

# A Visual-Motion Fixation Invariant

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## A VISUAL-MOTION FIXATION INVARIANT

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#### **ABSTRACT**

This paper deals with a visual-motion fixation invariant. We show that during fixation there is a measurable nonlinear function of optical flow that produces the same value for all points of a stationary environment regardless of the 3-D shape of the environment. During fixated camera motion relative to a rigid object, e.g., a stationary environment, the projection of the fixated point remains (by definition) at the same location in the image, and all other points located on the 3-D rigid object can only rotate relative to the 3-D fixation point. This rotation rate of the points is invariant for all points that lie on the particular environment, and it is measurable from a sequence of images. This new invariant is obtained from a set of monocular images, and is expressed explicitly as a closed form solution. In this paper we show how to extract this invariant analytically from a sequence of images using optical flow information, and we present results obtained from real data experiments.

#### 1: Introduction

During eye motion in a stationary environment, the projection of objects in the eye is continuously changing, yet we perceive the environment as stationary. Are there properties of the image that under some transformation remain constant during relative motion between the eye and the environment? In other words, are there visual-motion invariants [1],[2]?

Gibson [3] captured this idea as follows: "If invariants of the energy flux at the receptors of an organism exist and if these invariants correspond to the permanent properties of the environment, and if they are the basis of the organism's perception of the environment

instead of the sensory data on which we have thought it based, then I think there is new support for realism in epistemology as well as for a new theory of perception in psychology."

In this paper we derive an optical-flow-based invariant that exists during the process of camera fixating at a point located on a rigid body (e.g., a stationary environment). It is a new and collective representation of 3-D points that shows that during fixation there is a measurable nonlinear function of optical flow that produces the same value for all points of a rigid 3-D environment regardless of the structure of the environment. In other words, this is a scene independent visual motion invariant. Note that this invariant exists only when motion is presented, as opposed to invariants that exist in still images (see [7]-[9]).

A very basic observation led us to the derivation of this invariant. During the fixation process [4], any camera motion can be described as camera rotation and translation relative to the 3-D fixation point (Figure 1). This motion can also be described as translation of the camera along the camera-fixation-point line, and rotation of the stationary environment relative to the 3-D fixation point. In other words, during the fixation process points on the 3-D rigid environment cannot translate relative to the fixation point, yet they can rotate relative to that point. This rate of rotation (angular velocity) is the same (i.e., invariant) for all points that lie on the 3-D stationary environment at any given instant of time, and it is measurable from a sequence of images. We show how to extract this invariant analytically from a sequence of images using the optical flow information, and we also present the results obtained from real data experiments using a theodolite and a CCD video camera.

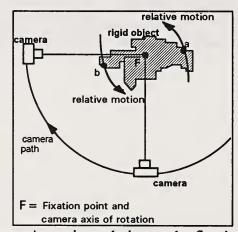


Figure 1: Camera's motion relative to the fixation point.

Some of the prominent features of this invariant are:

- 1. It is a new *collective* representation of 3-D points.
- 2. Only one camera is needed to extract this invariant.
- 3. Camera motion need not be known.

- 4. It exists during fixation, and the fixation point can be chosen arbitrarily.
- 5. It is *a measurable*, nonlinear function of optical flow, i.e., it is measured from visual data in camera coordinates.
- 6. It produces the *same* value for all points of a 3-D rigid object *regardless* of its 3-D shape, i.e., it is valid for any structure in the stationary environment.
- 7. There is no need for 3-D reconstruction.
- 8. The invariant is obtained from a closed form expression, and it is measured in *time* units rather than *distance* units.
- 9. Using a logarithmic retina, this invariant can be obtained directly, i.e., without many additional computations.

#### 2: A fixation invariant

The following assumptions are made in the derivation of the invariant: a) The camera axis of rotation is perpendicular to the line that connects the fixation point with the pinhole point of the camera. b) There is no relative translation between the fixation point and the camera. c) The angular velocity of the camera is constant. d) The angles extracted from the image are approximately equal to the angles extracted from an orthographic projection plane. Practically, in order to achieve similar projection, a narrow field of view camera should be used, and the observed object has to be placed far away from the camera.

Figure 1 shows a moving camera fixated on a stationary object. Without loss of generality, we chose to derive the invariant for a stationary camera fixated on a point located on a rotating 3-D object (Figure 2). This choice simplifies the derivation of the invariant, as well as the experimental set up.

In Figure 2 points A, B and F are points on the 3-D object, where point F marks the 3-D fixation point. Note that points A, B and F need not be on the same horizontal plane. Points F', A' and B' are the projections of points F, A and B on the projection plane, respectively, and points F\*, A\* and B\* are the projections of points F', A' and B' on the image plane, respectively. The axis of rotation of the object is perpendicular to the page. Note that for the chosen projection the following derivation is independent of the distance I between F\*-F'.

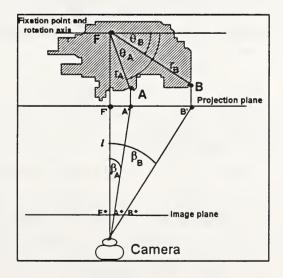


Figure 2: Angles extracted from projection plane.

From Figure 2, for any point on the rigid body, (assuming  $\beta \neq 0$ , and using  $\beta = \beta(t)$  and  $\theta = \theta(t)$ ) the following relationship holds:

$$\tan\beta = \frac{r\cos\theta}{l} \tag{1}$$

Taking the derivative of both sides of Equation (1) with respect to time, we get:

$$\frac{\dot{\beta}}{\cos^2 \beta} = \frac{-r}{l} \omega \sin \theta \tag{2}$$

where the dot above the variable represents derivative with respect to time, and  $\omega = \frac{d\theta}{dt}$  is the unknown angular velocity of the rigid object about the fixation point, which is unknown. Dividing Equation (2) by Equation (1) and after manipulating the results we obtain:

$$\frac{\beta}{\cos^2 \beta \cdot \tan \beta} = -\omega \cdot \tan \theta \tag{3}$$

Therefore,

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(\frac{-2\dot{\beta}}{\omega\sin(2\beta)}). \tag{4}$$

Specifically, for two visible points A and B at time instant t, we can write:

$$\theta_A(t) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{-2\beta_A(t)}{\omega\sin[2\beta_A(t)]}\right),\tag{5}$$

and

$$\theta_B(t) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{-2\dot{\beta}_B(t)}{\omega\sin[2\beta_B(t)]}\right),\tag{6}$$

where subscripts A and B correspond respectively to points A and B of the rigid object respectively at time instant t. Subtracting Equation (6) from Equation (5) at time instants  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  yield Equations (7) and (8) respectively:

$$\theta_{A}(t_{1}) - \theta_{B}(t_{1}) = \tan^{-1} \frac{2\dot{\beta}_{A}(t_{1})}{\omega \sin(2\beta_{A}(t_{1}))} - \tan^{-1} \frac{2\dot{\beta}_{B}(t_{1})}{\omega \sin(2\beta_{B}(t_{1}))}$$

$$\theta_{A}(t_{2}) - \theta_{B}(t_{2}) = \tan^{-1} \frac{2\dot{\beta}_{A}(t_{2})}{\omega \sin(2\beta_{A}(t_{2}))} - (7)$$

$$\tan^{-1} \frac{2\dot{\beta}_{\mathrm{B}}(t_2)}{\omega \sin(2\beta_{\mathrm{B}}(t_2))} \tag{8}$$

Since  $(\theta_A(t) - \theta_B(t))$  is constant at all time instants, one can equate Equations (7) and (8) to get:

$$\tan^{-1} \frac{2\dot{\beta}_{A}(t_{1})}{\omega \sin[2\beta_{A}(t_{1})]} - \tan^{-1} \frac{2\dot{\beta}_{B}(t_{1})}{\omega \sin[2\beta_{B}(t_{1})]} = \tan^{-1} \frac{2\dot{\beta}_{A}(t_{2})}{\omega \sin[2\beta_{A}(t_{2})]} - \tan^{-1} \frac{2\dot{\beta}_{B}(t_{2})}{\omega \sin[2\beta_{B}(t_{2})]}.$$
(9)

Using the identity

$$\tan(\alpha - \beta) = \frac{\tan \alpha - \tan \beta}{1 + \tan \alpha \tan \beta},$$
(10)

Equation (9) can be written as follows:

$$\frac{\frac{a_{1}}{\omega} - \frac{b_{1}}{\omega}}{1 + \frac{a_{1}b_{1}}{\omega^{2}}} = \frac{\frac{a_{2}}{\omega} - \frac{b_{2}}{\omega}}{1 + \frac{a_{2}b_{2}}{\omega^{2}}}$$
(11)

where:

$$a_{1} = \frac{2\dot{\beta}_{A}(t_{1})}{\sin[2\beta_{A}(t_{1})]} \tag{12}$$

$$b_{1} = \frac{2\dot{\beta}_{B}(t_{1})}{\sin[2\beta_{B}(t_{1})]}$$
(13)

$$a_2 = \frac{2\dot{\beta}_A(t_2)}{\sin[2\beta_A(t_2)]} \tag{14}$$

$$b_2 = \frac{2\dot{\beta}_B(t_2)}{\sin[2\beta_B(t_2)]} \tag{15}$$

Manipulations of Equation (11) yield the following:

$$\omega^2 = \frac{a_1 b_1 (a_2 - b_2) - a_2 b_2 (a_1 - b_1)}{(a_1 - b_1) - (a_2 - b_2)}$$
(16)

Note that  $a_1, b_1, a_2$  and  $b_2$  have to be finite numbers, and  $(a_1 - b_1) \neq (a_2 - b_2)$ .

The meaning of Equation (16) is that during fixation there is a *measurable* nonlinear function of optical flow that produces the *same* value (invariant) for all points of a stationary environment regardless of the 3-D structure of the environment. This invariant is  $\omega$ . Note that the solution does not distinguish between clockwise and counter-clockwise rotations.

An interesting fact arises from the derivation of the invariant. The expressions in Equations (12)-(15) can be obtained linearly using a *logarithmic retina*, since the variables  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  are derivatives of a logarithmic expressions. Specifically, we have

$$\frac{2\beta}{\sin(2\beta)} = \frac{d}{dt} \{ \log[\tan(\beta)] \}$$
 (17)

i.e., these coefficients can be obtained directly from a linear change of visual data as measured by a logarithmic retina [6].

## 3: The experiment

In this section we describe: 1) Simulations used to verify the result of the derivation and to test the theoretical limitations of the method. 2) Real data measurements using a Theodolite to test some basic practical aspects of the approach. 3) Real data measurements using a CCD video camera.

#### 3.1: Simulation

We used computer simulations to verify the result in Equation (16), and to test the theoretical limitations of the method. The location of two points on an arbitrary rotating object were simulated, and the angular velocity of the object was obtained using Equations (12)-(16). The points on the object (A and B) were selected arbitrarily with random radii  $(r_A \text{ and } r_B)$ , and with random initial phase  $(\theta_A \text{ and } \theta_B)$ . During the simulated motion the program selects four consecutive time instants  $(t_1, t_2, t_3 \text{ and } t_4)$ , where  $\Delta t = (t_2 - t_1) = (t_4 - t_3) < (t_3 - t_2)$ . At each one of these four time instants the program obtained

the spatial location of the points A and B, and using simple vector analysis it calculated four angles:  $\beta_A(t_1)$ ,  $\beta_B(t_1)$ ,  $\beta_A(t_3)$  and  $\beta_B(t_3)$ , and their approximated derivatives:

$$\dot{\beta}_{A}(t_{1}) \cong \frac{\beta_{A}(t_{2}) - \beta_{A}(t_{1})}{\Delta t} \tag{18}$$

$$\dot{\beta}_B(t_1) \cong \frac{\beta_B(t_2) - \beta_B(t_1)}{\Delta t} \tag{19}$$

$$\dot{\beta}_{A}(t_3) \cong \frac{\beta_{A}(t_4) - \beta_{A}(t_3)}{\Delta t} \tag{20}$$

$$\dot{\beta}_B(t_3) \cong \frac{\beta_B(t_4) - \beta_B(t_3)}{\Delta t} \tag{21}$$

These angles and their derivatives were substituted in Equations (12)-(15) to obtain the final result which is the *angular velocity* of the rotating object.

We varied some simulation factors such as:  $(t_3-t_2)$ ,  $\omega \Delta t$ , l, the ratio  $(r_A/r_B)$ , the ratio  $(\Delta t/\omega)$  and the ratio  $(\theta_1/\theta_2)$ . Table 1 shows the effect of different values of  $\Delta t$  on the results for angular velocity of 10 rad/s. Values of  $\Delta t$  vary from  $10^{-5}$  to  $10^{-1}$  seconds, and as expected the error increases as  $\Delta t$  increases with larger  $\Delta t$ . However, even for the case of  $\Delta t = 0.1$  seconds, i.e.,  $\omega \cdot \Delta t = 1$  radian, the error in the result is only about 4%.

These various tests verified the theoretical results, and showed some limitations of the method. There are three situations that may result in large errors in the analysis of the angular velocity:

- (a)  $(t_3 t_2) \cdot \omega = n\pi$ , where  $n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \cdots$ .
  - In this case, points A, B appear at opposite locations relative to the rotation axis, and therefore no new information about the motion of the object is gained.
- (b)  $\theta_A + \theta_B = \pi + 2n\pi$ , where  $n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \cdots$ . This causes a singularity point in Equation (16).
- (c)  $\Delta t$  is not "small enough". This results in an error in estimating the optical flow  $d\beta/dt$ .

#### 3.2: Theodolite measurements

In this part of the experiment a theodolite is used to measure the  $\beta$  angles. Figure 3 shows an object held by a robot. Points A, B and F were marked on the object by the tip of pins that were inserted into the object like in Figure 4, and the theodolite was located about 1.2 meters away from the axis of rotation.

During the experiment, the robot rotated the object to four different orientations. The  $\beta$  angles, viewed by the theodolite, were recorded at each orientation to yield the data that is necessary for the analysis of the angular velocity, i.e., angles  $\beta_A(t_1)$ ,  $\beta_B(t_1)$ ,  $\beta_A(t_2)$ ,  $\beta_B(t_2)$ ,  $\beta_A(t_3)$ ,  $\beta_B(t_3)$ ,  $\beta_A(t_4)$ , and  $\beta_B(t_4)$ .

Note that there is no real time dimension in this experiment since we stop the robot for every measurement. If one assumes that the angular velocity is  $\omega$ , then the time dimension can be obtained by calculating  $\Delta t$  using  $\Delta t = \Delta \theta / \omega$ .  $\dot{\beta}$  can be approximated using the angles extracted from the theodolite divide by  $\Delta t$  as in Equations (18)-(21). Using these equations the  $\omega$  obtained from the visual data and the calculated  $\Delta t$ , can be compared with the assumed angular velocity.

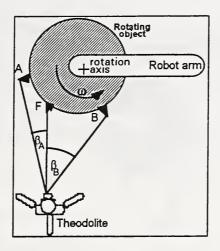


Figure 3: The theodolite experimental setup

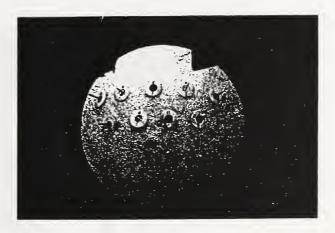


Figure 4: The object used in the theodolite experiment.

The real data results show that the method is quite robust. For 24 different experiments the average error in  $\omega$  is 7.4% as shown in Table 2.

#### 3.3: Camera measurements

In this part of the experiment we used the suggested method to extract the angular velocity of a rotated object using a CCD video camera. The experimental set-up is shown in Figure 5.

The following are some details of the experimental set-up: The distance between camera and the fixation point is 150 cm, and the camera's field of view is about 9 degrees. The object has a minimum radius of 22 cm. In order to simplify the image processing, the object has well defined dark vertical strips located on a white background, for a high contrast, as shown in Figure 6. The object is rotated at an angular velocity of 0.021 rad/s.

During the experimental process we found some practical limitations: (a) The value of  $\omega \Delta t$  should be large enough so that the point being tracked passes through a "sufficient number of pixels" to decrease the effect of the discretization error, yet theoretical limitations impose an upper bound on  $\Delta t$ .

(b) Points that produce large value of optical flow cause larger errors in the computed  $\omega$ . This is due to the fact that these points produce little change in optical flow.

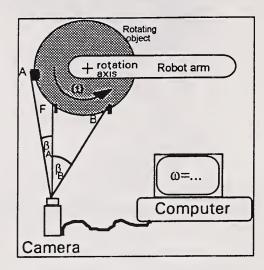


Figure 5: Camera measurements experimental setup

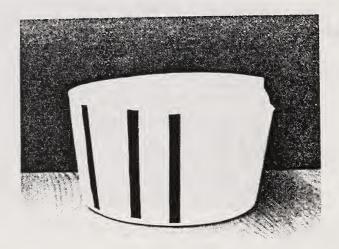


Figure 6: The object used in the camera experiment.

Under these experimental conditions the average error in  $\omega$  over 24 experiments is about 3.5% as shown in Table 3. In every experiment the processing was done over 20 different sets of points simultaneously, and the results were averaged. The real angular velocity of the robot was 0.021 rad/s.

ω =	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0
∆t =	0.0000	0.0000	0.001	0.001	0.01	0.01	0.1	0.1
	1	1						
Result	10.000	10.000	10.043	10.038	9.9753	9.9493	10.274	10.434
=	5	5	1	7	-		6	4

Table 1: The effect of  $\Delta t$  on the error in  $\omega$ . True  $\omega$  is 10 rad/s.

Exp.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Resul t	1.006	1.010	0.956	1.092	1.016	1.140	0.882	1.225
Exp.	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Resul t	1.103	0.958	1.002	0.845	1.059	0.989	0.945	0.953
Exp.	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
Resul t	1.005	0.997	1.007	1.446	0.979	0.966	1.071	0.978

**Table 2:** Results of  $\omega$  using data obtained from the odolite. True  $\omega$  is 1 rad/s.

Exp.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Resul	0.020	0.021	0.022	0.021	0.022	0.019	0.022	0.022
t	3	0	4	3	8	5	6	5
Exp.	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Resul	0.021	0.024	0.022	0.022	0.022	0.022	0.023	0.024
t	9	9	1	0	1	6	1	7
Exp. #	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
Resul	0.021	0.021	0.020	0.019	0.021	0.021	0.019	0.020
t	5	8	1	9	0	6	8	1

**Table 3:** Results of  $\omega$  using data obtained from camera. True  $\omega$  is 0.021 rad/s.

#### 4: Conclusions and Future work

In this paper, it has been shown that during the process of camera fixation there is a scene independent visual motion invariant. The result is stated in a closed form, and can be obtained using the optical flow of only two points at two different time instants. The results of the described experiments, obtained from both simulated and real data, are highly encouraging. Currently we are extending the method to a general motion and textured environments using a feature tracking method [10].

## 5: Acknowledgment

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