

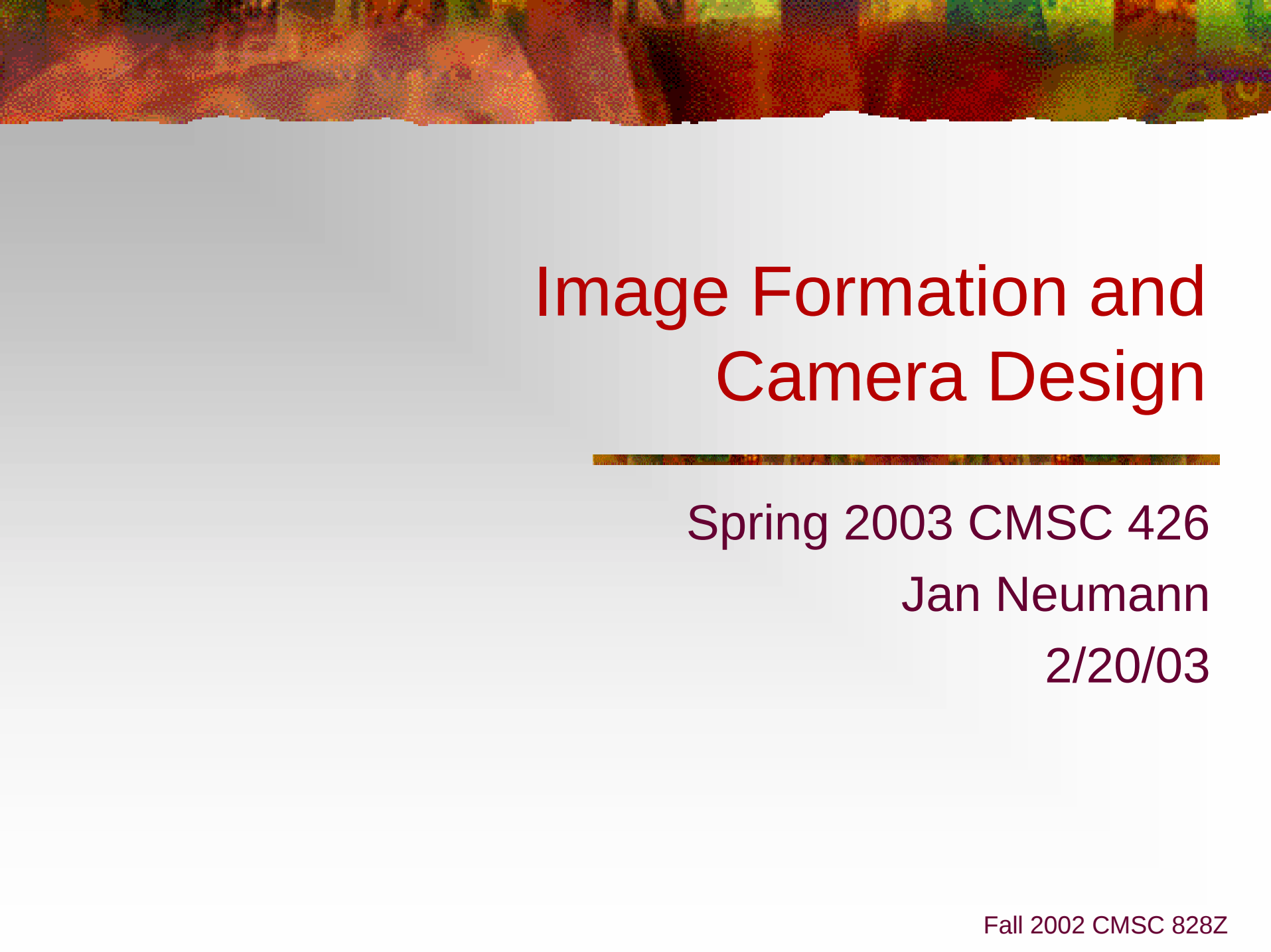


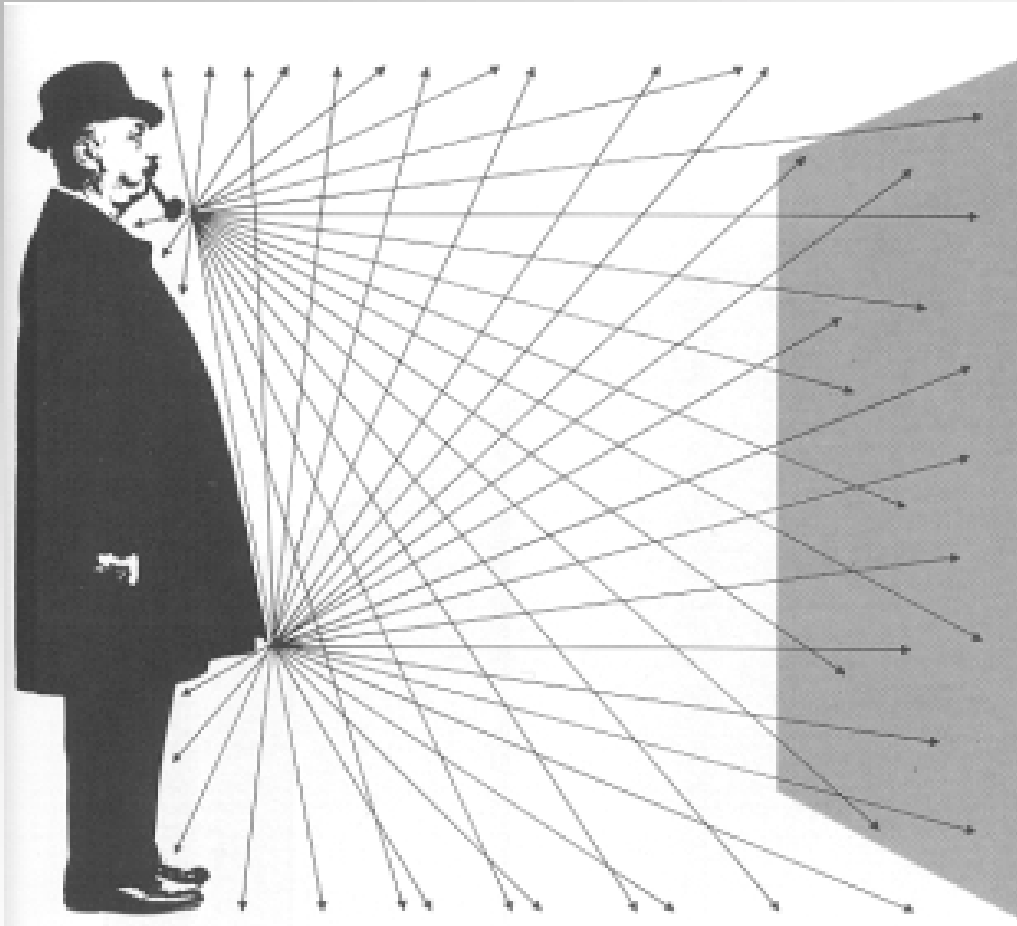
Image Formation and Camera Design

Spring 2003 CMSC 426

Jan Neumann

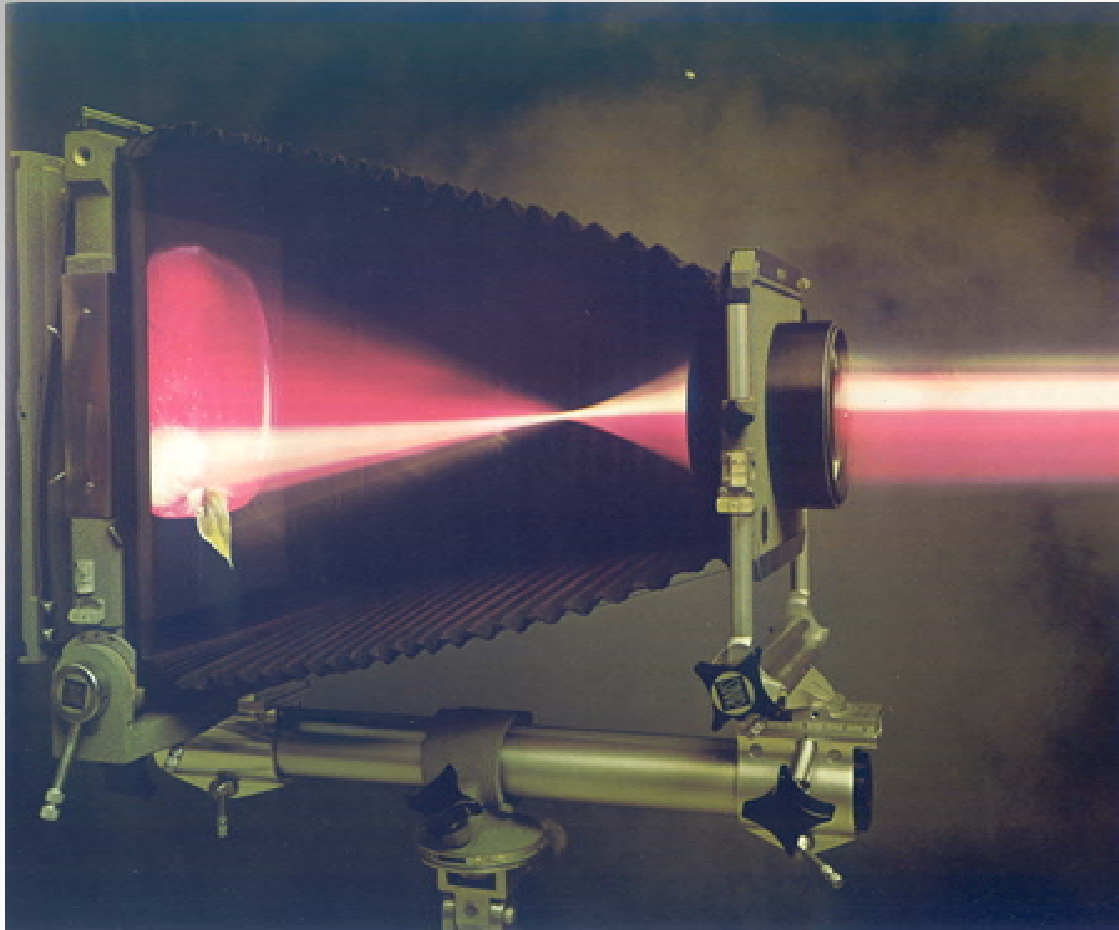
2/20/03

Light is all around us!



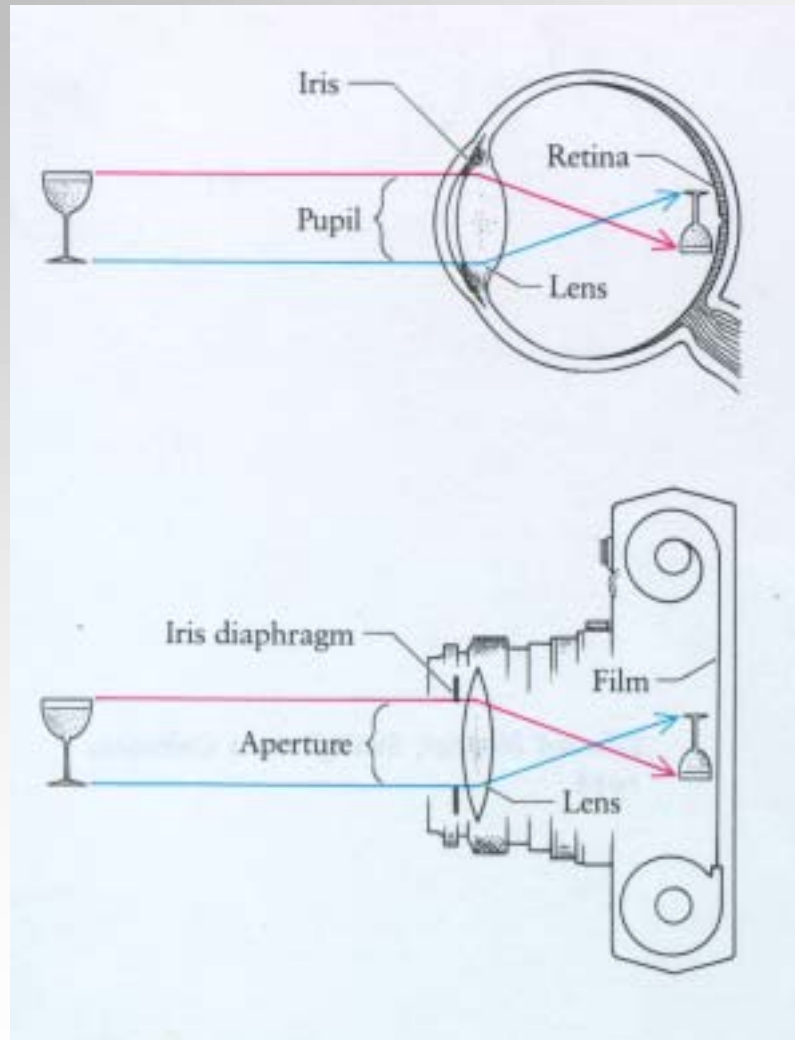
From London & Upton, “Photography”

Conventional camera design ...



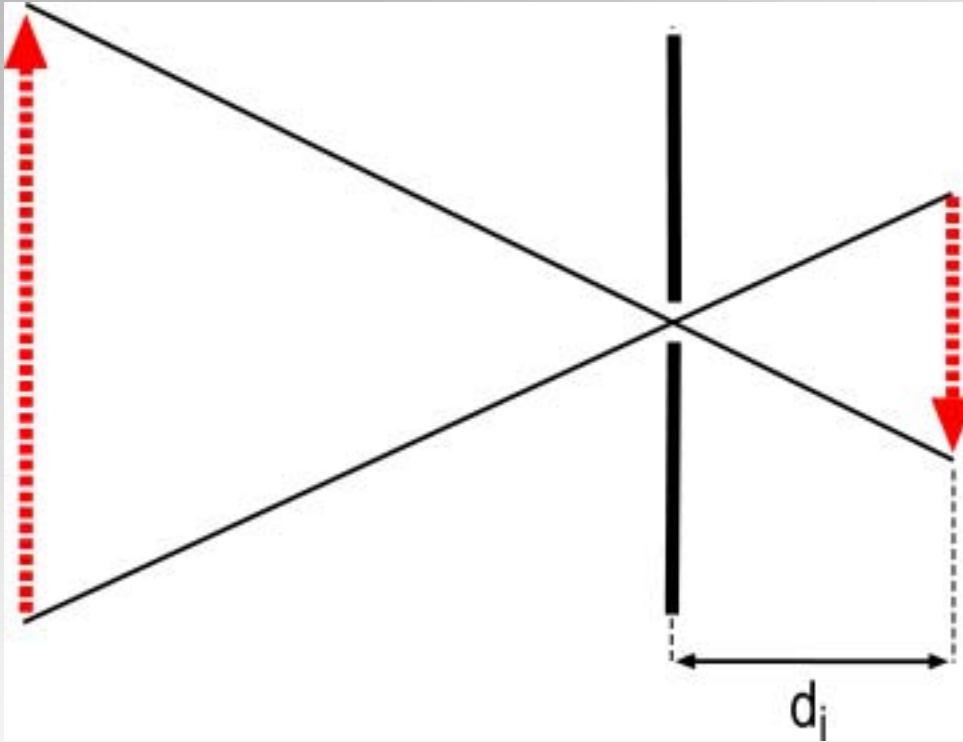
Ken Kay, 1969 in "Light & Film", TimeLife Publ.

... is copying from human eyes!



From I.Rock,
“Perception”

Model: Pinhole Camera



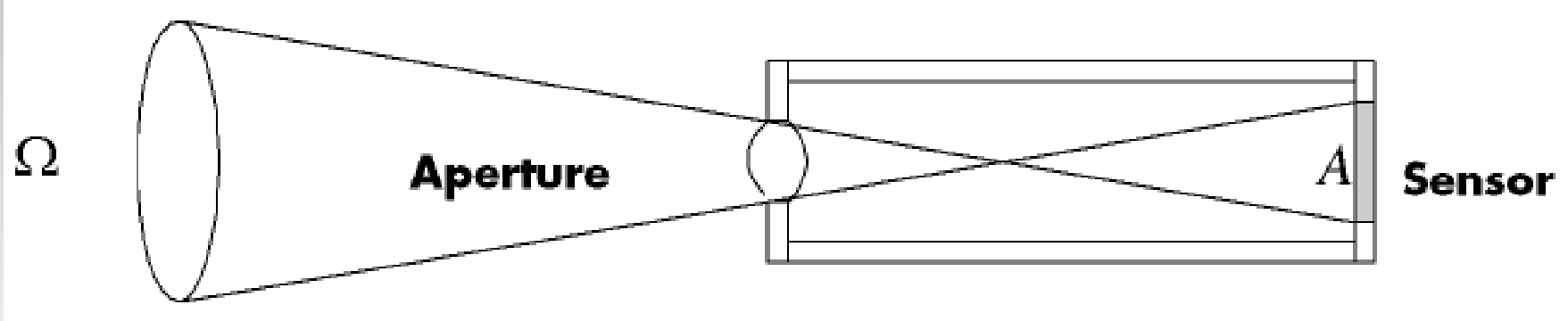
- Infinitely small aperture
- infinite field of depth
- Image is dim
- Projection Equation:

$$\mathbf{p} = \frac{d_i \mathbf{P}}{\hat{\mathbf{z}} \cdot \mathbf{P}}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{d_i} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Sensor Response

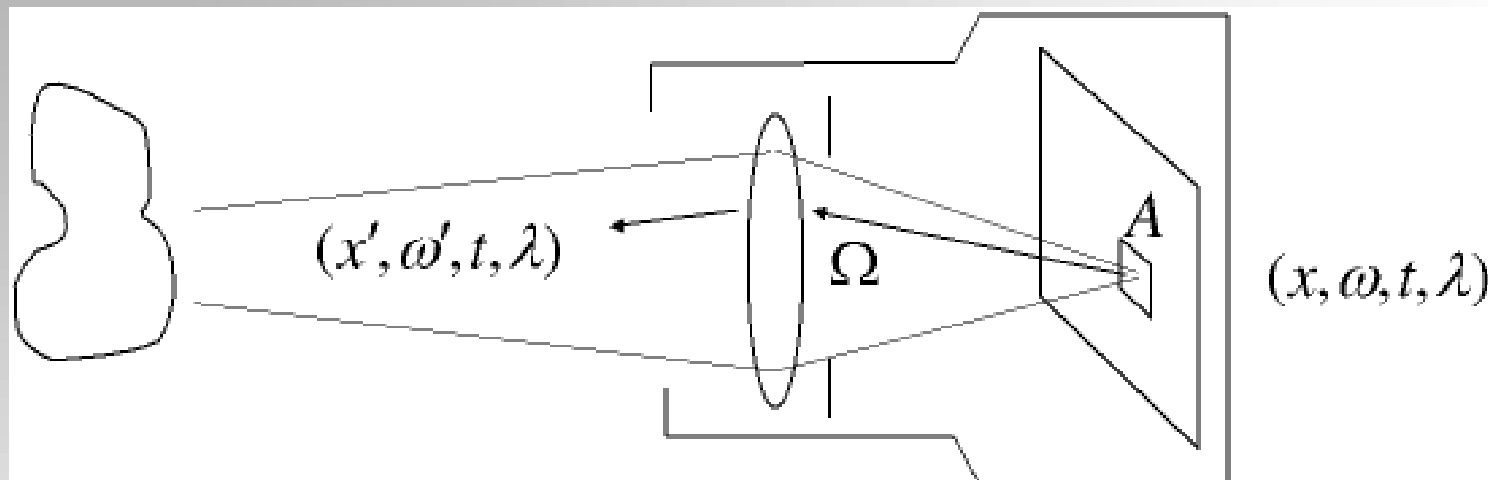
- The response of a sensor is proportional to the radiance visible to the sensor.



$$R = \int_{\Omega} \int_A L d\omega dA = \hat{L}T$$

$$T = \int_{\Omega} \int_A d\omega dA$$

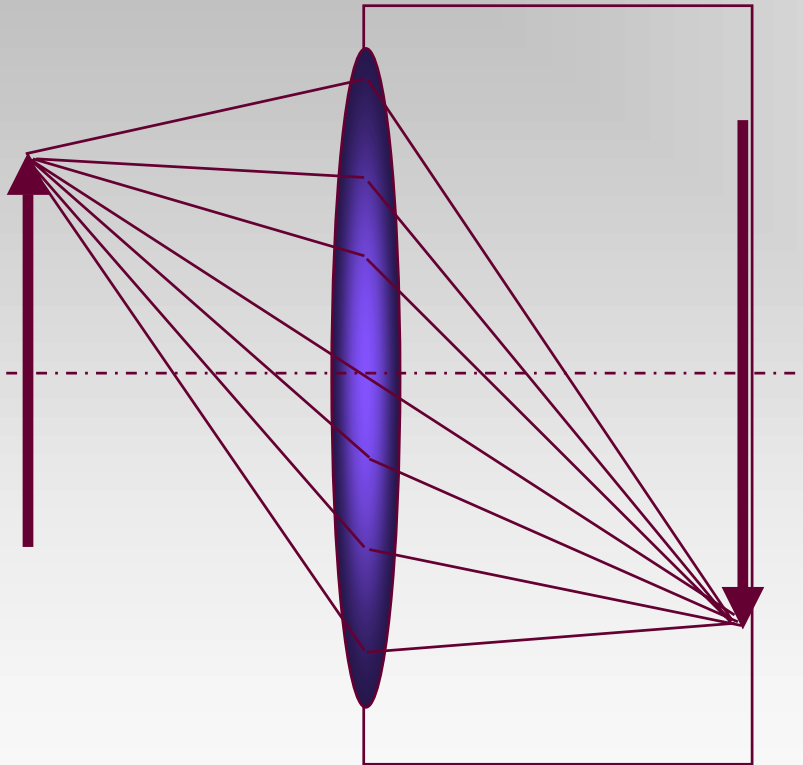
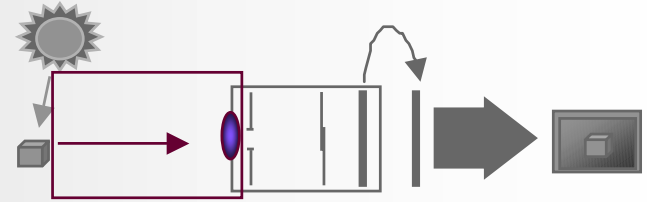
Measurement Equation



$$I(\mathbf{x}) = \int_A \int_{\Omega} \int_{T_s} \int_{\Lambda} L(T(\mathbf{x}, \omega, \lambda), t, \lambda) P(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) S(\mathbf{x}, \omega, t) dA d\omega dt d\lambda$$

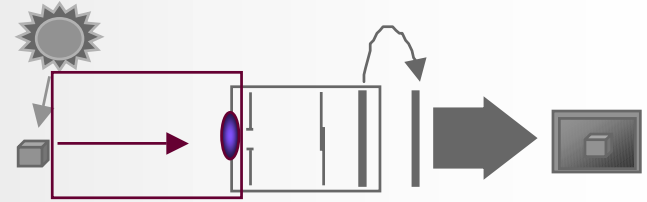
- Scene Radiance $L(\mathbf{x}, \omega, t, \lambda)$
- Optics $(\mathbf{x}^0, \omega^0) = T(\mathbf{x}, \omega, \lambda)$
- Pixel Response $P(\mathbf{x}, \lambda)$
- Shutter $S(\mathbf{x}, \omega, t)$

Collection

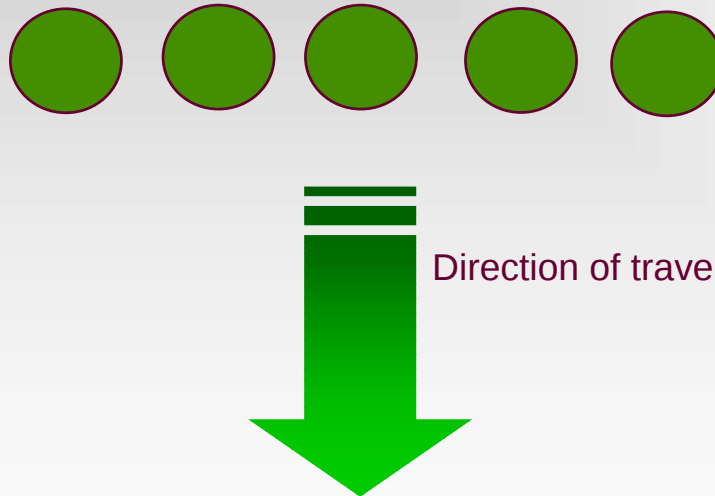


- For a camera to be efficient, the pinhole is replaced by a lens.
- The lens *redirects* light rays emanating from the object.

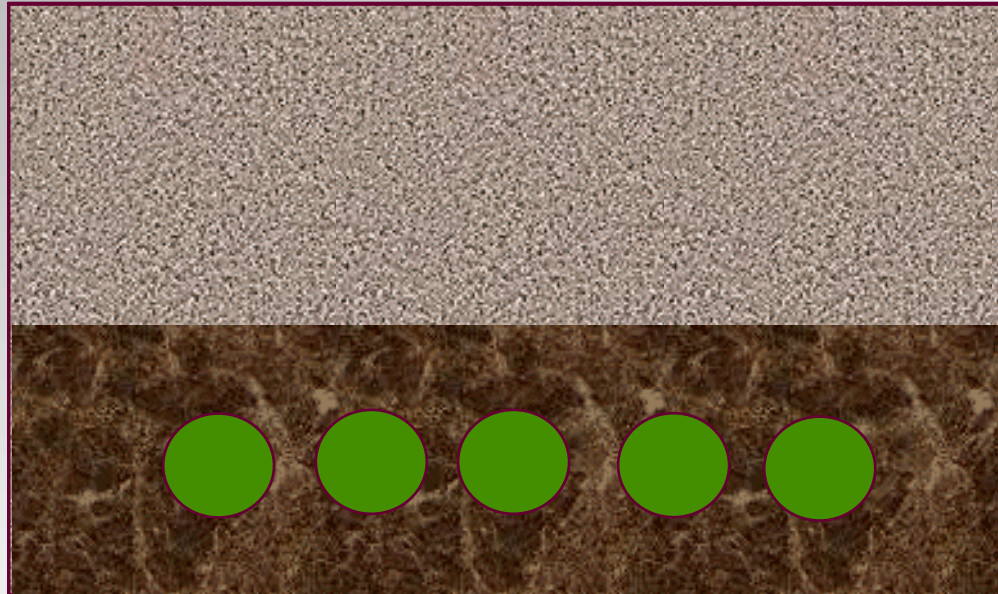
Refraction



- Light slows down in materials.
- Imagine a line of marching Girl Scouts . . .



“Girl Scouts in the Mud”



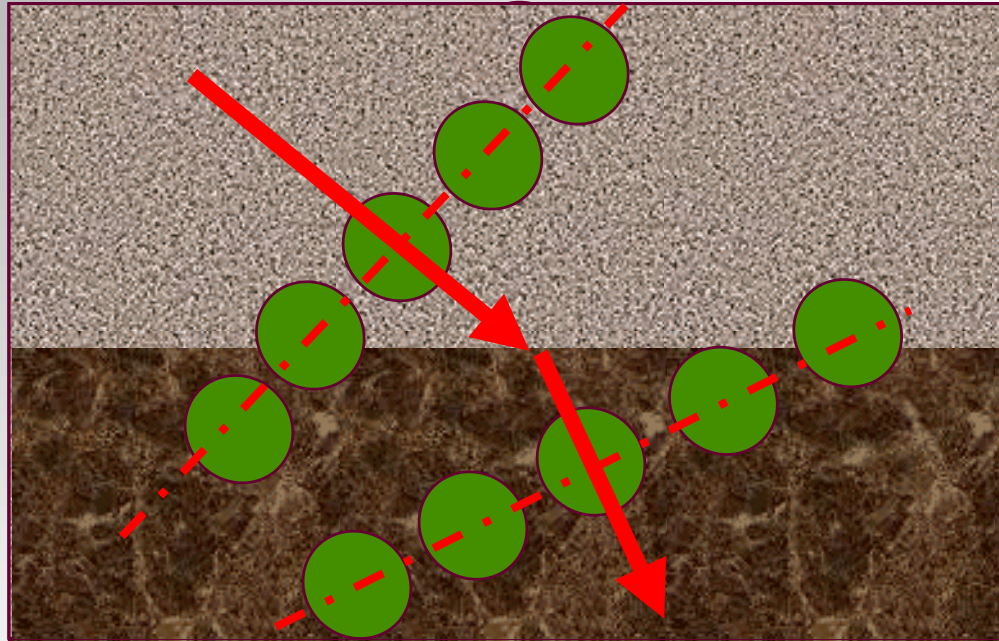
Mud

- As the marching line steps into the mud, they will slow down, depending on how thick the mud is.

Wavefronts at Normal Angle of Incidence

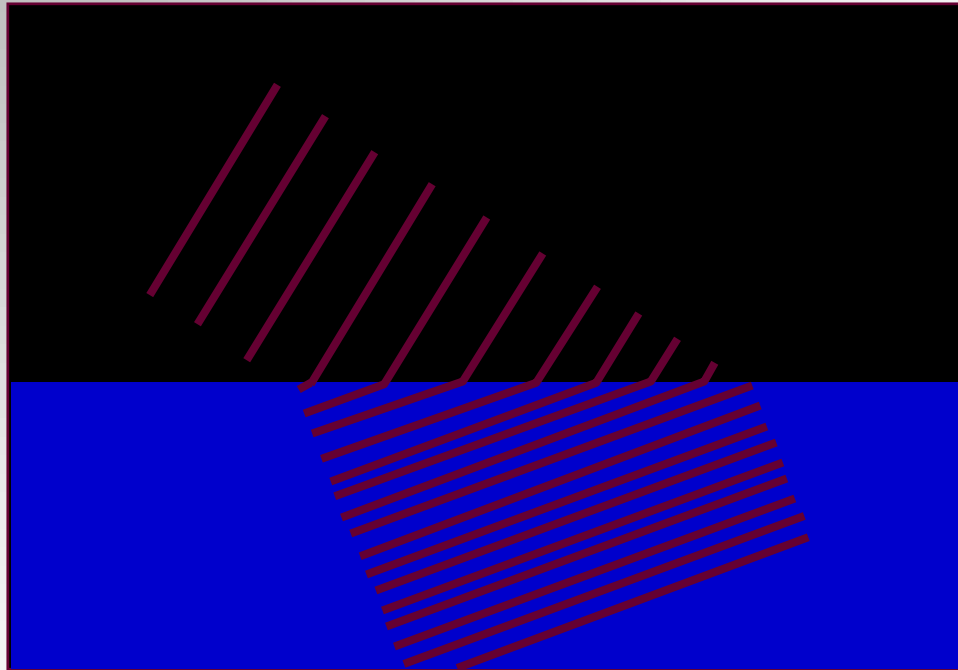


“Girl Scouts in Mud” at an Angle

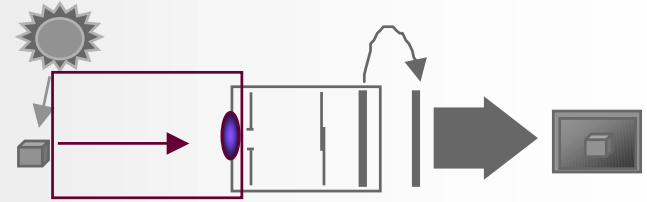


- The direction of travel changes when the marching line hits the mud at a non-normal angle.

Wavefront at Non-Normal Angle of Incidence



Index of Refraction

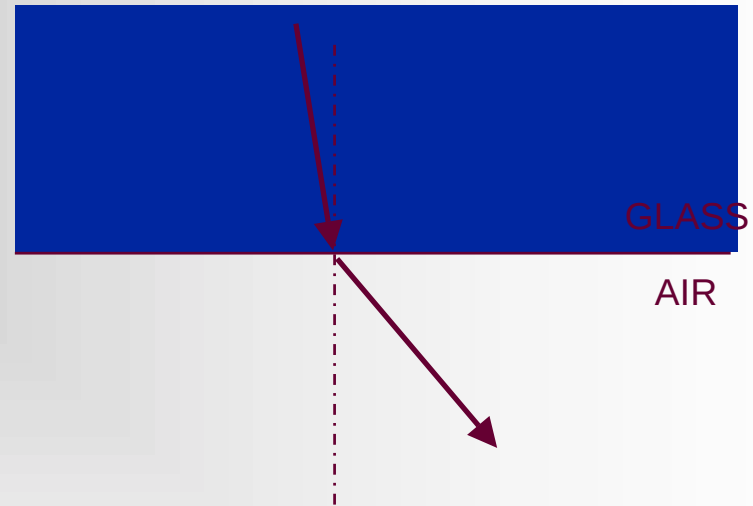
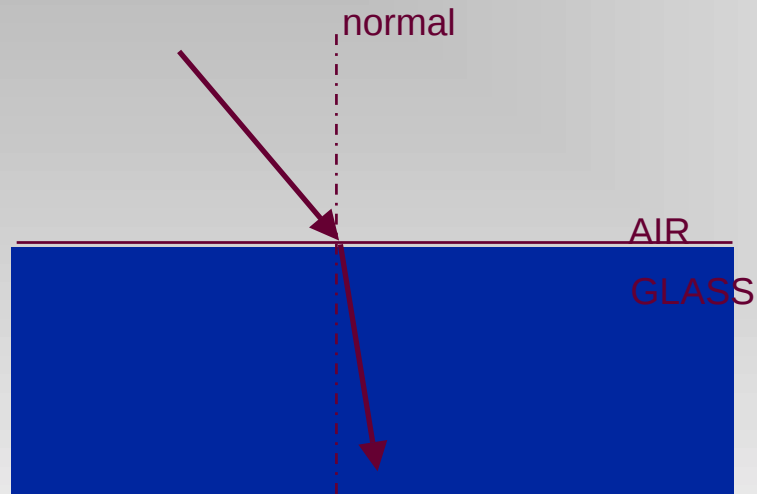
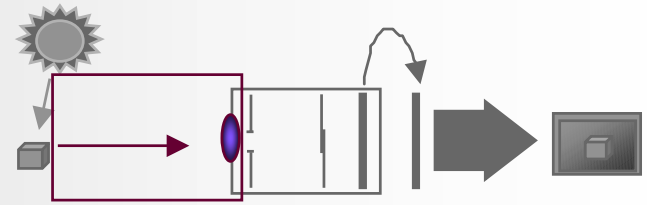


- Index of Refraction (n) is the ratio between the speed of light in vacuum (c) and the speed of light in the medium (v).

$$n = c/v$$

<u>Medium</u>	<u>Index of Refraction</u>
Vacuum	1 (exactly)
Air	1.0003
Water	1.33
Glass	1.5
Diamond	2.4

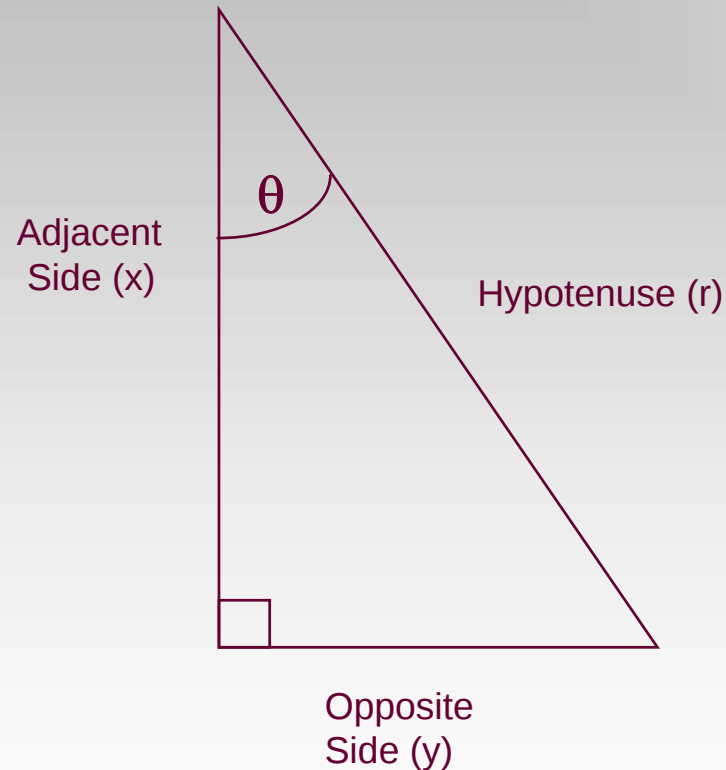
Snell's Law



- This change in direction is described by Snell's Law

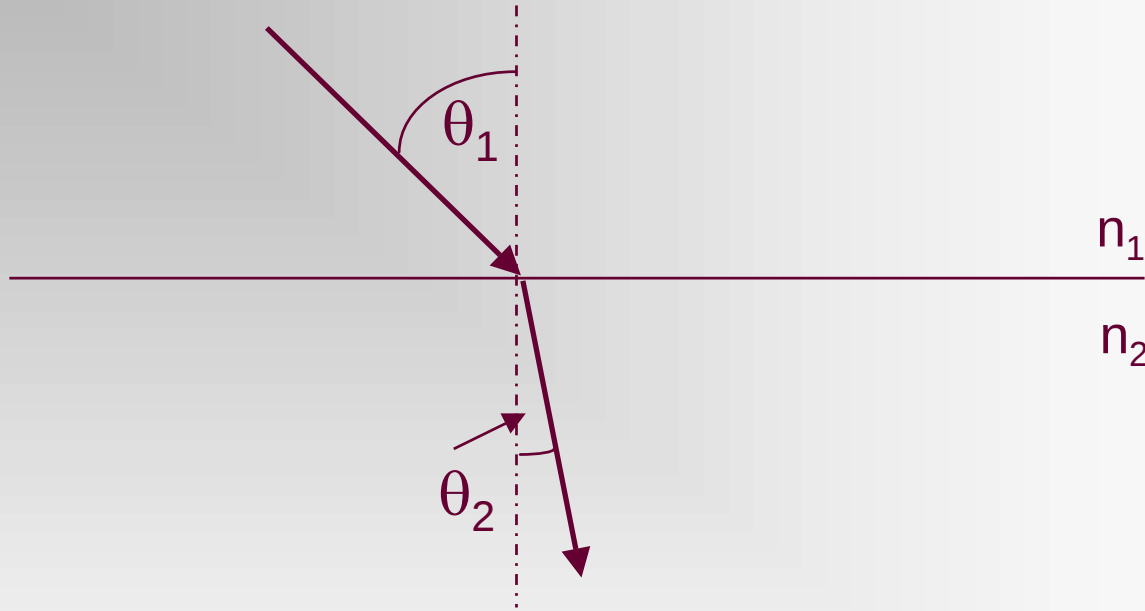
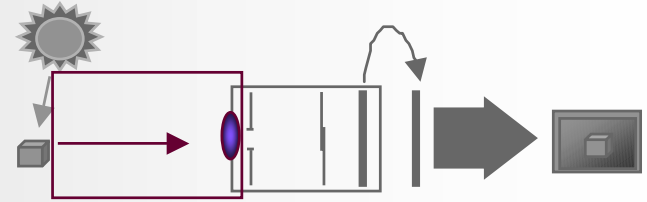
Trigonometry Review

RULES THAT DEFINE
SIN, COS, TAN of an
ANGLE:



- $\sin(\theta) = y/r$ (opp/hyp)
- $\cos(\theta) = x/r$ (adj/hyp)
- $\tan(\theta) = y/x$ (opp/adj)

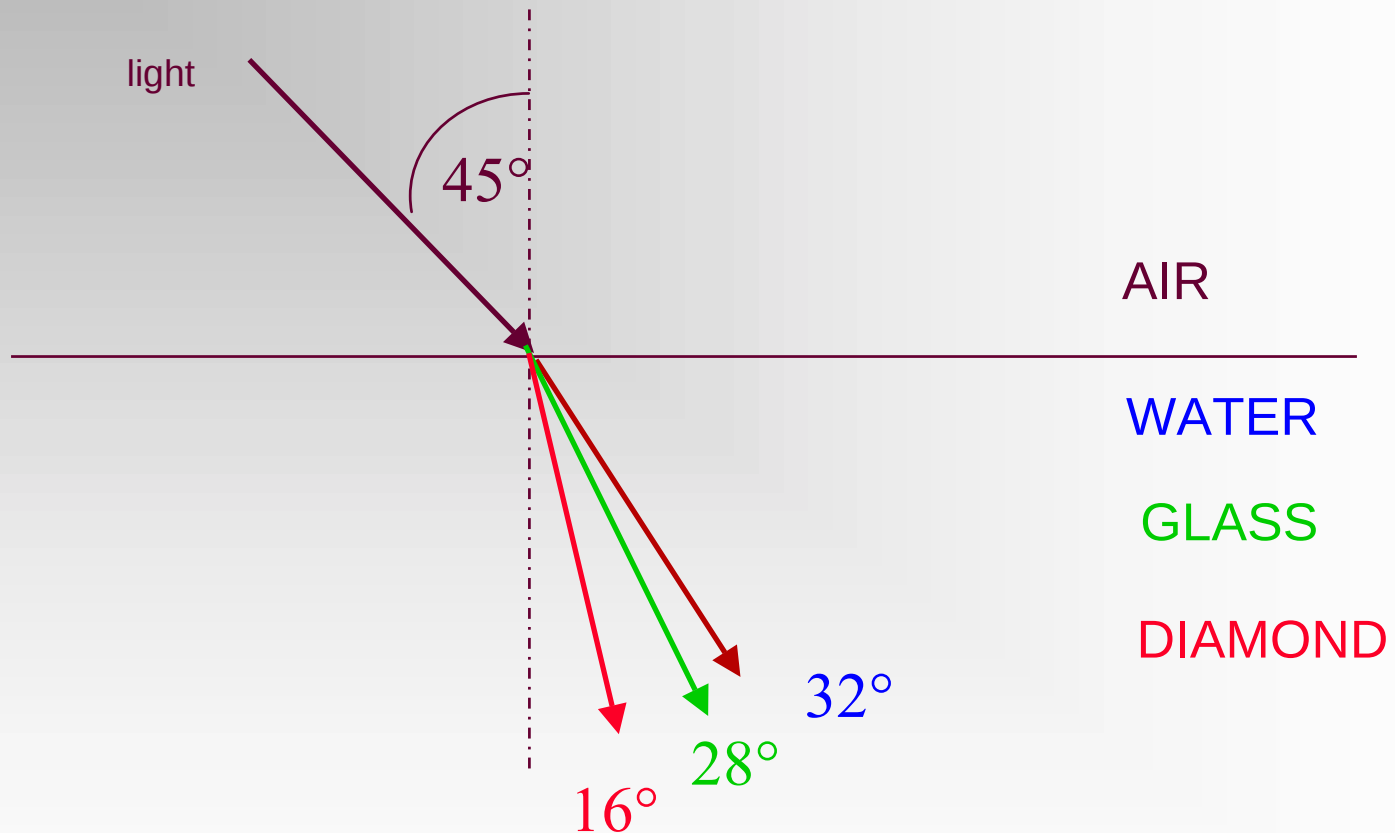
Snell's Law



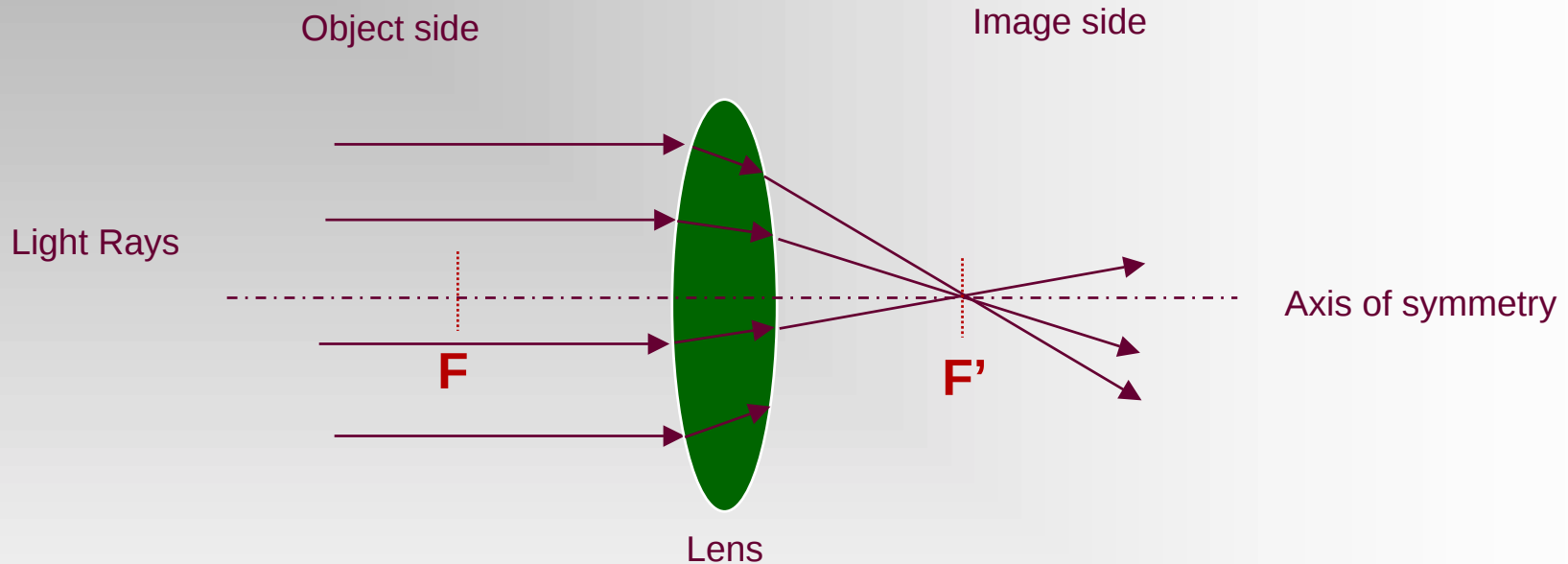
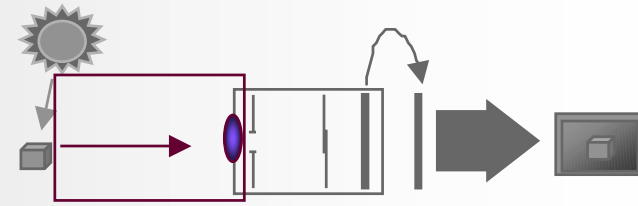
Snell's Law: $n_1 \sin \theta_1 = n_2 \sin \theta_2$

If θ_1 and θ_2 are small use 1st order approximation
 $n_1 \theta_1 = n_2 \theta_2$ (known as paraxial raytracing)

Refraction for Different Materials

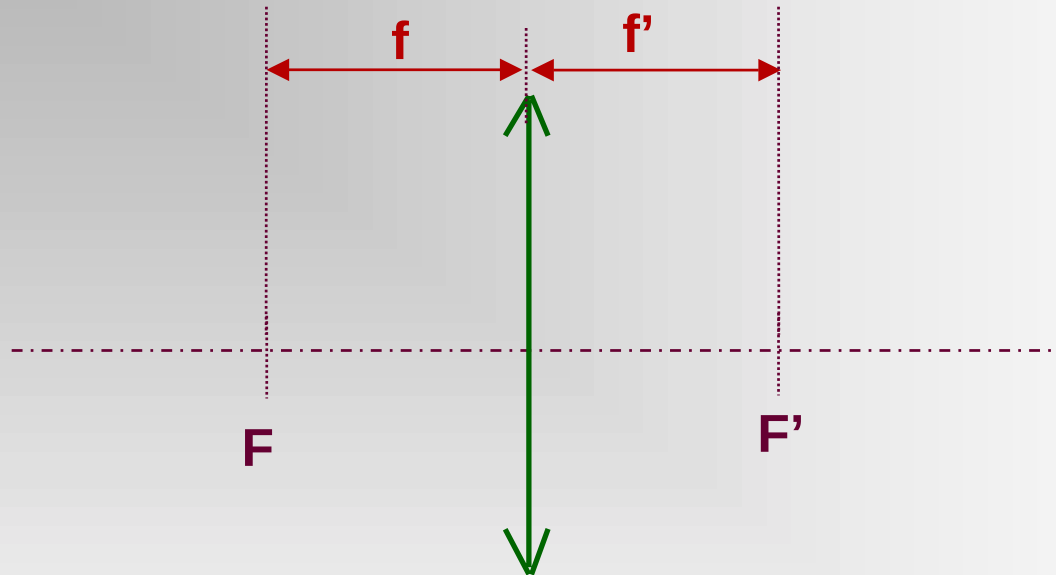
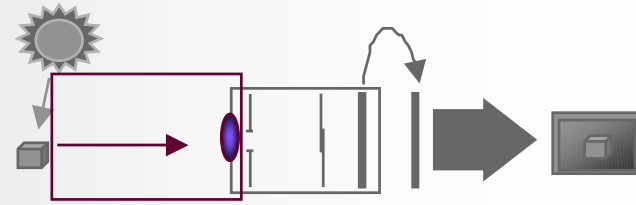


Convex Lens



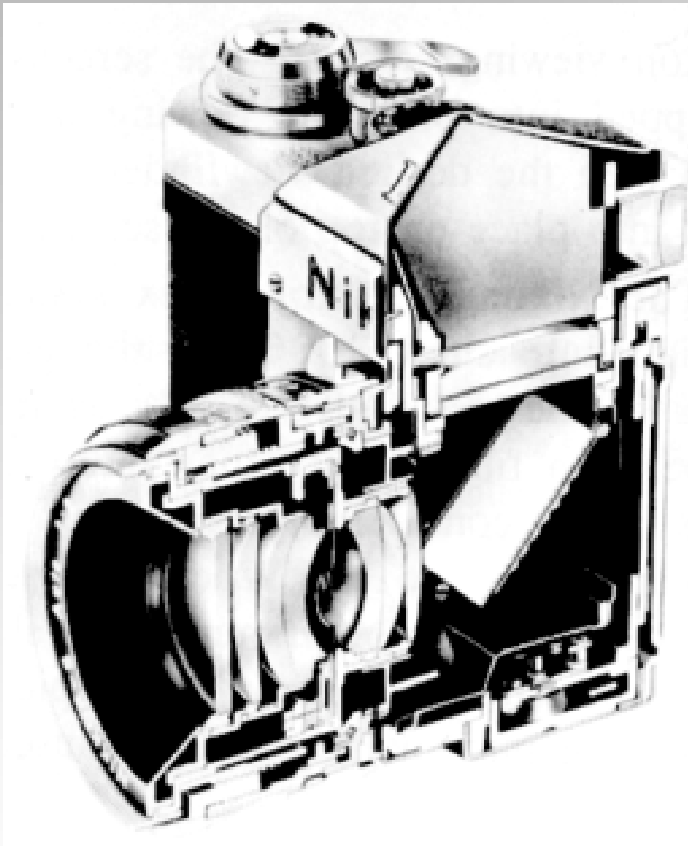
- Image focal point, F' , is half the distance to the effective center of curvature of the lens.
- Object focal point, F , is exactly the same distance on the object side of the lens.

Convex Lens



- Image focal length, f' , is the distance from the lens to the image focal point.
- Object focal length, f , is the distance from the lens to the object focal point.

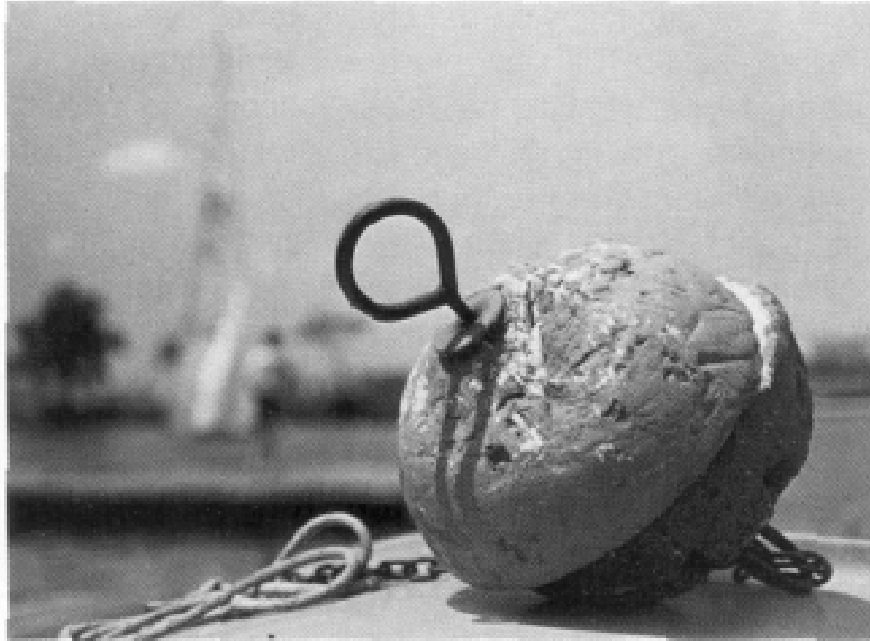
Camera Parameters



- Field of view (film size, stops and pupils)
- Depth of field (aperture, focal length)
- Motion blur (shutter)
- Exposure (film speed, aperture, shutter)

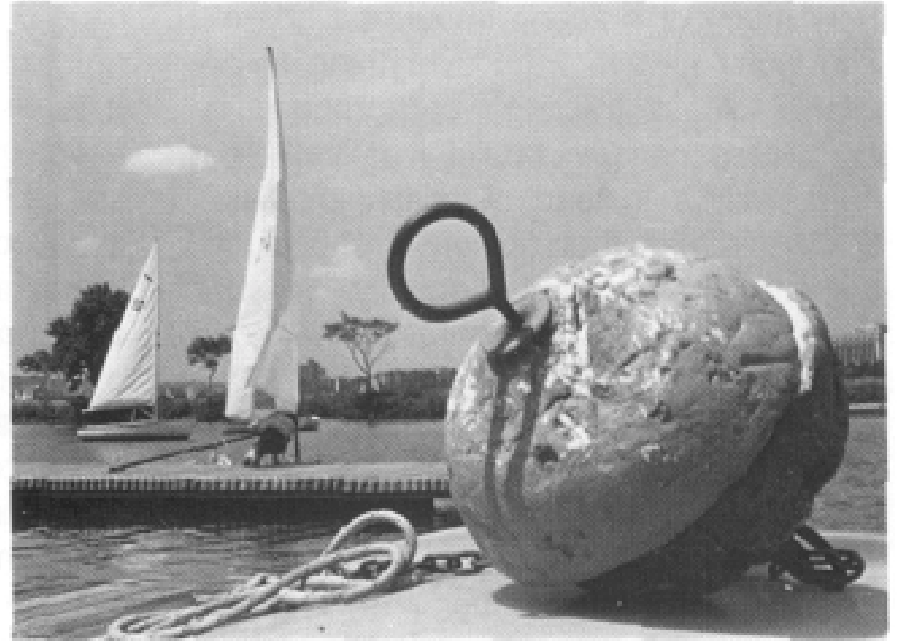
Depth of Field

less depth of field



wider aperture

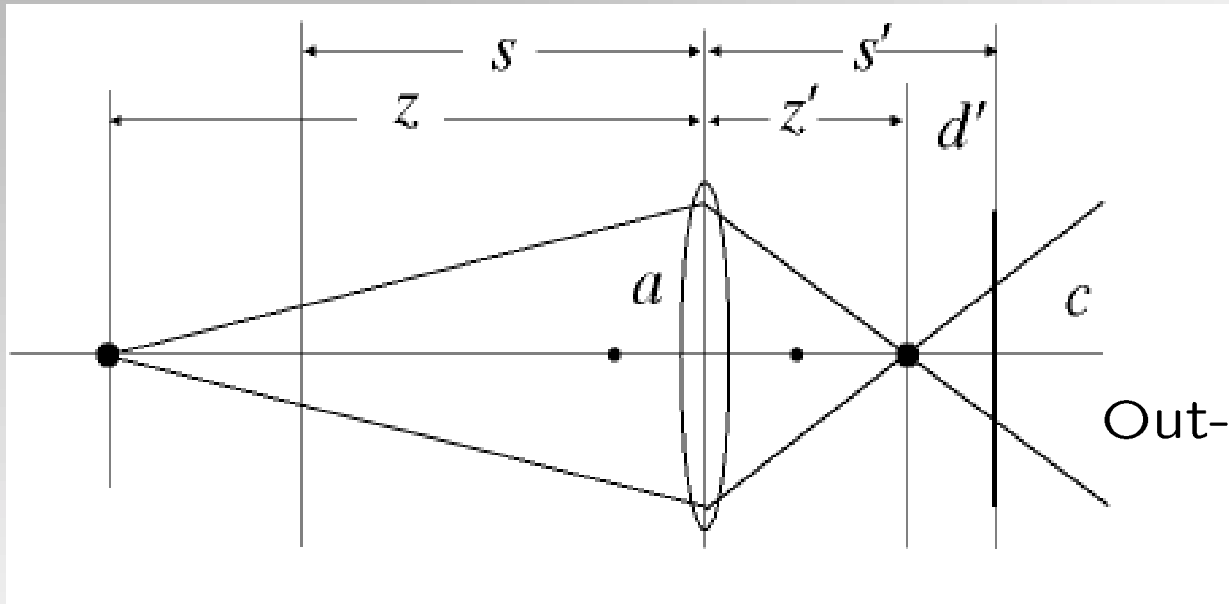
more depth of field



smaller aperture

- From London and Upton

Circle of Confusion

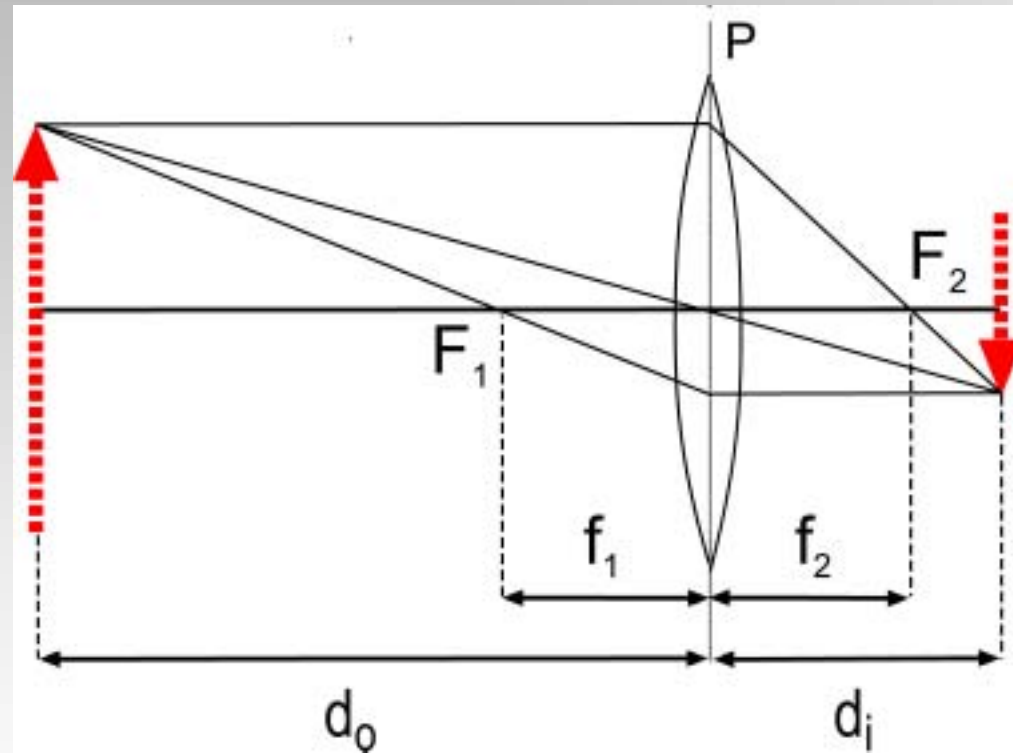


In Focus: $\frac{1}{s'} = -\frac{1}{s} + \frac{1}{f}$

Out-of Focus: $\frac{1}{z'} = -\frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{f}$

Circle of Confusion: $\frac{c}{a} = \frac{d'}{z'} = \frac{s' - z'}{z'}$

Thin Lens Camera



- Use lens to capture more light
- Limited Depth of Field
- Thin Lens Eq.:

$$\frac{1}{d_0} + \frac{1}{d_i} = \frac{1}{f}$$

- Circle of Confusion:

$$c = a \cdot d_i \left(\frac{1}{f} - \frac{1}{d_i} - \frac{1}{d_0} \right)$$

Thin Lens Camera

- Thin Lens Eq.:

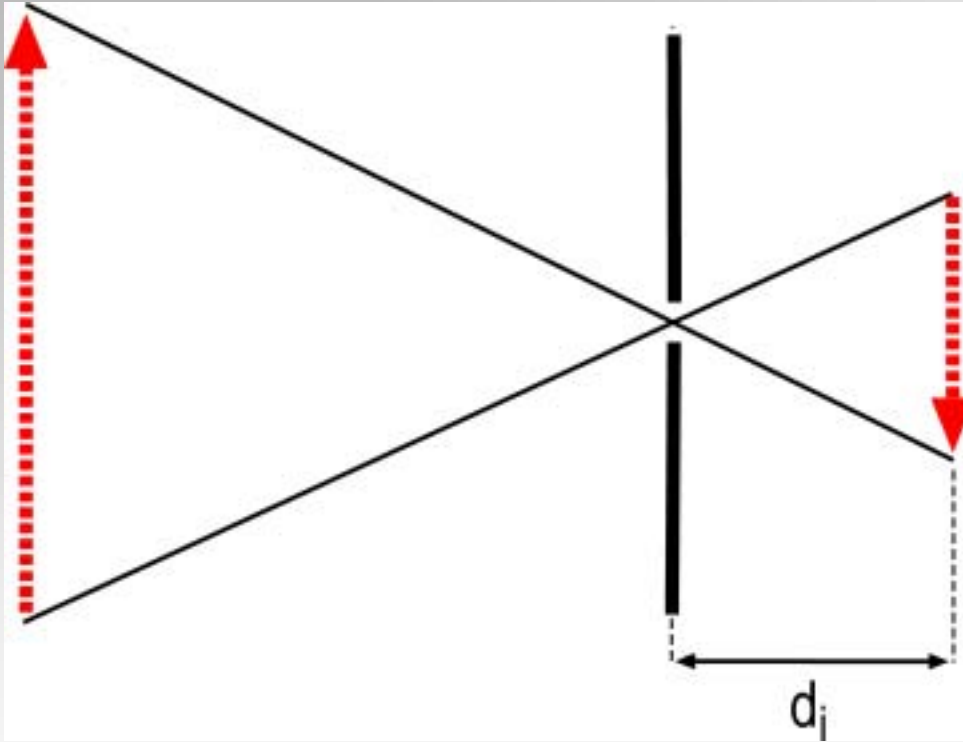
$$\frac{1}{d_0} + \frac{1}{d_i} = \frac{1}{f}$$

- Projection Eq.:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{d_0} + \frac{1}{d_i} &= \frac{1}{f} \rightarrow d_i = \frac{f d_0}{d_0 - f} \\ &\rightarrow x_i = \frac{f x}{d_0 - f}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{f} & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Model: Pinhole Camera

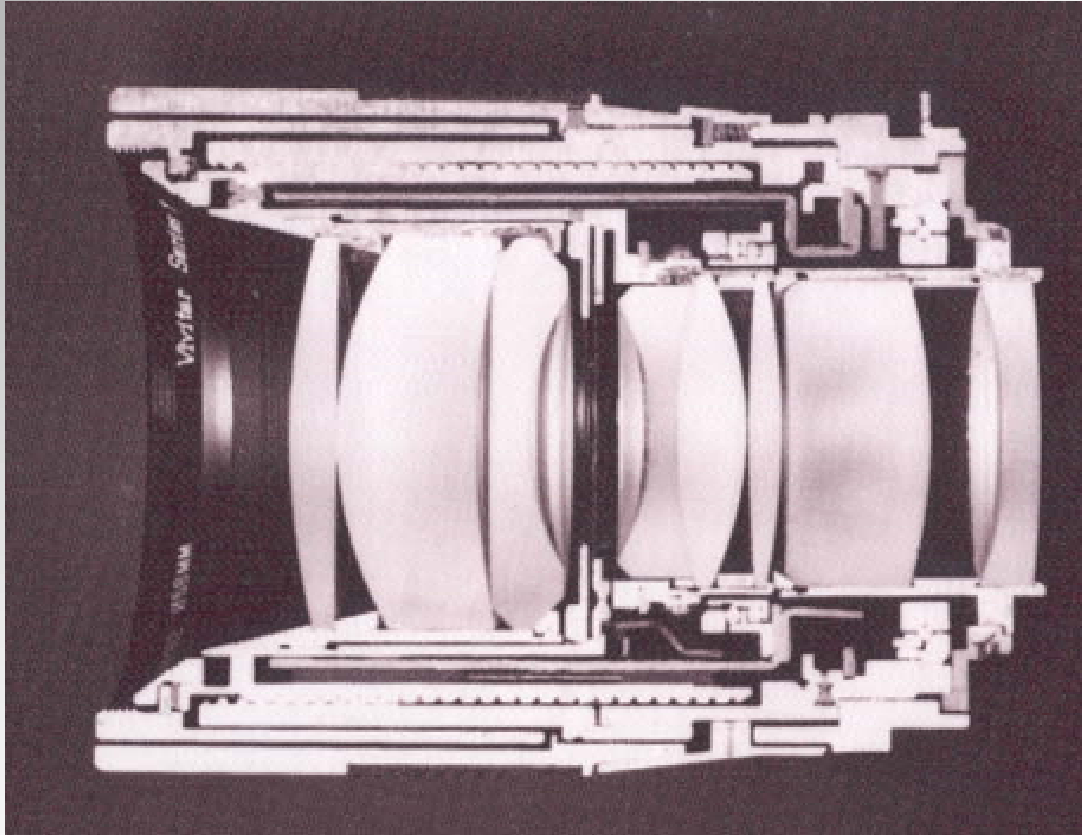


- Infinitely small aperture
- infinite field of depth
- Image is dim
- Projection Equation:

$$\mathbf{p} = \frac{d_i \mathbf{P}}{\hat{\mathbf{z}} \cdot \mathbf{P}}$$

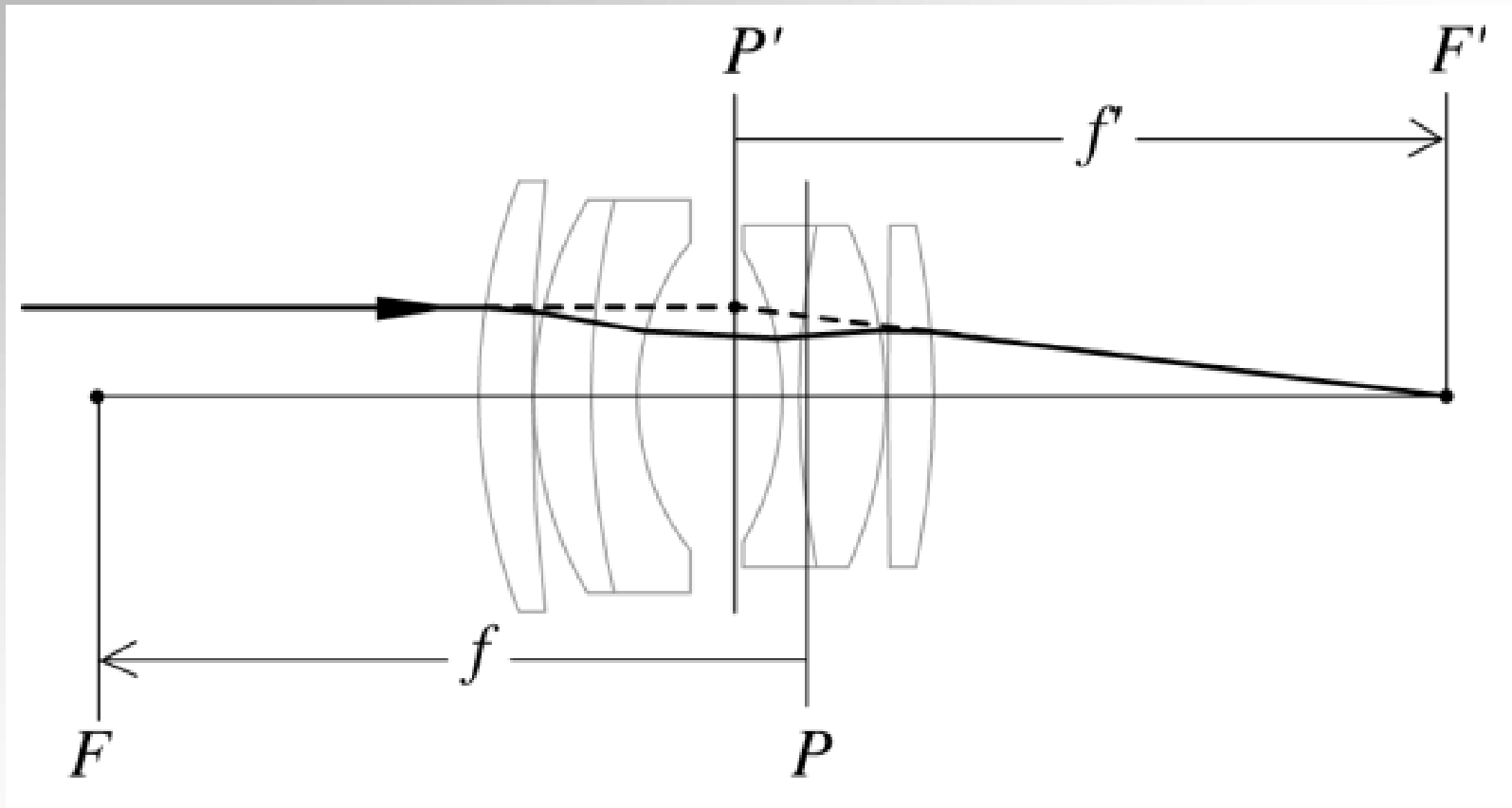
$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{d_i} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thick Lens



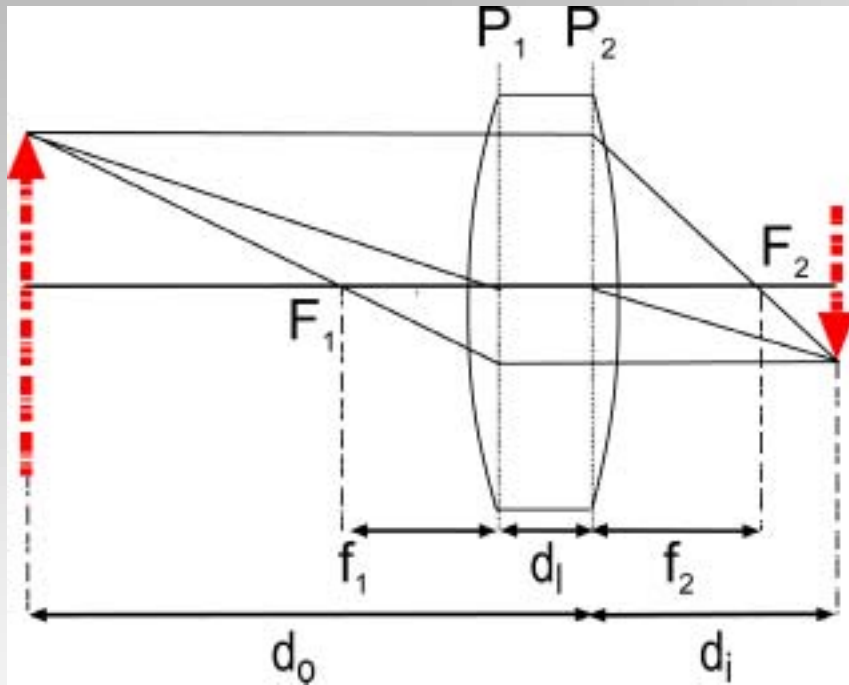
- Cutaway section of a Vivitar Series 1 90 mm f 1/2.5 lens
Cover photo, Kingslake, *Optics in Photography*

Thick Lens



Focal lengths are measured with respect to principal planes

Thick Lens Camera



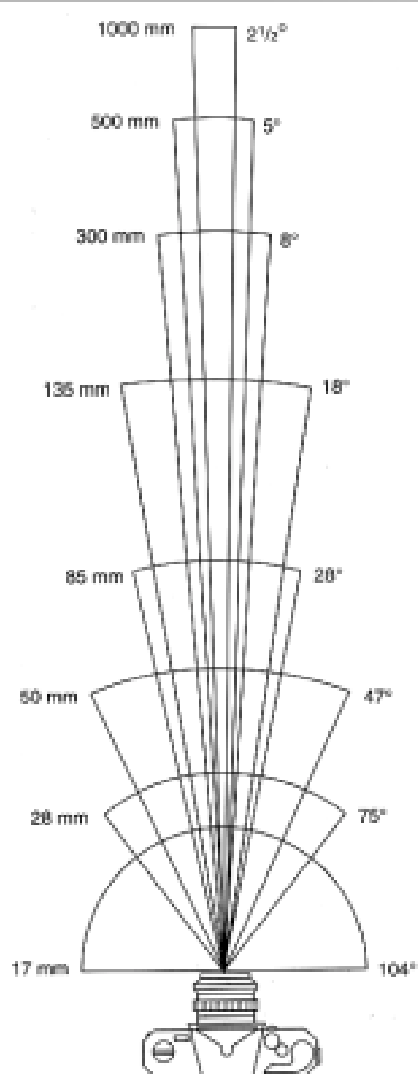
- A real lens has thickness

$$\frac{1}{d_o - d_l} + \frac{1}{d_i} = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$\rightarrow d_i = \frac{f(d_o - d_l)}{d_o - d_l - f}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -d_l \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{f} & -1 - \frac{d_l}{f} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Field of View



17mm



28mm



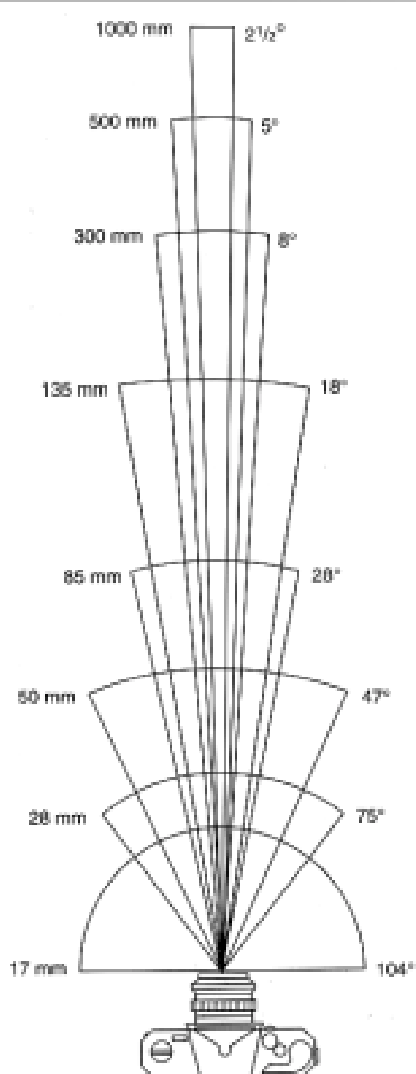
50mm



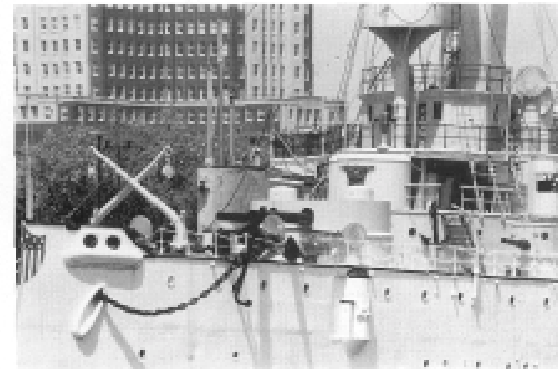
85mm

■ From London and Upton

Field of View



135mm



300mm



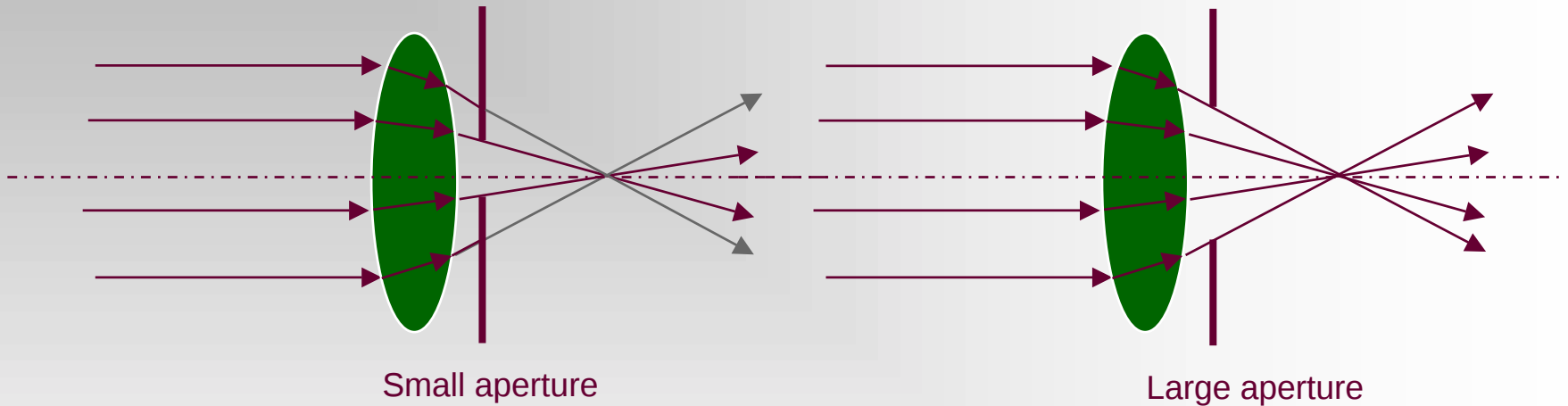
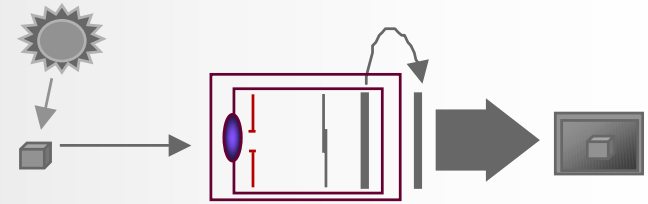
500mm



1000mm

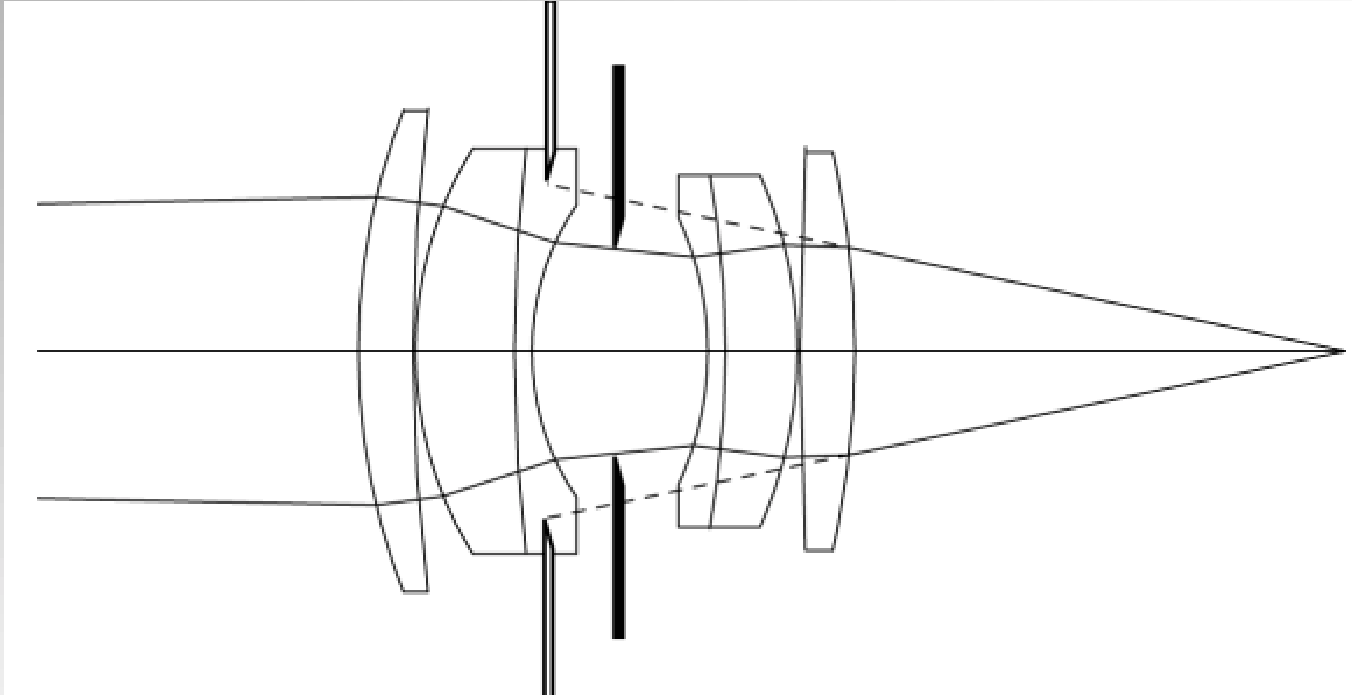
■ From London and Upton

Illuminance



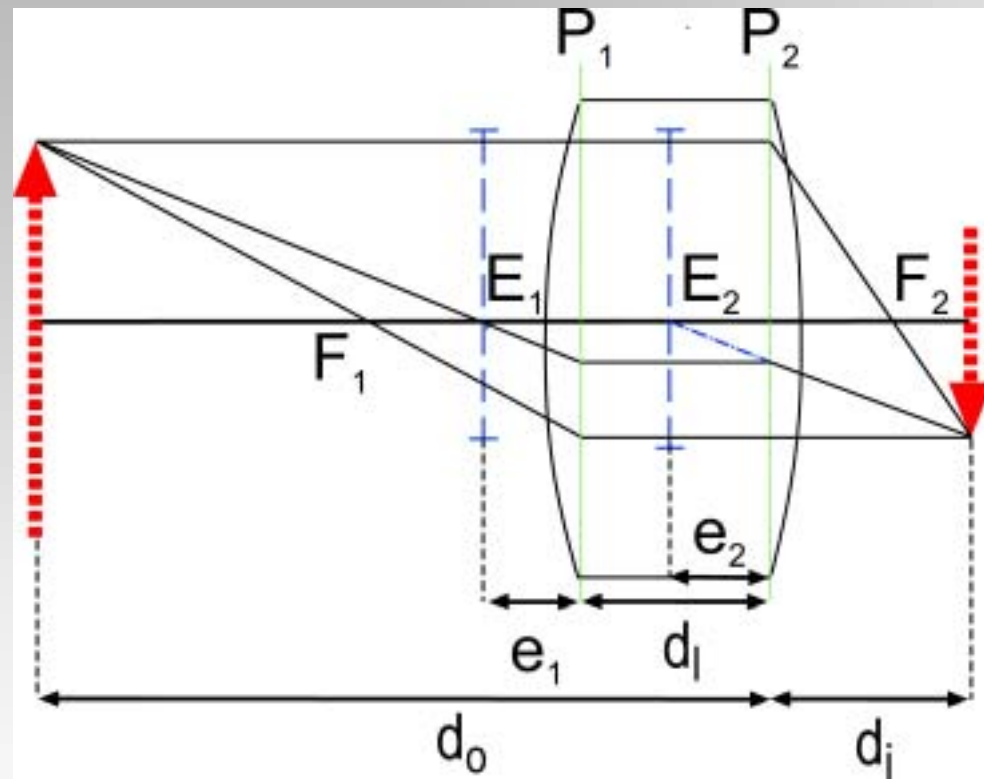
- Illuminance is the rate of light falling on a given area (i.e. energy per unit time).
- Illuminance is controlled by *aperture*: a larger aperture brings more light to the focus.

Aperture



- Stops – physical limits
- Pupils – logical limits for entering and exiting rays

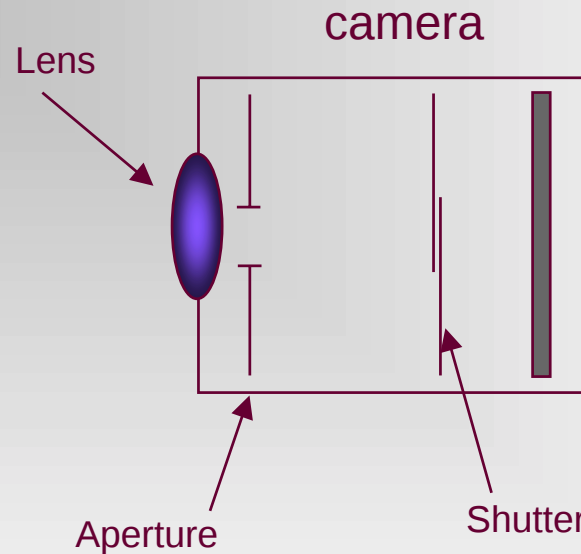
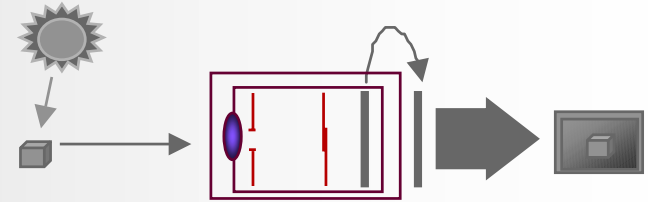
Aperture



$$p = \frac{-e_1}{d_o - d_l - e_1} \frac{d_i + e_2}{e_2} P$$

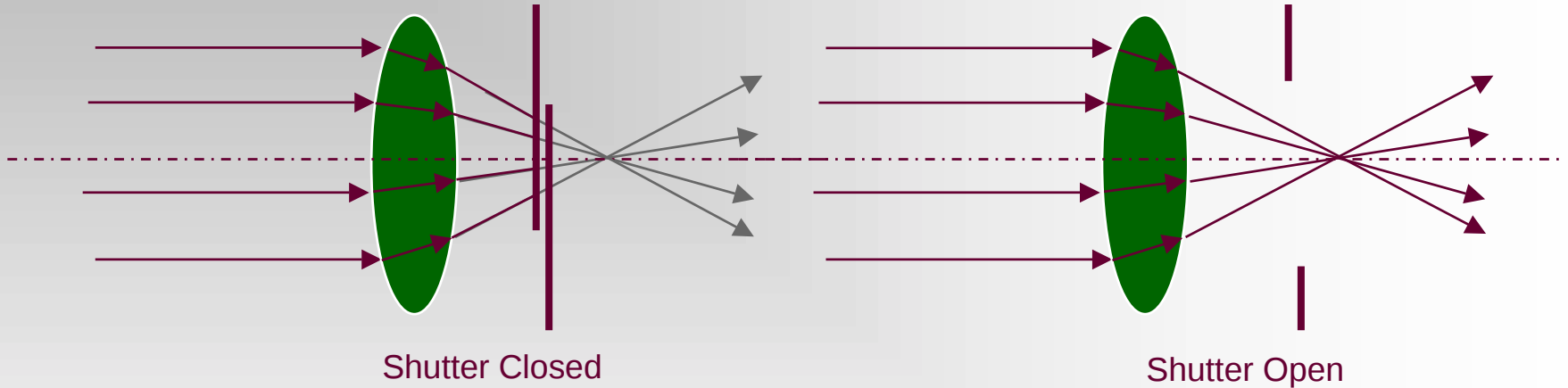
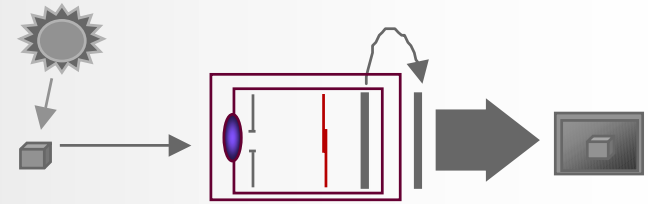
$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -d_l \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{f} & -1 - \frac{d_l}{f} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Exposure



- Exposure is defined as the total amount of light falling on the film.
- $\text{Exposure} = \text{Illuminance} * \text{Time}$

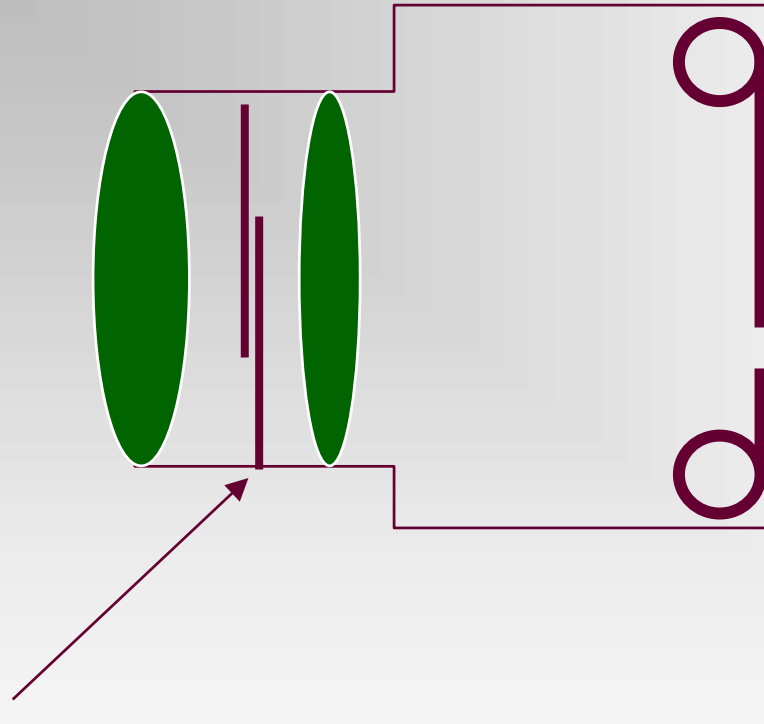
Exposure Time



- Exposure time is controlled by the *shutter*: when closed, the film is not exposed to light.
- Exposure time is simply the time interval between opening and closing the shutter.

Types of Shutters

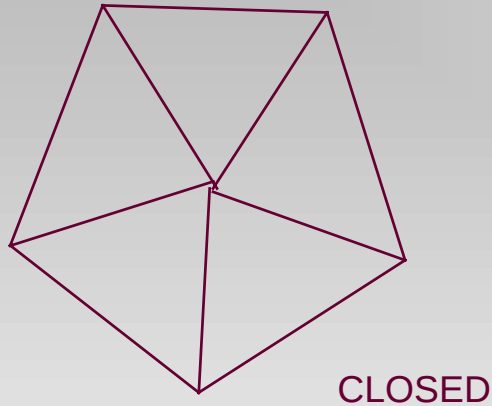
Simplified Camera



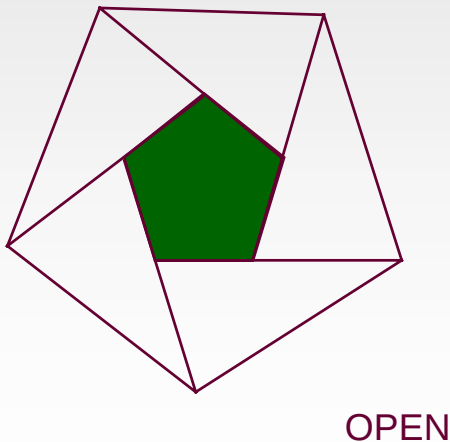
Between the Lens (BTL)
Or
Leaf Shutter

Focal Plane Shutter

BTL or Leaf Shutter



- Made of overlapping “leaves” that slide out of the way when shutter opens.
- Located between the imaging lens elements.



BTL or Leaf Shutter

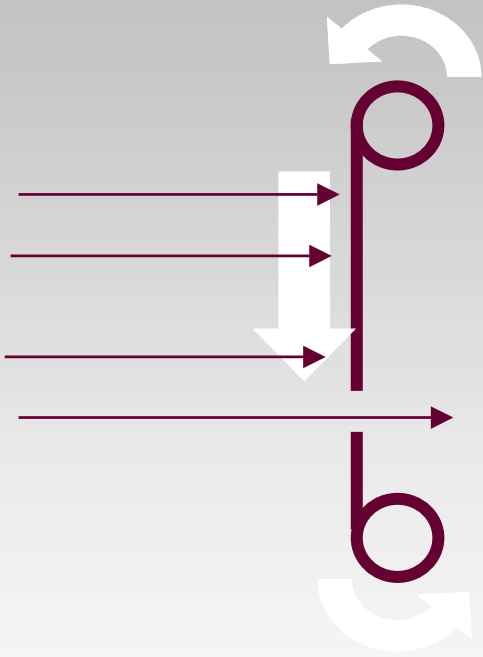
■ Advantages

- Uniform illumination independent of film size.
- Entire film frame illuminated at once.

■ Disadvantages

- Illumination of frame not constant over time.
- Limitations on shutter speed.

Focal Plane Shutter



- Metal or fabric with a narrow slit opening which traverses the area to be exposed.
- Located just before the detector (film) at the focal plane.

Focal Plane Shutter

■ Advantages

- Cost effective (one shutter needed for all lenses - great for interchangeable lens systems)
- Can achieve very fast shutter speeds (~1/10000 sec)

■ Disadvantages

- May cause time distortion if the film size is large (since the shutter slit must traverse the film)

Why control exposure with aperture and shutter?

■ Flexibility!

- Fast shutter speed for freezing action (e.g. sports photography).
- Slow shutter speed for low light levels (e.g. sunsets).
- Small aperture for bright scenes or to enable longer exposures.
- Large aperture for low light conditions (taking candle lit or moon lit pictures).

Aperture vs Shutter



f/16
1/8s



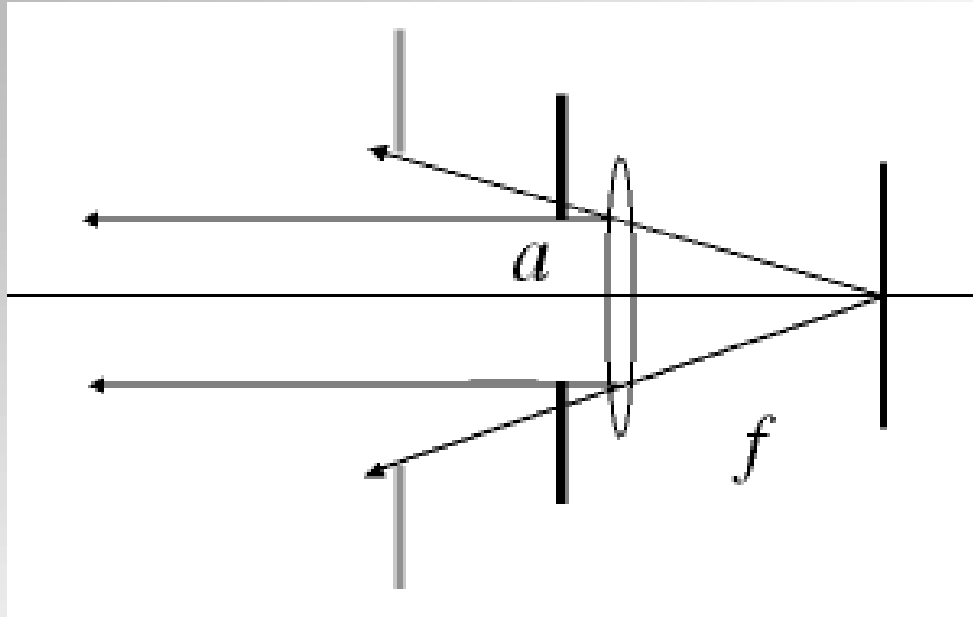
f/4
1/125s



f/2
1/500s

■ From London and Upton

Image Irradiance and Exposure



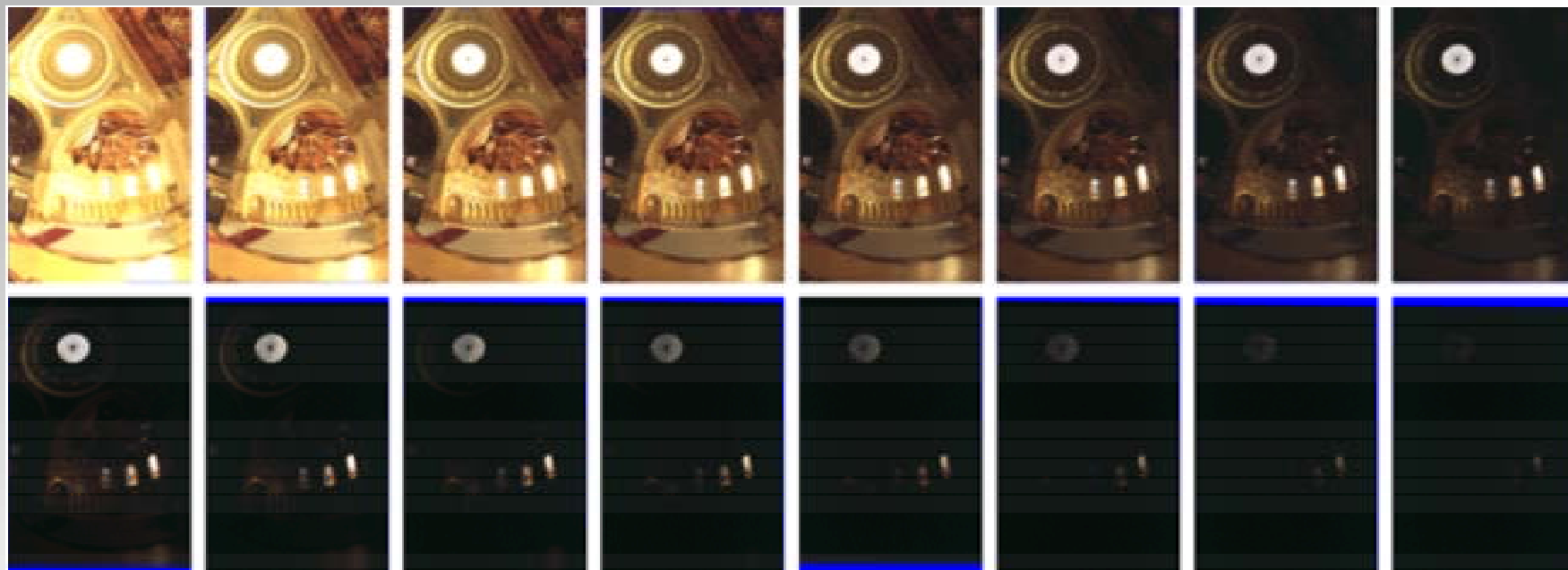
$$E = L\pi \sin^2 \theta = L\frac{\pi}{4} \left(\frac{a}{f}\right)^2 = L\frac{\pi}{4} \frac{1}{N^2}$$

- 1 stop doubles exposure
 - interacts with depth of field

$$\text{F-Stop/F-Number: } N = \frac{f}{a}$$

- Double shutter time doubles exposure
 - interacts with motion blur

High Dynamic Range Imaging

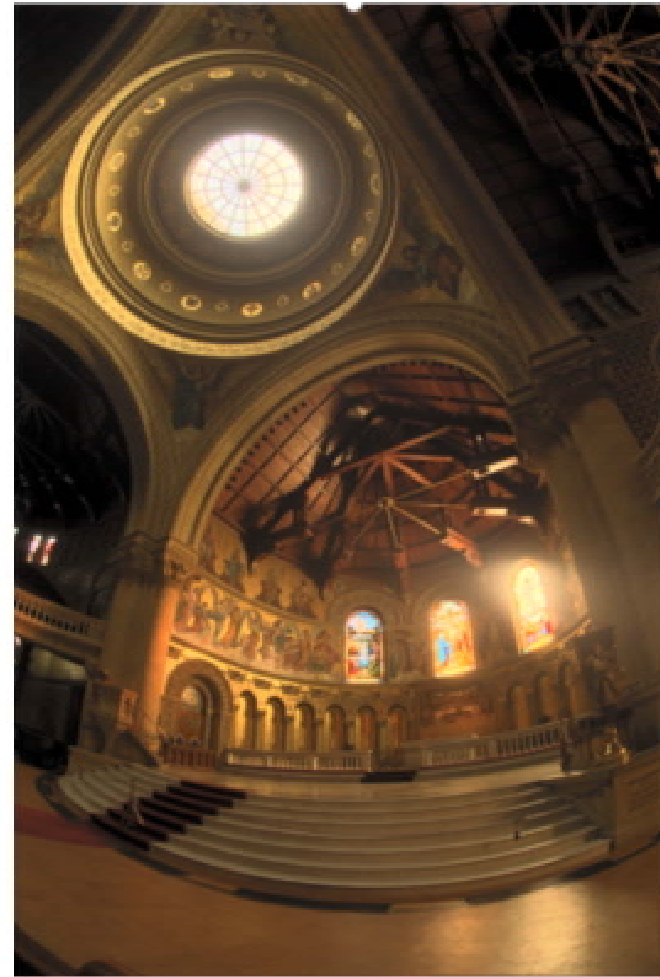


- 16 photographs of stanfords memorial cathedral at 1 stop increments from 30s to 1/1000s
- From Debevec and Malik, High Dynamic Range Imaging

Simulated HDR Image



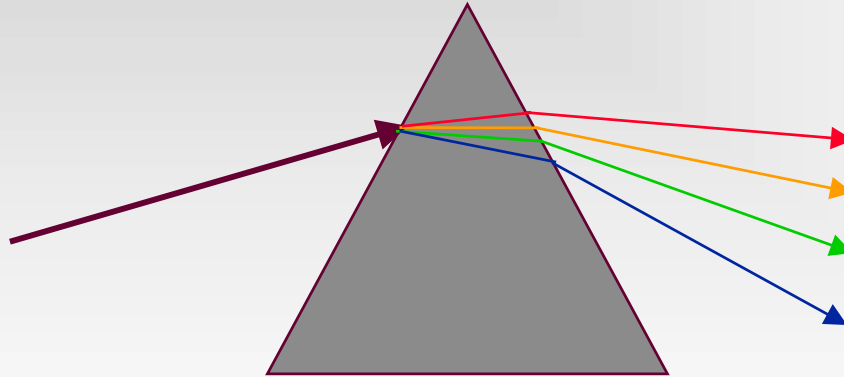
Adaptive histogram



With glare, contrast, blur

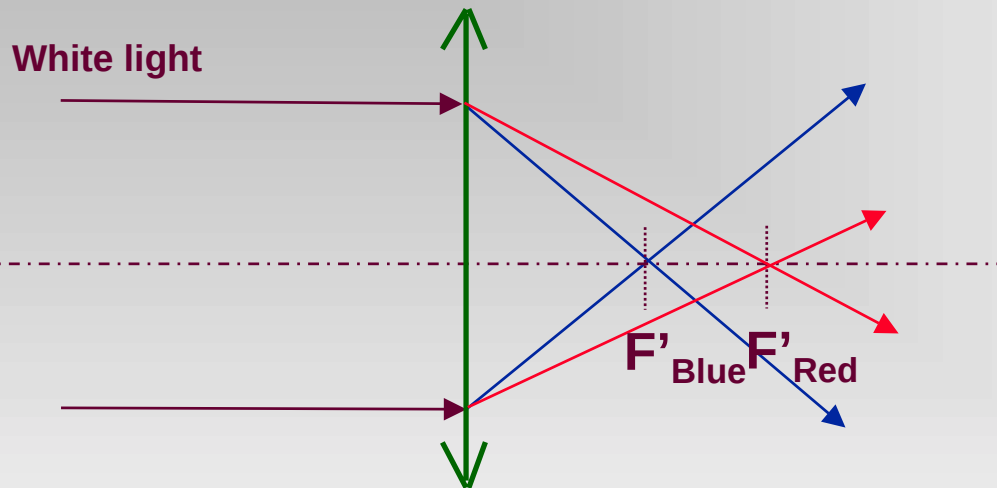
Dispersion

- Dispersion - Index of refraction, n , depends on the frequency (wavelength) of light.



Dispersion is responsible for the colors produced by a prism: red light “bends” less within the prism, while blue light “bends” more.

Chromatic Aberration



Object (small dot)

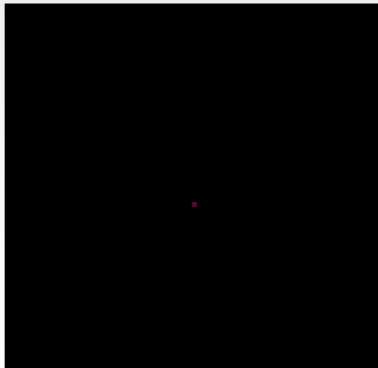
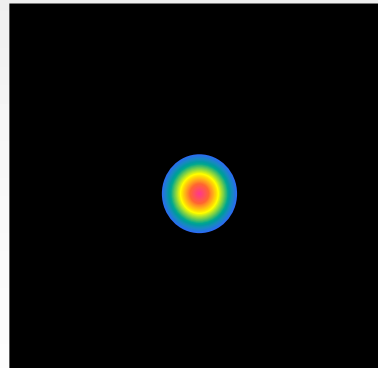


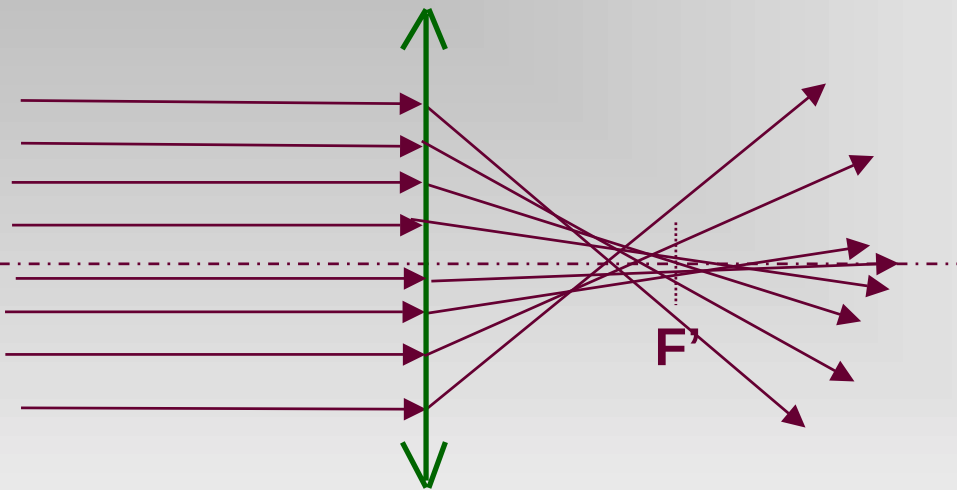
Image with chromatic aberration



- Dispersion results in a lens having different focal points for different wavelengths - this effect is called *chromatic aberration*.
- Results in a “halo” of colors.
- Solution: Use 2 lenses of different shape and material (“achromatic doublet”).

Spherical Aberration

- All the rays do not bend toward the focal point, resulting in a blurred spot.
- Solution: use lenses with aspherical curvature, or use a compound lens.



Object (small dot)

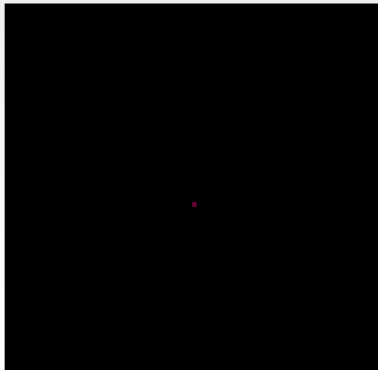
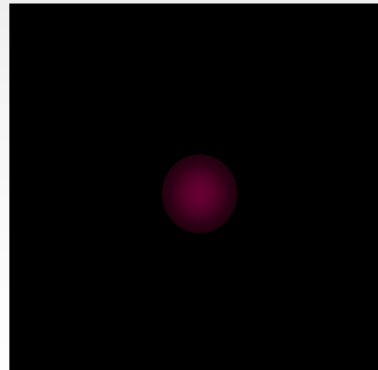


Image with spherical aberration



Other Aberrations

- *Coma*

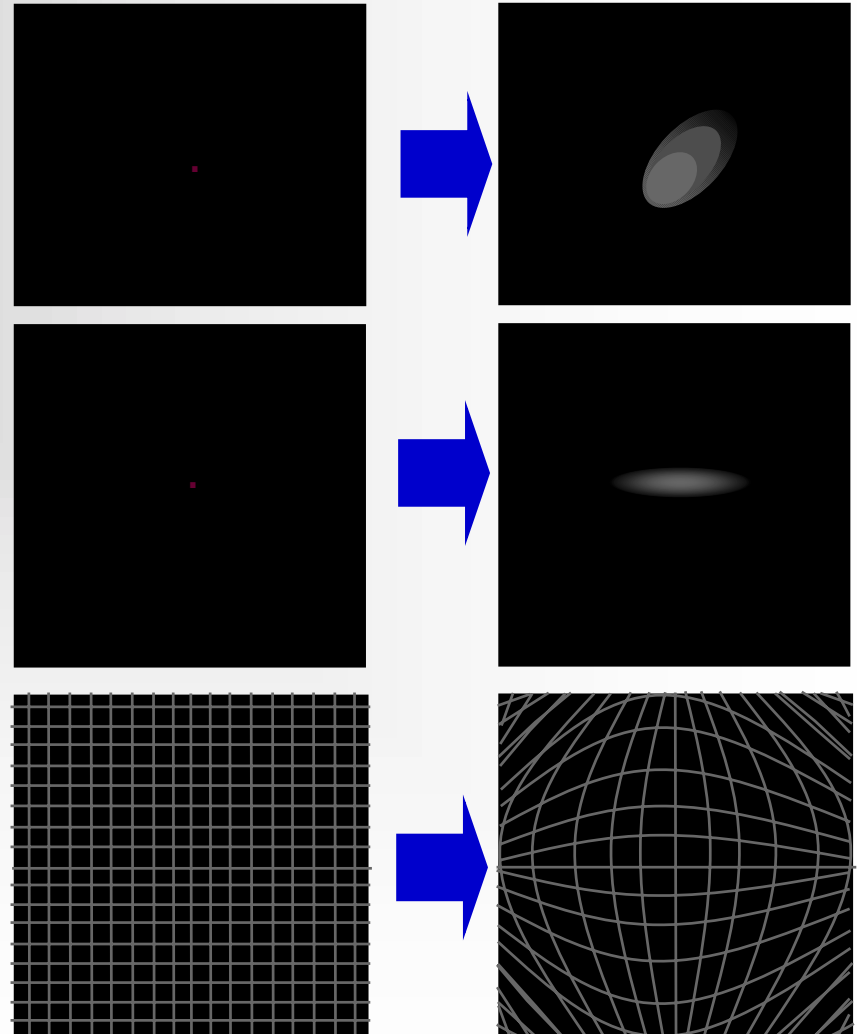
- Off axis blur which looks like the “coma” of a comet.

- *Astigmatism*

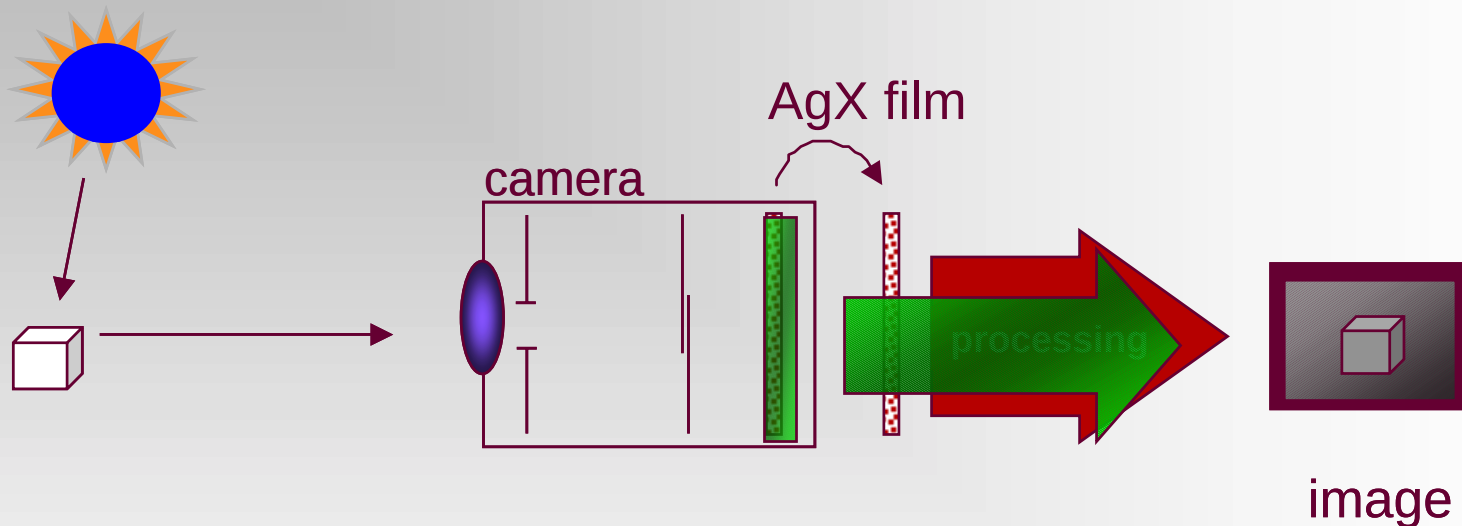
- Different focal lengths for different planes.

- *Distortion*

- Images formed out of shape.

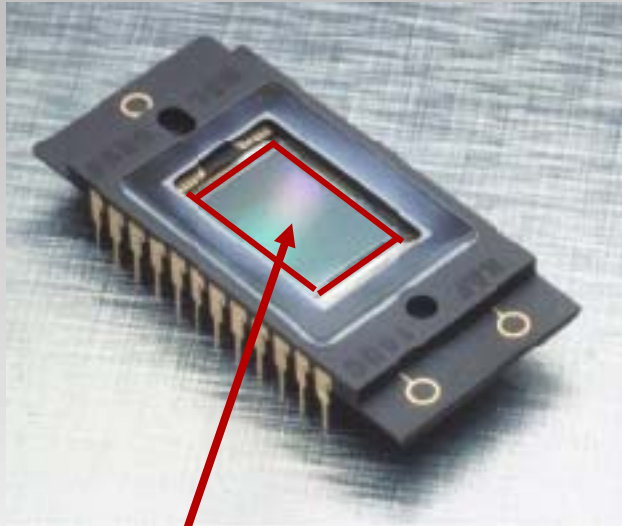
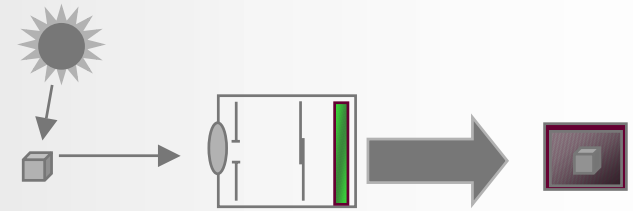


So Far . . .



- AgX photographic film captures image formed by the optical elements (lens).
- Unfortunately, the processing for film is slow (among other disadvantages).
- Can we use something else to capture the image?

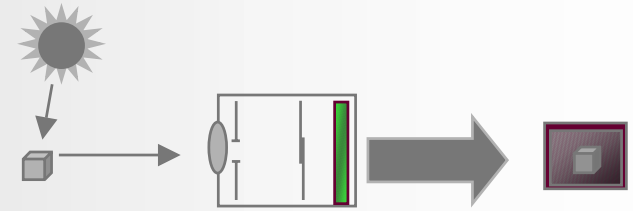
Charge Coupled Device (CCD)



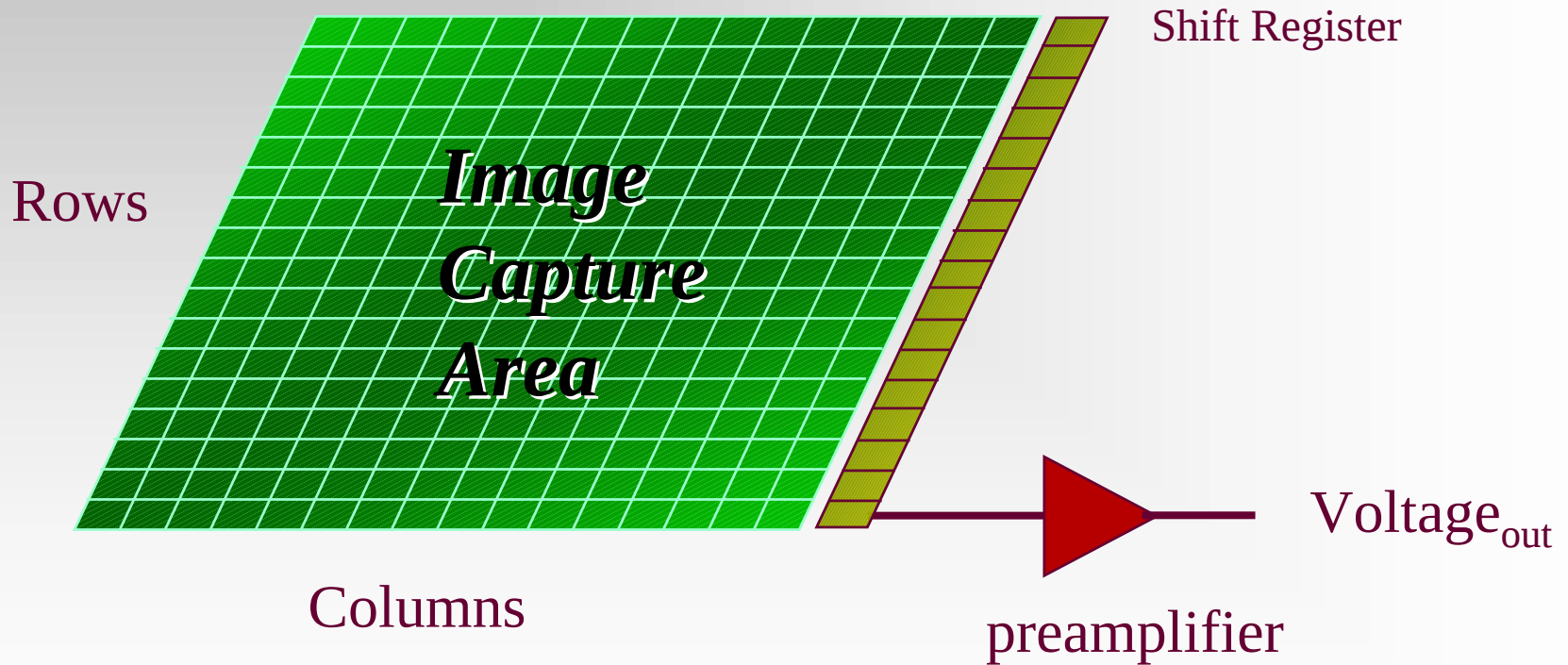
Light Sensitive Area

- CCD replaces AgX film
- Based on ***silicon chip***
- Disadvantages vs. AgX:
 - Difficulty/cost of CCD manufacture; large arrays are VERY expensive
 - “Young” technology; rapidly changing

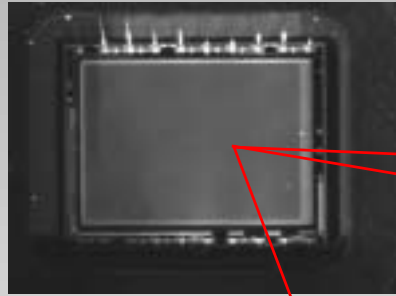
Basic structure of CCD



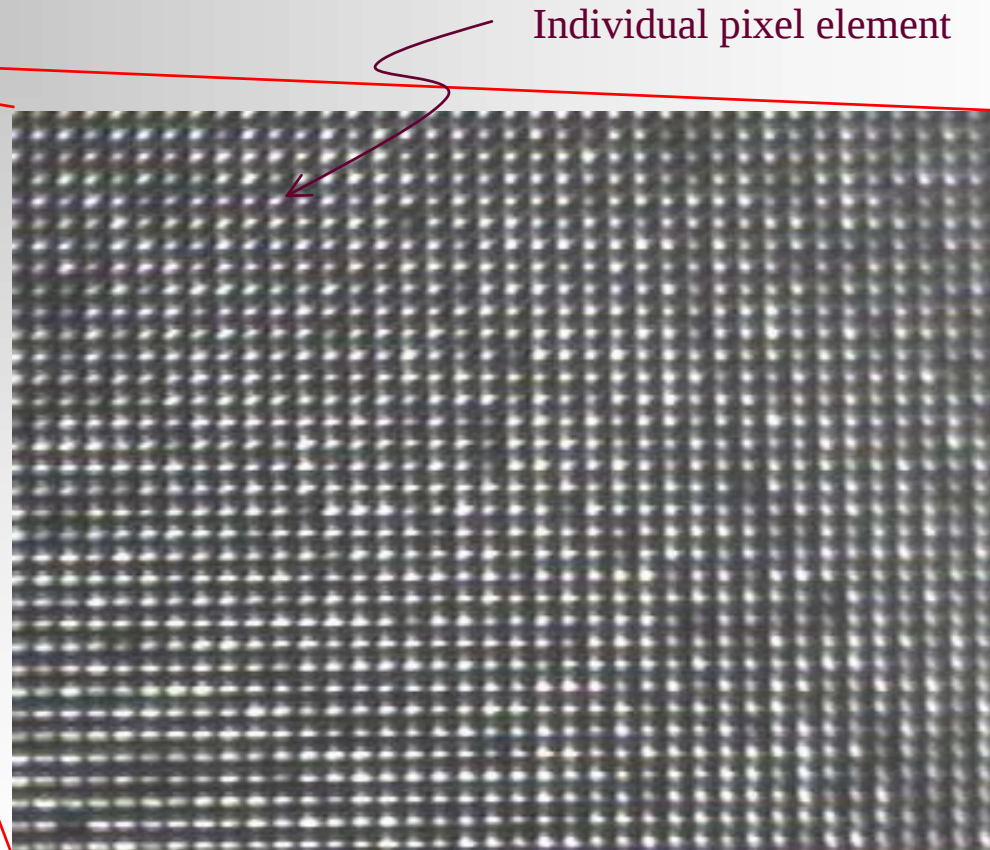
Divided into small elements called pixels
(*picture elements*).



Magnified View of a CCD Array

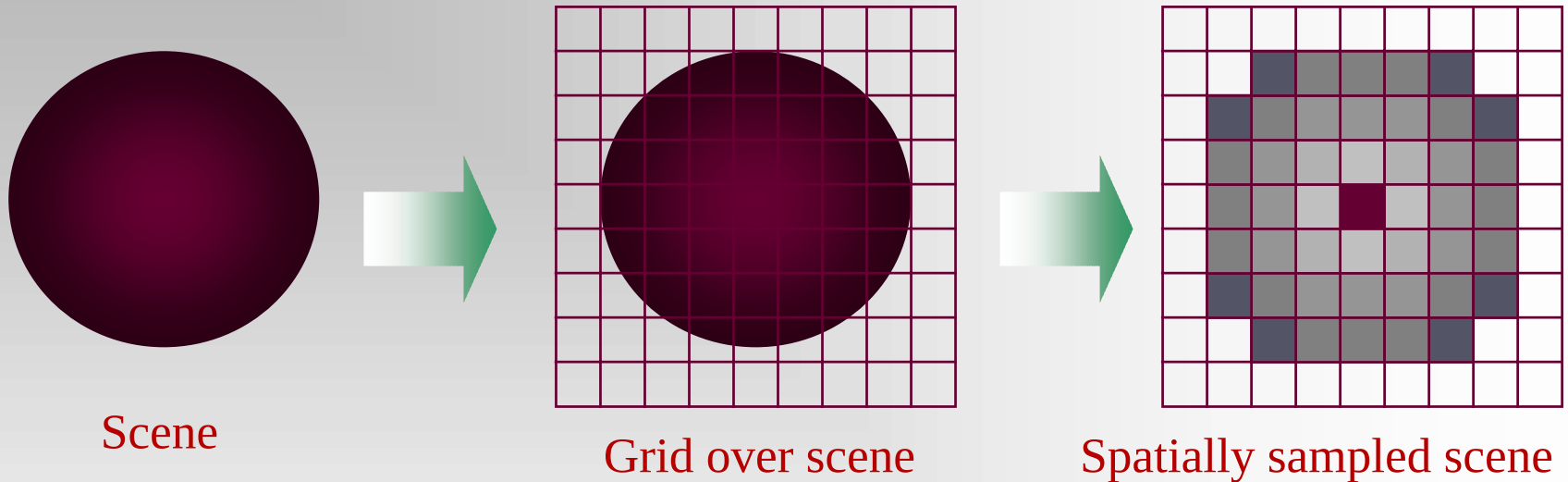


CCD



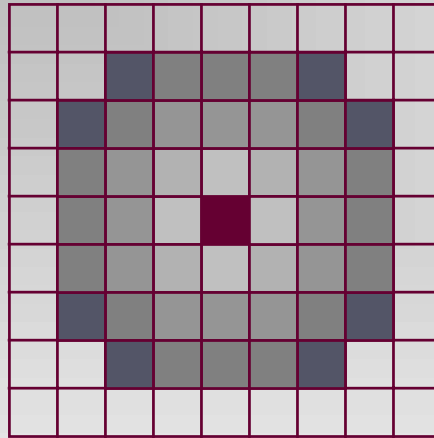
Close-up of a CCD Imaging Array

Spatial Sampling



- When a **continuous scene** is imaged on the array (grid) formed by a CCD , the continuous image is divided into discrete elements.
- The picture elements (*pixels*) thus captured represent a **spatially sampled** version of the image.

Quantization



Spatially sampled scene



0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	25	40	40	40	25	0	0	0
0	25	40	64	64	64	40	25	0	0
0	40	64	97	97	97	64	40	0	0
0	40	64	97	150	97	64	40	0	0
0	40	64	97	97	97	64	40	0	0
0	25	40	64	64	64	40	25	0	0
0	0	25	40	40	40	25	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

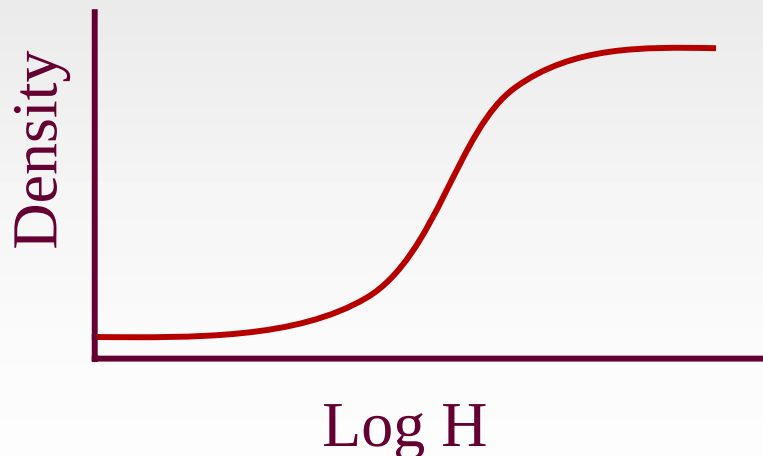
Numerical representation

- Spatially sampled image can now be turned into numbers according to the brightness of each pixel.

Response of CCD

- The response of CCD is **linear** (*i.e.*, if 1000 captured photons corresponds to a digital count of **4**, then 2000 photons captured yields a digital count of **8**)
- Linearity is critical for scientific uses of CCD

Response of photographic negative



Response of CCD

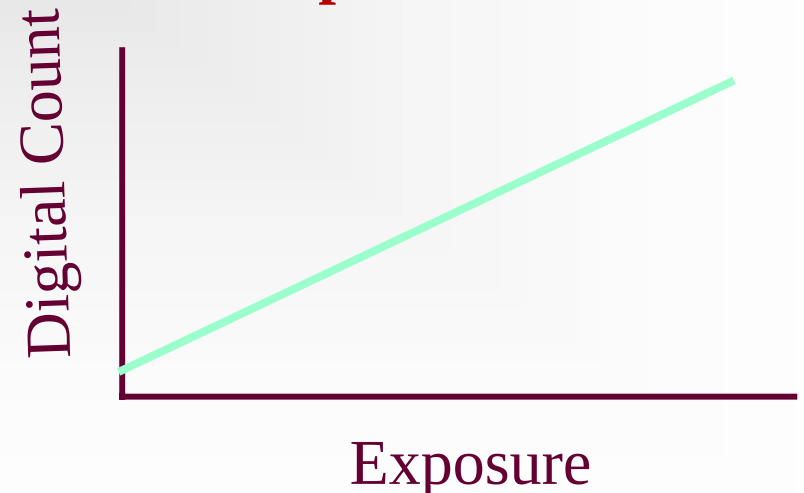
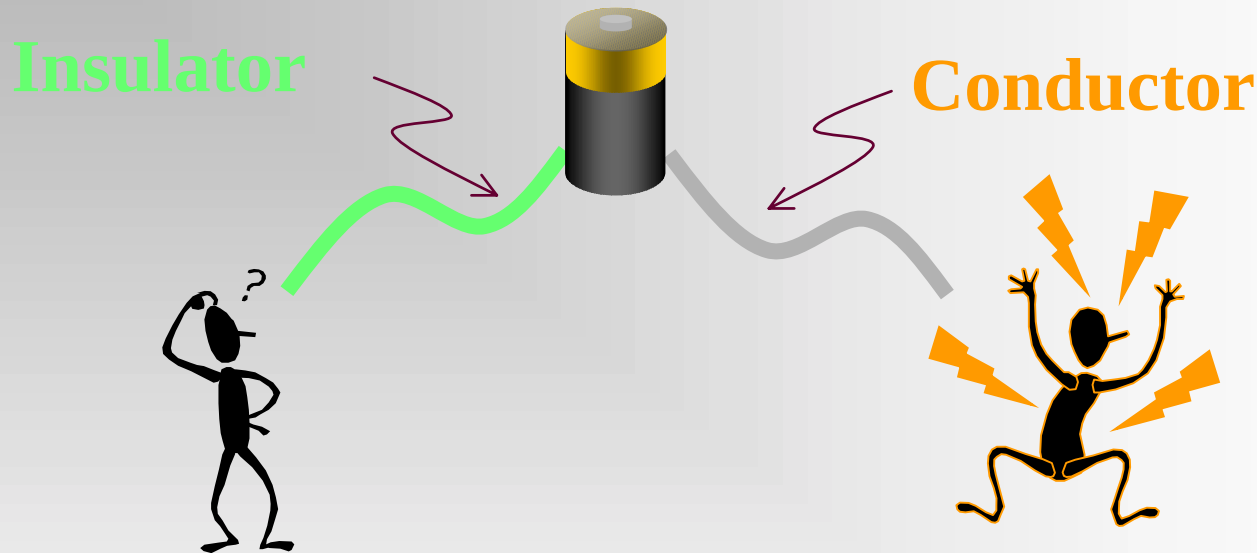


Image quality factors

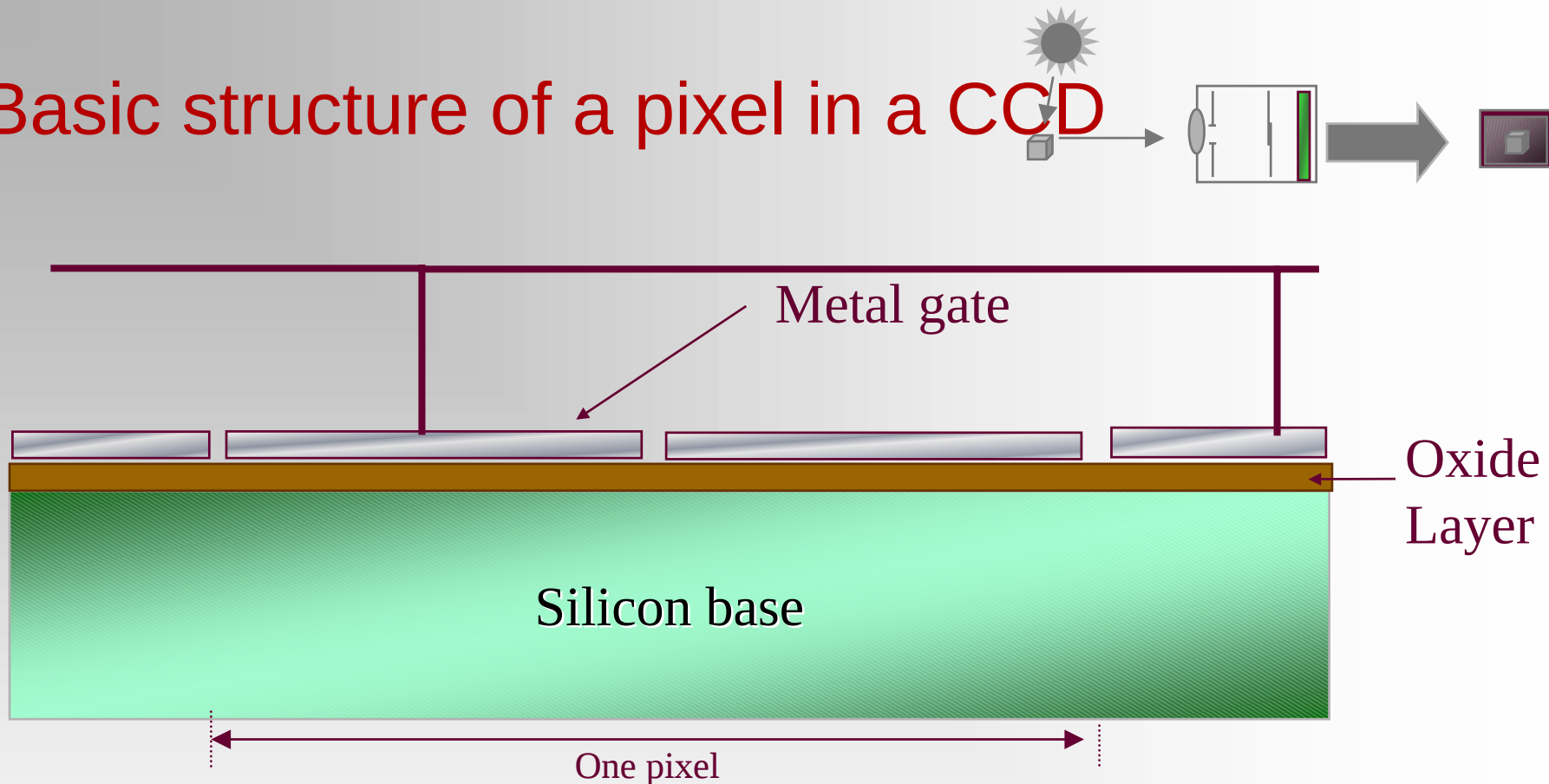
- Two major factors which determine image quality are:
 - *Spatial resolution* -- controlled by spatial sampling.
 - *Color depth* -- controlled by number of colors or grey levels allocated for each pixel
- Increasing either of these factors results in a larger image file size, which requires more storage space and more processing/display time.

CCDs as Semiconductors



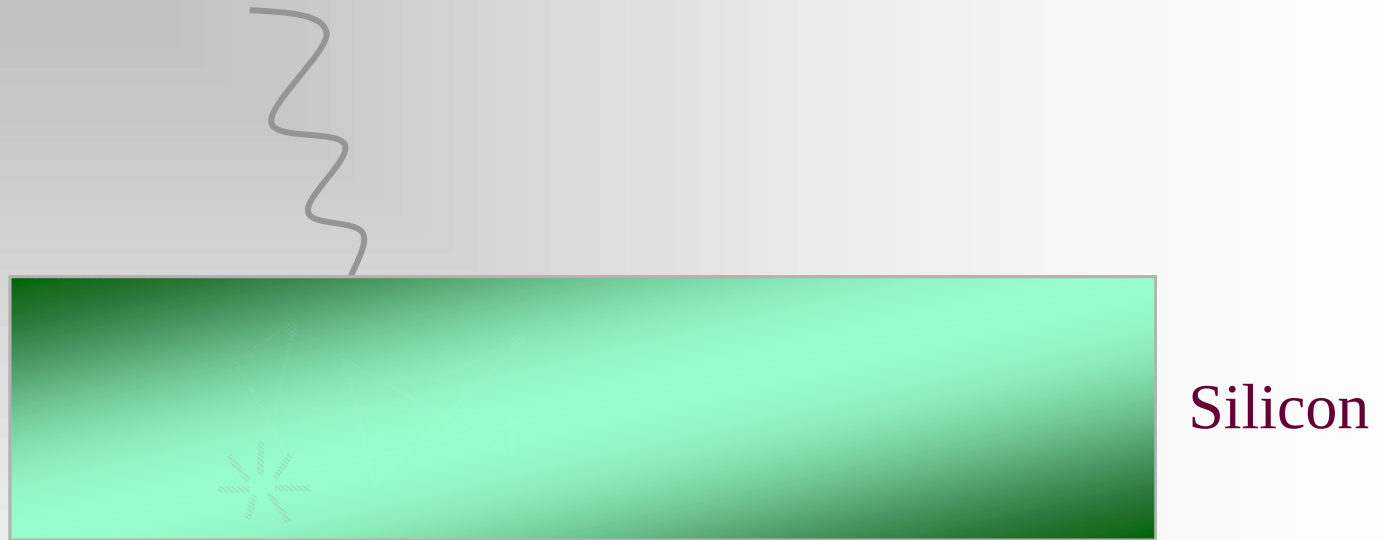
- **Conductors** allow electricity to pass through. (Metals like copper and gold are conductors.)
- **Insulators** do not allow electricity to pass through. (Plastic, wood, and paper are insulators.)
- Some materials are halfway in between, called **semiconductors**.

Basic structure of a pixel in a CCD



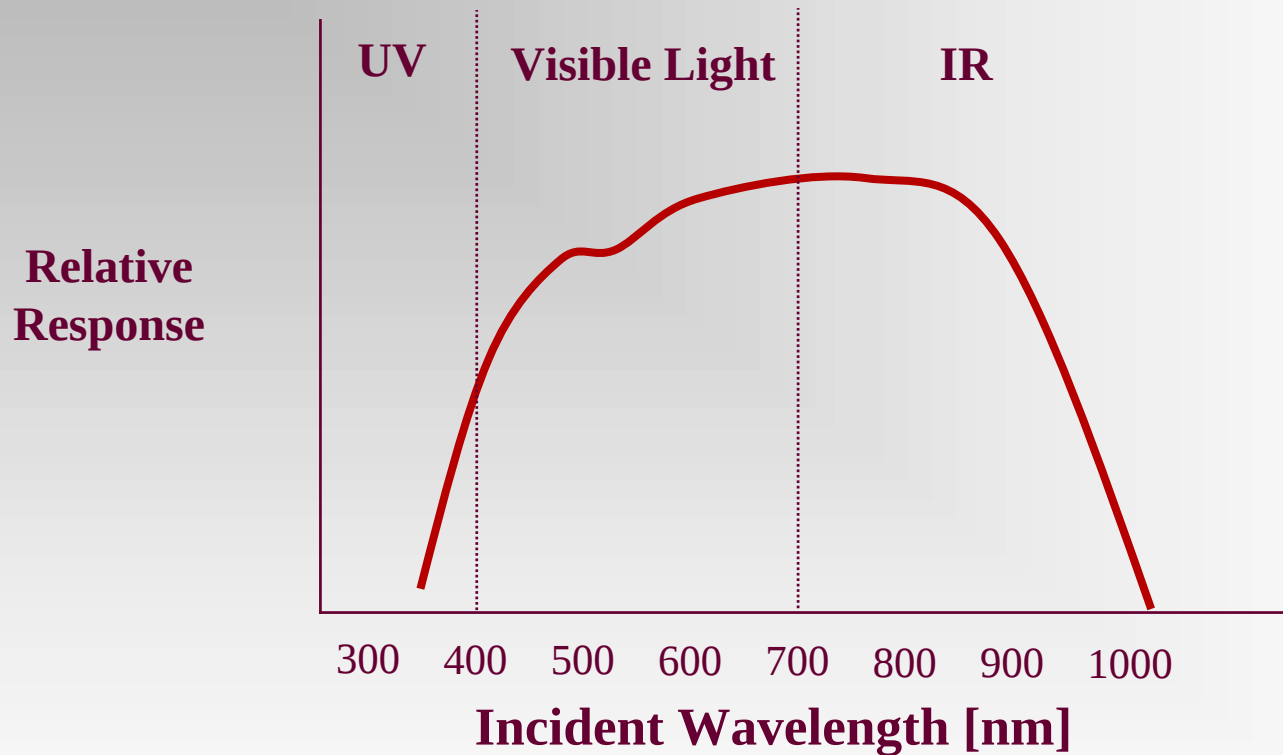
- Silicon is a semiconductor.
- Oxide layer is an insulator.
- Metal gates are conductors.
- Made with microlithographic process.
- One pixel may be made up of two or more metal gates.

Photon/Silicon Interaction



- Photon knocks off one of the *electrons* from the silicon matrix.
- Electron “wanders around” randomly through the matrix.
- Electron gets *absorbed* into the silicon matrix after some period.

Spectral Response (sensitivity) of a typical CCD



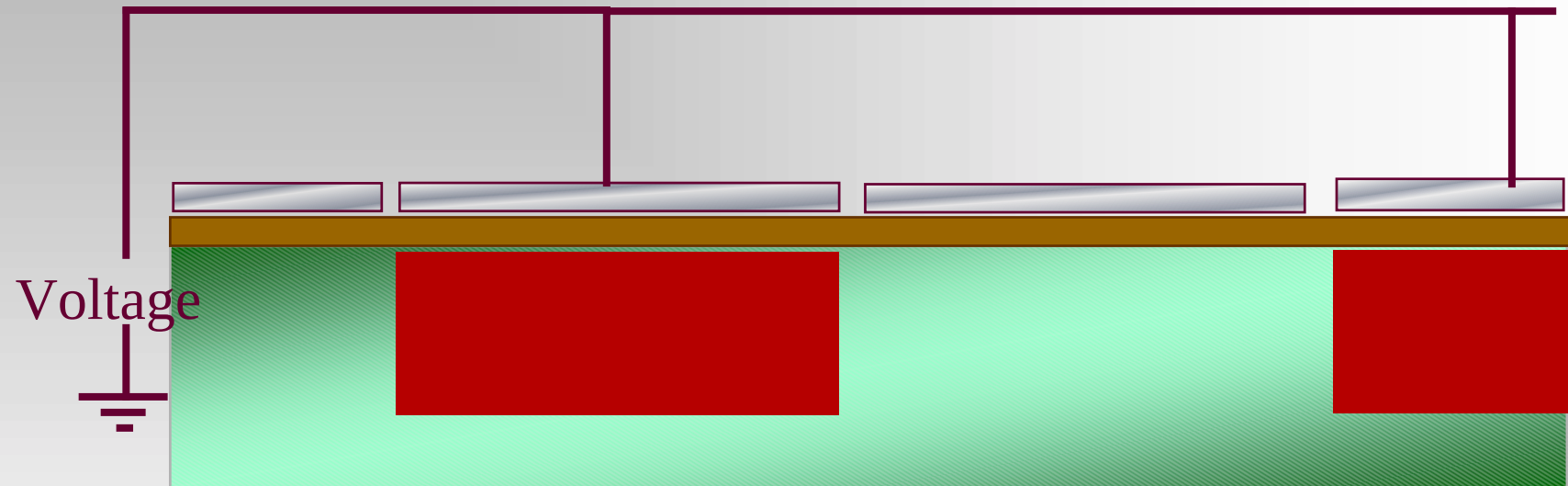
- Response is large in visible region, falls off for ultraviolet (UV) and infrared (IR)

Goal of CCD



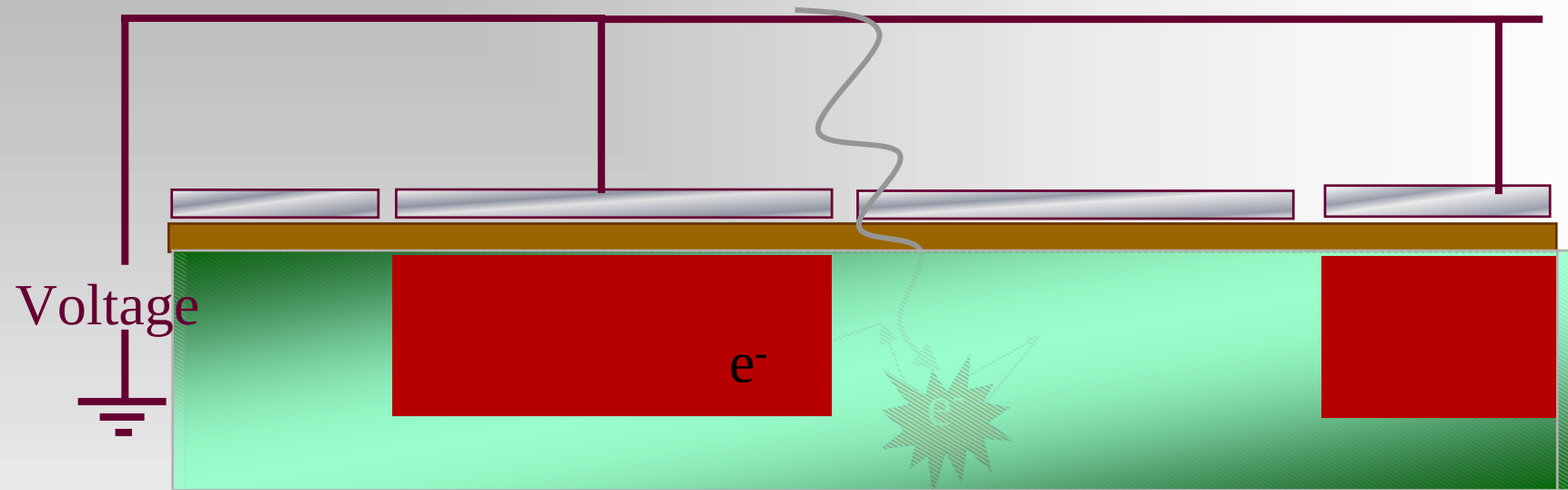
- Capture electrons formed by interaction of photons with the silicon
- Measure the electrons from each picture element as a voltage

Collection stage



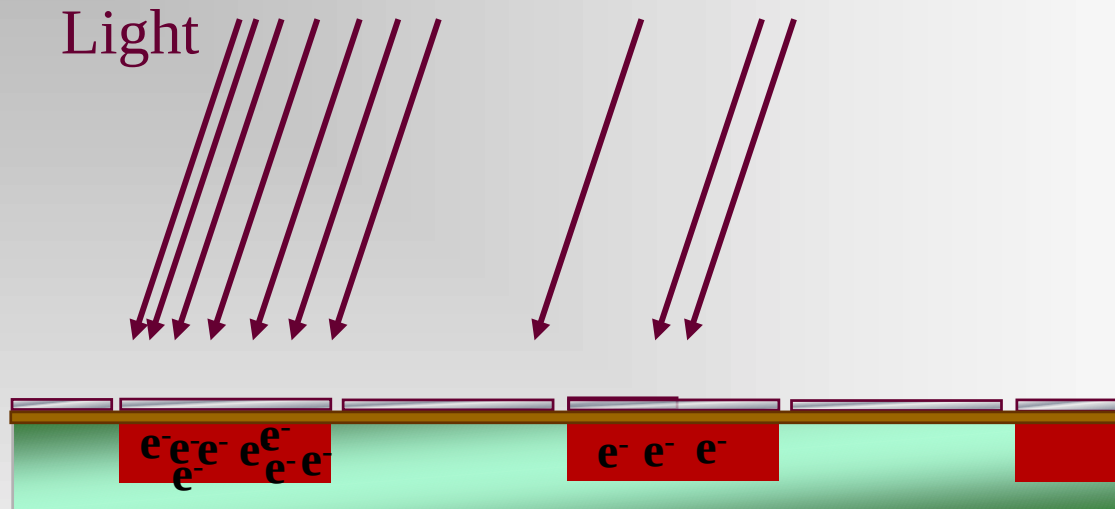
- Voltage applied to the metal gates produces a *depletion region* in the silicon. (depleted of electrons)
- Depletion region is the “light sensitive” area where electrons formed from the photon interacting with the silicon base are collected.

Collection stage



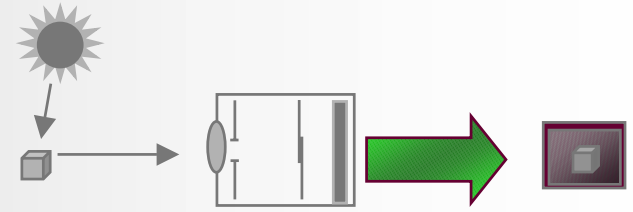
- Electron formed in the silicon matrix by a photon.
- Electron wanders around the matrix.
- If the electron wanders into the depletion region, the electron is captured, never recombining with the silicon matrix.

Collection



- The number of electrons accumulated is proportional to the amount of light that hit the pixel.
- There is a maximum number of electron that these “wells” can hold.

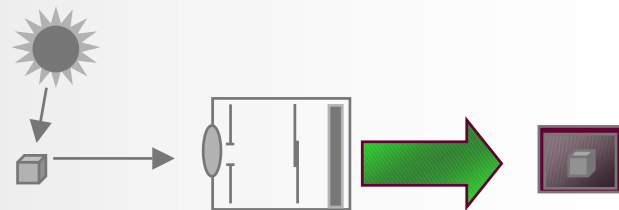
Readout



- Now that the electrons are collected in the individual pixels, how do we get the information out?

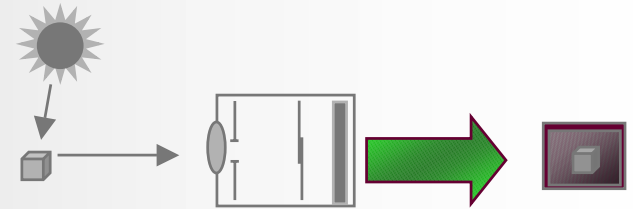


Readout



- How do you access so much data efficiently?
(i.e. a 1024×1024 CCD has 1,048,576 pixels!)
- Possible solutions:
 - 1. *Have output for individual pixels.*
 - Too many “wires”
 - 2. *Somehow move the charges across the CCD array and read out one by one.*
 - Bucket Brigade

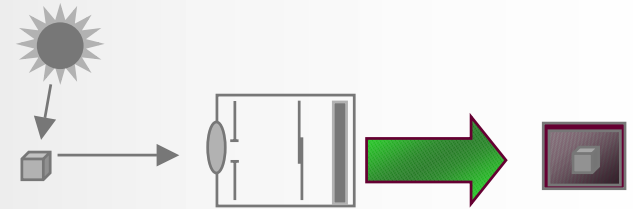
Bucket Brigade



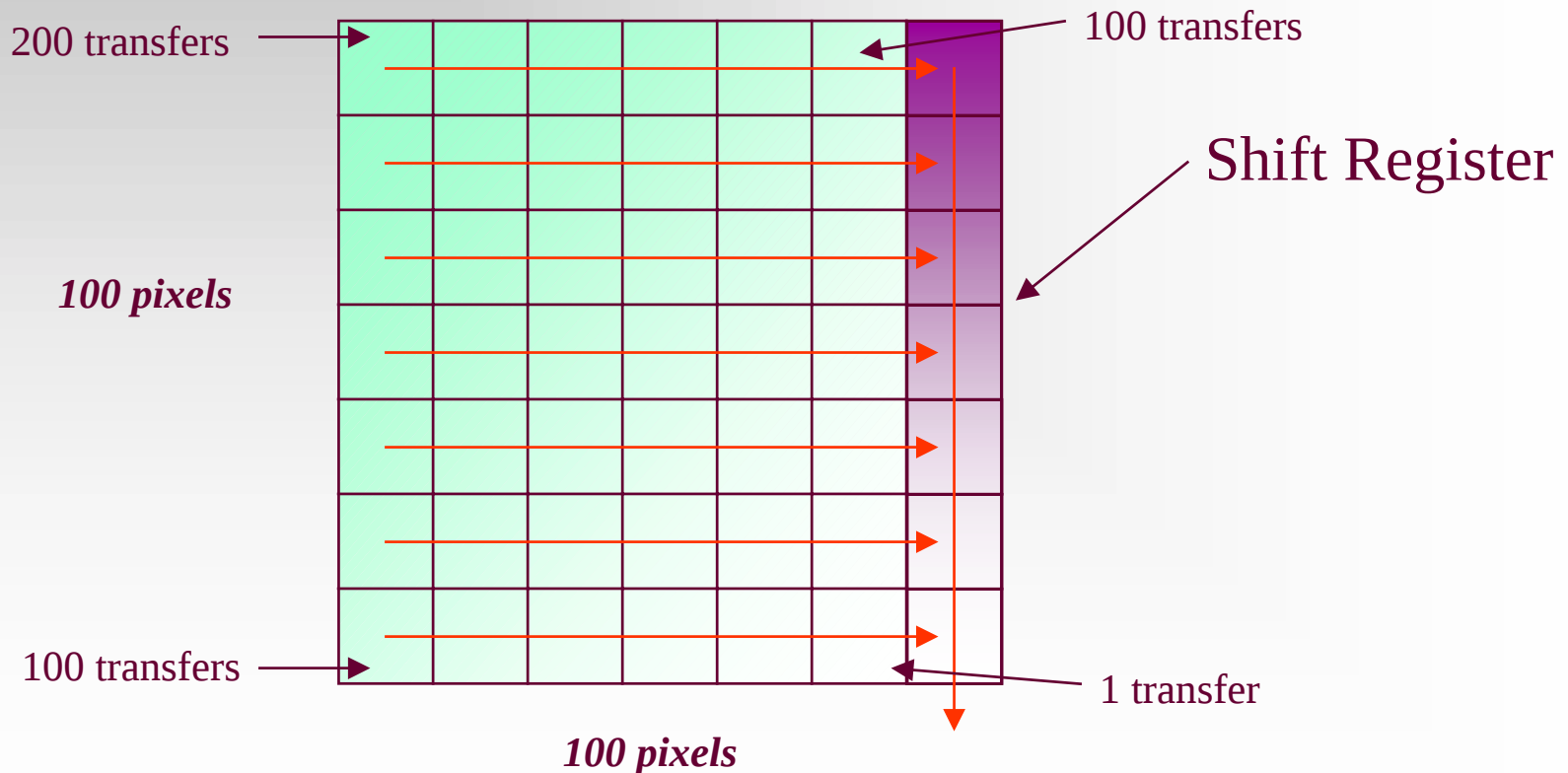
- By alternating the voltage applied to the metal gates, collected electrons may be moved across the columns.



Bucket Brigade



- Charge is marched across the columns into the shift register, then read out 1 pixel at a time.

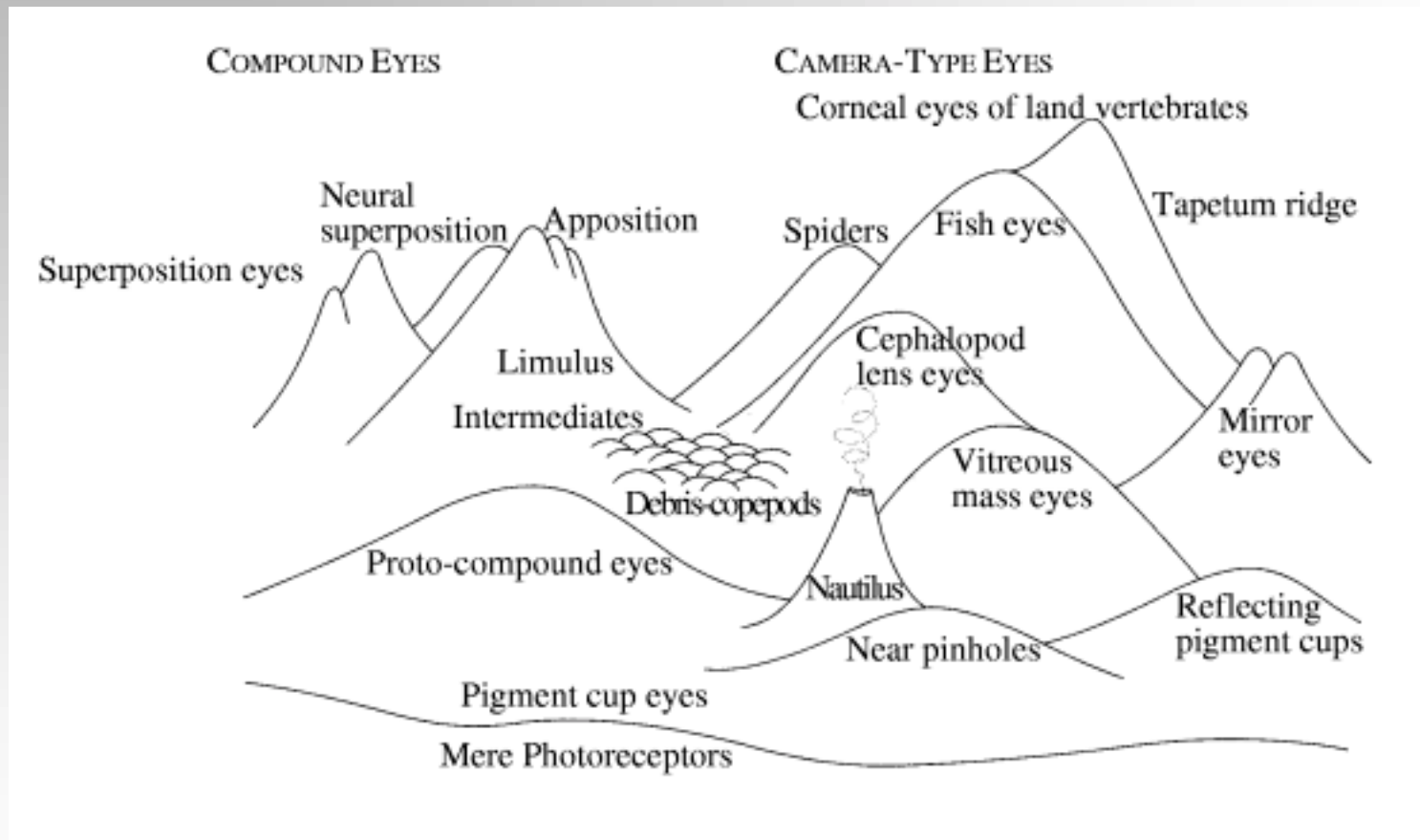


Converting Analog Voltages to Digital

- Analog voltage is converted to a *digital count* using an **Analog-to-Digital Converter** (ADC)
 - Also called a *digitizer*
- The input voltage is *quantized*:
 - Assigned to one of a set of discrete steps
 - Steps are labeled by integers
 - Number of steps determined by the number of available bits
 - Decimal Integer is converted to a binary number for computation

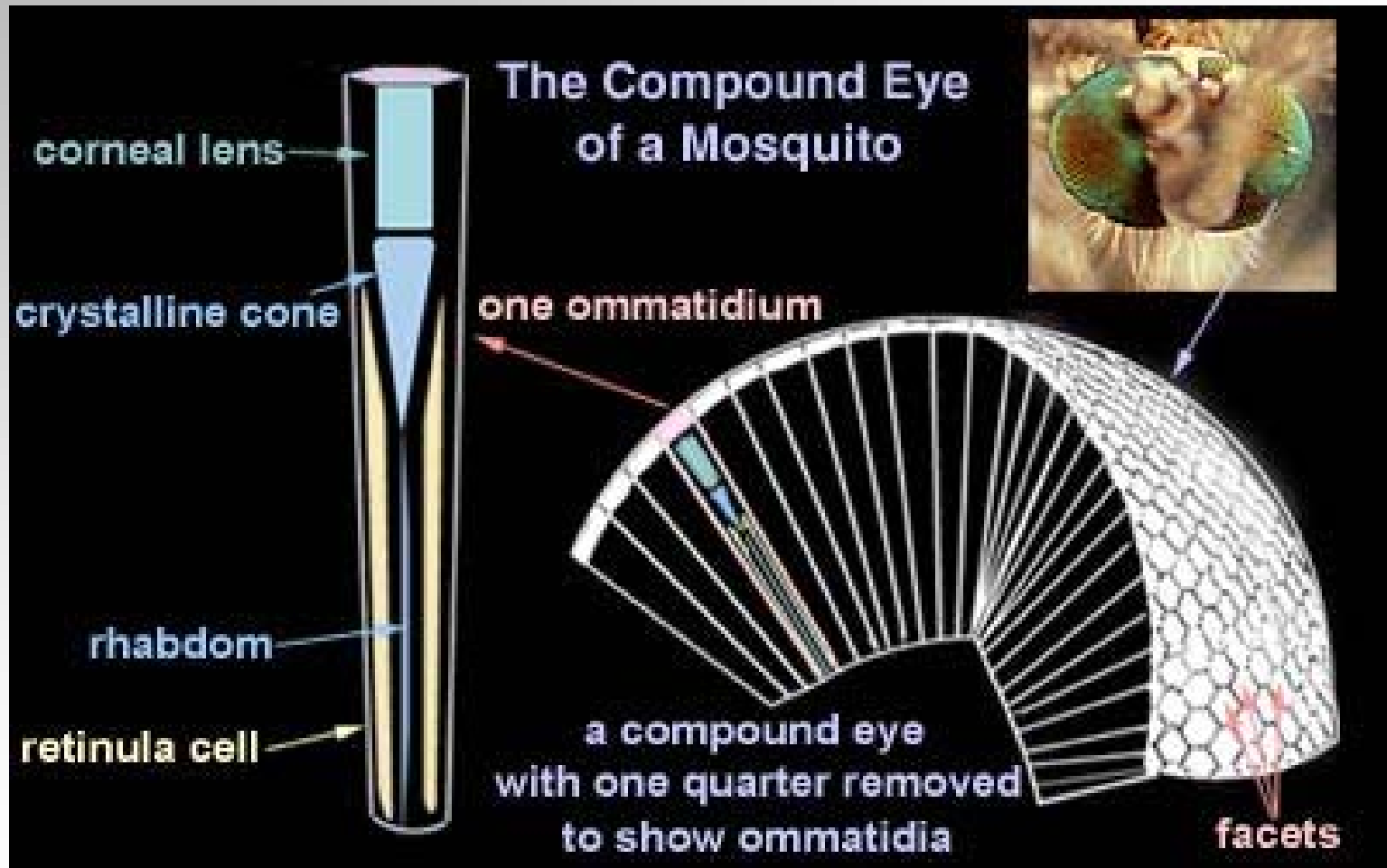


Biological camera design is purposive camera design

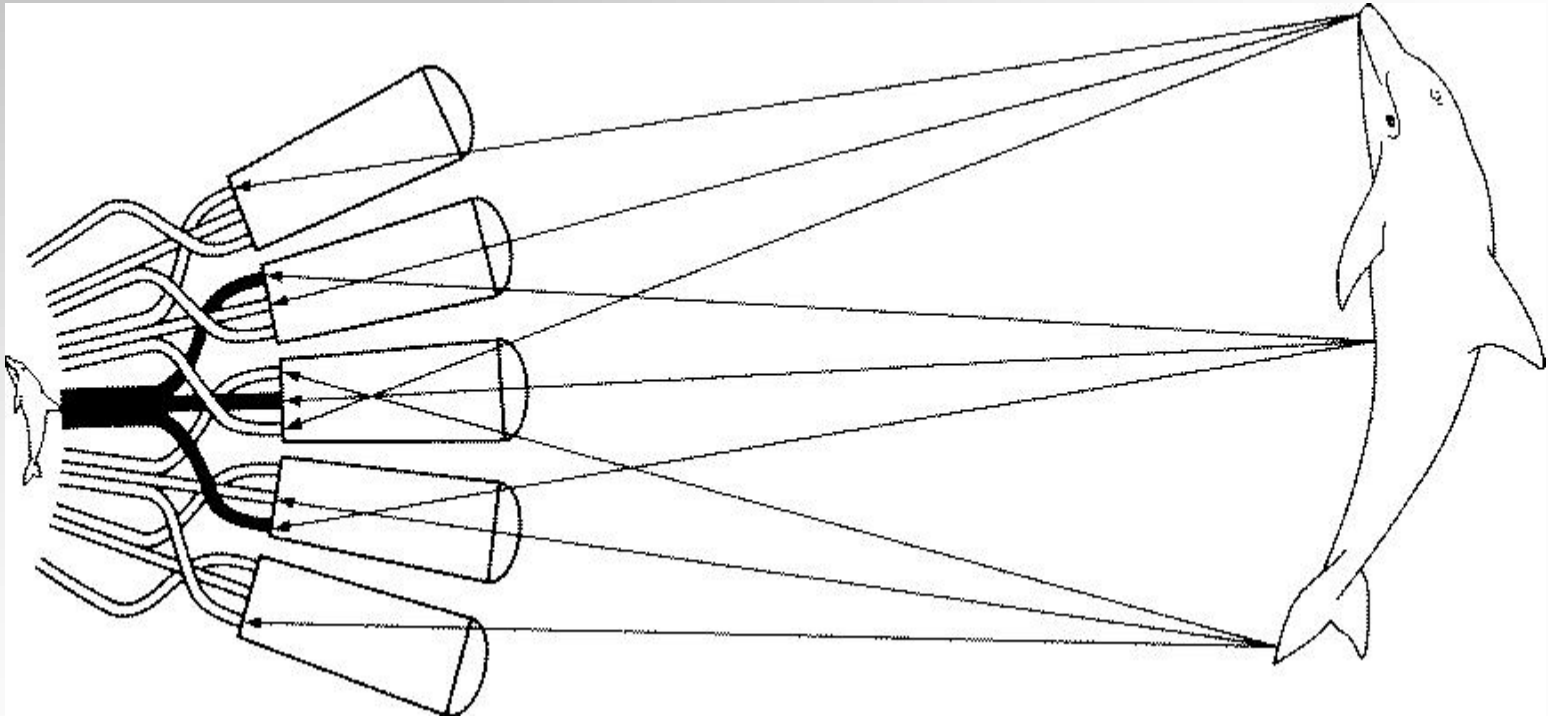


“Landscape of Eye Evolution”
from R. Dawkins’ “Climbing Mount Improbable”

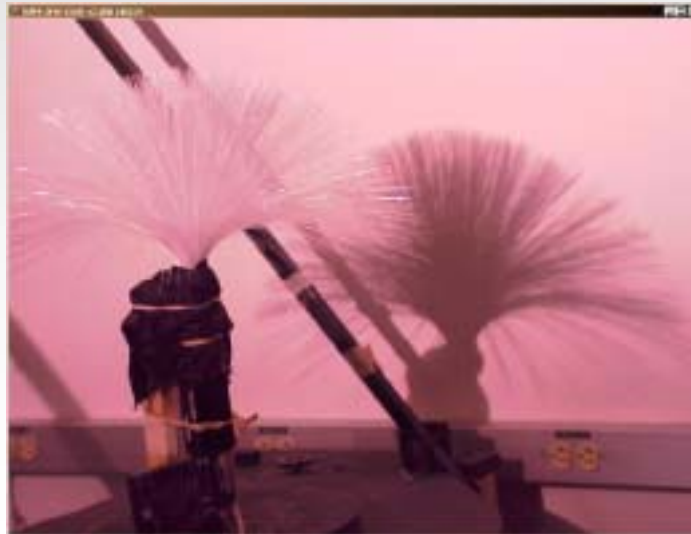
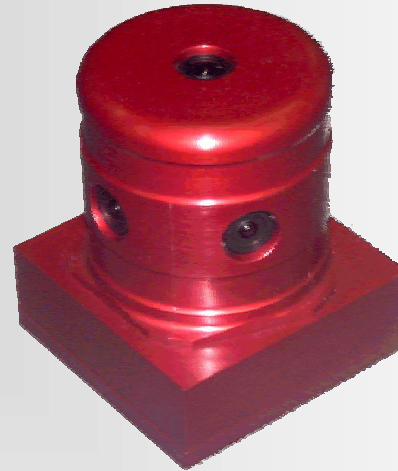
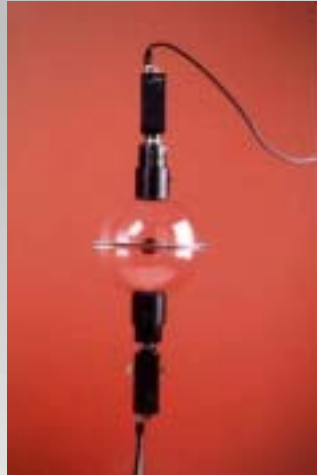
A biological camera



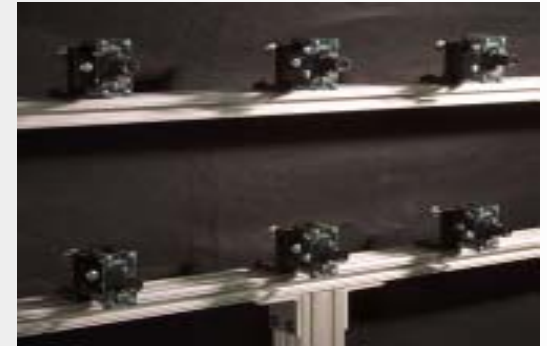
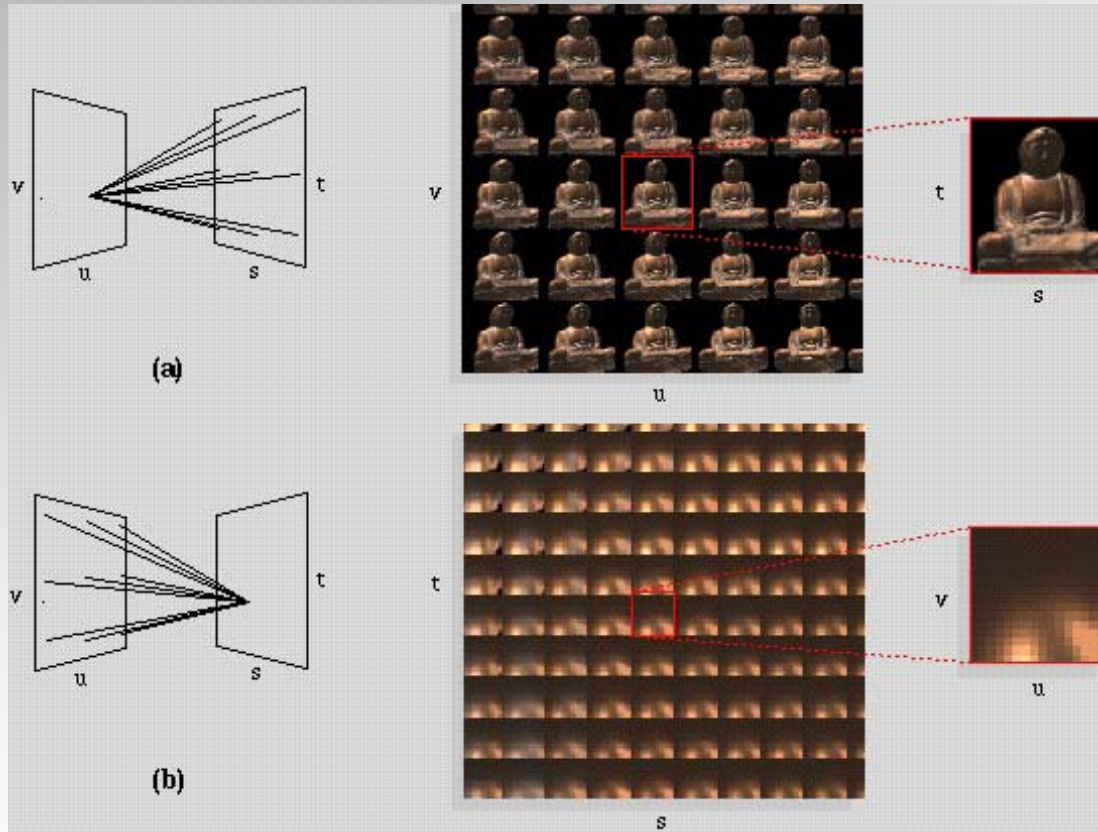
A biological camera



Omni-directional vision



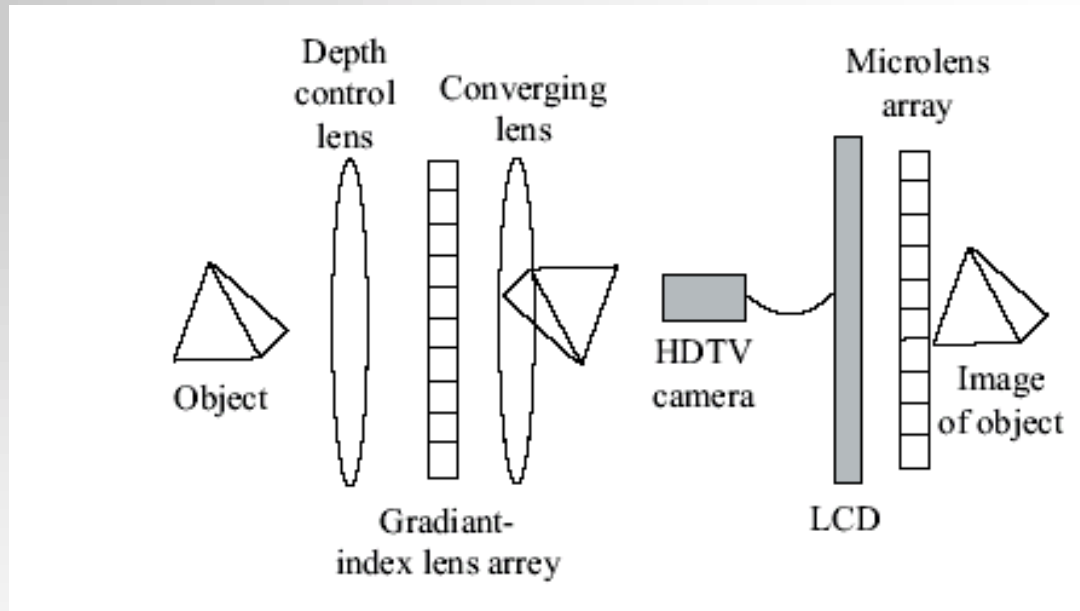
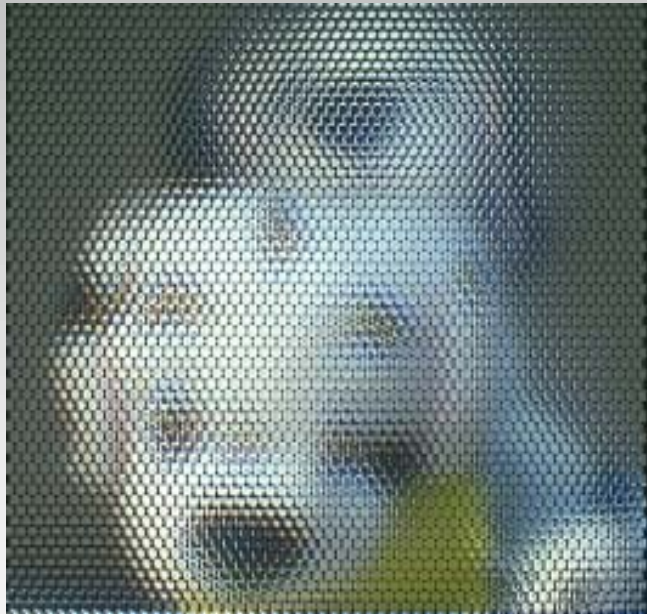
Light field cameras



From Levoy & Hanrahan "Light Field Rendering", SIGGRAPH96

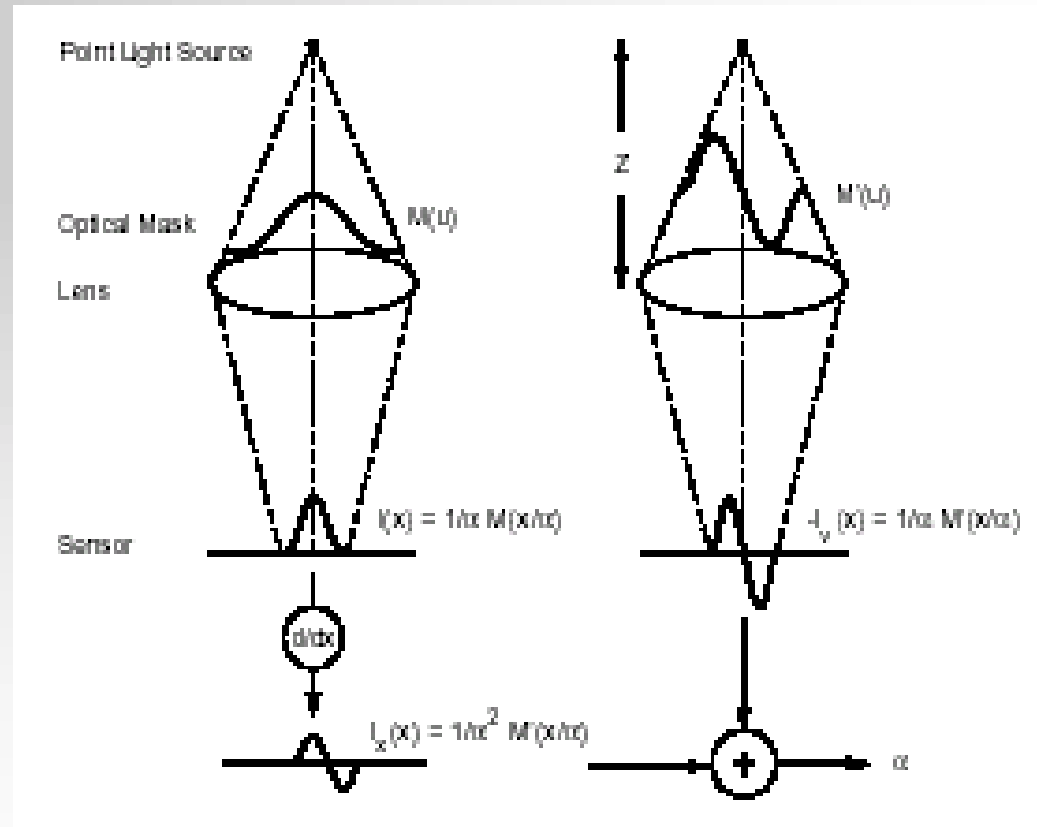
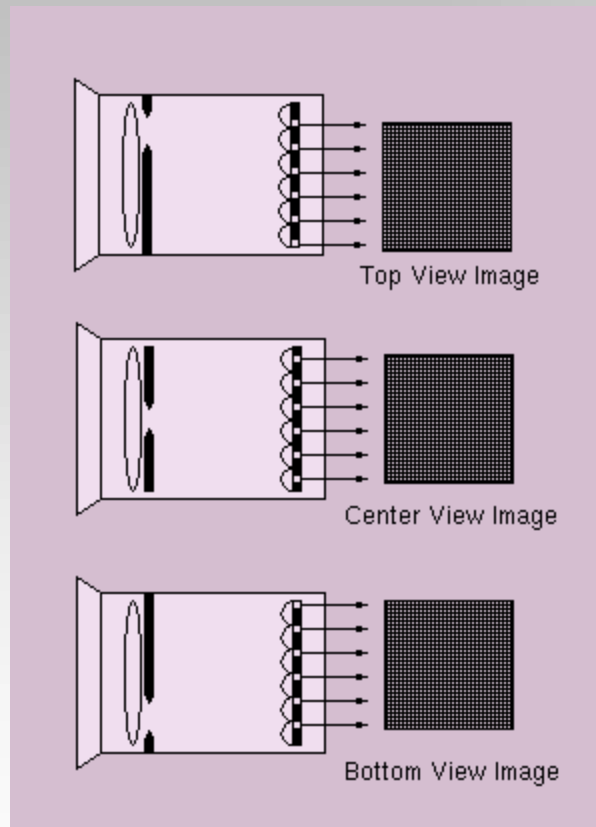
Wilburn et al., '02

Integral photography



- Integral photography
(Lippman '08, Ives '30, Naemura '01)

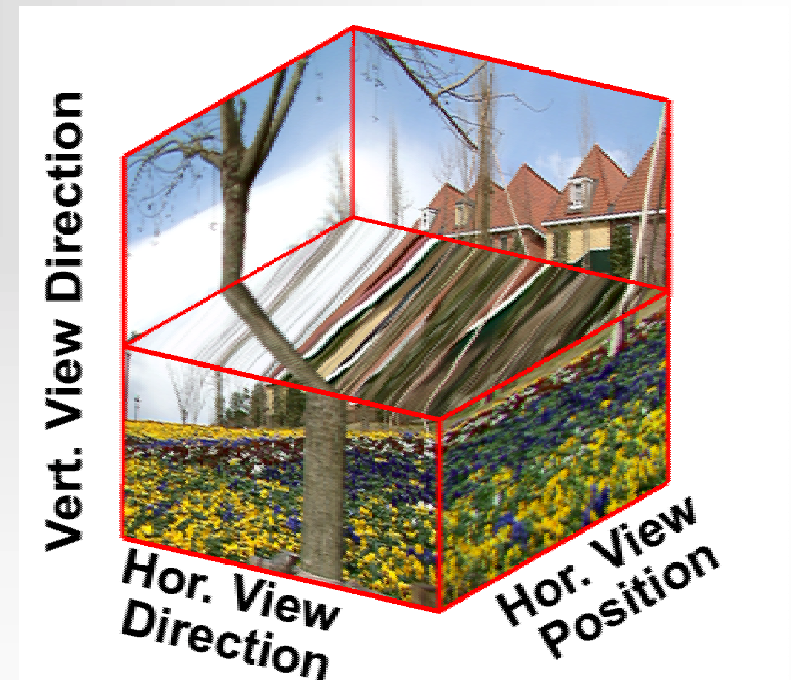
Plenoptic cameras



Adelson & Wang '92

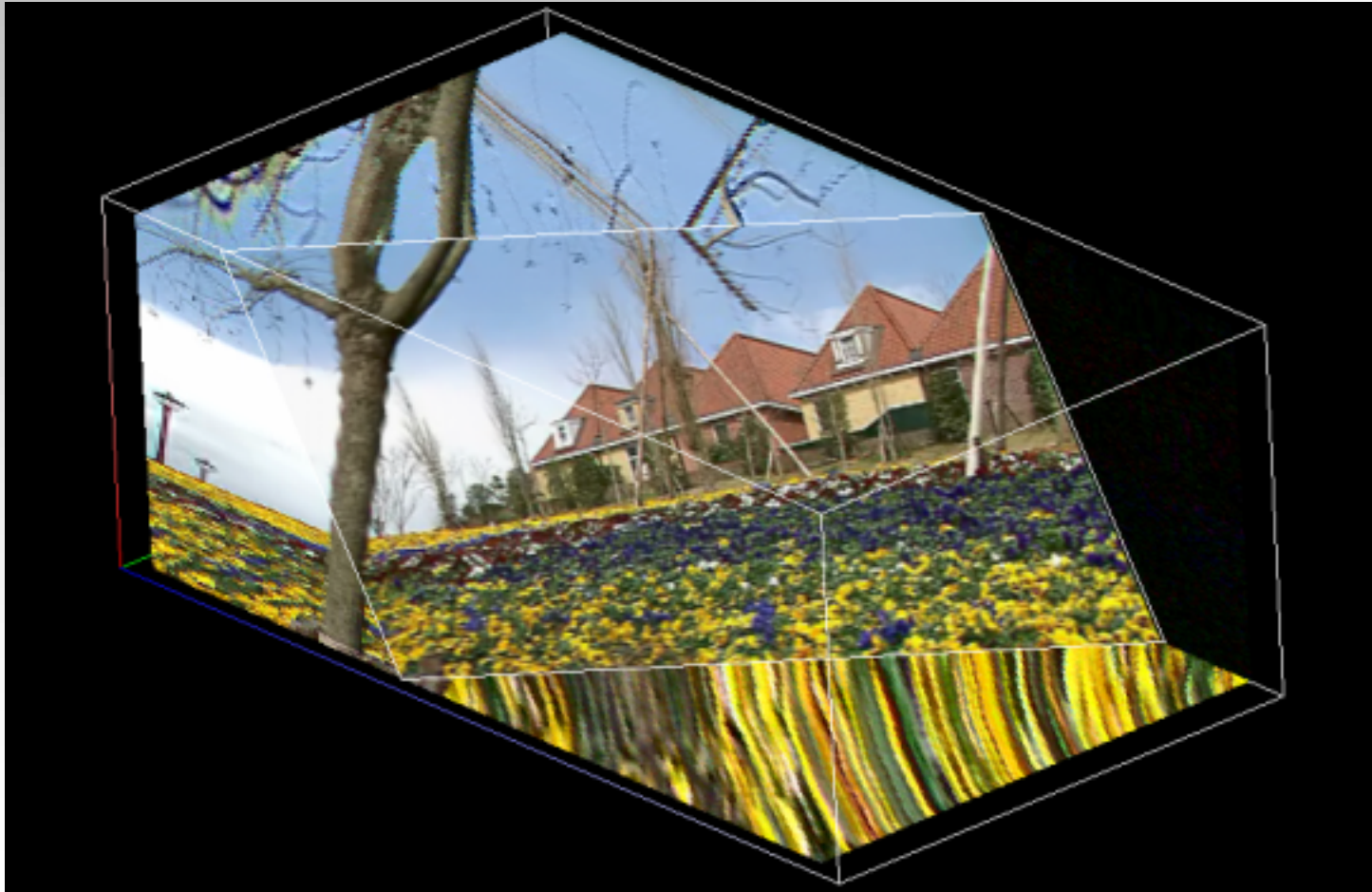
Farid & Simoncelli '97

Does a computer need to see the world with our eyes?



Example: Epipolar Image Volume

Does a computer need to see the world with our eyes?



Picture made
using the
VideoCube
program
by M. Cohen