Robot Vision:
Projective Geometry

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SS 2024

## Learning goals

- Understand homogeneous coordinates
- Understand point, line, plane parameters and interpret them geometrically
- Understand point, line, plane interactions geometrically
- Analytical calculations with lines, points and planes
- Understand the difference between Euclidean and projective space
- Understand the properties of parallel lines and planes in projective space
- Understand the concept of the line and plane at infinity


## Outline

- Differences between euclidean and projective geometry
- 2D projective geometry
- 1D projective geometry
- Homogeneous coordinates
- Points, Lines
- Duality
- 3D projective geometry
- Points, Lines, Planes
- Duality
- Plane at infinity


## Literature

- Multiple View Geometry in Computer Vision. Richard Hartley and Andrew Zisserman. Cambridge University Press, March 2004.

- Mundy, J.L. and Zisserman, A., Geometric Invariance in Computer Vision, Appendix: Projective Geometry for Machine Vision, MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, 1992
- Available online: www.cs.cmu.edu/~ph/869/papers/zisser-mundy.pdf


## Motivation - Image formation

[Source: Charles Gunn]

## Motivation - Parallel lines



Motivation - Epipolar constraint


## Euclidean geometry vs. projective geometry

## Definitions:

- Geometry is the teaching of points, lines, planes and their relationships and properties (angles)
- Geometries are defined based on invariances (what is changing if you transform a configuration of points, lines etc.)
- Geometric transformations of Euclidean geometry preserve distances
- Geometric transformations of projective geometry do NOT preserve distances
- Projective geometry was developed to explain the perspective changes of three-dimensional objects when projected to a plane.


## Difference between Euclidean and projective transformation



Euclidean transformation

# Projective Geometry 2D Projective Geometry 

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## 2D projective geometry

- Homogeneous coordinates
- Points, Lines
- Duality


## 1D Euclidean geometry



Euclidean coordinate:
$p_{1}=[x]$

## 1D projective geometry


homogeneous coordinate:
$\mathrm{p}_{1}=[\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{w}] \approx[\hat{x}, 1]$

## 2D case - Homogeneous coordinates

- projective plane = Euclidean plane + a new line of points
- The projective space associated to R3 is called the projective plane P2.



## Points

- A point in the image is a ray in projective space

- Each point ( $x, y$ ) on the plane is represented by a ray ( $w x, w y, w$ )
- all points on the ray are equivalent: $(x, y, 1) \cong(w x, w y, w)$
- A line in the image plane is defined by the equation $a x+b y+c z=$ 0 in projective space
- $[a, b, c]$ are the line parameters

- A point $[x, y, 1]$ lies on the line if the equation $a x+b y+c z=0$ is satisfied
- This can be written in vector notation with a dot product:

$$
0=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
a & b & c
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x \\
y \\
z
\end{array}\right]
$$

$I^{\top} \quad \mathrm{p}$

- A line is also represented as a homogeneous 3-vector I


## Calculations with lines and points

- Defining a line by two points

$$
l=x \times y
$$

- Intersection of two lines

$$
x=l \times m
$$

- Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& l=x \times y \\
& x^{T} l=y^{T} l=0 \\
& \left.x^{T}(x \times y)=y^{T}(x \times y)=0 \text { (scalar triple product }\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Geometric interpretation of line parameters $[a, b, c]$

- A line I is a homogeneous 3 -vector, which is a ray in projective space
- It is $\perp$ to every point (ray) $\mathbf{p}$ on the line: $\boldsymbol{I}^{\boldsymbol{\top}} \mathbf{p}=0$


What is the line $I$ spanned by rays $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{1}}$ and $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{2}}$ ?

- I is $\perp$ to $p_{1}$ and $p_{2} \Rightarrow I=p_{1} \times p_{2}$
- I is the plane normal


## Point and line duality

## Duality principle:

- To any theorem of 2-dimensional projective geometry there corresponds a dual theorem, which may be derived by interchanging the role of points and lines in the original theorem

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathrm{X} & \longleftrightarrow & \begin{array}{c}
1 \\
\mathrm{X}^{\top} \mathrm{l}=0
\end{array} \longleftrightarrow \\
\mathrm{X}=\mathrm{l} \times \mathrm{l}^{\prime} & \longleftrightarrow \mathrm{X}=0 \\
& & \\
\mathrm{l}=\mathrm{X} \times \mathrm{X}^{\prime}
\end{array}
$$



What is the line $I$ spanned by rays $\mathbf{p}_{1}$ and $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{2}}$ ?

- I is $\perp$ to $p_{1}$ and $p_{2} \Rightarrow I=p_{1} \times p_{2}$
- $I$ is the plane normal

What is the intersection of two lines $\mathbf{I}_{1}$ and $\mathbf{I}_{2}$ ?
$\cdot p$ is $\perp$ to $I_{1}$ and $I_{2} \Rightarrow p=I_{1} \times I_{2}$
Points and lines are dual in projective space

- given any formula, can switch the meanings of points and 20 lines to get another formula


## Intersection of parallel lines

- I and m are two parallel lines

$$
\begin{aligned}
& l=(a, b, c)^{T} \text { e.g. } \cdot(-1,0,1)^{T} \text { (a line parallel to y-axis) } \\
& m=(a, b, d)^{T} \text { e.g. }(-1,0,2)^{T} \text { (another line parallel to } y \text {-axis) }
\end{aligned}
$$

- Intersection of I and m

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x=l \times m \\
& x=\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b \\
c
\end{array}\right] \times\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b \\
d
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
b d-b c \\
a c-a d \\
a b-a b
\end{array}\right]=(d-c)\left[\begin{array}{c}
b \\
-a \\
0
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$



- A point $(x, y, 0)$ is called an ideal point, it does not lie in the image plane. But where does it lie then


## Ideal points and line at infinity



- Ideal point ("point at infinity")
- $\quad \mathrm{P} \cong(x, y, 0)$ - parallel to image plane
- It has infinite image coordinates
- All ideal points lie at the line at infinity
- I $\cong(0,0,1)$ - normal to the image plane
- Why is it called a line at infinity?


## Projective transformations

- Mapping between planes $x^{\prime}=H x$



## Projective transformations

Definition: Projective transformation

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
x_{1}^{\prime} \\
x_{2}^{\prime} \\
x_{3}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
h_{11} & h_{12} & h_{13} \\
h_{21} & h_{22} & h_{23} \\
h_{31} & h_{32} & h_{33}
\end{array}\right]\left(\begin{array}{c}
x_{1} \\
x_{2} \\
x_{3}
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { or } \quad \mathrm{x}^{\prime}=\mathbf{H} \mathbf{x}
$$

projectivity=collineation=projective transformation=homography

To transform a point: $\mathbf{p}^{\prime}=\mathbf{H p}$
To transform a line: $\mathbf{I p}=0 \rightarrow \mathbf{I}^{\prime} \mathbf{p}^{\prime}=0$
$0=\mathbf{I p}=\mathbf{I H}^{-1} \mathbf{H p}=\mathbf{I H}^{-1} \mathbf{p}^{\mathbf{\prime}} \Rightarrow \mathbf{I}^{\mathbf{\prime}}=\mathbf{I H}^{-1}$
lines are transformed by postmultiplication of $\mathbf{H}^{-1}$

## Overview 2D transformations

Projective
8dof $\left[\begin{array}{lll}h_{11} & h_{12} & h_{13} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} & h_{23} \\ h_{31} & h_{32} & h_{33}\end{array}\right] \sim \square$

$\underset{\text { 3dof }}{\operatorname{Euclidean}}\left[\begin{array}{ccc}r_{11} & r_{12} & t_{x} \\ r_{21} & r_{22} & t_{y} \\ 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}\right]$


Concurrency, collinearity, order of contact (intersection, tangency, inflection, etc.), cross ratio

Parallellism, ratio of areas, ratio of lengths on parallel lines (e.g midpoints), linear combinations of vectors (centroids).

Ratios of lengths, angles.
lengths, areas.

## Effects of projective transformations

- Foreshortening effects can be imaged easily with primitive shapes

- But, how does a circle get transformed?


## Effects of projective transformations

Center of projected circle


2D circle

Circle after projective transformation

# Projective Geometry 3D Projective Geometry 

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## 3D projective geometry

- Points, Lines, Planes
- Duality
- Plane at infinity


## 3D projective geometry

- The concepts of 2D generalize naturally to 3D
- The axioms of geometry can be applied to 3D as well
- 3D projective space = 3D Euclidean space + plane at infinity
- Not so simple to visualize anymore (4D space)
- Entities are now points, lines and planes
- Projective 3D points have four coordinates: $\mathbf{P}=(x, y, z, w)$
- Points, lines, and planes lead to more intersection and joining options than in the 2D case


## Planes

- Plane equation

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\Pi_{1} X+\Pi_{2} Y+\Pi_{3} Z+\Pi_{4}=0 \\
\Pi^{T} X=0
\end{array}
$$

- Expresses that point X is on plane $\Pi$
- Plane parameters

$$
\Pi=\left[\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \Pi_{3}, \Pi_{4}\right]
$$

- Plane parameters are normal vector + distance from origin


## Join and incidence relations with planes

- A plane is defined uniquely by the join of three points, or the join of a line and point in general position
- Two distinct planes intersect in a unique line
- Three distinct planes intersect in a unique point


## Three points define a plane

- $\mathrm{X} 1, \mathrm{X} 2, \mathrm{X} 3$ are three distinct points, each has to fullfil the incidence equation. Equations can be stacked.

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
X_{1}^{T} \\
X_{2}^{T} \\
X_{3}^{T}
\end{array}\right] \Pi=0(3 x 4)(4 x 1)
$$

- Plane parameters are the solution vector to this linear equation system (e.g. SVD)
- Points and planes are dual

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
\Pi_{1}^{T} \\
\Pi_{2}^{T} \\
\Pi_{3}^{T}
\end{array}\right] X=0
$$

## Lines

- Lines are complicated
- Lines and points are not dual in 3D projective space
- Lines are represented by a $4 \times 4$ matrix, called Plücker matrix
- Computation of the line matrix from two points $A, B$

$$
L=A B^{T}-B A^{T}(4 \times 4) \text { matrix }
$$

- Matrix is skew-symmetric
- Example line of the $x$-axis
- $\mathrm{x} 1=\left[\begin{array}{llll}0 & 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}\right]^{\top}$

$$
x 2=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right]^{\top}
$$

$$
L=x 1^{*} x 2^{\top}-x 2^{*} x 1^{\top}
$$

$$
L=\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}
$$

## Lines

- Points and planes are dual, we can get new equations by substituting points with planes

$$
\begin{gathered}
L=A B^{T}-B A^{T}(A, B \text { are points }) \\
L^{*}=P Q^{T}-Q P^{T}(P, Q \text { are planes })
\end{gathered}
$$

- The intersection of two planes $P, Q$ is a line
- Lines are self dual, the same line $L$ has a dual representation $L^{*}$
- The matrix $L$ can be directly computed from the entries of $L^{*}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\ell_{12} & =\ell_{34}^{*} \\
\ell_{13} & =\ell_{42}^{*} \\
\ell_{14} & =\ell_{23}^{*} \\
\ell_{23} & =\ell_{14}^{*} \\
\ell_{42} & =\ell_{13}^{*} \\
\ell_{34} & =\ell_{12}^{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Point, planes and lines

- A plane can be defined by the join of a point X and a line L

$$
\Pi=L^{*} X
$$

- A point can be defined by the intersection of a plane with a line $L$

$$
\mathrm{X}=\mathrm{L} \Pi
$$



## Plane at infinity

- Parallel lines and parallel planes intersect at $\Pi_{\infty}$
- Plane parameters of $\Pi_{\infty}$

$$
\Pi_{\infty}=(0,0,0,1)^{T}
$$

- It is a plane that contains all the direction vectors $D=(x 1, x 2, x 3,0)^{T}$, vectors that originate from the origin of 4D space
- Try to imagine an extension of the 2D case (see illustration below) to the 3D case...



## Recap - Learning goals

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