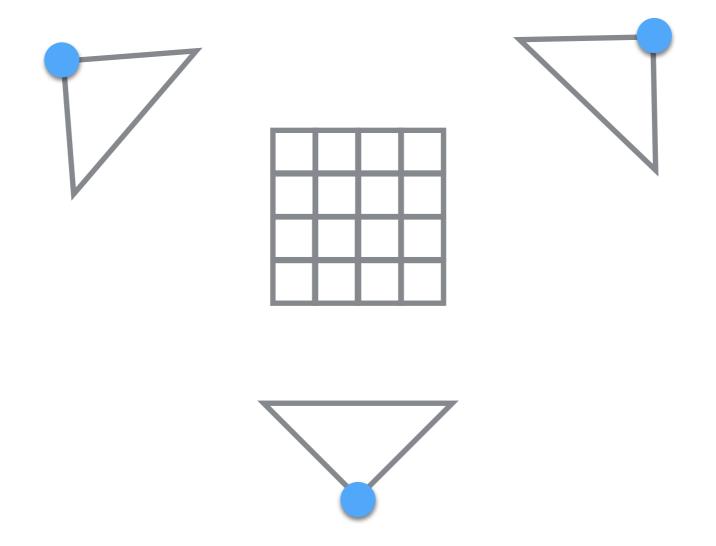


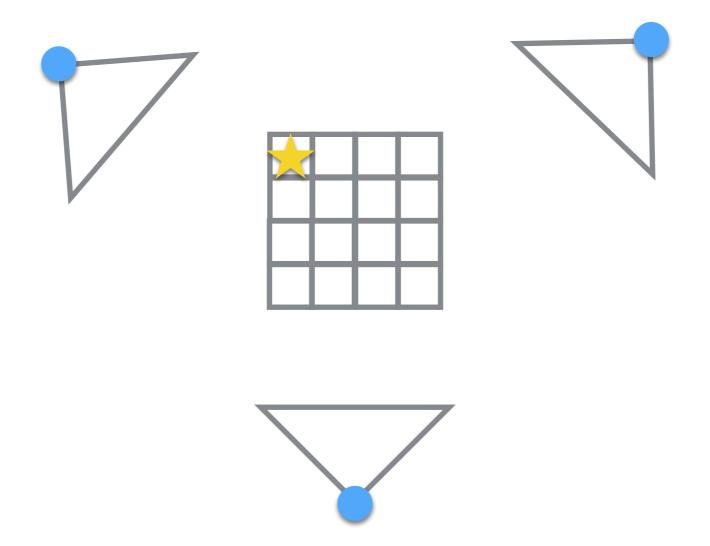
- Advantages:
 - We have a "single" rectification.
- Disadvantages:
 - All views need to "see" the same part of the object. This limits the whole thing to a group of cameras/views.

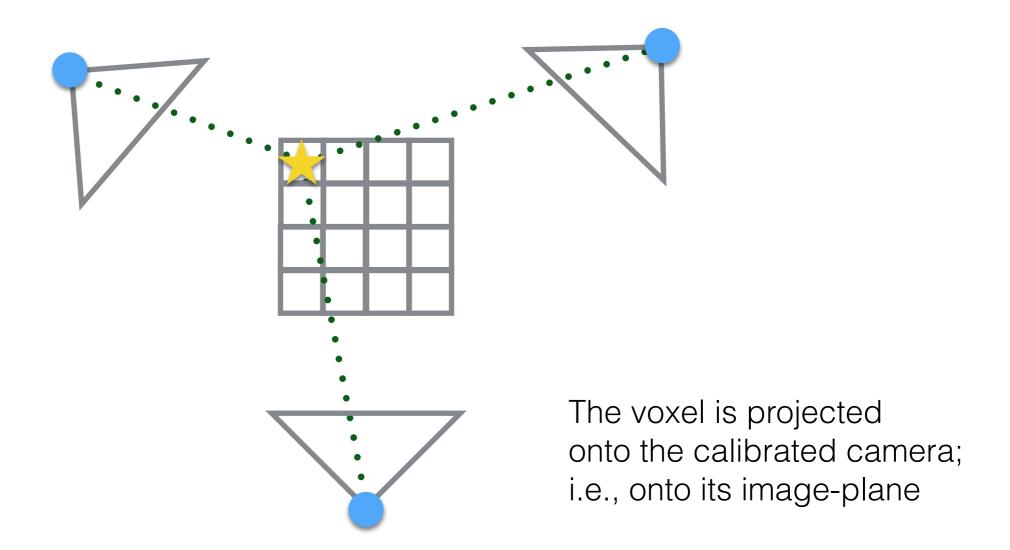
- Space carving is an algorithm with a volumetricapproach:
 - We compute the bounding box (BB) of triangulated 3D points.
 - We generate a 3D volume out of BB.
 - We carve voxel in the volume according to views.

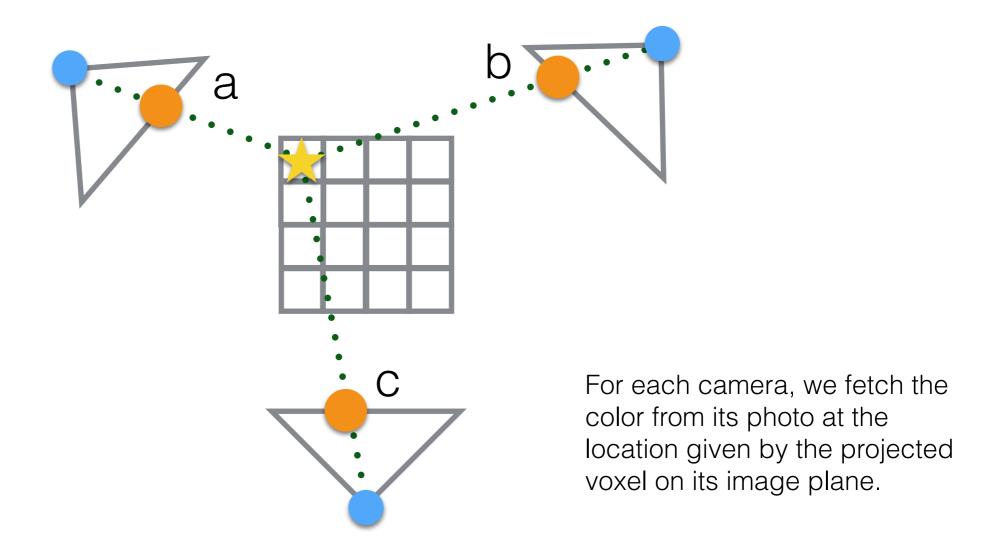


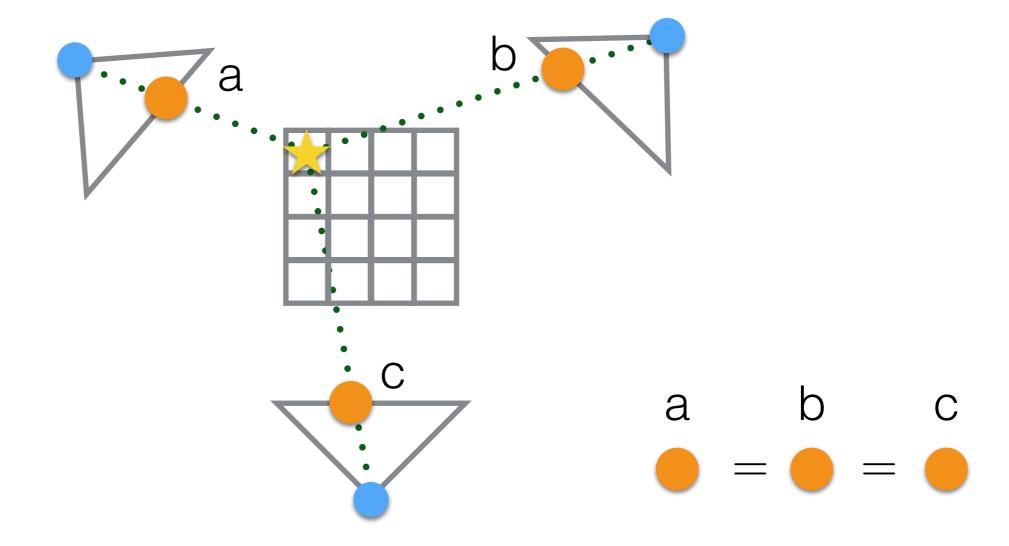


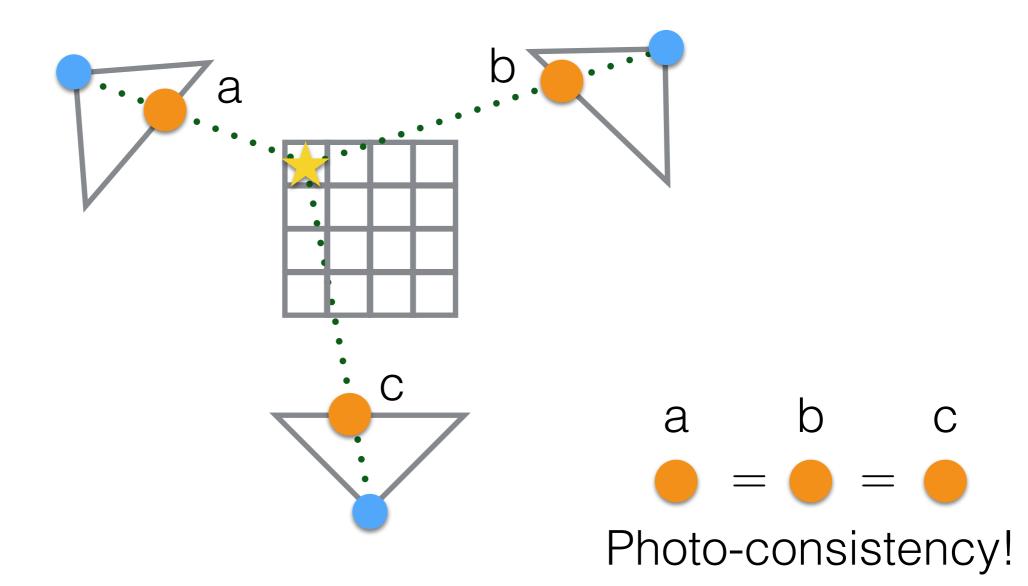




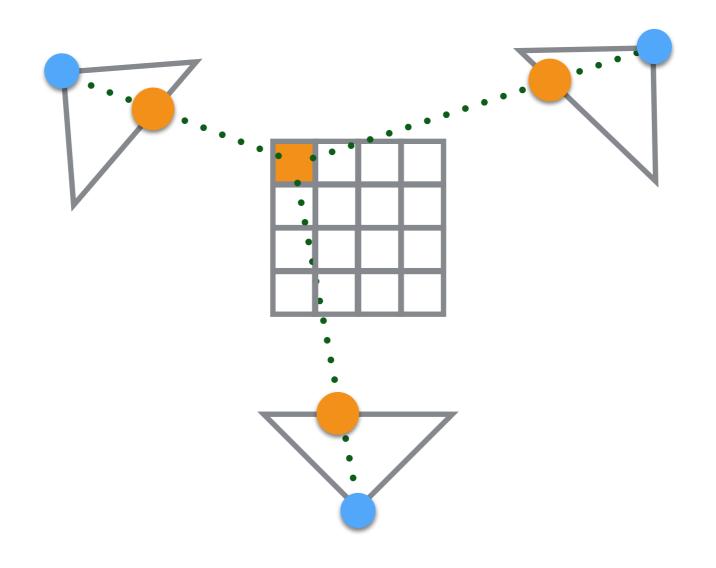


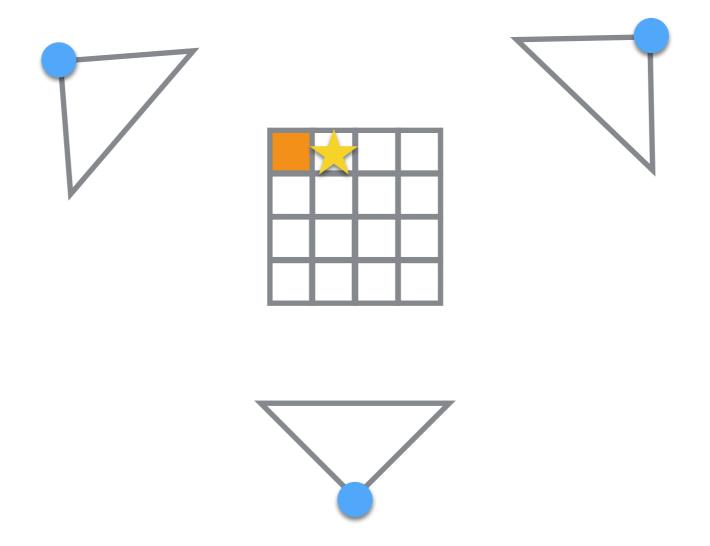


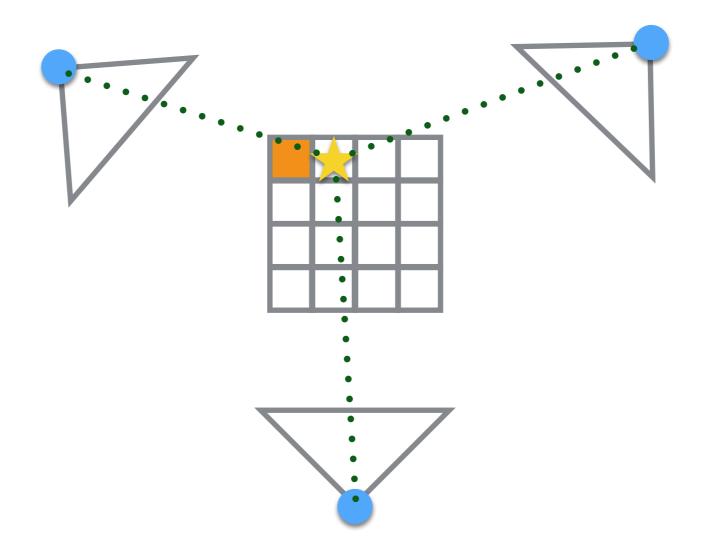


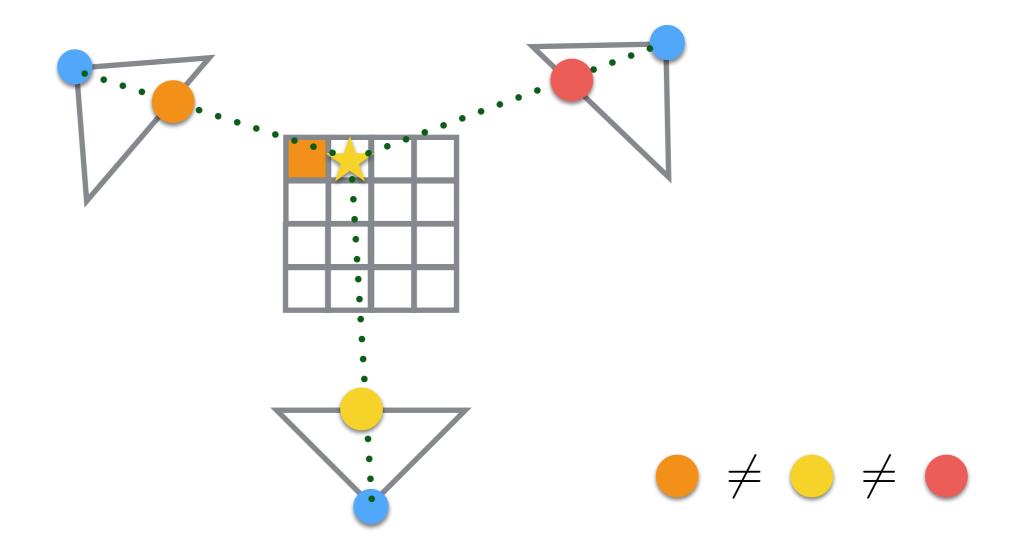


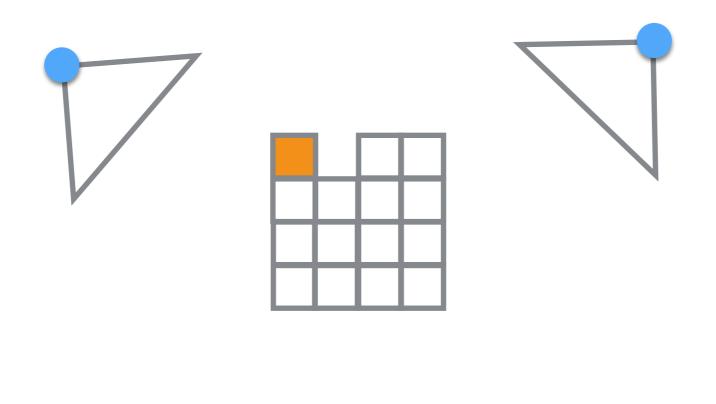
A voxel is *photo consistent* when all colors of its projections onto all image-planes of "*visible*" cameras appear to be similar.





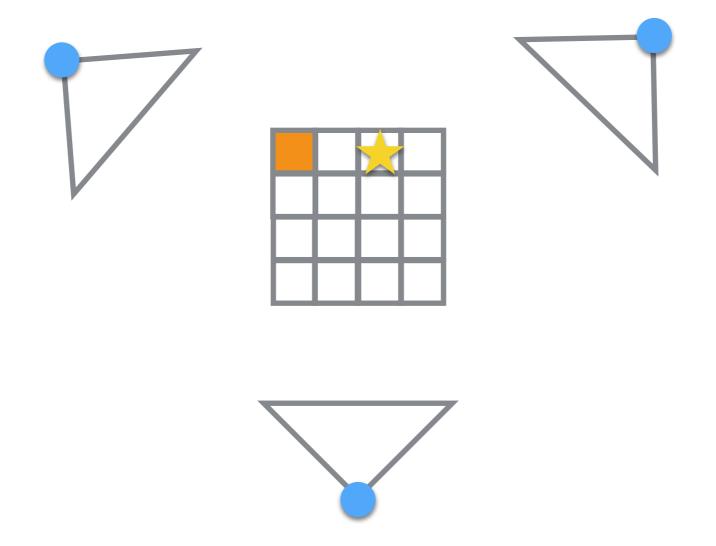






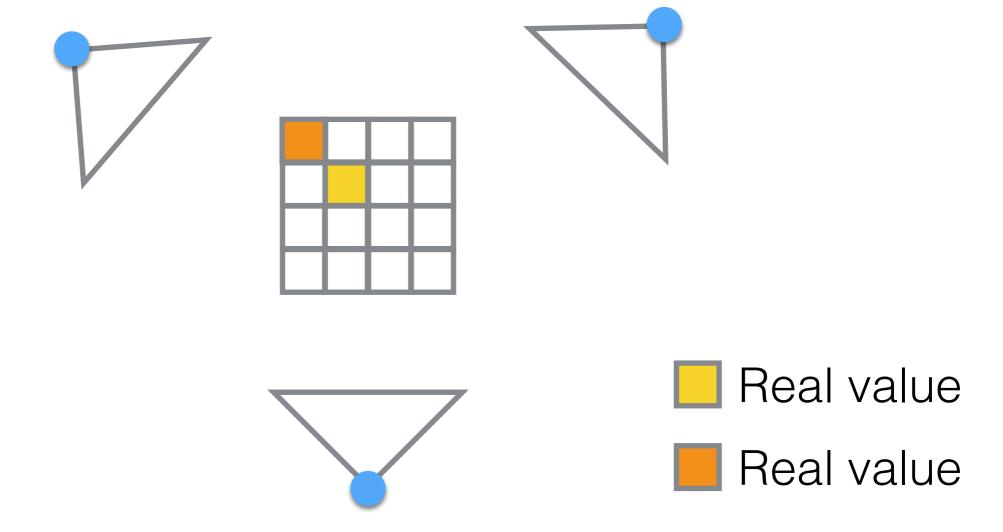


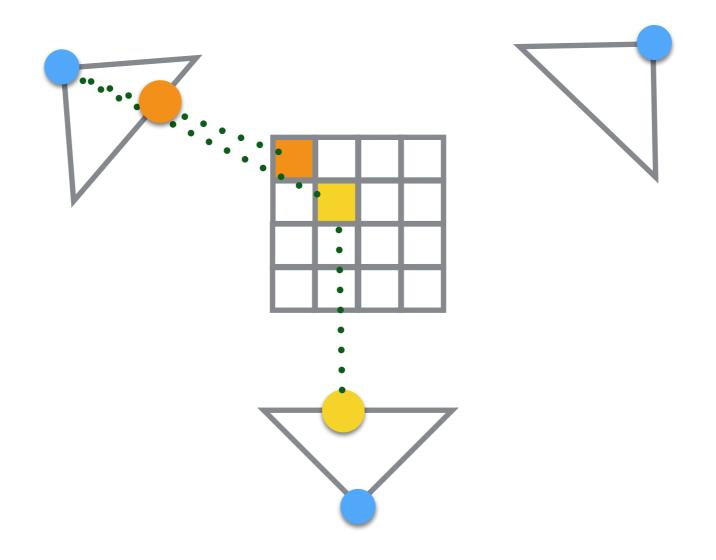
The voxel is removed

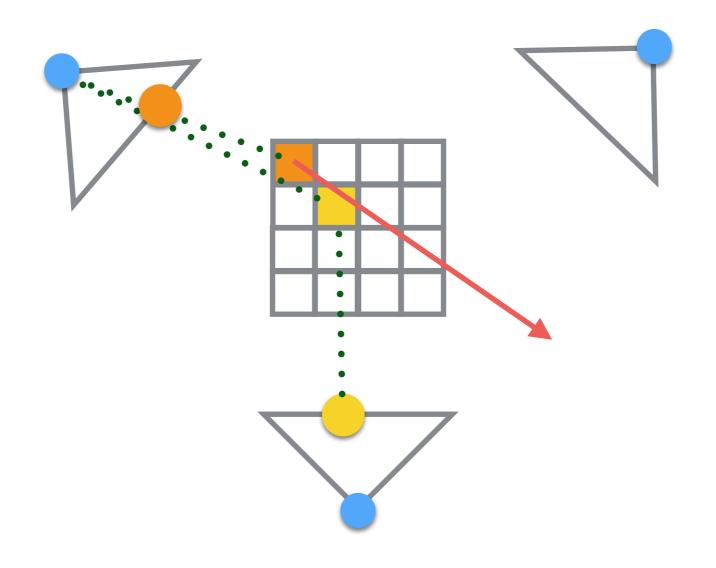


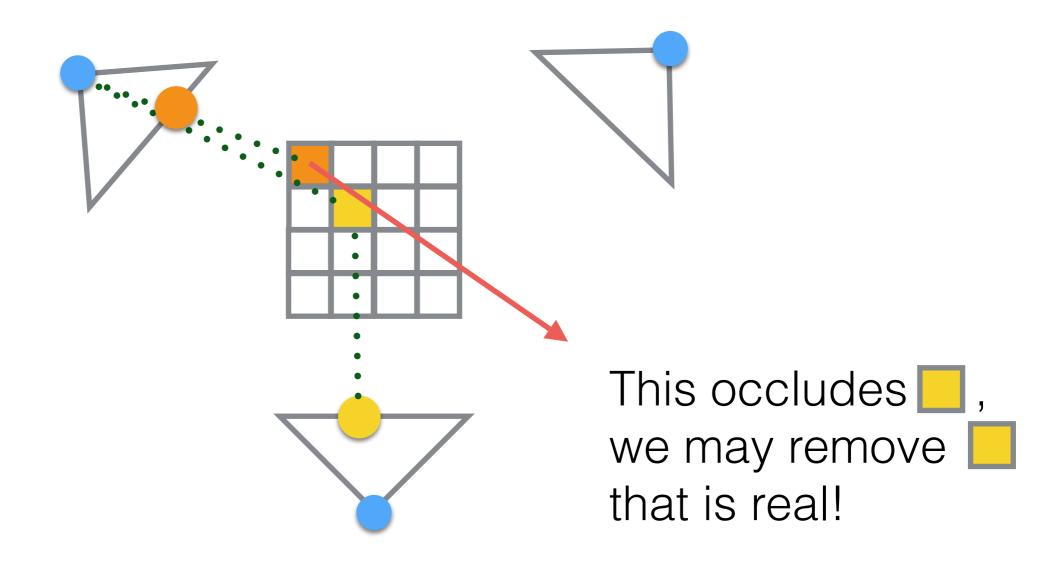
Who sees the problem here?

A voxel could be occluded, so it cannot be photo-consistent!

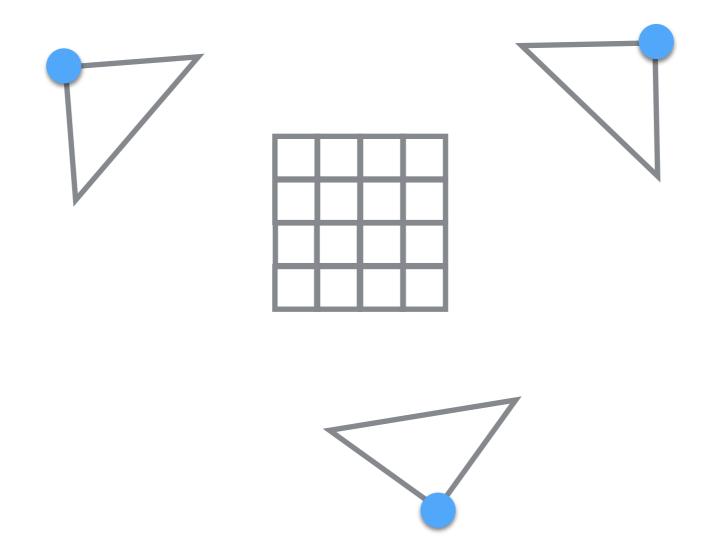


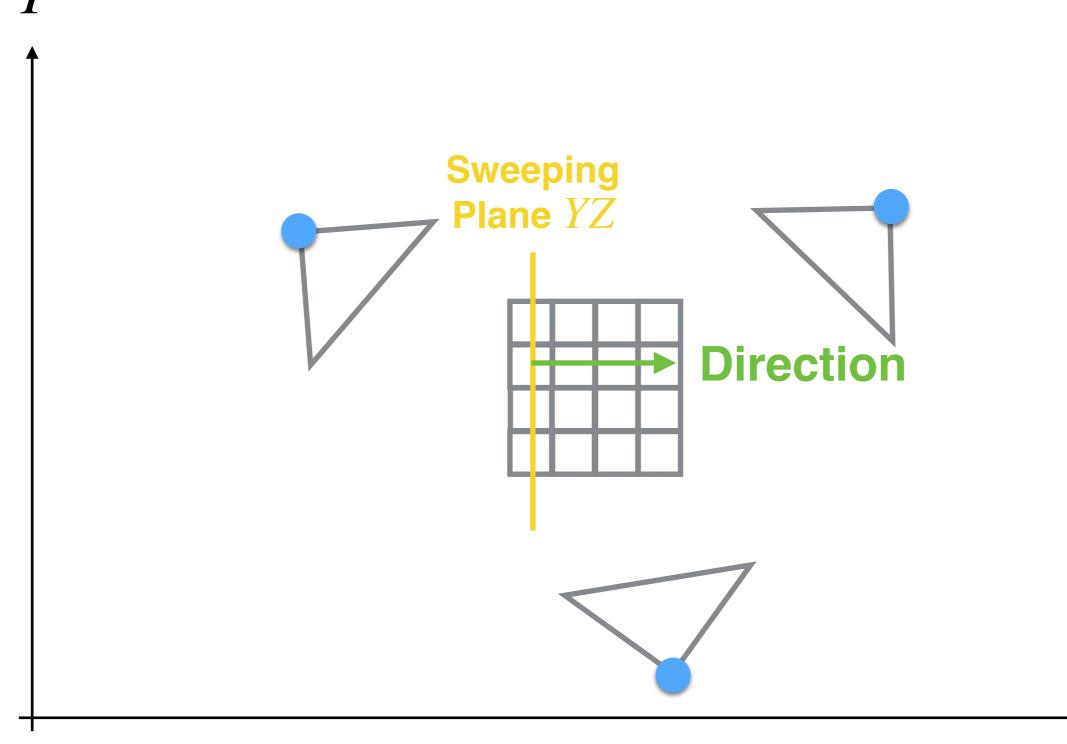


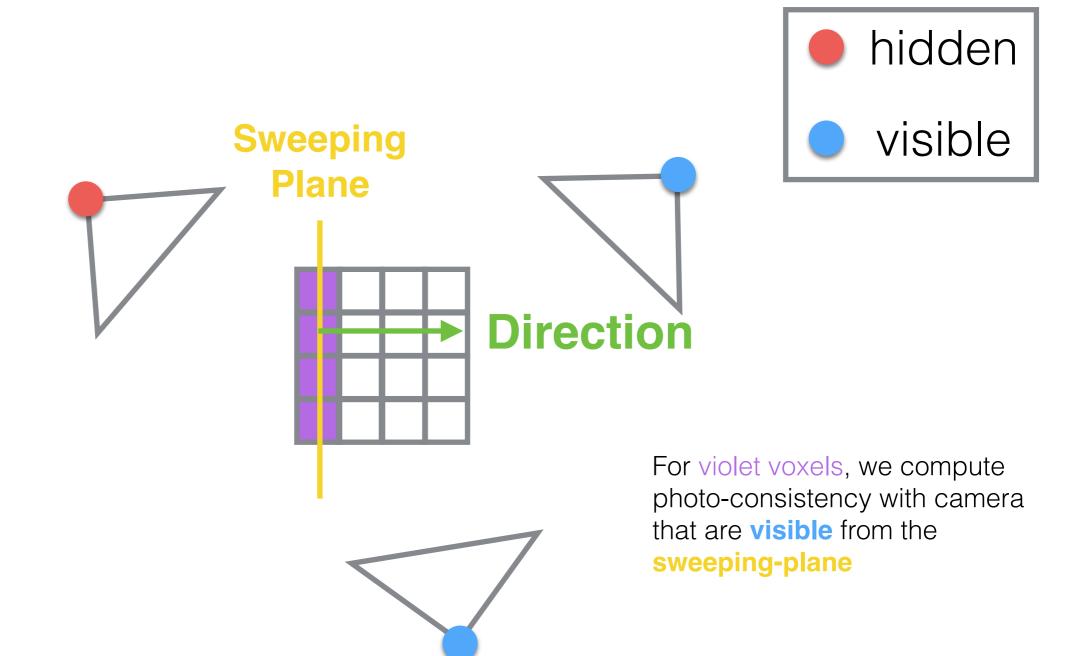


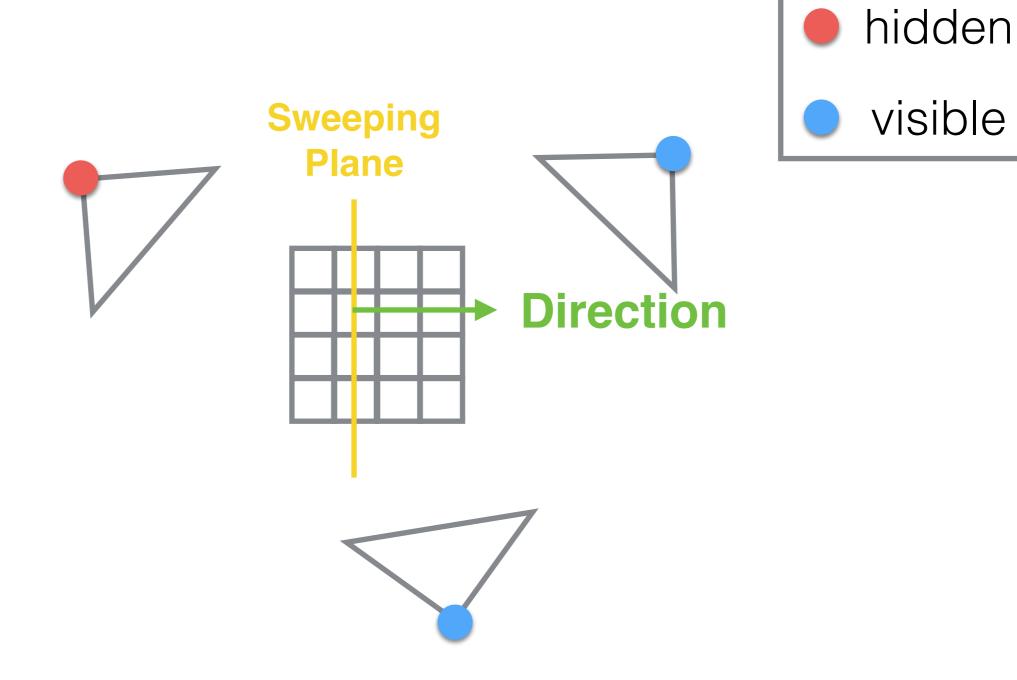


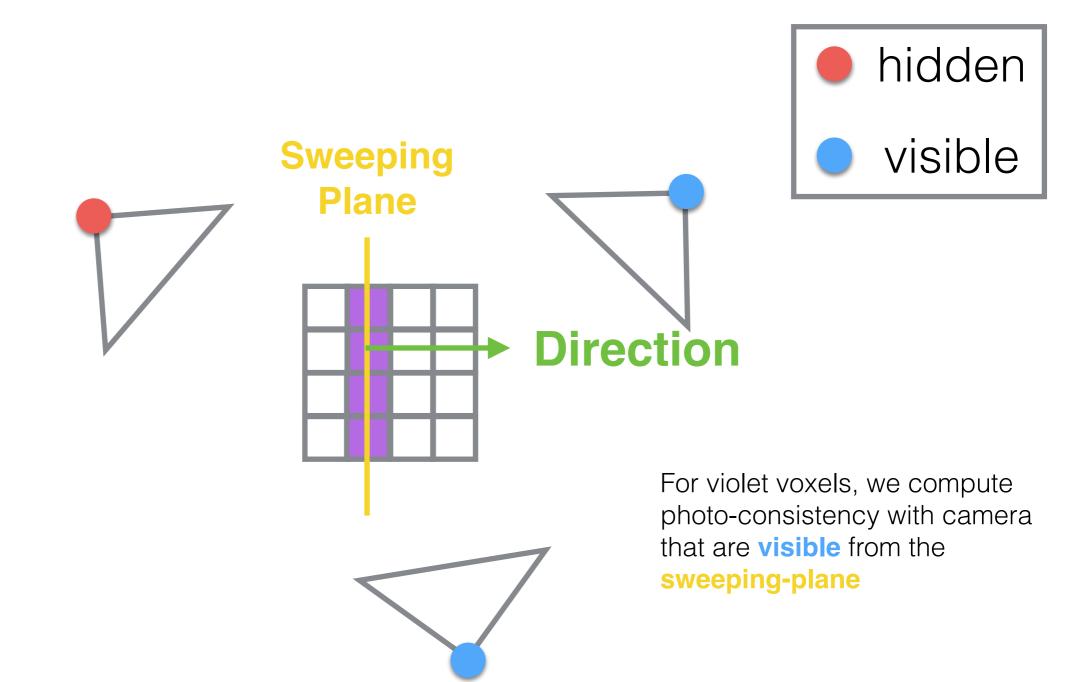
- The idea is to iterate for all six directions (back to front, and front to back) along X, Y, and Z axis.
- For each direction:
 - We sweep voxels using a plane, and every time we move the plane we determine visible views.

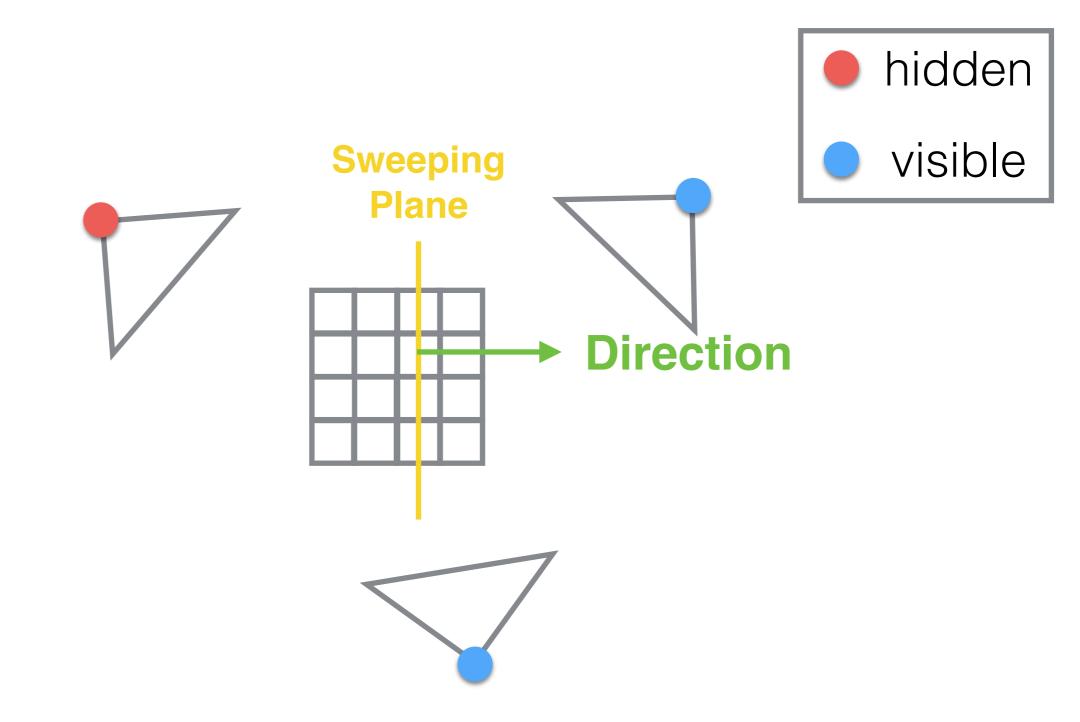


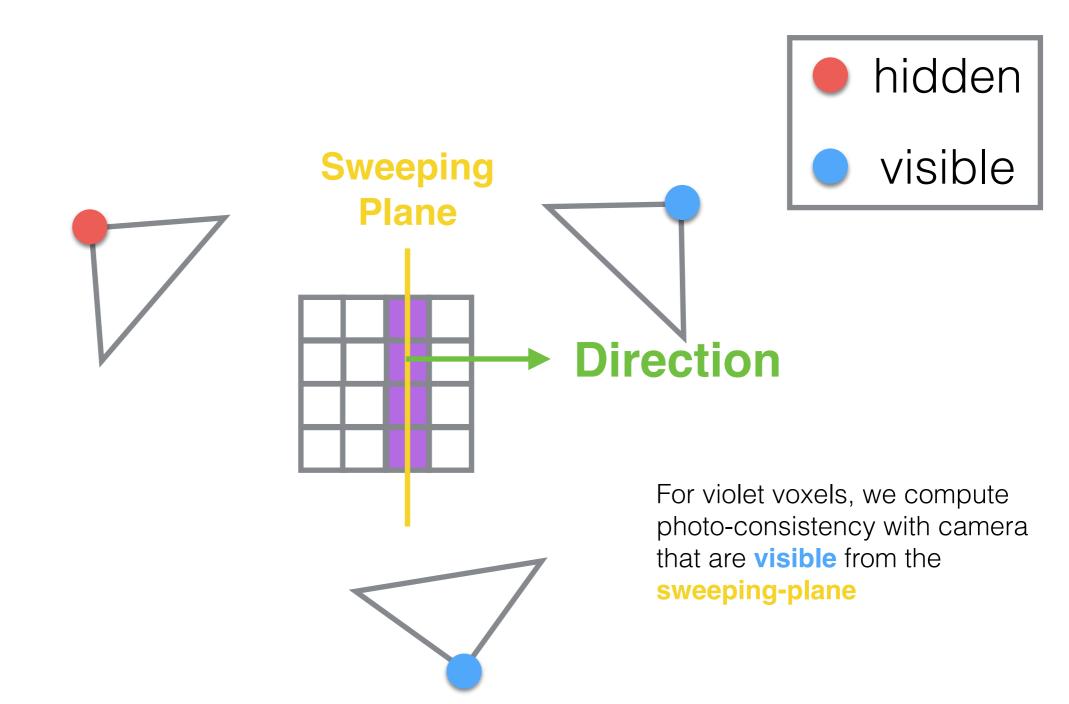


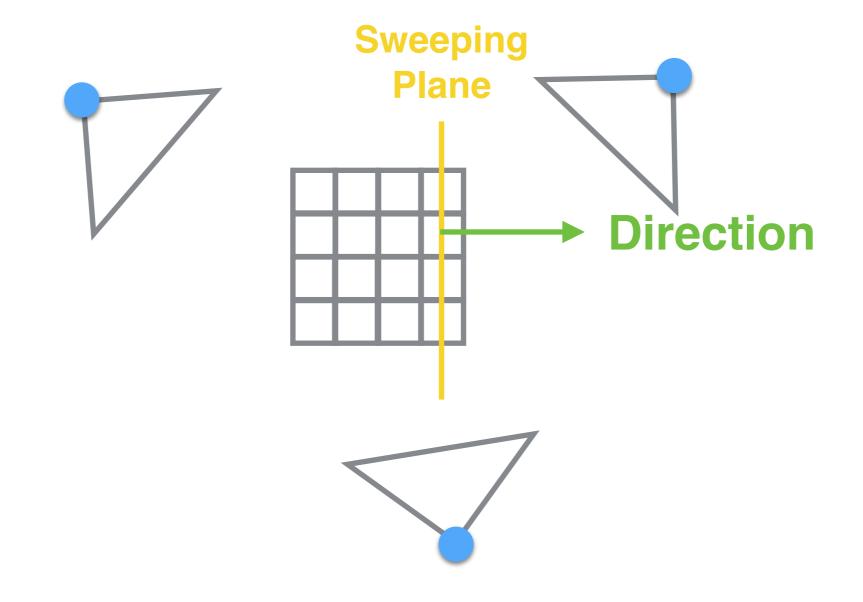


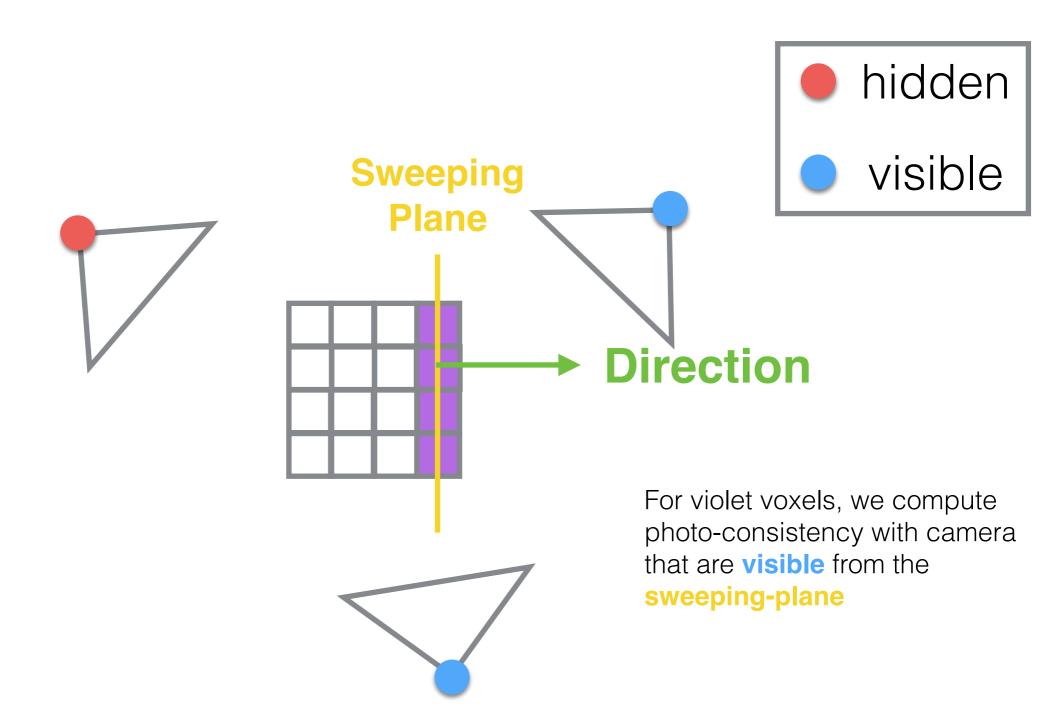








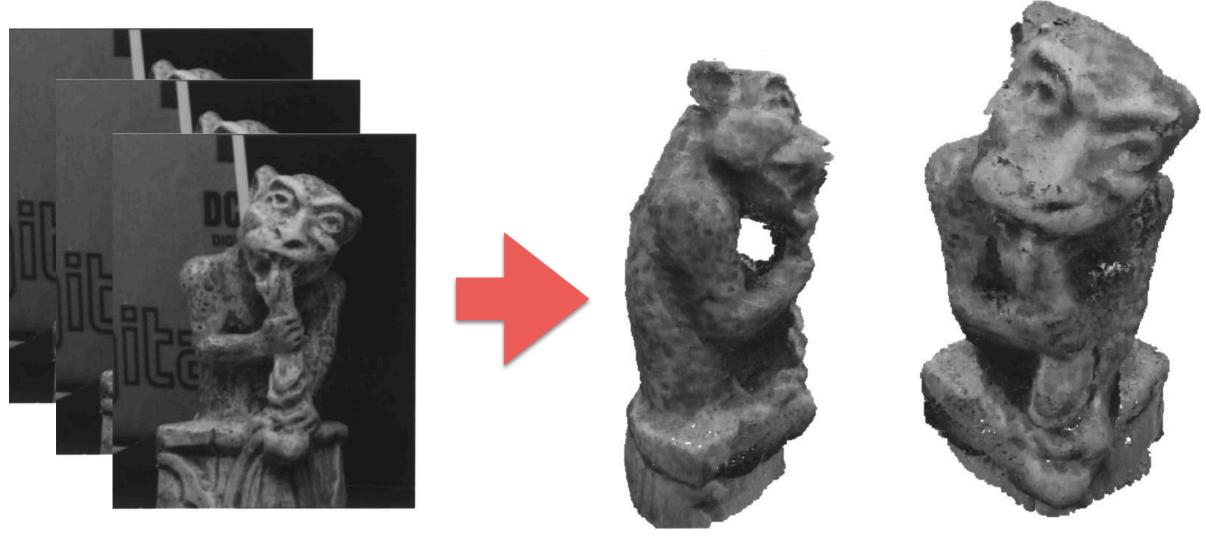




This process needs to be done again for the other direction and for Y and Z axes (both direction)!

 Once we have removed voxels, which are no photo-consistent, we run marching cubes to get the final model!

Multi-View Stereo: Space Carving Result

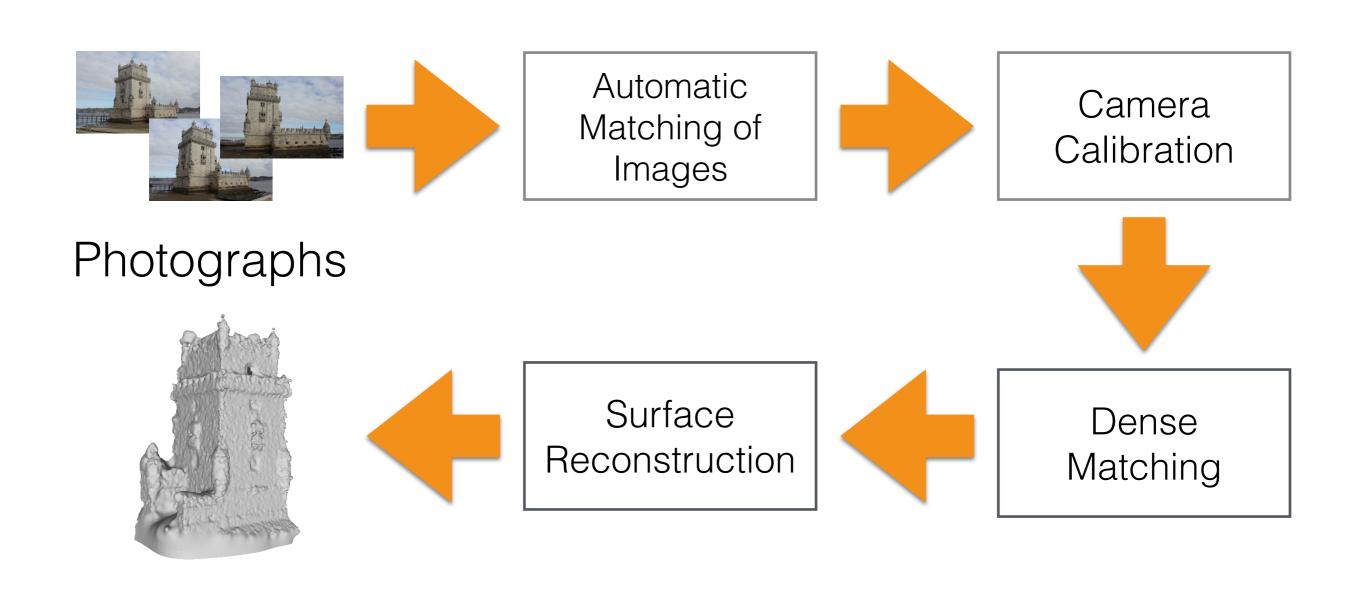


Photographs

3D Model

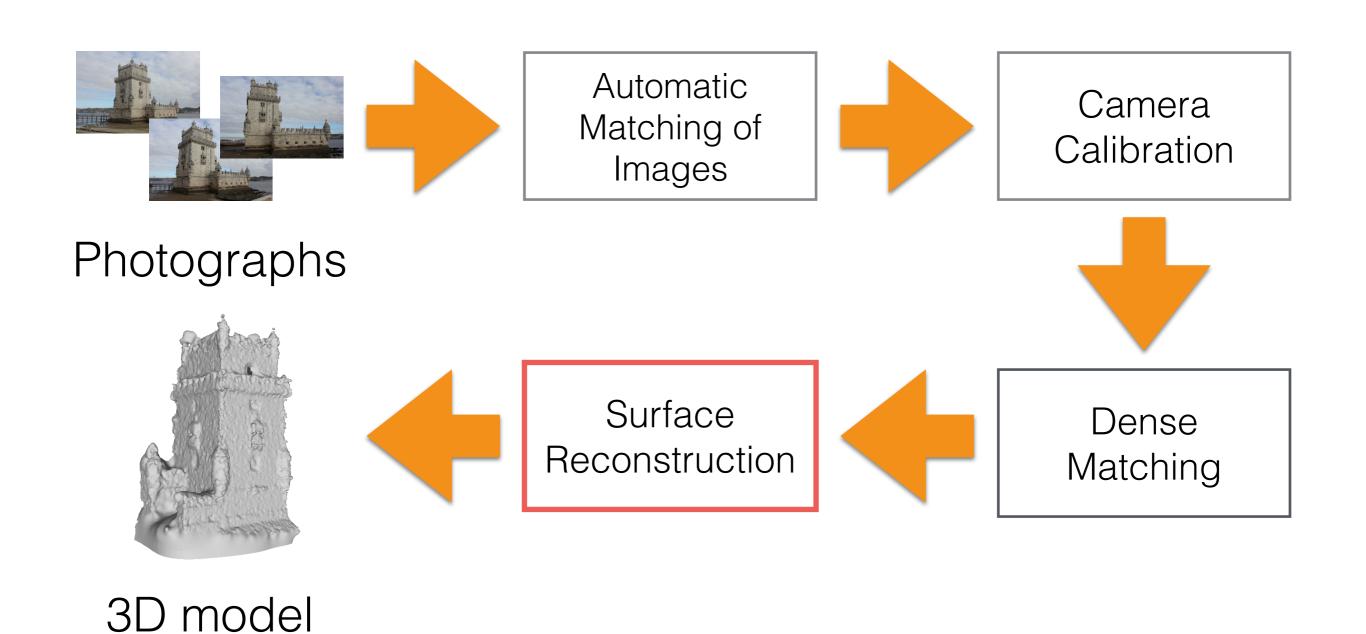
- Advantages:
 - Simple and easy to implement.
- Disadvantages:
 - It requires a lot of memory for high-quality models.

3D from Photographs



3D model

3D from Photographs



3D Reconstruction

- How do we merge all these dense points?
 - Marching cubes.
 - Poisson reconstruction.

3D Reconstruction

- Marching cubes:
 - Advantages:
 - It is fast and easy to implement.
 - It does not require to compute normals.
 - Disadvantages:
 - It requires to discretize the space using many voxels!
 - Poor results.

3D Reconstruction

- Poisson Reconstruction:
 - Advantages:
 - It creates high-quality results.
 - It can close holes.
 - Disadvantages:
 - We need to compute normals.
 - It requires both memory and time.

that's all folks!