PERFORMANCE OF PAN-TILT TRACKER BASED ON THE PIN-HOLE LENS MODEL

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ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

PERFORMANCE OF PAN-TILT TRACKER BASED ON THE PIN-HOLE LENS MODEL

In the modern day, recognition and tracking of face or the iris is potentially one of the most powerful ways of differentiating between an authentic person and an imposter. Our method uses stereo vision to track the 3-Dimensional coordinates of a target equivalent to a person’s eyes and using a pan-tilt unit we target these areas for additional processing such as iris or facial imaging. One of the most important parts involved in tracking is the way the pan-tilt unit is calibrated. There have been techniques in the past where PTZ (Pan-tilt-zoom) digital camera has been used and calibrated using self calibration techniques involving a checker board calibration grid but the tracking error was found to be large in these techniques. We introduce a more accurate form of calibration of the pan-tilt unit using photogrammetric calibration technique and view the pan-tilt unit as an emulation of a Pinhole Lens Model to detect and track the target. The system is demonstrated on ideal targets.

KEYWORDS: Iris Tracking, Pan-tilt Control Unit, Pinhole Lens Model, Perspective Correction Coefficients, Calibration

VIKAS CHANDRA MEHTA

(04/10/09)
PERFORMANCE OF PAN-TILT TRACKER BASED ON THE PIN-HOLE LENS MODEL

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PERFORMANCE OF PAN-TILT TRACKER BASED
ON THE PIN-HOLE LENS MODEL

THESIS

A thesis submitted in the partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Electrical Engineering in the College of Engineering at the University of Kentucky

By

Vikas Chandra Mehta

Lexington, Kentucky

Director: Dr. Lawrence G Hassebrook, Professor of Electrical Engineering

Lexington, Kentucky

2009

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DEDICATION

To my Family
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is my pleasure to express my sincere gratitude to these wonderful persons who have bestowed upon me their guidance and support to the fullest and facilitated the successful completion of this thesis.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

Face and iris recognition are important in many applications to provide identification of people and provide secure access to a building, room, or information. Most of the authentication systems today use passwords or identification number but these are at risk of being used by imposters. The use of biometrics such as face, iris, and finger prints or palm prints for the authentication purposes are very useful as they are unique and are attached to a person. Sometimes even the authentic person may differ because of the illumination level on the face or different facial expressions or the amount of pressure applied while pressing the finger or the palm during the scanning process. Thus perfect matching in presence of image variations of the same person is very important.

Pattern recognition and target tracking can be accomplished using correlation techniques. Advanced correlation filters have many advantages such as the shift invariance in the filtering, i.e. when the input images is translated by a certain amount, the filter output also shifts by the same amount and the shift can be estimated by the location of the peak response. The correlation filter can also be designed to achieve noise tolerance, discrimination, etc. The image matching is generally done by cross correlating an input image with a synthesized template and then analyzing the correlation output. Peaks are searched for in the correlation output and the heights of the peaks, the peak-to-side lobe ratio (PSR), etc are used to find if the input is from the authentic person or not. The location of the peaks indicates the positions of the objects.
This thesis describes the tracking of an object using two stereo cameras, a pan-tilt control unit, and a projector. A 2-plane calibration grid is used to calibrate both the cameras and the pan-tilt unit. Target detection is achieved using the correlation method. A ring filter is adopted to detect the target accurately. The least square approximation algorithm forms the basis of tracking the target. The pan-tilt unit is emulated as a pinhole lens model and based on that, the perspective coefficients of the pan-tilt unit are found. These coefficients along with the coefficients of the cameras and their coordinates helps in finding the pan-tilt coordinates thereby tracking the target.

1.1 Background

The matched spatial filters were first introduced by Vander Lugt in the 1960’s for pattern recognition [1]. Due to the high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) it can be used to detect known targets but the limitation was the degradation in the correlation response peak caused by image distortions such as rotations and scale variations. Moreover one matched filter was required for each combination of the face with different poses and expressions and this was practically not possible. Composite correlation filters were later proposed.

The Synthetic discriminant function filters (SDF) was introduced by Hester and Casasent [2]. SDF filter use a linear combination of reference images to create a composite image which is then correlated with the desired inputs. The weights for the linear combination are selected in such a way that the correlation output at the origin is the same for all images belonging to one class, i.e. if the correlation output values corresponding to the
training images of authentics are set to 1 and the output values due to the imposter
training images are set to 0 then the correlation response will be 0 if the input image is of
an authentic person. But the disadvantage of Equal Correlation Peak SDF filter is that it
results in large side lobes and doesn’t consider noise in the input image. Minimum
variance SDF filters (MVSDF) were introduced to minimize output variance due to noise,
and minimum average correlation energy filters (MACE) can be used to improve
correlation peak sharpness [3]. MVSDF filters emphasize low frequencies, whereas
MACE filters emphasize high frequencies. P. Réfrégier developed an optimal tradeoff
between the MVSDF and MACE filters [4]. Initial SDF filters used hard constraints i.e.,
the correlation peak values were prespecified. Better performance may be obtained with
non training images by using unconstrained correlation filters like maximum average
correlation height filter [5].

In 1990 L. G. Hassebrook, B. V. K. Vijaya Kumar, and L. Hostetler introduced the
Linear Phase Coefficient Composite Filter (LPCCF) [6]. It is based on the synthetic
discriminant function filters. The LPCCF design uses a special form of training set
matrix, i.e., a cyclic Toeplitz matrix; such that the training set selection and filter design
are combined to yield a correlation matrix that is of cyclic Toeplitz form. It required
certain selection criteria to yield training sets that produce the matrix that best approaches
the cyclic Toeplitz form and also represents a range of possible distortions of the object.
The disadvantage of the composite filter approach is that it is numerically intensive as it
requires a 2D Fast Fourier Transform of the entire scene to perform the correlation.
Wei Su and L. G. Hassebrook introduced another approach called a Super Image Vector Inner Product (SIVIP) [7] [8]. It has distortion invariant properties of composite filters but doesn’t require correlation. The SIVIP tracker is a combination of three different filtering techniques originating with LPCCFs. The LPCCF combines a complex phase response with a training set selection such that the phase varies with the distortion, such as rotation and if the distortion represented by the training set is translation then the LPCCF structure can be implemented without correlation. This approach led to the implementation of Vector Inner Product (VIP). The VIP uses translated combinations of the target image which when correlated with an input scene results in a pattern of multiple correlation peaks which could be arranged in an arbitrary pattern specific to the input target class, resulting in a morphological transform of the input. The disadvantage of the VIP is that it is sensitive to distortions and the problem with the phase response estimation is that it requires correlation. The SIVIP tracker solved all these problems. SIVIP uses a sequence of distortion specific super images implemented as Vector Inner Product (VIPs) organized into a decision tree spanning several distortions. A SIVIP is implemented by elementwise multiplying a super-image template by a partition of interest in the input scene and then summing the elementwise operations. The process begins with the generation of a super image set. These images are generated as a weighted sum of distorted target images. The weights are chosen to give a complex response whose phase indicates some characteristic about the target orientation and trajectory.
Most of the composite filters require a 2D FFT, and it requires $M^2 \log M$ operation for $M \times M$ images, whereas SIVIP requires only $M^2$ operations which is computationally more efficient than the conventional correlation methods.

1.2 Thesis Outline

This thesis consists of 6 chapters. The first chapter introduces different methods for detecting and tracking a target and describes the structure of the thesis. The second chapter describes the background on tracking, different calibration methods employed for tracking, the Pinhole Camera Model and the Least Square approximation method which deals with the mathematical part involved in tracking. Chapter three describes the calibration method used for calibrating the cameras and the pan-tilt control unit; process of correlation and detection of target. Chapter four introduces the tracking methodology employed and experiments involving the tracking of a target. Chapter five shows the experimental results and plots. Chapter six provides a concluding overview of the thesis and possible future work.
Chapter 2 Background on tracking

Object (face or iris) tracking has many vision applications such as person authentication face-based biometric, expression analysis, and human computer interface. Tracking a human face or iris is a challenging task as they are nonrigid and have a high degree of inconsistency. Tracking can be feature based or an appearance based. It can be divided into deterministic and stochastic approach. In visual tracking which are based on probabilistic analysis, a Bayesian perspective is used to estimate the current state of an object which changes over time using a sequence of observations made on the system [9]. Particle filtering methods also known as Sequential Monte Carlo (SMC) methods for stochastic approach were also introduced by several research groups [10]. These tracking methods have the advantage of not being subject to any limitation on linear systems nor require the noise to be Gaussian and proved to be more robust to distracting clutter. The Condensation algorithm also falls under the Sequential Monte Carlo methods has gained dominance in the visual tracking [11]. Stochastic tracking is more robust when compared to deterministic tracking as it has the potential for evading local minimum as the search directions are random. But the stochastic algorithms are more time-consuming than the deterministic ones.

Trackers which use classical 3-D vision techniques that provide tools for computing the pose, position and facial gestures suffer from the drifting problem since the facial features do not have enough stable local appearance due to many factors. Appearance-based technique which is a category of deterministic approaches has been widely used for
object tracking [12]. These techniques are easy to implement and are generally more robust than feature-based methods. Statistical facial textures have been adopted to overcome the problem of appearance changes. Gokturk, Bouguet and R. Grzeszczuk proposed a feature-based approach in which a two-stage method has been developed for 3-D tracking of pose and deformations in monocular image sequences [13]. The first stage of the system learns the space of all by applying Principle Component Analysis on real stereo tracking data. The second stage simultaneously tracks the pose and deformation of the face in the monocular image sequence using an optical flow formulation associated with the tracked features. Cascia, Sclaroff and Athitsos proposed an appearance-based approach in which the head is modeled as a texture mapped cylinder and the 3-D head pose is derived by registering the current texture map with a linear combination of texture warping templates and orthogonal illumination templates [14]. Fast and stable tracking was achieved via regularized, weighted least-squares minimization of the registration error. Jorgen Ahlberg proposed an appearance-based approach framework for tracking the face and facial features using active appearance models [15]. The disadvantage of statistical appearance-based tracking methods is that, they depend on the imaging conditions under which the learning is performed and thus, by changing these conditions, one has to repeat the whole learning process, which can be very tiresome. Online appearance models (OAM) for 2-D tracking have also been adopted by researchers. S. Zhou, R. Chellappa, and B. Mogghaddam developed a method adopting deterministic and stochastic principles to track the 2-D motion of faces using an affine transform [16]. The deterministic part was used for guiding random samples. The developed approach adopts adaptive observation models since the object appearance is
learned during the tracking phase. Thus, OAMs offers more flexibility compared to tracking approaches using statistical texture modeling.

2.1 Calibration Theory

Camera Calibration in 3D computer vision refers to determining the metric information (intrinsic and extrinsic parameters) from the 2D image. The intrinsic parameter includes the camera geometry and the optical characteristics such as the $x$-coordinate of the center of projection, the $y$-coordinate of the center of projection, the focal length, the aspect ratio and the angle between the optical axes. The extrinsic parameter includes the orientation of the camera with respect to some world coordinate system and also the 3D position of the camera. Basically, intrinsic parameters determine how light is projected through the lens onto the image plane of the sensor. There are different ways of calibration and they are based on perspective or projective camera models. The two basic techniques among them are the photogrammetric calibration and self calibration. In photogrammetric calibration technique, a target calibration object whose 3D space geometry is well known is observed. The target calibration object generally consists of 2 or 3 planes which are orthogonal to each other. Self calibration methods do not use any calibration frame, grid or object [17] [18]. This technique is used when no Euclidean information is present and the intrinsic parameters are varying. It uses only the information available in the images taken by the camera to find the intrinsic parameters. The problem with pure self calibration is the need for known units. Thus, some form of known distance must be introduced. A common method for doing this is a hybrid of a
fixed photogrammetric grid and no grid at all. This method uses a checkerboard pattern of known dimension which is randomly positioned in view of the camera and images are captured. From these images, the extrinsic parameters are estimated, and therefore the perspective coefficients are estimated.

Camera calibration can be divided into the following types [19] [20]:

1) Linear versus non-linear camera calibration:
   They are differentiated depending on the modeling of lens distortion. Linear techniques are fast but cannot handle lens distortion [21].

2) Intrinsic versus extrinsic camera calibration:
   Intrinsic calibration is used only to obtain the physical and optical parameters of the camera [22] [23], whereas extrinsic calibration deals with the measurement of the position and orientation of the camera in the scene [24] [25].

3) Implicit versus explicit calibration:
   Implicit calibration is the process of calibrating a camera without explicitly computing its physical parameters [26] [27]. The results are generally used for 3D measurement and the generation of image coordinates, but they cannot be used for camera modeling as the obtained parameters do not correspond to the physical parameters [28].

4) Methods using 3D rather than planar point arrays [29] [30].

5) Point based versus line based [31]:
   Point based methods are generally used in photogrammetry, whereas the line based method is used in plumbline calibration.
In a more specific classification, a combination of linear and non-linear techniques is also employed. A linear method is used to compute initial approximations for some of the parameters and the other parameters are computed iteratively [32] [33].

### 2.2 Pinhole Lens Model

A pinhole lens model is used for mapping the three dimensional world coordinate onto the two dimensional image plane. This type of mapping is called perspective projection. It has a small hole through which light enters before forming an inverted image on the image plane facing the hole. A non inverting model is commonly used where the image plane is placed in between the focal point of the camera and the object.

Figure 2.1 shows the perspective projection in pinhole lens model.

![Perspective projection in pinhole camera model](image)
In [33], Tsai describes the steps involved in the transformation of the 3D world coordinates into camera coordinates. If \((x_w, y_w, z_w)\) are the object world coordinate system and \((x, y, z)\) are the camera 3D coordinate system then the transformation from the object world coordinate system to camera 3D coordinate system is given by,

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  x \\
  y \\
  z
\end{bmatrix} = R \begin{bmatrix}
  x_w \\
  y_w \\
  z_w
\end{bmatrix} + T,
\]  

(2.1)

where \(R\) is the 3x3 rotation matrix

\[
R = \begin{bmatrix}
  r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\
  r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} \\
  r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33}
\end{bmatrix}
\]  

(2.2)

and \(T\) is the translation vector

\[
T = \begin{bmatrix}
  T_x \\
  T_y \\
  T_z
\end{bmatrix}
\]  

(2.3)

The 3D camera coordinates \((x, y, z)\) are transformed into ideal image coordinates \((x_u, y_u)\) using perspective projection with pinhole camera geometry.

\[
X_u = f \frac{x}{z},
\]  

(2.4)

\[
Y_u = f \frac{y}{z},
\]  

(2.5)

where \(f\) is the focal length
Distortion due to the radial lens is

\[ X_d + D_x = X_u, \]  \tag{2.6} \\
\[ Y_d + D_y = Y_u, \]  \tag{2.7} \\

where \((X_d, Y_d)\) is the distorted or true image coordinate on the image plane and

\[ D_x = X_d(k_1r^2 + k_1r^4 + \ldots.), \]  \tag{2.8} \\
\[ D_y = Y_d(k_1r^2 + k_1r^4 + \ldots.), \]  \tag{2.9} \\

where \(k_i\) is the distortion coefficient and

\[ r = \sqrt{X_d^2 + Y_d^2} \]  \tag{2.10} \\

The transformation from the world coordinates to the camera coordinates can be expressed by homogenous equations such that

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  s \cdot x^c \\
  s \cdot y^c \\
  s \\
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
  s_x & 0 & x^c & 0 \\
  0 & s_y & y^c & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
  r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} & t_1 \\
  r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} & t_2 \\
  r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} & t_3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
  X^w \\
  Y^w \\
  Z^w \\
  1 \\
\end{bmatrix},
\]  \tag{2.11} \\

where \(s\) is the scale factor.

Equation (2.11) can also be written as

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  s \cdot x^c \\
  s \cdot y^c \\
  s \\
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
  m_{11} & m_{12} & m_{13} & m_{14} \\
  m_{21} & m_{22} & m_{23} & m_{24} \\
  m_{31} & m_{32} & m_{33} & m_{34} \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
  X^w \\
  Y^w \\
  Z^w \\
  1 \\
\end{bmatrix},
\]  \tag{2.12} \\

Therefore, the procedure to obtain the intrinsic and extrinsic parameters is equivalent to calculating the parameters \([m_{11}, m_{12}, \ldots, m_{21}, m_{22}, \ldots, m_{31}, \ldots, m_{34}]^T\).

The affine transformation is included in the pinhole lens model.
In Chapter 3, the pan-tilt unit is viewed as an emulation of a pinhole camera model and based on that the perspective coefficients of the pan-tilt unit are calculated during calibration and are used for the tracking purpose.

### 2.3 Linear Relationship for Determining the Perspective Correction coefficients

The method of least square approximations is used for reconstructing the world coordinates from the triangulated data. The following equations give the mathematical relationships between the physical world coordinates of any point and the corresponding coordinate of that point as viewed by the camera [26].

Let \( (x_{w,n}, y_{w,n}, z_{w,n}) \) be the world coordinates of any one of the \( N \) grid points and \( (x_{c,n}, y_{c,n}) \) be the corresponding camera coordinate of that point as observed in the camera space. The \( Z_w \) dimension is assumed to be approximately parallel to the camera. The world to camera coordinate transforms for a pinhole lens are given by,

\[
x_{c,n} = \frac{m_1 x_{w,n} + m_2 y_{w,n} + m_3 z_{w,n} + m_4}{m_5 x_{w,n} + m_{10} y_{w,n} + m_{11} z_{w,n} + m_{12}},
\]  
\[
y_{c,n} = \frac{m_5 x_{w,n} + m_6 y_{w,n} + m_7 z_{w,n} + m_8}{m_9 x_{w,n} + m_{10} y_{w,n} + m_{11} z_{w,n} + m_{12}},
\]

(2.11) and (2.12)

where \( n=1, 2, \ldots, N \) known points.

The coefficient \( m_{12} \) is made equal to unity so that the transformation is linear at the world origin. A coefficient vector, not including the \( m_{12} \) coefficient is defined as \( 11 \times 1 \) column vector such that

\[
m_{n} = [m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_{10}, m_{11}]^T,
\]

(2.13)
Given a linear equation as

\[ p_o = A_o m_z, \]  

(2.14)

where \( p_o = \begin{bmatrix} p_o^{\text{xc}} \\ p_o^{\text{yc}} \end{bmatrix}, \)  

(2.15)

is a \( 2N \times 1 \) vector constructed from the augmentation of two \( N \times 1 \) vectors given by

\[ p_o^{\text{xc}} = [m_{12} x_{e,n} \ ... \ m_{12} x_{e,N}]^T, \]  

(2.16)

and

\[ p_o^{\text{yc}} = [m_{12} y_{e,n} \ ... \ m_{12} y_{e,N}]^T, \]  

(2.17)

The factor matrix \( A \) is \( 2N \times 11 \) and constructed by the augmentation of two matrices as

\[ A_o = \begin{bmatrix} A_o^{\text{xc}} \\ A_o^{\text{yc}} \end{bmatrix}, \]  

(2.18)

where,

\[ A_o^{\text{xc}} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{w,1} & y_{w,1} & z_{w,1} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -x_{e,1} x_{w,1} & -x_{e,1} y_{w,1} & -x_{e,1} z_{w,1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{w,N} & y_{w,N} & z_{w,N} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -x_{e,N} x_{w,N} & -x_{e,N} y_{w,N} & -x_{e,N} z_{w,N} \end{bmatrix}, \]  

(2.19)

and

\[ A_o^{\text{yc}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x_{w,1} & y_{w,1} & z_{w,1} & 1 & -y_{e,1} x_{w,1} & -y_{e,1} y_{w,1} & -y_{e,1} z_{w,1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x_{w,N} & y_{w,N} & z_{w,N} & 1 & -y_{e,N} x_{w,N} & -y_{e,N} y_{w,N} & -y_{e,N} z_{w,N} \end{bmatrix}, \]  

(2.20)

The Least Squares Solution for the coefficient vector is

\[ m_z = (A_o^T A_o)^{-1} A_o^T p_o, \]  

(2.21)
Chapter 3 Calibration Process

The following flowchart shows the system model and the general procedure to track an object.

![Flow Chart of the tracking system model](image)

Figure 3.1: Flow Chart of the tracking system model.

After calibrating (explained in the next section) the cameras and the pan-tilt unit, the camera coordinates \((x_{Ac}, y_{Ac}, x_{Bc}, y_{Bc})\) of Camera A and Camera B are known. Using
these camera coordinates we find the world coordinates \((x_w, y_w, z_w)\) of the object. These world coordinates are converted to pan-tilt angles and fed to the pan-tilt unit which calculates the pan and tilt required to track the target and pans and tilts in the direction of the object. The projector points a red spot on the object. This is the general procedure which we use for tracking an object (face and iris).

Figure 3.3 shows the apparatus setup which is equivalent to Figure 3.1

The following equations are used to find the world coordinates of the target.

Let

\[
D_n = \begin{bmatrix}
    x_{A_{c,n}} & m_{a12} - m_{a1} & m_{a2} - m_{a11}X_{w,n} & m_{a3} - m_{a11}Y_{w,n} \\
    y_{A_{c,n}} & m_{b12} - m_{b1} & m_{b2} - m_{b11}X_{w,n} & m_{b3} - m_{b11}Y_{w,n} \\
    x_{B_{c,n}} & m_{c12} - m_{c1} & m_{c2} - m_{c11}X_{w,n} & m_{c3} - m_{c11}Y_{w,n} \\
    x_{B_{c,n}} & m_{d12} - m_{d1} & m_{d2} - m_{d11}X_{w,n} & m_{d3} - m_{d11}Y_{w,n}
\end{bmatrix},
\]

(3.1)

\[
C_n = \begin{bmatrix}
    m_{a1} & m_{a2}X_{w,n} & m_{a3}X_{w,n} & m_{a4}X_{w,n} & m_{a5}X_{w,n} & m_{a6}X_{w,n} & m_{a7}X_{w,n} \\
    m_{a2} & m_{a3}Y_{w,n} & m_{a4}Y_{w,n} & m_{a5}Y_{w,n} & m_{a6}Y_{w,n} & m_{a7}Y_{w,n} & m_{a8}Y_{w,n} \\
    m_{b1} & m_{b2}X_{w,n} & m_{b3}X_{w,n} & m_{b4}X_{w,n} & m_{b5}X_{w,n} & m_{b6}X_{w,n} & m_{b7}X_{w,n} \\
    m_{b2} & m_{b3}Y_{w,n} & m_{b4}Y_{w,n} & m_{b5}Y_{w,n} & m_{b6}Y_{w,n} & m_{b7}Y_{w,n} & m_{b8}Y_{w,n}
\end{bmatrix},
\]

(3.2)

where \((x_{A_{c,n}}, y_{A_{c,n}}, x_{B_{c,n}}, y_{B_{c,n}})\) are the camera coordinates of Camera A and B,

\((m_{a1}, m_{a2}, m_{a3}, m_{a4}, m_{a5}, m_{a6}, m_{a7})\) and \((m_{b1}, m_{b2}, m_{b3}, m_{b4}, m_{b5}, m_{b6}, m_{b7})\) are the coefficients of camera A and B which are explained later in this chapter.

We have,

\[
D_n = C_n P_n
\]

(3.3)

where \(P_n\) is the world coordinate

Multiplying both sides by \(C_n^T\),

\[
C_n^T D_n = (C_n^T C_n) P_n^w,
\]

(3.4)

\[
P_n^w = R_{cc}^{-1} C_n^T D_n,
\]

(3.5)
where,
\[ R_{cc} = C_n^T C_n \]  \hspace{1cm} (3.6)

Once the world coordinates of the target are found, they are used to find the pan-tilt coordinates. Equation 3.7 and 3.8 shows the formula for calculating the pan-tilt coordinates using the world coordinates and the ‘\( m \)’ coefficients of the pan-tilt unit.

\[
x_{p,n} = \frac{m_1 x_{w,n} + m_2 y_{w,n} + m_3 z_{w,n} + m_4}{m_9 x_{w,n} + m_{10} y_{w,n} + m_{11} z_{w,n} + m_{12}} \]  \hspace{1cm} (3.7)

and

\[
y_{t,n} = \frac{m_5 x_{w,n} + m_6 y_{w,n} + m_7 z_{w,n} + m_8}{m_9 x_{w,n} + m_{10} y_{w,n} + m_{11} z_{w,n} + m_{12}} \]  \hspace{1cm} (3.8)

Equations (3.7) and (3.8) are nothing but the world to camera coordinate transforms for a pinhole lens. Here the pan-tilt unit is emulated as a pinhole camera model.

### 3.1 Apparatus

The technique used here is the photogrammetric calibration in which a 2-plane target calibration grid is used as shown in Figure 3.2. Both the planes are orthogonal to each other and consist of 9 rings each making to a total of 18 rings on the grid. A ring is equidistant to the immediate neighborhood ring. Two stereo cameras (scorpion), a projector, pan/tilt unit and a calibration grid are used for the calibration process. Figure 3.3 shows the apparatus used for the calibration process.
Figure 3.2: Calibration Grid for calibrating the cameras and the pan-tilt unit

Figure 3.3: Apparatus Setup.
3.2 Calibration Method

The pan and tilt unit is programmed to pan left/right and tilt up/down. The projector is placed on the pan-tilt control unit in such a way that when the pan-tilt unit moves, the single projector point of projection also changes. This helps in projecting a spot at the required area. A Laser beam can also be used instead of a projector here but was less convenient. A white spot is projected with the help of the projector on the center of one of the rings of the calibration grid which is placed at a certain distance from the two stereo cameras. At this point the pan-tilt reading (the number of steps it moved from the zero position to the right or left and the number of steps it moved from top to bottom from the zero position) and the world coordinates of that particular ring are noted. Next the white spot is projected on to the center of the ring adjacent to the first one and the pan-tilt and world coordinates of that ring are noted. Similarly, the world coordinates and the pan-tilt reading of all the 18 rings in the calibration grid are noted. The pan and tilt readings of the calibration grid rings are represented as \( x_{p,n} \) and \( y_{t,n} \) respectively.

The pan-tilt spot projection can be viewed as a pinhole lens model as explained in section 2.2. We apply the pinhole lens model to the pan-tilt unit spot projection. The lens of the projector forms the center of projection. Therefore we are able to use the least square triangulation algorithm to calculate the \( m \) coefficients of the pan-tilt system.
Calculating $m$ coefficients of the pan-tilt system:

$m_p$ is a $11 \times 1$ column vector as shown below,

$$m_p = \begin{bmatrix} m_1 & m_2 & m_3 & m_4 & m_5 & m_6 & m_7 & m_8 & m_9 & m_{10} & m_{11} \end{bmatrix}^T,$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.9)

The formula for calculating $m$ is given by,

$$m_p = (A_p^T A_p)^{-1} A_p^T p_p,$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.10)

where $A_p = \begin{bmatrix} A_{xp} \\ A_{yp} \end{bmatrix}$,  \hspace{1cm} (3.11)

and

$$A_{xp} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{w,1} & y_{w,1} & z_{w,1} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -x_{p,1} x_{w,1} & -x_{p,1} y_{w,1} & -x_{p,1} z_{w,1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{w,N} & y_{w,N} & z_{w,N} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -x_{p,N} x_{w,N} & -x_{p,N} y_{w,N} & -x_{p,N} z_{w,N} \end{bmatrix},$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.12)

$$A_{yp} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x_{w,1} & y_{w,1} & z_{w,1} & 1 & -y_{t,1} x_{w,1} & -y_{t,1} y_{w,1} & -y_{t,1} z_{w,1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x_{w,N} & y_{w,N} & z_{w,N} & 1 & -y_{t,N} x_{w,N} & -y_{t,N} y_{w,N} & -y_{t,N} z_{w,N} \end{bmatrix},$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.13)

and

$$p_p = A_p m_p,$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.14)

where, $p_p = \begin{bmatrix} p_{zp} \\ p_{zt} \end{bmatrix}$, \hspace{1cm} (3.15)

and

$$p_{zp} = \begin{bmatrix} m_{12} x_{p,o} & \ldots & m_{12} x_{p,N} \end{bmatrix}^T,$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.16)

$$p_{zt} = \begin{bmatrix} m_{12} y_{t,o} & \ldots & m_{12} y_{t,N} \end{bmatrix}^T,$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.17)

Table 3.1 shows the world coordinates $(x_{w,o}, y_{w,o}, z_{w,o})$ and the pan-tilt unit coordinates $(x_{p,o}, y_{t,o})$. 
Table 3.1: World Coordinates and pan-tilt unit Coordinates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points</th>
<th>$x_{w,a}$</th>
<th>$y_{w,a}$</th>
<th>$z_{w,a}$</th>
<th>$x_{p,a}$</th>
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</table>
Using the Table 3.1 and replacing \((x_{e,n}, y_{e,n})\) with \((x_{p,n}, y_{t,n})\) the \(m\) coefficients of pan-tilt unit are found to be,

\[
m_0 = \begin{bmatrix}
-3.255552 & -0.043276 & 0.185681 & 1567.852407 & 0.139881 & 2.927261 & -0.440951 \\
& & & & & & -1097.618751 & -0.000238 & -0.000018 & 0.000742
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Similarly, using the equations 3.9 to 3.17, the \(m\) coefficients of the stereo cameras A and B are found.

The Table 3.2 and Table 3.3 show the world coordinates and the camera coordinates of camera A and camera B.

**Table 3.2 World Coordinates and Camera Coordinates of Camera A.**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Points</th>
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<th>(y_{w,n})</th>
<th>(z_{w,n})</th>
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<th>(y_{Ac,n})</th>
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Table 3.3 World Coordinates and Camera Coordinates of Camera B.

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<td>31.82</td>
<td>747.91</td>
<td>461.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using the Table 3.2 and Table 3.3, the $m$ coefficients of the cameras are found to be.

$$m_A = \begin{bmatrix}
1.882042 & -0.061885 & 0.492436 & 604.987292 & -0.031149 & -1.853129 & 0.166115 \\
662.390418 & -0.000016 & -0.000075 & 0.000823 & \\
\end{bmatrix}.$$

$$m_B = \begin{bmatrix}
1.896437 & -0.002000 & 0.462156 & 548.819154 & -0.064282 & -1.785649 & 0.635329 \\
767.328187 & -0.000009 & 0.000084 & 0.000828 & \\
\end{bmatrix}.$$
3.3 Ring Filter and Target detection

A ring filter is designed to detect the target. The basic methodology is to correlate the images of both the cameras A and B with the ring filter in real time and find the peak in the correlated image. Before the correlation is performed, the images of both the cameras are down sampled by 2 to speed up the process. The bmp image of the ring filter is shown in Figure 3.4.

![Bmp image of the Ring Filter.](image)

Figure 3.4: Bmp image of the Ring Filter.

The white portion on the image in Figure 3.4 is the positive target ring. When the ring filter is correlated with the camera image, the white portion forms the target to be
detected. The black portion is the negative suppression ring and forms the regions that are suppressed during correlation. The gray portion are don’t care regions. The radius of the positive target ring and the negative suppression ring are chosen in such a way that the target is detected and the other regions are suppressed. The next step is to find the peak to side lobe ratio and the peak of the correlated image. The radius of the peak and the side lobe is set in such a way that the radius of the side lobe is twice the radius of the peak in order to have a perfect detection of the target. After finding the peak in the correlated image, the coordinates of the peak are found. These coordinates are multiplied by 2 as the images were down sampled previously. Crosshairs are used to mark the peak which is nothing but the target.

An experiment is done in which a white circle in a dark background is used as the target and is to be detected.

Figure 3.5 shows the input images of the target taken from both the cameras A and B.
The input images shown in Figure 3.5 are correlated with the ring filter shown in Figure 3.4. Figure 3.6 shows the correlated images of camera A and B respectively.

Figure 3.6: Result of the correlation of the input images in Figure 3.5 with the ring filter shown in Figure 3.4

After the correlation is done, the psr (peak to side lobe ratio) and peaks are found in the correlated image. Crosshairs are placed at the peak coordinates in order to indicate the target. Figure 3.7 shows the crosshair at the detected target.
Figure 3.7: Target detection shown by the cross hair at the target.

Once the target is detected and the camera coordinates of the target have been found, the next step is to track the target using the pan-tilt unit and the projector. This is explained in Chapter 4.
Chapter 4 Tracking Methodology

4.1 Our Approach

After the target has been detected, the next step is to track the target within the range of
the cameras. The coordinates of the center of the target i.e., the peak values of the target
as found in Chapter 3, the ‘m’ coefficients of both the cameras A and B and the ‘m’
coefficients of the pan-tilt unit are used for tracking the target. The coordinates of the
target are nothing but the camera coordinates of the target \( (x_{Ac,n}, y_{Ac,n}) \) and \( (x_{Bc,n}, y_{Bc,n}) \).

Three basic steps are involved in tracking the target:

1) The camera coordinates \( (x_{Ac,n}, y_{Ac,n}) \) and \( (x_{Bc,n}, y_{Bc,n}) \) and the ‘m’ coefficients of
camera A and B are used to find the world coordinates of the target. As described in
Chapter 3, the ‘m’ coefficients of the cameras A and B were found to be

\[
m_A = \begin{bmatrix} 1.882042 & -0.061885 & 0.492436 & 604.987292 & -0.031149 & -1.853129 & 0.166115 & 662.390418 & -0.000016 & -0.000075 & 0.000823 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
m_B = \begin{bmatrix} 1.896437 & -0.002000 & 0.462156 & 548.819154 & -0.064282 & -1.785649 & 0.635329 & 767.328187 & -0.000009 & 0.000084 & 0.000828 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Using the equations (3.1) to (3.7),

\[
D_n = \begin{bmatrix}
    x_{Ac,n} m_{A12} - m_{A4} \\
    y_{Ac,n} m_{A12} - m_{A4} \\
    x_{Bc,n} m_{B12} - m_{B8} \\
    y_{Bc,n} m_{B12} - m_{B8}
\end{bmatrix},
\]

(4.1)
\[ C_n = \begin{bmatrix} m_{a1} - m_{a9} & m_{a2} - m_{a10} & m_{a3} - m_{a11} \\ m_{a5} - m_{a9} & m_{a6} - m_{a10} & m_{a7} - m_{a11} \\ m_{b1} - m_{b9} & m_{b2} - m_{b10} & m_{b3} - m_{b11} \\ m_{b5} - m_{b9} & m_{b6} - m_{b10} & m_{b7} - m_{b11} \end{bmatrix} \]  

where \((x_{Ac,n}, y_{Ac,n}, x_{Bc,n}, y_{Bc,n})\) are the camera coordinates of Camera A and B,

\[ D_n = C_n P_n \]  

where \(P_n\) is the world coordinate

\[ P_n^W = R_{cc}^{-1} C_n^T D_n, \]

where, \(R_{cc} = C_n^T C_n\)

Substituting the ‘m’ coefficients of the cameras A and B and the camera coordinates of both the cameras A and B in equations (4.1) to (4.4) gives the world coordinates of the target \(P_n^W = [x_{w,n}, y_{w,n}, z_{w,n}]^T\)

The world coordinates are determined from the calibrated camera pair.

2) The world coordinates of the target \([x_{w,n}, y_{w,n}, z_{w,n}]\) and the ‘m’ coefficients of the pan-tilt unit are used to find the pan-tilt coordinates using the equations

\[ x_{p,n} = \frac{m_1 x_{w,n} + m_2 y_{w,n} + m_3 z_{w,n} + m_4}{m_9 x_{w,n} + m_{10} y_{w,n} + m_{11} z_{w,n} + m_{12}} \]  

and

\[ y_{t,n} = \frac{m_5 x_{w,n} + m_6 y_{w,n} + m_7 z_{w,n} + m_8}{m_9 x_{w,n} + m_{10} y_{w,n} + m_{11} z_{w,n} + m_{12}} \]

3) The pan-tilt unit is moved to the spot position \((x_{p,n}, y_{t,n})\) and if the projector projects the spot on the target then the target tracking is accurate.
4.2 Experiment 1

In Chapter 3, Table 3.1, Table 3.2 and Table 3.3 shows the world coordinates, camera coordinates and the pan-tilt values. One way to test whether the system would eventually track the target is to use the camera coordinates of the calibration grid rings in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2 as the camera coordinates of the target. These coordinates along with the ‘m’ coefficients of the cameras are substituted in the equation (4.1) and (4.2) to find $D_n$ and $C_n$. The $D_n$ and $C_n$ are then used in equation (4.4) to get $P_n$ which is nothing but the world coordinates. The world coordinate values in $P_n$ should be same as the world coordinates in Table 3.1, Table 3.2 and Table 3.3. These world coordinates along with the ‘m’ coefficients of the pan-tilt unit is then used in equation (4.7) and (4.8) to get the pan-tilt values. These pan-tilt values should be same as the pan-tilt values with respect to the world coordinates in Table 3.3.

The Table 4.1 shows the original world coordinates and the new world coordinates and the Table 4.2 shows the original pan-tilt values and the new pan-tilt values for the calibration grid rings.
Table 4.1: Original World Coordinates and New World Coordinates of the Calibration grid rings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Original World Coordinates</th>
<th>New World Coordinates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$x_{w,r}$</td>
<td>$y_{w,r}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>-31.82</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-76.368</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>-120.92</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>-31.82</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>-76.368</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>-120.92</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>-31.82</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>-76.368</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>-120.92</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>31.82</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>76.368</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>120.92</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.82</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>76.368</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>120.92</td>
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<td>76.368</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>120.92</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.2: Original Pan-Tilt values and New Pan-Tilt Values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Original Pan-Tilt Values</th>
<th>New Pan-Tilt Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$x_{p,n}$</td>
<td>$y_{t,n}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1627</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1705</td>
<td>-1062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1774</td>
<td>-1044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1626</td>
<td>-831</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1701</td>
<td>-817</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
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<td>-812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
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<td>-572</td>
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<td>-574</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1445</td>
<td>-833</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1282</td>
<td>-828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>1125</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>1126</td>
<td>-573</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The plot of the original world coordinates and the new world coordinates as shown in Table 4.1 are plotted. Figure 4.10 shows the plot between the original world coordinates and the new world coordinates:

![Figure 1: Plot of Original ‘x’ World Coordinate Curve and New ‘x’ World Coordinate Curve.](image)

Figure 4.1: Plot of Original ‘x’ World Coordinate Curve and New ‘x’ World Coordinate Curve.
Figure 4.2: Plot of difference between Original and New ‘x’ World Coordinates.
Figure 4.3: Plot of Original 'y' World Coordinate Curve and New 'y' World Coordinate Curve.
Figure 4.4: Plot of difference between Original and New ‘y’ World Coordinates.
Figure 4.5: Plot of Original ‘z’ World Coordinate Curve and New ‘z’ World Coordinate Curve.
Figure 4.6: Plot of difference between Original and New ‘z’ World Coordinates.
Figure 4.7: Plot of Original Pan Coordinate Curve and New Pan Coordinate Curve.
Figure 4.8: Plot of difference between Original and New Pan Coordinates.
Figure 4.9: Plot of Original Tilt Coordinate Curve and New Tilt Coordinate Curve.
Figure 4.10: Plot of difference between Original and New Tilt Coordinates.

As seen in the Table 4.1 and Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1 to Figure 4.8, the difference between the original and new world coordinates, and original and new pan-tilt coordinates is very small. This shows that the system tracks the center of the calibration grid circles with minimum error.
4.3 Experiment 2

The same target as shown in Figure 3.5 is used for the tracking. The tracking functionality of the system is tested in two ways:

1) Moving the target from right to left in the ‘x’ direction
2) Moving the target backwards in the ‘z’ direction

4.3.1 Moving the target from right to left in the ‘x’ direction

The target to be tracked is placed at a certain distance from the cameras (say initial position) and the projector and at a fixed height from the ground. Then the program to detect the target is run and we get the camera coordinates of the center of the target. These camera coordinates \((x_{Ac,n}, y_{Ac,n})\) and \((x_{Bc,n}, y_{Bc,n})\) are fed into the MATLAB program to get the world coordinates \((x_{w,n}, y_{w,n}, z_{w,n})\) and the pan-tilt coordinate \((x_{p,n}, y_{t,n})\) of the center of the target. Finally the pan-tilt coordinates are fed back to pan-tilt control unit which moves the projector in the direction of the target and the white spot from the projector falls on the target. If the white spot is not exactly at the center of the target, then the error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ is measured using a ruler. Also the distance from the center of the projector lens and the target is measured and noted. Next, the target is moved to the left by about 40cm so that the ‘y’ and ‘z’ world coordinates of the target are fixed and only the ‘x’ world coordinates changes. Again the program is run to detect the target. The new camera coordinates are found and are used to get the new world
coordinates and the new pan-tilt coordinates. The pan-tilt unit is then moved to a new location and the projector projects the spot on the target. If the spot is within the circular target then system is able to track the target. Again, the error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ and the distance from the center of projector lens to the target is measured and noted. The target is again moved to the left by 40 cm and the whole process is continued for about 20 readings.

After the above process, the target is place at the initial position and moved backwards to about 20 cm and the whole process explained above is repeated. The tracking process is continued until the target is moved backwards to a distance of about 100 cm from its initial position.

The result of this experiment is discussed in Chapter 5.

4.3.2 Moving the target backwards in the ‘z’ direction

In this experiment, the target to be tracked is initially placed at a fixed position from the cameras and the projector and at a fixed height from the ground. The program to detect the target is run. We get the camera coordinates of the target. These camera coordinates along with the ‘m’ coefficients of the cameras are fed into the MATLAB code to get the world coordinates and the pan-tilt coordinates of the target. The pan-tilt coordinates are fed to the pan-tilt control unit and the projector is moved toward the target. The error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates and the distance from the projector lens to the target are measured. Next, the target is moved backwards in the ‘z’ direction to a distance of about 10 cm and the same process is repeated. The process is continued until the target is moved
to a distance of about 100 cm from its initial position. The result of this experiment is discussed in Chapter 5.
Chapter 5 Results

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the results of the experiments done in the research. The section 5.2 and 5.3 shows the results and plots of the experiment 2 explained in Chapter 4.

5.2 Experiment 2.1 results

The Table 5.1 to Table 5.6 shows the error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ for the target at different positions. The distance ‘d’ of the target from the projector lens, ‘xw’, ‘yw’, ‘zw’ are the world coordinates of the target, ‘xp’, ‘yp’ are the pan and tilt coordinates of the target respectively, ‘xerror’, ‘yerror’ are the error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates of the target and ‘xwn’ and ‘ywn’ are the new ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates.
Table 5.1: Error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 152 cm from the projector lens.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$d$</th>
<th>$x_w$</th>
<th>$y_w$</th>
<th>$z_w$</th>
<th>$x_p$</th>
<th>$y_p$</th>
<th>$x_{error}$</th>
<th>$y_{error}$</th>
<th>$x_{wn}$</th>
<th>$y_{wn}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>37.8041</td>
<td>12.1417</td>
<td>2291</td>
<td>-960</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>-269.492</td>
</tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
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<td>-1</td>
<td>344.047</td>
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</table>

The standard deviation in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates are found to be 3.26 mm and 0.52 mm respectively.
Figure 5.1: Plot of error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 152 cm from the projector.

Figure 5.2: Plot of original and new ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates.
Table 5.2: Experiment 1 results - Error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 170 cm from the projector lens.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>y_w</th>
<th>z_w</th>
<th>x_p</th>
<th>y_t</th>
<th>x_error</th>
<th>y_error</th>
<th>x_wn</th>
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</thead>
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The standard deviation in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates are found to be 5.85 mm and 1.23 mm respectively.
Figure 5.3: Plot of error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 170 cm from the projector.

Figure 5.4: Plot of original and new ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates.
Table 5.3: Error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 188 cm from the projector lens.

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The standard deviation in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates are found to be 8.6 mm and 1.3 mm respectively.
Figure 5.5: Plot of error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 188 cm from the projector lens.

Figure 5.6: Plot of original and new ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates.
Table 5.4: Error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 208 cm from the projector lens.

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The standard deviation in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates are found to be 9.5 mm and 1.7 mm respectively.
Figure 5.7: Plot of error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 208 cm from the projector lens.

Figure 5.8: Plot of original and new ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates.
Table 5.5: Error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 228 cm from the projector lens.

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The standard deviation in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates are found to be 10.8 mm and 1.13 mm respectively.
Figure 5.9: Plot of error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 228 cm from the projector.

Figure 5.10: Plot of original and new ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates.
Table 5.6: Error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 246 cm from the projector lens.

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The standard deviation in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates are found to be 10.9 mm and 1.3 mm respectively.
Figure 5.11: Plot of error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is at a distance of about 246 cm from the projector lens.

Figure 5.12: Plot of original and new ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates.
As seen from the data provided in Table 5.1 to Table 5.6 and Figure 5.1 to Figure 5.12, the error in the ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates of the target are very small and the predicted world coordinates of the target follows the original world coordinates with a very small difference. The standard deviation of the ‘x’ world coordinate ranges between 3.2 mm to 10.9 mm and ‘y’ world coordinate ranges from 0.52 mm to 1.7 mm. Therefore it can be said that the target is tracked quite accurately when it is moved from right to left.

5.3 Experiment 2.2 results

The Table 5.7 and Figure 5.13 and Figure 5.14 shows the result of the experiment when the target is moved backwards in ‘z’ direction.

Table 5.7 Error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target in moved backwards in the ‘z’ direction

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The standard deviation in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates are found to be 3.26 mm and 0.58 mm respectively.

Figure 5.13: Plot of error in ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates when the target is moved in the ‘z’ direction.

Figure 5.14: Plot of original and new ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates.
From the data provided in Table 5.7 and the Figure 5.13 and Figure 5.14, it can be clearly seen that the error in ‘x’ increases as the distance between the target and the projector lens increases. In this experiment it was found that when the distance between the target and the projector lens was about 240 cm, the predicted ‘x’ and ‘y’ world coordinates of the target was slightly outside the circular target. Therefore it can be inferred from this experiment that, when the target is at a distance more that 250 cm from the projector lens, the error percentage in ‘x’ world coordinate of the target increases.
Chapter 6 Conclusion and Future Work

We present a technique for tracking a human iris using two cameras, a pan-tilt control unit and a projector. A new calibration method is used for calibrating the pan-tilt control unit. Experiments were performed to test the system functionality and experimental error measurements are performed to estimate the error introduced by the system.

6.1 Conclusion

The two cameras are initially calibrated using a calibration grid consisting of 18 rings. The calibration gives the camera coordinates and the world coordinates of the calibration grid rings. The pan-tilt unit is also calibrated with the same calibration grid in the same position. A new method of calibrating the pan-tilt unit is used. In this method, the pan-tilt unit is first moved in a direction such that the projector projects a white spot on one of the calibration grid rings. The pan and tilt values for that ring is noted and similarly all the pan-tilt values for all different rings are noted and saved in the calibration program. The calibrated cameras are then used to determine the world coordinate of the projected spot. The method of Least Square Approximation is used to find the ‘$m$’ coefficients of both the cameras and the pan-tilt unit. A Ring Filter is used to correlate the camera image in real time. Peaks are found in the correlated image using peak to side lobe ratio. In this way the target is detected and the camera coordinates of the target are found. The camera coordinates along with the ‘$m$’ coefficients of the cameras are used to find the world coordinates of the target. The world coordinates of the target along with the ‘$m$’
coefficients of the pan-tilt unit are used to find the pan-tilt coordinates. The pan-tilt coordinates are modeled as a pinhole lens. The pan-tilt unit is moved using the pan-tilt coordinates and the projector points the white spot on the target.

According to the experiments conducted, the error percentage of the system is small when the target is not more than 240 cm from the projector lens. As the distance of the target from the cameras and the projector increases, the accuracy of tracking decreases.

### 6.2 Future Work

The system can be further improved by improvements in the filter used to correlate the camera image in order to detect the target and get the camera coordinates. In the current method, the radius of the positive target ring and the radius of the negative suppression ring of the ring filter has to be changed as the target moves backwards in order to detect the target perfectly and avoid any false detection. This also increases the processing time considerably.

Wide angle lenses can be used to increase the range of tracking.

The present system can be made more robust by making it an automated system so that experiments can be conducted on an actual human iris and a video of the whole tracking process can be recorded.

A laser set up can be used in place of the projector. In the present system we use separate programs to run the cameras and the projector and this slows up the whole process. By mounting a laser on the pan-tilt unit the tracking process can be made faster.
A digital camera can be employed in order to view the target detection and tracking directly on it. This helps to zoom the target spot and capture the image of the target and later analyze it.

In the present system we found that the error in the ‘x’ world coordinate was higher than the error in the ‘y’ world coordinate of the target. This error in the ‘x’ world coordinate can be decreased by employing a 3 camera setup.
Appendix

A. Automated Calibration of Photogrammetric Grid

Initially the target image (grid) is captured by both the cameras. Down sampling of the image is done to speed up the process. The camera image is then binarized at some threshold level and segmented into a set of blobs. Minimum and maximum blob height/width is used to isolate the blobs from the surroundings.

Figure A, Figure B and Figure C show the actual image, binarized image and image after blob detection from both the cameras.

Figure A: Camera A (Top Camera) and Camera B (Bottom Camera) actual image.
Figure B: Camera A (Top Camera) and Camera B (Bottom Camera) Binarized image.

Figure C: Camera A (Top Camera) and Camera A (Bottom Camera) Blob detected Image.
The blobs shown in the Figure C can be processed to determine if their shape is consistent with the target feature shape such as a circle, ring, ellipse and elliptical ring. Given that they are, the dimensions of the shape can be measured along with the centroid of the shape. It is assumed that the exact number of features $N$ is known so the $N$ best fit shapes are assumed to be the correct ones.
References


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