

Flexible acquisition of 3D structure from motion

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Abstract

In this paper the problem of obtaining 3D models from image sequences is addressed. The presented method deals with uncalibrated monocular image sequences. No prior knowledge about the scene or about the camera is necessary to build the 3D models. This approach is very flexible, even allowing the camera zoom to be used, and has no restriction on the size of the scenes.

1 Introduction

In the last few years the interest in 3D models has dramatically increased. More and more applications are using computer generated models. The main difficulty lies with the model acquisition. Although more tools are at hand to ease the generation of models, it is still a time consuming and expensive process. In many cases models of existing scenes or objects are desired. Traditional solutions include the use of stereo rigs, laser range scanners and other 3D digitizing devices. These devices are often very expensive, require careful handling and complex calibration procedures and are designed for a restricted depth range only.

In this work an alternative approach is proposed which avoids most of the problems mentioned above. The scene which has to be modeled is recorded from different viewpoints by a video camera. The relative position and orientation of the camera and its calibration parameters will automatically be retrieved from image data. Hence, there is no need for measurements in the scene or calibration procedures whatsoever. There is also no restriction on range, it is just as easy to model a small object, as to model a complete building. This will be shown in the examples. The proposed method thus offers a previously unknown flexibility in 3D model acquisition. In addition,

no more than a camcorder or a photo camera is needed for scene acquisition. Hence, increased flexibility is accompanied by a decrease in cost.

This flexibility opens the way to new applications. Scenes filmed with a simple hand-held camcorder can be reconstructed. Models can be generated from old film footage (e.g. from monuments destroyed during the war). It will become possible to generate realistic 3D models of complete sites (e.g. archeological sites). Besides this, 3D modeling of objects (e.g. for tele-shopping applications or virtual exhibitions) is eased a lot.

2 Model Acquisition

Two things are needed to build a 3D model from an image sequence: (1) the calibration of the camera setup¹ and (2) the correspondences between the images. Starting from an image sequence acquired by an uncalibrated video camera, both these prerequisites are unknown and therefore have to be retrieved from image data. At least a few correspondences are needed to retrieve the calibration of the camera setup, but this calibration facilitates the search for correspondences a lot.

2.1 Retrieving the Projective Framework

The first correspondences are found by extracting intensity corners in different images and matching them using a robust tracking algorithm. In conjunction with the matching of the corners the projective calibration of the setup is calculated. This allows to eliminate matches which are inconsistent with the calibration. Using the projective

¹By *calibration* we mean the actual internal calibration of the camera as well as the relative position and orientation of the camera for the different views.

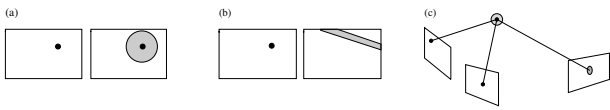


Figure 1: (a) a priori search region, (b) search region based on initial projective geometry, (c) search region after projective reconstruction (used for refinement).

calibration more matches can easily be found and used to refine this calibration. This can be seen in Figure 1.

At first corresponding corners in two images are matched. This defines a projective framework in which the projection matrices of the other views are retrieved one by one. Our approach follows the procedure proposed by Beardsley *et al* [1]. We therefore obtain projection matrices (3×4) of the following form:

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = [\mathbf{I}|0] \text{ and } \mathbf{P}_k = [\mathbf{H}_{1k}|e_{1k}] \quad (1)$$

with \mathbf{H}_{1k} the homography for some reference plane from view 1 to view k and e_{1k} the corresponding epipole.

2.2 Retrieving the Metric Framework

Such a projective calibration is certainly not satisfactory for the purpose of 3D modeling. A reconstruction obtained up to a projective transformation can differ very much from the original scene according to human perception: orthogonality and parallelism are in general not preserved, part of the scene can be warped to infinity, etc. To obtain a better calibration, constraints can be obtained by imposing some restrictions on the internal camera parameters (e.g. square pixels). By exploiting these constraints, the projective reconstruction can be upgraded to metric (Euclidean up to scale) [6, 7].

In a metric frame \mathbf{P} can be expressed as follows:

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{K}[\mathbf{R}|\mathbf{-Rt}] \text{ with } \mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} f_x & s & u \\ & f_y & v \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2)$$

Here (\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{t}) denotes a rigid transformation (i.e. \mathbf{R} is a rotation matrix and \mathbf{t} is a translation vector), while the upper triangular calibration matrix \mathbf{K} encodes the intrinsic parameters of the camera (i.e. f_x and f_y represent the focal length divided

by the pixel width resp. height, (u, v) represents the principal point and s is a factor which is zero in the absence of skew).

A practical way to obtain the calibration parameters from constraints on the intrinsic camera parameters is through application of the concept of the absolute quadric [7]. In space, exactly one degenerate quadric of planes exists which has the property to be invariant under all rigid transformations. In a metric frame it is represented by the following 4×4 symmetric rank 3 matrix $\Omega = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. If \mathbf{T} transforms points $M \rightarrow \mathbf{T}M$ (and thus $\mathbf{P} \rightarrow \mathbf{P}\mathbf{T}^{-1}$), then it transforms $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbf{T}\Omega\mathbf{T}^\top$ (which can be verified to yield Ω when \mathbf{T} is a similarity transformation). The projection of the absolute quadric in the image yields the intrinsic camera parameters independent of the chosen projective basis²:

$$\mathbf{K}_i\mathbf{K}_i^\top \propto \mathbf{P}_i\Omega\mathbf{P}_i^\top \quad (3)$$

where \propto means equal up to an arbitrary non-zero scale factor. Therefore constraints on the internal camera parameters in \mathbf{K}_i can be translated to constraints on the absolute quadric. If enough constraints are at hand, only one quadric will satisfy them all, i.e. the *absolute quadric*. At that point the scene can be transformed to the metric frame (which brings Ω to its canonical form).

Equation 3 can be used to obtain the metric calibration from the projective one. A more detailed description of this approach can be found in [7].

2.3 Dense Correspondences

At this point we dispose of a sparse metric reconstruction. Only a few salient points are reconstructed. Obtaining a dense reconstruction could be achieved by interpolation, but in practice this does not yield satisfactory results. Often some salient features are missed during the corner matching and will therefore not appear in the reconstruction. If for example the corner of the roof is missing, this could result in a whole part of the roof missing when using interpolation.

These problems can be avoided by using algorithms which estimate correspondences for almost every point in the images. At this point

²Using Equation 2 this can be verified for a metric basis. Transforming $\mathbf{P} \rightarrow \mathbf{P}\mathbf{T}^{-1}$ and $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbf{T}\Omega\mathbf{T}^\top$ will not change the projection.



Figure 2: Images of the Arenberg castle which were used to generate the 3D model.

algorithms can be used which were developed for calibrated 3D systems like stereo rigs. Since we have computed the projective calibration between successive image pairs we can exploit the epipolar constraint that restricts the correspondence search to a 1-d search range. In particular it is possible to remap the image pair to standard geometry where the epipolar lines coincide the image scan lines [4]. The correspondence search is then reduced to a matching of the image points along each image scanline. In addition to the epipolar geometry other constraints like preserving the order of neighboring pixels, bidirectional uniqueness of the match, and detection of occlusions can be exploited. These constraints are used to guide the correspondence towards the most probable scanline match using a dynamic programming scheme [3]. The most recent algorithm [5] improves the accuracy by using a multi-baseline approach.

2.4 Building the Model

Once a dense correspondence map and the metric camera parameters have been estimated, dense surface depth maps are computed using depth triangulation. The 3D model surface is constructed of triangular surface patches with the vertices storing the surface geometry and the faces holding the projected image color in texture maps. The texture maps add very much to the visual appearance of the models and augment missing surface detail.

The model building process is at present restricted to partial models computed from single view points and work remains to be done to fuse different view points. Since all the views are registered into one metric framework it is possible to fuse the depth estimate into one consistent model surface [4].

Sometimes it is not possible to obtain a single

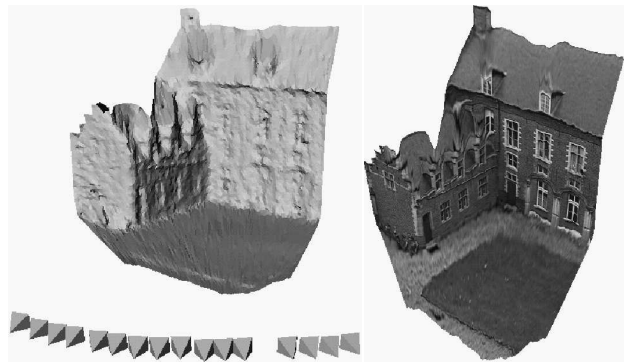


Figure 3: Shaded view with cameras (left) and textured view (right) of the 3D model.

metric framework for large objects like buildings since one may not be able to record images continuously around it. In that case the different frameworks have to be registered to each other. This will be done using available surface registration schemes [2].

3 Experiments

The approach has been used on a wide variety of image sequences. Here some results are given of two images sequences filmed near our department. In Figure 2 some images of the video sequence which was used to obtain a 3D model of a part of the Arenberg castle in Leuven is shown. The sequence was taken by freely moving a hand held camcorder. The complete sequence was used to obtain the calibration, while the dense reconstruction is still restricted to what is seen from some reference view (2.5D). The 3D reconstruction is stored as a textured wire-frame VRML model. A few perspective views of this model can be seen in Figure 3. The left view shows the estimated camera viewpoints (little pyramids) and the shaded surface view, the right a different textured view. A more quantitative evaluation was obtained by measuring angles in the reconstructed scene between parallel lines (1.8 ± 1.1 degrees) and orthogonal lines (89.7 ± 1.4 degrees). These results confirm the good metric calibration obtained by the method.

As a second example 8 images of a stone pillar with curved surfaces were taken. Figure 4 shows 2 of the recorded images. While filming and moving away from the object the zoom was changed ($2\times$) to keep the image size of the object constant. In spite of the changes in focal length



Figure 4: Images of a pillar

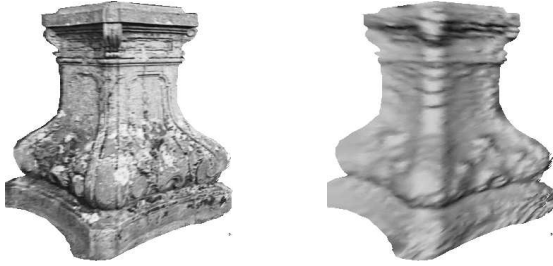


Figure 5: Perspective view of the reconstruction (with texture and with shading).

the metric frame could be retrieved through self-calibration. In Figure 5 a perspective view of the reconstruction is given, rendered both shaded and with surface texture mapping. Note the arbitrarily shaped free-form surface that has been reconstructed. The shaded view shows that even most of the small details of the object are retrieved. A quantitative assessment of the metric properties for the pillar is not so easy because of the curved surfaces. It is, however, possible to measure some distances on the real object as reference lengths and compare them with the reconstructed model. In this case it is possible to obtain a measure for the absolute scale and verify the consistency of the reconstructed length within the model. Averaging all measured distances gave a consistent scale factor of 40.25 with a standard deviation of 5.4% overall. For the interior distances (avoiding the inaccuracies at the border of the model), the reconstruction error dropped to 2.3%. These results demonstrate the metric quality of the reconstruction even for complicated surface shapes and varying focal length.

4 Conclusion

An automatic 3D scene modelling technique was discussed that is capable of building models from uncalibrated image sequences. The technique is able to extract metric 3D models without any prior knowledge about the scene or the camera.

The calibration is obtained by assuming a rigid scene and some constraints on the intrinsic camera parameters (e.g. square pixels).

Work remains to be done to get more complete models by fusing the partial 3D reconstructions. This will also increase the accuracy of the models and eliminate artefacts at the occluding boundaries. For this we can rely on work already done for calibrated systems.

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