

## Sphero: Determining Depth using Two Specular Spheres and a Single Camera

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### ABSTRACT

*This paper proposes a method for determining the depth of points in a three-dimensional scene. The concept is to use two spheres with highly specular surfaces to obtain two different perspectives of the scene. Both spheres are viewed by a single stationary camera, and each sphere reflects the world around it into the camera. Correspondence between points on the two spheres is established by matching features such as edges and image intensities, as in traditional stereopsis. Depth is recovered from each pair of corresponding points by triangulation. The use of a single fixed camera avoids the undesirable complexities that characterize the stereo calibration procedure. The measurable range of the system is greatly enhanced by the use of specular spheres and is not limited by the field of view of the camera. Experiments were conducted to determine the accuracy in depth measurement and the feasibility of practical implementation. The technique presented in this paper has been named "SPHEREO" as it uses two SPHERes, rather than two cameras, to emulate stereopsis.*

### 1 INTRODUCTION

Three-dimensional object recognition is currently an active area of vision research. In many vision applications, the limitations of two-dimensional analysis have been realized. For example, in a typical bin picking operation, the position and shape of an object must be determined in three-dimensional space to enable the robot to securely grasp the object. Shape extraction is an essential part of a three-dimensional recognition system. Any ambiguity in the physical shape of an object generally renders the recognition problem more difficult. Hence, the advent of three-dimensional vision systems has created considerable interest in the development of high quality depth sensors.

Stereo is a popular technique for depth perception. It has generated much interest in the research community due to its strong resemblance to the mammalian approach to depth perception. In stereopsis, images of the scene are recorded from two different perspectives. The two perspectives are obtained by using two cameras to observe the scene. Features, such as edges, are extracted from both camera images and, on the basis of the feature values, a point—point correspondence is established between the two images. Range or depth is recovered from each pair of corresponding points by triangulation. The passive nature of stereopsis makes it an attractive depth perception method. It is suited to most applications, unlike "active" sensing methods such as radar, laser ranging, and structured light.

Stereo systems are posed with the acute problem of calibration. Corresponding points in the two images are

projections of a single point in the three-dimensional scene. In order to triangulate and determine the three-dimensional coordinates of the scene point, the parameters of the two cameras must be known. Therefore, for a given configuration of the cameras, it is necessary to calibrate the intrinsic and extrinsic parameters of the cameras. Many researchers have studied the stereo calibration problem. One approach is to independently calibrate the two cameras by using a set of points at known locations in a common frame of reference. An alternative method does not rely on knowing the locations of the calibration points, but rather the correspondence between the points in the images. Gennery [3] proposed performing the calibration by a generalized least-squares adjustment. Errors are formulated by using the epipolar constraint. Minimizing the errors results in estimates of the camera parameters. Faugeras and Toscani [2] have suggested a recursive estimation of the camera parameters by using extended Kalman filtering.

The complexity of the calibration procedure has limited the applicability of stereo systems. Since it is computationally inefficient to perform the calibration on-line, the relative positions and orientations of the cameras need to be rigidly fixed. In addition to the calibration problem, stereo systems are often limited by a small field of view. The depth of a point can be measured only if the point is seen by both cameras. Therefore, the field of view of a stereo system is the intersection of the fields of view of the two cameras.

This paper describes "sphero" as a new approach to stereo vision. Two spheres with highly reflective surfaces are placed in the view of a single camera. Reflections of the three-dimensional scene are recorded in the image of the spheres. Hence, a single camera image includes two different perspectives of the three-dimensional scene. These two perspectives are equivalent to images obtained from two different camera locations in stereopsis. The stereo calibration problem is avoided by using a single camera. However, the position of the two spheres must be known to recover depth by triangulation. To this end, a simple calibration procedure is presented in this paper that determines the location of the two spheres on-line. Each camera image contains information regarding the positions of the spheres and the depth of points in the scene at the same instant in time. The positions of the spheres are first determined and then used to compute the coordinates of points in the scene.

The field of view of a sphero system is a great improvement over that of stereo systems. The use of specular spheres enables the system to measure depth outside the camera's field of view. The surface of a sphere completely spans the gradient space. Therefore, points in all directions are reflected by the spheres into the camera, and the camera is used only to observe the surfaces of the spheres. Such an imaging geometry, makes it possible to measure depth of points both inside and outside the camera's field of view.

Experiments were conducted to demonstrate the practical feasibility of the sphereo concept. Point sources of light were positioned at known locations in the scene, and a sphereo set-up was used to determine the three-dimensional coordinates of the sources. The measurement accuracy was estimated by comparing the experimentally determined source positions with the actual positions. The sphereo approach does not simplify the correspondence problem associated with stereo vision. This paper does not address the correspondence problem posed by complex scenes but focuses on the merits of a new approach to stereo imaging.

## 2 SPHEREO

### 2.1 Concept

The geometry of a sphereo is completely defined by its radius. The sphere also possesses the property that no two points on its surface have the same surface normal. Figure (1) shows the reflection of light from a point source, off the surface of a specular sphere. In the case of specular reflection, the angle of incidence  $i$  equals the angle of reflection  $e$ . Let us assume an orthographic camera model; all light rays observed by the camera are parallel and are in the direction  $v$ . Under the above stated constraints, only a single point  $A$  on the surface of the sphere is capable of reflecting light from the point source into the camera. An alternative interpretation of this effect is as follows: if the position of the center of the sphere and its radius are known, then a bright point in the image can be projected out of the camera to intersect the surface of the sphere at the point  $A$ . The surface normal  $n$  at the surface point  $A$  is unique and is determined by the position of the sphere. Given the viewing direction  $v$  and the surface normal  $n$ , we can find the source direction  $s$  by using the specular reflectance model.

Sphereo uses two specular spheres of known radii and center positions, each reflecting the world in the direction of the camera. Figure (2) shows the two spheres illuminated by a point

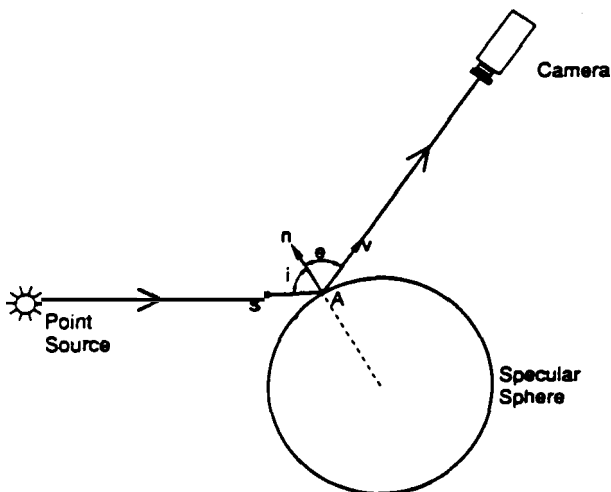


Figure 1: The specular sphere reflects light from the point source into the camera.

source. The resulting image has two discrete bright points, namely,  $I_1$  and  $I_2$ . Lines perpendicular to the image plane are projected from  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  to intersect the spheres  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  at the points  $P$  and  $Q$ , respectively. The surface normal vectors  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  at points  $P$  and  $Q$  are computed by using the known radii and center locations of the spheres. Since the spheres are separated by a distance  $D$ , the surface normal vectors  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  differ in direction. Given  $n_1$ ,  $n_2$ , and the viewing direction  $v$ , the source directions  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  are computed by using the specular reflectance model. The point source lies on the line  $L_1$  passing through the point  $P$  in the direction  $s_1$ . The point source also lies on the line  $L_2$  passing through the point  $Q$  in the direction  $s_2$ . Therefore, the point source location  $W$  is found at the point of intersection of the two lines  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ . The point source has been used in the above discussion to explain the principle underlying the sphereo method. In practice, however, candidates for matching are not confined to bright image points and may also be characterized by features such as discontinuities in image intensity.

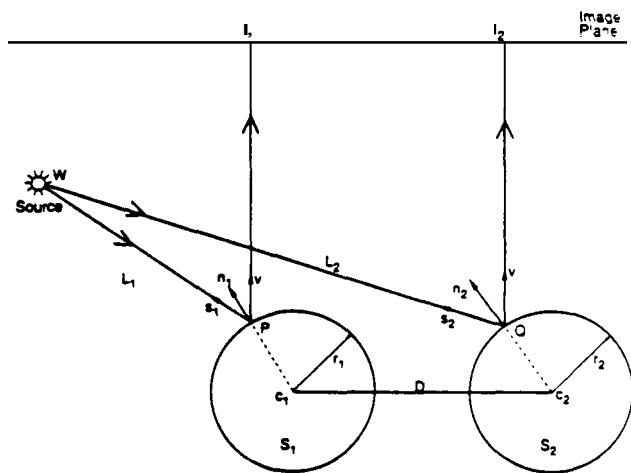


Figure 2: Sphereo: determining the position of a point using two specular spheres.

### 2.2 Finding the Spheres

Depth measurement using sphereo is based on the knowledge of the radii and positions of the specular spheres. We will assume that the radii of the spheres are known. The position of the spheres with respect to each other and the camera may be determined by a simple calibration procedure. Figure (3) shows the spheres  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  placed on the  $x-y$  plane of the world frame. The  $z$  coordinate of the center of each sphere is equal to its radius  $r$ . However, the  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates of the center need to be determined. Four point sources  $PS_1, PS_2, PS_3,$  and  $PS_4$  are symmetrically positioned about the optical axis  $O-O'$  of the camera. The point sources are coplanar and each source is at a distance  $q$  from the optical axis. Consider either of the two spheres  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . The distance  $d$  of the sphere center from the optical axis is small compared to the height  $h$  of the four sources from the  $x-y$  plane and the distance  $q$  of each source from the optical axis. Each point source produces a highlight in the image of the sphere. Let  $(X_i, Y_i)$  be the center of mass of the highlight

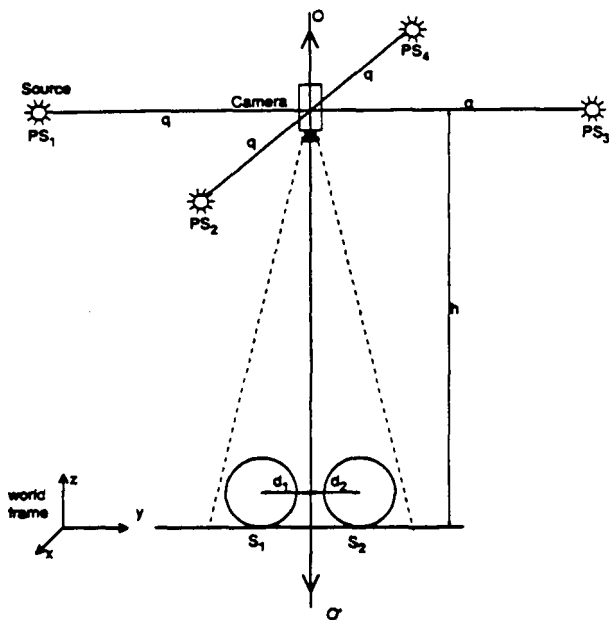


Figure 3: Calibration: point sources  $PS_1, PS_2, PS_3,$  and  $PS_4$  are used to find the spheres  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  in the camera image.

corresponding to point source  $PS_i$ . The centroid  $O(X_c, Y_c)$  of the four highlights may be determined as:

$$X_c = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^4 X_i, \tag{1}$$

$$Y_c = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^4 Y_i.$$

Under the distant source assumption, the image point  $O(X_c, Y_c)$  is the projection of the center of the sphere onto the image. In practice, it is not necessary to use exactly four sources for the calibration. Any number of sources may be used as long as they are coplanar and their centroid lies on the optical axis.

The next step is to find the world coordinates  $C(x_c, y_c, z_c)$  of the sphere center from its image coordinates  $O(X_c, Y_c)$ . Transformations between the world and the image are determined by the intrinsic and extrinsic parameters of the camera. During the process of image formation, a point  $P(x, y, z)$  in the world is projected onto the point  $I(X, Y)$  in the image. The camera parameters may be used to determine  $I(X, Y)$  from  $P(x, y, z)$ . However, it is not possible to recover a world point from an image point. For each image point  $I(X, Y)$ , the camera parameters can only determine the equation of a line in the world on which the point  $P(x, y, z)$  lies. Therefore, the center of the sphere lies on the line:

$$\begin{aligned} x_c &= a z_c + b, \\ y_c &= c z_c + d, \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

where the transformation parameters  $a, b, c,$  and  $d$  are determined by the camera parameters and the image coordinates  $X_c$  and  $Y_c$ . Since the sphere is placed on the  $x-y$  plane,  $z_c = r$ . Hence, the world coordinates  $(x_c, y_c, z_c)$  of the center are uniquely determined from equation (2). The radius of a sphere is measured in pixels in the image and inches in the world frame. The spheres  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  have radii  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  in the image and  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  in the world. The centers of the spheres will be referred to as  $O_1(X_{c1}, Y_{c1})$  and  $O_2(X_{c2}, Y_{c2})$  in the image, and  $C_1(x_{c1}, y_{c1}, z_{c1})$  and  $C_2(x_{c2}, y_{c2}, z_{c2})$  in the world.

The simplicity of the calibration procedure described in this section makes it feasible for it to be performed on-line. If the calibration light sources are always active, each camera image obtained describes the positions of the spheres and the scene at the same instant in time.

### 2.3 Correspondence

Prior to computing the depth of scene points, the sphere system is required to solve the well-known correspondence problem: the task of determining which point in the image of one sphere corresponds to a particular point in the image of the other sphere. Features, such as edges, are extracted from the two circular sections in the image that correspond to the projections of the spheres  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . A feature value at the image point  $A(X, Y)$  may be expressed as  $F(A(X, Y))$ . If the image points  $I_1(X_1, Y_1)$  and  $I_2(X_2, Y_2)$  constitute a pair of corresponding points, they must lie on different spheres and have matching feature values:

$$F(I_1(X_1, Y_1)) = F(I_2(X_2, Y_2)), \tag{3}$$

where:

$$|I_1 - O_1| < R_1,$$

$$|I_2 - O_2| < R_2.$$

### 2.4 Triangulation

Depth values are recovered from pair of corresponding image points by triangulation. Consider the image points  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  in Figure (2). Since both points are reflections of the same point in the scene, they satisfy the constraints given in equation (3) and thus constitute a pair of corresponding points. The point  $I_1(X_1, Y_1)$  is the projection of the point  $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ . We know that  $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  lies on the line:

$$x_1 = a z_1 + b, \tag{4}$$

$$y_1 = c z_1 + d,$$

where  $a, b, c,$  and  $d$  are determined by the camera parameters and the image coordinates  $X_1$  and  $Y_1$ . The point  $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  also lies on the surface of sphere  $S_1$ . Therefore,

$$(x_1 - x_{c1})^2 + (y_1 - y_{c1})^2 + (z_1 - z_{c1})^2 = r_1^2. \tag{5}$$

Equation (4) may be used to eliminate  $x_1$  and  $y_1$  in equation (5).

This results in a quadratic equation in  $z_1$ . As shown in Figure (3), the camera is positioned in the positive  $z$  direction and thus the point  $P$  lies on the upper hemisphere of  $S_1$ . Therefore,  $z_1$  is the higher of the two roots of the quadratic equation. The  $x_1$  and  $y_1$  coordinates of  $P$  are then computed by using equation (4). At point  $P$ , the unit vector  $v_1$  in the viewing direction is determined from equation (4) as:

$$v_1 = \frac{V_1}{|V_1|}, \quad (6)$$

where:

$$V_1 = (a, b, 1).$$

The unit surface normal vector  $n_1$  at the point  $P$  on the sphere  $S_1$  is computed as:

$$n_1 = \frac{P - c_1}{r_1}. \quad (7)$$

In order to find the location of the point  $W$  in Figure (2), we need to determine the direction of  $W$  as seen from point  $P$ . Let the unit vector in this direction be  $s_1$ . For specular reflections on the surface of the sphere, the angle of reflection equals the angle of incidence. This specular constraint may be used to relate the three vectors  $s_1$ ,  $n_1$ , and  $v_1$ :

$$[n_1 \cdot v_1] n_1 = \frac{v_1 + s_1}{2}. \quad (8)$$

The source direction  $s_1$  is determined by rewriting equation (8) in the form:

$$s_1 = 2[n_1 \cdot v_1] n_1 - v_1. \quad (9)$$

On the same lines, source direction  $s_2$  is computed from the image point  $l_2$ . A line is projected from  $l_2$  to intersect sphere  $S_2$  at the point  $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ . The source direction  $s_2$  is computed by using the specular constraint. The line  $L_1$  in Figure (2) passes through point  $P$  in the direction  $s_1$ . The line  $L_2$  passes through point  $Q$  in the direction  $s_2$ . The point  $W$  is found at the intersection of lines  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ .

The accuracy of a stereo system is related to the resolution of measured depth. As in the case of stereo, depth resolution is related to pixel resolution in the camera image. Figure (4) illustrates triangulation uncertainty in the two dimensions of the image plane. The pixels  $A$  and  $B$  are projections of the same scene point  $W$  and thus constitute a pair of matching image points. Uncertainty in the location of the point  $W$  is represented by the shaded region. Therefore, errors in triangulation result from image quantization; due to finite resolution in the image, the location of the point  $W$  can lie anywhere in the shaded region around the actual location. The area of the uncertainty region tends to increase with the distance of point  $W$  from the two spheres. The line joining the centers of the two spheres is called the sphere baseline. The area and shape of the uncertainty region are also dependent on the baseline magnitude  $D$  and the baseline orientation  $\theta$ . In three dimensions the uncertainty region is a volume bounded by a polyhedron.

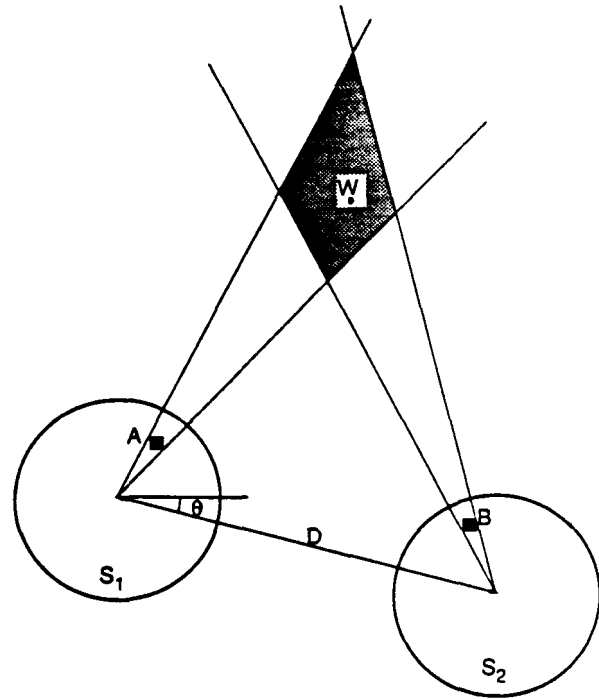


Figure 4: Sphere triangulation uncertainty in two dimensions. Due to image quantization, the location of the point  $W$  can lie anywhere in the shaded region.

Factors such as finite pixel resolution and image noise, cause inaccuracies in the positions of extracted features. Consequently, triangulation in three dimensions may not result in the intersection of the projection lines  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  shown in Figure (2). The two lines may only pass each other in close proximity without actually intersecting. Rather than attempting to intersect the lines  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ , a more practical approach is to determine the common normal  $L_3$  between the lines  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ , as shown in Figure (5). The unit vector  $s_3$  in the direction of  $L_3$  is computed as:

$$s_3 = \frac{S_3}{|S_3|}, \quad (10)$$

where:

$$S_3 = s_1 \times s_2.$$

The line  $L_3$  intersects lines  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  at the points  $U(x, y, z)$  and  $V(x, y, z)$ , respectively. Let  $k$ ,  $l$ , and  $m$  be the distances between the points  $U$  and  $P$ ,  $V$  and  $Q$ , and  $U$  and  $V$ , respectively. We can express the coordinates of points  $U$  and  $V$  as:

$$U = P + ks_1, \quad (11)$$

$$V = Q + ls_2,$$

$$V = U + ms_3.$$

The parameters  $k$ ,  $l$ , and  $m$  can be determined by eliminating  $U$  and  $V$  in the above set of equations:

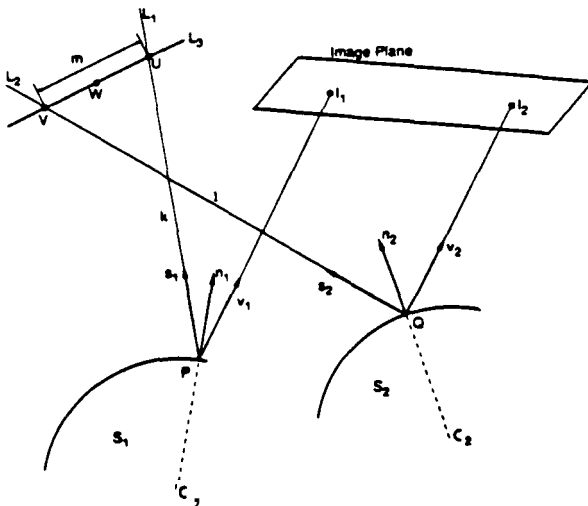


Figure 5: Triangulation in three dimensions. The mid-point W of the common normal  $L_3$  is considered to be the best estimate of the point of intersection of lines  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ .

$$ks_1 - ls_2 - ms_3 = Q - P. \tag{12}$$

Depth is computed only at points that have a high measure of triangulation. The triangulation measure is formulated as a function of the length  $m$  of the common normal and the distances  $k$  and  $l$  of the common normal from the spheres  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , respectively. In the current sphereo implementation, a successful match or intersection is found between corresponding image points when:

$$\frac{k+l}{2m} > T, \tag{13}$$

where  $T$  is an empirically determined threshold level. For a successful match, the point of intersection  $W$  is defined as the mid-point of the common normal:

$$W = \frac{U+V}{2}. \tag{14}$$

### 2.5 Search Space

Though corresponding points have matching feature values, triangulation of all pair of matching image points is unnecessary. As in stereo, the imaging geometry may be used to impose physical constraints on the positions of corresponding points in the image. These constraints considerably reduce the search space for corresponding points. Consider a camera image of the two spheres, as shown in Figure (6). The projection of each sphere is a circular section in the image. Each point inside the circular section is the projection of a point on the sphere's surface. We shall denote the image sections corresponding to the spheres  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  by  $CS_1$  and  $CS_2$ , respectively. If constraints are not used while finding corresponding points, the features

computed at each point in  $CS_1$  have to be compared with features at all points in  $CS_2$ . Therefore, the search space for the point in  $CS_2$  that corresponds to a point in  $CS_1$  is the entire two-dimensional section  $CS_2$ .

Consider the sphereo imaging geometry shown in Figure (2). The image point  $I$ , is the projection of the point  $W$  by sphere  $S_1$ . Given the point  $I$ , we know from the camera model and the specular constraint that  $W$  must lie on the line  $L_1$ . Therefore, the point  $I_2$  that corresponds to  $I$ , must lie on the image projection of the line  $L_1$  by the sphere  $S_2$ . This is the epipolar constraint. The image projection of line  $L_1$  by sphere  $S_2$  is called the epipolar curve. As shown in Figure (6), the search space for the point  $I_2$  that corresponds to the point  $I_1$ , is reduced from the two-dimensional section  $CS_2$  to a one-dimensional epipolar curve  $AB$ . If a feature match is determined between a point in  $CS_1$  and a point on its epipolar curve in  $CS_2$ , then a high measure of triangulation is ensured.

Epipolar curves for each point in the section  $CS_1$  can be pre-computed and stored in memory. Consider, for example, the epipolar curve corresponding to the image point  $I_1$  in  $CS_1$ . As in the case of triangulation, the line  $L_1$  is determined from  $I_1$ . A point  $U$  on  $L_1$  may be expressed as:

$$U(k) = P + ks, \tag{15}$$

where  $k$  is the distance of  $U$  from  $P$ . The point  $Q(k)$  on sphere  $S_2$  that reflects  $U(k)$  into the camera is determined by using the specular constraint and by assuming an onhographic camera projection. The point  $Q(k)$  is then projected to the point  $I_2(k)$  in the image plane, by using the camera parameters. The epipolar curve for  $I_1$  is thus determined by computing  $I_2(k)$  for all  $k$  in the interval  $0 < k < k_{max}$ , where  $k_{max}$  is greatest distance of a measured point from sphere  $S_1$ . The image coordinates of points on the epipolar curves are stored in memory. Matches for a point in  $CS_1$  are obtained by comparing its feature value with those on its epipolar curve in  $CS_2$ .

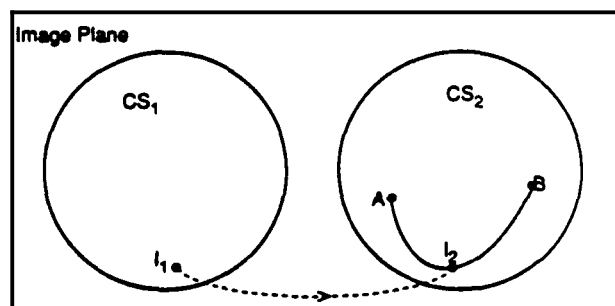


Figure 6 The epipolar constraint. The point  $I_2$  in  $CS_2$  that corresponds to the point  $I_1$  in  $CS_1$  lies on the epipolar curve  $AB$ .

## 26 Field of View

The field of view of a typical stereo system is shown in Figure (7). Depth can be measured only at those points that can be seen in both the camera images. Therefore, the field of view of a stereo system is the intersection of the fields of view of the two cameras. A large field of view can be obtained by minimizing the baseline  $D$  and keeping the viewing directions of the two cameras almost equal. Such an arrangement, however, results in lower depth resolution. A high depth resolution is obtained by making the viewing directions of the two cameras orthogonal to each other. However, this configuration drastically reduces the field of view of the stereo system.

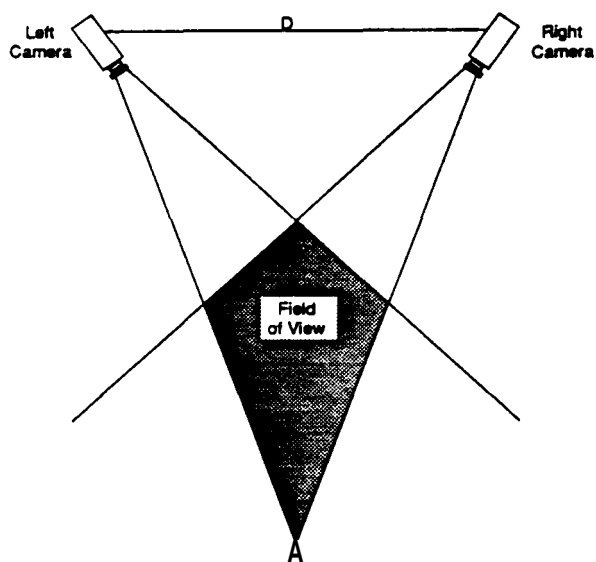


Figure 7: Field of view of a stereo system.

The field of view of a sphero system is a great improvement over that of stereo systems. This is primarily due to the use of specular spheres for stereo imaging. The surface of a specular sphere may be thought of as being constructed by an infinite number of small planar mirrors. Since no two points on a sphere have the same surface normal, each planar mirror faces in a unique direction. Also, the complete set of mirrors span the surface normal space. Consider a specular sphere placed in the view of a camera. Under the assumption of orthographic image projection, the viewing direction is constant over the entire field of view of the camera. Any non-occluded point in space would be reflected in the direction of the camera by a single point on the surface of the sphm. Therefore, the field of view of a sphmo system consists of all points that can be reflxed onto the image plane by both spheres. Both spheres are placed in the focal plane of the camera and therefore the image projection of points in the scene is not affected by a limited depth of field of the camera. On the other hand, in stereo, objects must be placed close to the focal planes of both cameras to avoid the blurring of image features.

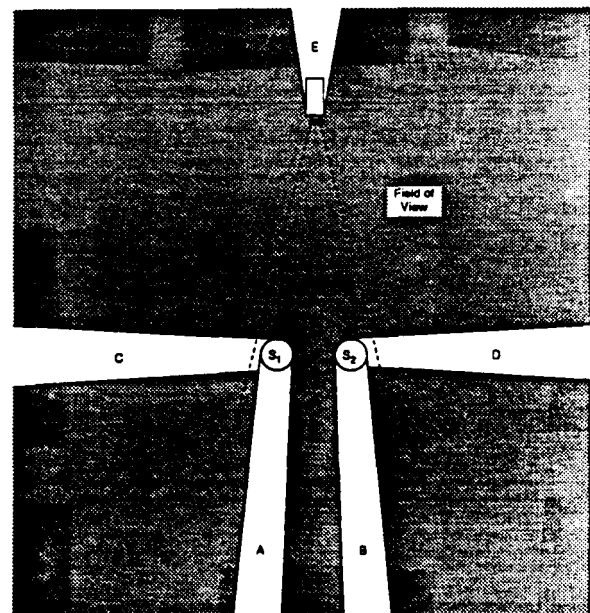


Figure 8: Field of view of the sphero system.

In Figure (8), the shaded region denotes the sphero field of view. The measurable range is not confined to the field of view of the camera. Points in regions A and B are not reflected into the camera by spheres  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , respectively. Points in region C are occluded by  $S_1$  and thus are not reflected into the camera by  $S_2$ . Similarly, points in region D are occluded by  $S_2$  and are not reflected into the camera by  $S_1$ . Region E consists of points that are not visible to either sphere  $S_1$  or  $S_2$ .

## 3. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Experiments were conducted to demonstrate the practical feasibility of the sphmo concept. Figure (9) shows a photograph of the apparatus used for the current implementation. Two steel ball bearings, each 1 3/8 inches in diameter, are used as specular spheres. The surface of each sphere is highly specular in reflection. A CCD Panasonic camera with a 510 x 492 pixel resolution is used to observe the two spheres. The physical resolution of the camera and the optical system is 0.011 inches per image pixel. Four 1/4 Watt, 5 Volt bulbs are mounted on the camera lens and are used by the calibration procedure to find the location of the two spheres in the image. Individual images are digitized and processed using a vision system based on a SUN work-station.

The sphero concept was described by assuming an orthographic camera projection model. More accurate results are obtained by determining the extrinsic and intrinsic parameters of the camera. The current implementation of sphero uses the single-camera calibration technique developed by Tsai[7]. Tsai's calibration algorithm is structured to determine the value of each parameter rather than just a transformation from image to scene and vice-versa. The parameters are computed in well-defined stages, thus making it easy to code during software

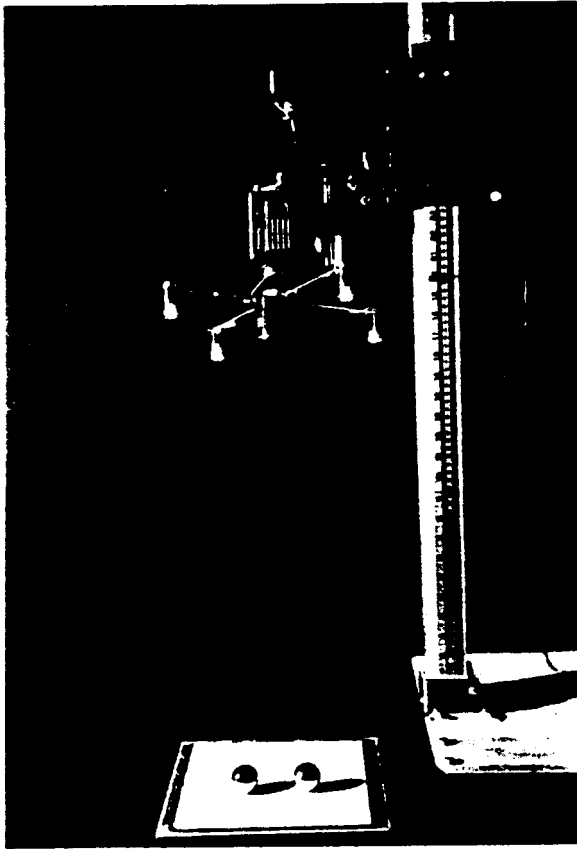


Figure 9: Photo of a prototype sphereo set-up. Four calibration lights are mounted on the camera lens and two specular steel balls are placed in the camera's view.

implementation. The computed parameters produced excellent results for transformations between the image plane and the world frame.

The strength of a sphereo system lies in its ability to determine the location of the two specular spheres by using a simple calibration. The four light bulbs mounted on the camera lens produce four highlights or bright points on the surface of each sphere. Under the distant source assumption, the configuration, or relative positions, of the four highlights in the image of each sphere is the same as the configuration of the four light bulbs in the plane in which they lie. Also, the highlight configuration on each sphere is independent of the position of the sphere in the image. Once the four lights are rigidly fixed on the camera lens, the configuration of the four highlights is known. By using a template of four bright points in the expected configuration, we can determine the positions of the two sets of four highlights in the image. As explained in section 2, the centroid of each set of four highlights determines the centers of the spheres in the image.

Figure (10) shows an image of the two spheres resulting from the four-point illumination used for calibration. The centroids of the two sets of highlights were computed and the circles drawn around the centroids represent the boundaries of spheres. The centroids for the spheres were projected into the world by using

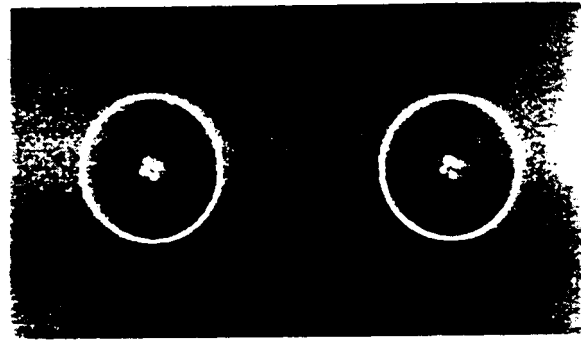


Figure 10: Photo of a camera image of the two spheres illuminated by the four calibration point sources. The centers of the spheres in the image are determined and circles are drawn around the centers to show the boundaries of the spheres in the image.

the camera parameters, and the locations of the centers of the two spheres were determined by the system to be within a distance of 0.01 inches from their actual positions.

The triangulation accuracy of the sphereo system was estimated using point sources. Low powered miniature lamps were placed at known locations in the world frame and the system was used to measure the coordinates of the lamps in three dimensions. Each lamp produces a single highlight in the image of each sphere. An image of the spheres is digitized by a frame-grabber and binarized by using a threshold. The highlights appear as bright blobs in the binary image, and the center-of-gravity (COG) of each blob is computed. The use of point sources greatly simplifies the correspondence problem as highlights are the only features that need to be extracted from the image. Corresponding pairs of highlight COGs that satisfy the epipolar constraint are triangulated to obtain position estimates in three dimensions. Figure(11) shows an incandescent light bulb used to generate a highlight on each of the two spheres. The pre-computed epipolar curve corresponding to the highlight COG on the left sphere is plotted on the right sphere. The epipolar curve is a reflection of the line that passes through the

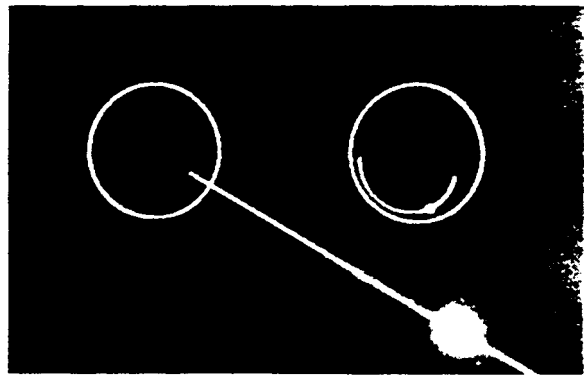


Figure 11: Highlights on the two spheres resulting from an incandescent lamp. The epipolar curve for the highlight point on the left sphere is plotted on the right sphere. As expected, the highlight on the right sphere lies on the epipolar curve.

highlight point on the left sphere and the location of the light bulb. An image projection of this line is displayed in Figure (11). As expected, the highlight on the right sphere lies on the epipolar curve corresponding to the highlight on the left sphere. Therefore, sphere triangulation of the two highlights would result in an intersection at the location of the lamp.

The reliability of the matching process was tested by using a light display. The light display was constructed by mounting six light emitting diodes (LED) on a circuit board. Figure (12) shows the highlights on the two spheres resulting from the light display. The LEDs of the light display lie outside the camera's field of view and thus are not visible in the image shown in Figure (12). The circles represent the pre-determined boundaries of the two spheres. The COGs of the highlights resulting from the light display were determined and pairs of highlight COGs were triangulated. World coordinates were computed for COG pairs that produced high measures of triangulation. The triangulation results for the image in Figure (12) are shown in Figure (13). The actual LED locations and the measured positions are both shown to illustrate the accuracy of the current implementation. The camera and the two specular spheres are also shown to give an idea of the relative positions and sizes of the spheres, the light display, and the camera. In Figure (13), the x, y, and z world coordinates of the LEDs determined by the system were found to be within 3.5% of the actual coordinates.

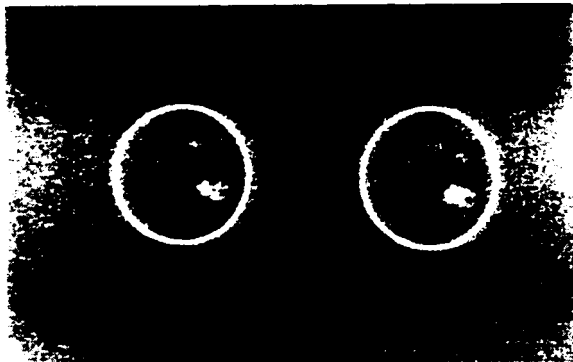


Figure 12: Sphero image of a light display made of six LEDs.

The non-linear nature of the depth resolution grid, shown in Figure (4), makes it difficult to specify the accuracy of the sphero system. An important measure of performance is the sensitivity of the system to the distance of the measured point from the two spheres. Triangulation errors were computed for point source locations along a straight line starting from the origin of the world frame and moving in a particular direction. Figure (14) shows the percentage errors recorded for source locations on the x-axis of the world frame, and for the sphere locations shown in Figure (13). By measurement error we refer to the Euclidean distance of the measured position from the actual position. As expected, the triangulation errors increase with the distance of the measured point from the spheres. The measured locations were found to be within 4% of the actual location, for points that are less than 3 feet from the world frame origin.

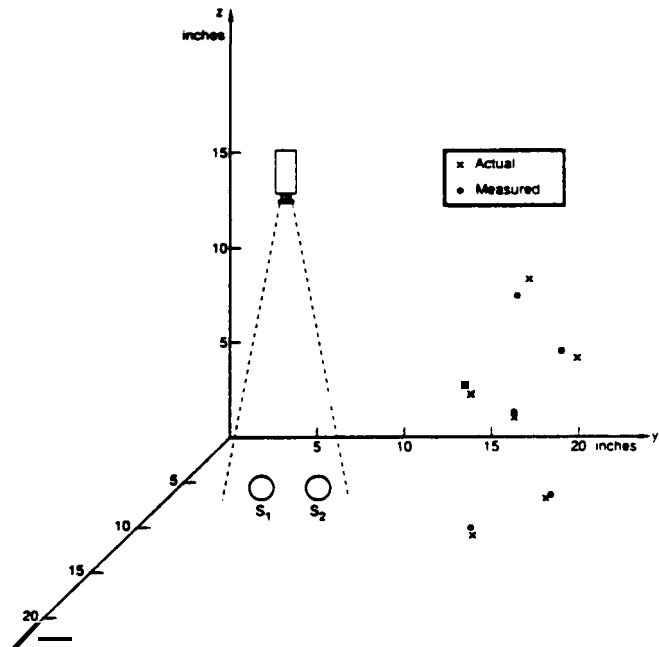


Figure 13: Positions of the sources on the light display were computed from the sphero image shown in Figure (12). The measured and actual locations of the sources are plotted in the world coordinate frame.

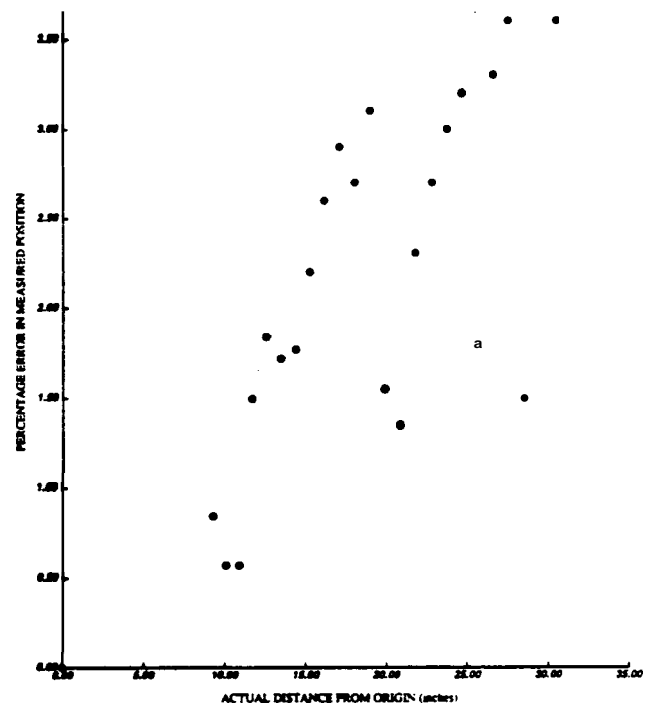


Figure 14: Percentage error in measured position of a scene point is plotted as a function of the actual distance of the scene point from the origin of the world reference frame.



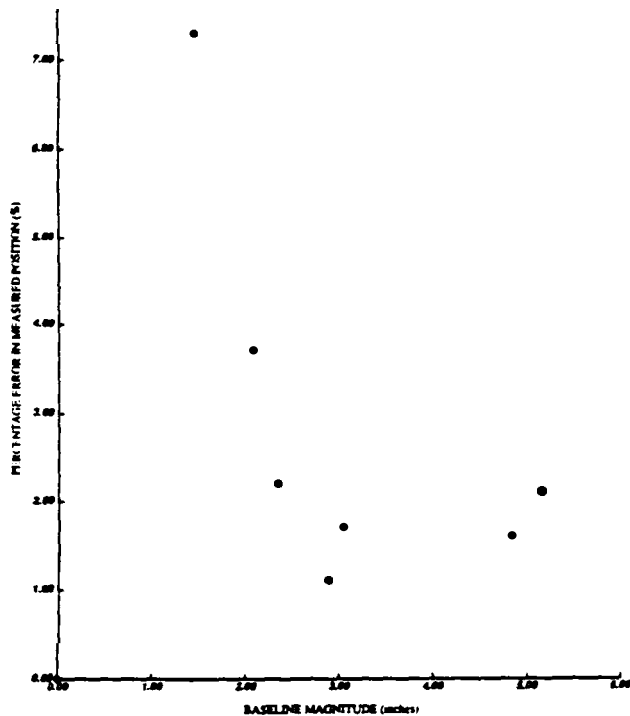


Figure 15: Percentage error in measured position of a scene point is plotted as a function of the magnitude  $D$  of the spherical baseline.

The accuracy of a spherical system is also dependent on the spherical baseline  $D$  and its orientation  $\theta$  shown in Figure (4). As the two spheres are brought closer to each other, the baseline decreases and the reflections of the world on the two spheres become less distinguishable. The view lines  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  in Figure (5) become almost parallel to each other and the measurements are prone to greater errors. This effect is seen in Figure (15) where the triangulation errors are plotted as a function of the baseline magnitude for a constant point source position of  $x = 10.6$  inches,  $y = 123$  inches, and  $z = 4.3$  inches. For the same source location and baseline  $D = 2.34$  inches, the measurement errors are also plotted for different baseline orientation values, as shown in Figure (16). As the baseline orientation is varied from 0 degrees to 180 degrees, the measurement error varies like a sine function between 0.8% and 1.4%.

The experimental apparatus was set up using commercially available and inexpensive hardware to demonstrate the ease of implementation of spherical systems. From the experiments, it was realized that a few changes in the current system would yield considerable improvement in measurement accuracy. Cameras with higher image pixel resolution, than the one used for the experiments, are now commercially available. A higher pixel resolution would improve the sensitivity of a spherical system. Spheres with greater surface specularity and lesser shape imperfections than ball bearings would produce more reliable results. As explained earlier on, point sources were used to simplify the correspondence problem. However, the use of miniature lamps as point sources comes with the cost of imperfect highlights in the image. The shape of a highlight is

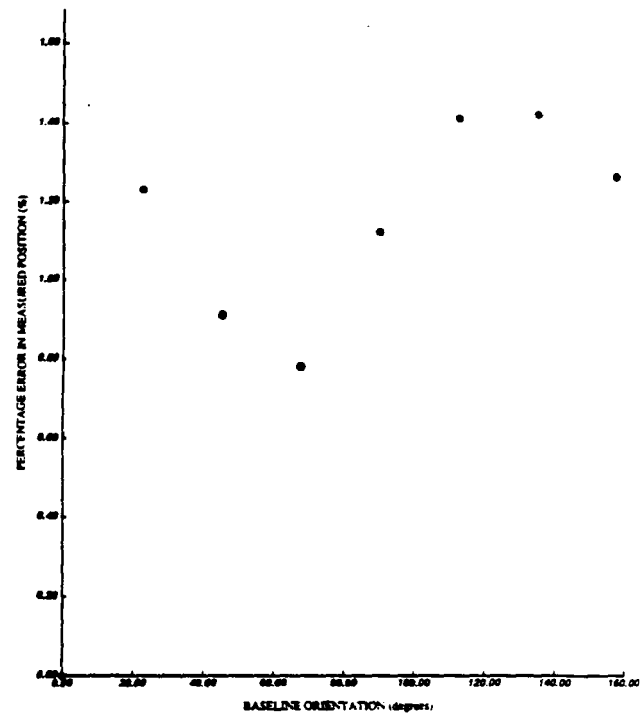


Figure 16: Percentage error in measured position of a scene point is plotted as a function of the orientation  $\theta$  of the spherical baseline.

dependent on the shape of the filament of the lamp that caused the highlight, the pixel resolution in the image, and noise levels in the camera output. The size of a highlight is related to the filament size and the sharpness of surface specularity of the spheres. In the experiments discussed above, no attention was given to the shape of highlights, and each highlight was simply represented by its center-of-gravity. More consistent highlight shapes may be obtained by using miniature arc lamps rather than incandescent lamps.

#### 4 CONCLUSIONS

Sphereo has been presented as a new approach to stereo imaging. A prototype spherical system was implemented and used to measure the position of point sources located in its field of view. The main advantages of spherical systems, over conventional stereopsis, are the simplicity of the calibration procedure and the considerable improvement in field of view. The current implementation uses two spheres to obtain different perspectives of the world. Better estimates of depth may be obtained by placing more than two spheres in the camera's field of view. The results obtained from the experiments conducted with point sources are promising and provide motivation to apply the spherical method to complex scenes.

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