

OUTDOOR ILLUMINATION ESTIMATION IN IMAGE SEQUENCES FOR AUGMENTED REALITY

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Abstract: The paper presents a technique for estimating the radiance of the sky and sun for outdoor, daylight illumination conditions. Shadows cast by dynamic objects are detected using color imagery, combined with depth information from a commercial stereo camera setup. Color information extracted from the detected shadows is used to estimate the radiance of the sun. The technique does not require special purpose objects in the scene, nor does it require High Dynamic Range imagery. Results are demonstrated by rendering augmented objects into real images with shading and shadows which are consistent with the real scene.

1 INTRODUCTION

For photo-realistic Augmented Reality (AR) the goal is to render virtual objects into real images to create the visual illusion that the virtual objects are real. A crucial element in achieving this illusion is to have a sufficiently correct model of the illumination conditions in the scene to be able to render the virtual objects with scene consistent shading and to render correct shadow interaction between real and virtual geometry.

This paper presents an adaptive illumination estimation technique for outdoor daylight scenes. The technique uses color image sequences, combined with live stereo data, to estimate the radiance of a sky dome (hemi-sphere) and the radiance of the sun. Both radiances are estimated in three color channels. The position of the sun is computed procedurally from GPS and date/time information. Together, this illumination environment (sky dome and sun) can be used to render virtual objects into the scene. As an additional benefit the stereo information provides 3D scene information to cast shadows on and to handle occlusion between real and virtual objects. Figure 1 shows an example result.

The main contribution in this work lie in the fact that the illumination is estimated directly from the image sequence with no need for special purpose objects in the scene, and no need for acquiring omnidirectional High Dynamic Range environment maps (light probes) prior to augmentation.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2



Figure 1: Frame 139 of a 200 frame sequence. The diffuse grey box and the three glossy spheres are rendered into the scene with illumination estimated from the shadow cast by the walking person.

describes related work, and section 3 describes the assumptions behind the presented work. Section 4 presents the theoretical framework for our approach, both in terms of detecting shadows and in terms of estimating scene illumination from detected shadows. Sections 5 and 6 present the dynamic shadow detection and the illumination estimation, respectively. Experimental results are presented in section 7, followed by discussions and ideas for future research in section 8. Finally, section 9 presents concluding remarks.

2 RELATED WORK

A survey of real scene illumination modelling for Augmented Reality is given in (Jacobs and Loscos, 2004). The survey indicates that there is no one preferred or most popular family of approaches. No technology has matured to the point of outperforming other types of approaches. In fact, any approach offers a set of possibilities at the price of a set of assumptions or limitations, leaving the application scenario to define which approach to choose.

There are three main categories of approaches: 1) omni-directional environment maps, 2) placing known objects/probes in the scene, and 3) manually or semi-manually model the entire scene, including the light sources, and perform inverse rendering.

The most widely used approach is to capture the scene illumination in a High Dynamic Range (HDR), (Debevec and Malik, 1997), omni-directional environment map, also called a light probe. The technique was pioneered by Debevec in (Debevec, 1998) and used in various forms by much research since then, e.g., (Barsi et al., 2005; Debevec, 2002; Gibson et al., 2003; Madsen and Laursen, 2007). The technique gives excellent results if the dominant illumination in the scene can be considered infinitely distant relative to the size of the augmented objects. The drawbacks are that it is time-consuming and impractical to acquire the environment map whenever something has changed in the scene, for example the illumination. Illumination adaptive techniques based on the environment map idea have been demonstrated in (Havran et al., 2005; Kanbara and Yokoya, 2004) but require a prototype omni-directional HDR camera, or a reflective sphere placed in the scene, respectively.

The other popular family of approaches is based on requiring the presence of a known object in the scene. Sato et al. analyze the shadows cast by a known object, (Sato et al., 1999a; Sato et al., 1999b) onto a homogeneous Lambertian surface, or require images of the scene with and without the shadow casting probe object. Hara et al., (Hara et al., 2005) analyze the shading of a geometrically known object with homogeneous (uniform albedo) Lambertian object, or require multiple images with different polarizations, to estimate the illumination direction of a single point light source. Multiple light sources can be estimated from the shading of a known object with homogeneous Lambertian reflectance using the technique described in (Wang and Samaras, 2008).

The last family of approaches do not estimate illumination per se as they rely on modelling the entire scene in full detail, including modelling the geometry and the radiances of the light sources. The

modelling process is labor intensive. Given the full description of the scene and images of it (in HDR if needed) inverse rendering can be performed to estimate the parameters of applicable reflectance functions of scene surfaces. Subsequently virtual objects can be rendered into the scene with full global illumination since all required information is known. Examples include (Boivin and Gagalowicz, 2001; Boivin and Gagalowicz, 2002; Loscos et al., 2000; Yu et al., 1999).

A final piece of related work does not fall into the above categories, as it is the only representative of this type of approach. Using manually identified essential points (top and bottom point of two vertical structures and their cast shadow in outdoor sunlight scenes) the light source direction (the direction vector to the sun) can be determined, (Cao et al., 2005).

In summary existing methods either require pre-recorded full HDR environment maps, require homogeneous Lambertian objects to be present in the scene, require total modelling of the scene including the illumination, or require manual identification of essential object and shadow points. None of the mentioned techniques offer a practical solution to automatically adapt to the drastically changing illumination conditions of outdoor scenes.

The approach proposed in this paper addresses all of these assumption and/or constraints: it does not require HDR environment maps, nor HDR image data, it does not require objects with homogeneous reflectance (entire objects with uniform reflectance), it does not require manual modelling of the illumination (in fact the illumination is estimated directly) and there is no manual identification of essential points.

3 ASSUMPTIONS BEHIND APPROACH

Our approach rests on a few assumptions that are listed here for easy overview. It is assumed that we have registered color and depth data on a per pixel level. High Dynamic Range color imagery is not required; standard 8 bit per color channel images suffice if all relevant surfaces in the scene are reasonably exposed. In this paper the image data is acquired using a commercially available stereo camera, namely the Bumblebee XB3 from Point Grey, (PointGrey, 2009). It is also assumed that the response curve of the color camera is approximately linear. The Bumblebee XB3 camera is by no means a high quality color imaging camera but has performed well enough. It is also assumed that the scene is dominated by approximately diffuse surfaces, such as asphalt, concrete, or brick,

see figure 1 for an example. There is no homogeneity assumption, and in section 8 we will briefly describe ongoing/future work to relax the diffuse surface constraint.

To be able to procedurally compute the direction vector to the sun we need to know the Earth location in latitude/longitude (acquired from GPS), the date and time of the image acquisition, and we assume that the camera is calibrated (extrinsic parameters for position and orientation) to a scene coordinate system with xy-plane parallel to a horizontal ground plane (z-axis parallel to the direction of gravity), and x-axis pointing North. The checkerboard in figure 1 is used for camera calibration.

4 ILLUMINATION MODEL

The purpose of this section is to establish the theoretical foundation for both the shadow detection and the illumination estimation. All expressions in this paper relating to pixel values, radiometric concepts, and surface reflectance et cetera are color channel dependent expressions and are to be evaluated separately for each color channels.

If the response curve of the camera is linear the pixel value in an image is proportional to the outgoing radiance from the scene surface point imaged to that pixel, (Dutré et al., 2003). The constant of proportionality depends on things such as lens geometry, shutter time, aperture, camera ISO setting, white balancing settings, etc. If the unknown constant of proportionality is termed c the value P of a pixel corresponding to a point on a diffuse surface can be formulated as:

$$P = c \cdot \rho \cdot E_i \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \quad (1)$$

where ρ is the diffuse albedo of the surface point, and E_i is the incident irradiance on the point. ρ times E_i yields the radiosity from the point, division by π gives the radiance, and c is the camera constant mapping radiance to pixel value. For a point in sunlight the incident irradiance, E_i , is the sum of irradiance received from the sun and from the sky, provided that we can disregard indirect Global Illumination from other surfaces in the scene, (for a discussion on this please refer to section 8).

The irradiance received from the sun can be formulated as:

$$E_{\text{sun}} = \vec{n} \cdot \vec{s} \cdot E_s^\perp \quad (2)$$

where \vec{n} is the unit surface normal at the point, \vec{s} is the unit direction vector to the sun (both relative to the scene coordinate system) and E_s^\perp is the irradiance

produced by the sun on a point with a normal pointing straight into the sun. The direction vector to the sun is computed procedurally from the GPS and date/time information using the approach described in (Blanco-Muriel et al., 2001).

The irradiance from the sky can be formulated as:

$$E_{\text{sky}} = V_a \cdot E_a^\perp \quad (3)$$

where V_a is the fraction of the sky dome which is visible from the surface point, and E_a^\perp (subscript a for “atmosphere” or “ambient”) is the irradiance produced by the sky dome on surface point with normal pointing straight into the sky dome and receiving light from the entire dome. In our experiments the visibility fraction V_a is computed on a per point basis using the scene geometry provided by the stereo camera, see section 6.

The illumination model in this work consists of a hemi-spherical sky dome of uniform radiance, and a sun disk. The diameter of the sun disk as viewed from earth is 0.53 degrees, (Dutré et al., 2003). The technique for estimating the irradiances (and hence the radiances) of the sky and the sun directly from image measurements represents the main contribution of this paper. Our approach is in two steps: 1) detection of dynamic shadows (cast by moving objects), and 2) using chromatic information from the detected shadows to compute the radiance of the sky dome and the sun, respectively.



Figure 2: Textured 3D scene mesh generated from stereo disparity information from the image shown in figure 1. Notice how well the main surfaces in the scene are reconstructed.

5 SHADOW DETECTION

Existing work on single image shadow detection does not really handle soft shadows, or requires manual training. Example work includes (Nielsen and Madsen, 2007; Finlayson et al., 2002; Salvador et al.,

2004). Existing work on dynamic shadow detection from image sequences either rely on a simplistic illumination model (the grey world assumption which is definitely not valid in outdoor scenes), or require a high quality trained background model. Example work includes (Huerta et al., 2009; Horprasert et al., 1999; Kim et al., 2005; Chalidabongse et al., 2003), and a survey can be found in (Prati et al., 2003).

For this work we have developed a dynamic shadow detection technique which does not rely on a trained background model and utilizes the available depth information. Figure 2 shows an example of the 3D data provided by the Bumblebee camera (and the accompanying API). In this section we briefly describe the approach. For more detail and additional experimental results, please refer to (Madsen et al., 2009).

The shadow detection technique is based on image differencing. A delayed frame (from time $t - \Delta t$) is subtracted from the current frame (from time t) both for color images and for stereo disparity images. If, for a given pixel, the color image difference is negative in all three color channels (less light emitted from the point at time t than at time $t - \Delta t$), and the disparity difference is zero (no change in depth), the pixel is classified as a *shadow candidate*. If there is a change in depth it is not a potential shadow candidate but rather a pixel belonging to a moving object.

Choosing the length of the frame delay Δt is not critical. If set high (long delay) we achieve better ability to detect the whole shadow since the shadows cast in the two frames are less likely to overlap. On the other hand a long frame delay makes the system less responsive to changes in the illumination conditions. In the experiments reported here we have used a frame delay of 0.5 seconds (the Bumblebee camera delivers color and disparity images at a frame rate of 10 fps in 640x480 pixel resolution).

Figure 3 show the detected shadow candidates corresponding to the image in figure 1. Here we have used a Δt of 10 seconds to give a better visual impression of detected shadows. Water poured onto surfaces by the test person (to simulate rain) are also initially classified as shadow candidates.

Further analysis of the shadow candidates is performed in log chromaticity space. In log chromaticity space, combining with the general pixel value expression from eq. (1), we get two chromaticity values per pixel, r and b (using superscripts $r/g/b$ to indicate RGB color channel specific value):

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \log(P^r/P^g) \\ &= \log(P^r) - \log(P^g) \\ &= \log(c^r) - \log(c^g) + \log(\rho^r) - \log(\rho^g) + \\ &\quad \log(E_i^r) - \log(E_i^g) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$



Figure 3: Top: shadow candidate pixels in frame 139. Bottom: verified shadow pixels after chromaticity analysis. Notice that water splashes are not classified as shadow pixels demonstrating robustness to rain.

$$\begin{aligned} b &= \log(P^b/P^g) \\ &= \log(c^b) - \log(c^g) + \log(\rho^b) - \log(\rho^g) + \\ &\quad \log(E_i^b) - \log(E_i^g) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

If a pixel has been marked as shadow candidate it means we have two versions of the same pixel, one from time t and one from time $t - \Delta t$. The color channel values have changed for that pixel, which in turn means that the pixel's location in log chromaticity space has moved. Basically two things can have caused this: 1) sunlight at the surface point corresponding to the pixel was blocked (shadow), or 2) the surface changed albedo, e.g., became wet. Studying the *displacements* in chromaticity space forms the basis for the final classification of shadow pixels. This approach is inspired by (Marchand and Onyango, 2000).

We assume that the camera constants $c^{r/g/b}$ did not change during Δt . If we hypothesize that the surface albedos $\rho^{r/g/b}$ did not change:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta r &= r(t) - r(t - \Delta t) \\ &= \log\left(\frac{E_i^r(t)}{E_i^r(t - \Delta t)}\right) - \log\left(\frac{E_i^g(t)}{E_i^g(t - \Delta t)}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

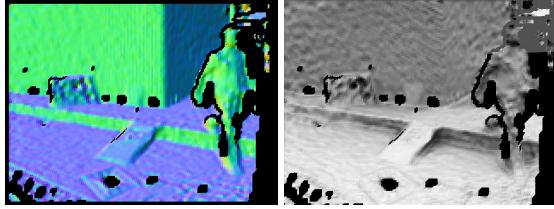


Figure 4: Left: per pixel normal map encoded as RGB values for the image in figure 1. Right: per pixel sky dome visibility in the range 0 to 1.

$$\Delta b = \log\left(\frac{E_i^b(t)}{E_i^b(t-\Delta t)}\right) - \log\left(\frac{E_i^g(t)}{E_i^g(t-\Delta t)}\right) \quad (7)$$

Thus, log chromaticity displacements of shadow candidate pixels depend only on the change in incident irradiances, namely the various E_i values (which are of course unknown). This means that all shadow pixels should exhibit displacements that are parallel in log chromaticity space. If a pixel does *not* displace in the same direction it *must* be because the albedo changed (the constant albedo hypothesis is false and eqs. 6 and 7 do not hold), e.g., the surface point became wet, or it otherwise changed color. This is utilized by selecting only the pixels whose displacement orientation (computed as $\theta = \arctan(\Delta b / \Delta r)$) is within a certain threshold of +90 degrees (a displacement towards blue). We have used a threshold of 20 degrees. A shift towards blue is what is expected from a surface point transitioning from being illuminated by both the sun and sky, to only being illuminated by the (blueish) sky. Figure 3 shows the shadow pixels after the chromaticity analysis.

It must be noted that although the described methods work well on outdoor imagery, we do not need perfect shadow detection. We just need robust, fast detection of a population of high confidence shadow pixels to support the illumination estimation.

6 ILLUMINATION ESTIMATION

As described in section 4 the illumination model in this work consists of a hemi-spherical sky dome of uniform radiance, and a sun disk of uniform radiance. The direction vector, \vec{s} , is computed procedurally using the method described in (Blanco-Muriel et al., 2001).

Every detected shadow pixel provides some information about the sun and sky irradiance in the scene. At time $t - \Delta t$ the pixel was not in shadow, and at time t it is. At time $t - \Delta t$, by combining eqs. (1) through (3):

$$\begin{aligned} P(t - \Delta t) &= c \cdot \rho \cdot E_i(t - \Delta t) \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \\ &= c \cdot \rho \cdot (E_{\text{sun}}(t - \Delta t) + E_{\text{sky}}(t - \Delta t)) \\ &= c \cdot \rho \cdot (\vec{n} \cdot \vec{s} \cdot E_s^\perp(t - \Delta t) + \\ &\quad V_a(t - \Delta t) \cdot E_a^\perp(t - \Delta t)) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Here, sky dome visibility fraction, V_a , is time dependent since moving geometry in the scene may change the fraction, especially for points in near proximity of the shadow casting object. At time t the pixel is in shadow and only the sky contributes to the irradiance:

$$P(t) = c \cdot \rho \cdot V_a(t) \cdot E_a^\perp(t) \quad (9)$$

Eqs. (8) and (9) are per color channel. If we introduce a quantity C which is the ratio of pixel value in shadow to pixel value in sunlight, and assume Δt to be small enough that the sky and sun irradiances at time $t - \Delta t$ equal those at time t :

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \frac{P(t)}{P(t - \Delta t)} \\ &= \frac{V_a(t) \cdot E_a^\perp(t)}{\vec{n} \cdot \vec{s} \cdot E_s^\perp(t) + V_a(t - \Delta t) \cdot E_a^\perp(t)} \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

Equation (10) is crucial. On the left hand side the ratio C is based only on image measurements (pixel values from the two frames), so this quantity is known. On the right hand side \vec{n} is the surface point normal, known from the stereo data; \vec{s} is the sun direction vector, known from the GPS and the date and time information; V_a at time t and at time $t - \Delta t$ is the sky dome visibility fraction, which can be computed from the scene geometry data, see section 7 and figure 4. The only unknowns are the sun and sky irradiances. Re-arranging eq. (10) yields:

$$E_s^\perp(t) = E_a^\perp(t) \frac{V_a(t) - C \cdot V_a(t - \Delta t)}{\vec{n} \cdot \vec{s} \cdot C} \quad (11)$$

Now the sun's head-on irradiance is expressed in terms of the sky irradiance times quantities from the images and from scene geometry. Next we introduce a constraint based on the white-balancing of the camera. We assume that the camera is white-balanced. This means that there must be some point in the scene where the combined irradiances of the sun and sky is color balanced, that is, the combined irradiance has the same value, k , in all three color channels. Let \vec{n}' be the normal of such a point and let V'_a be its sky dome visibility fraction. In our experiments we have used $\vec{n}' = [0 \ 0 \ 1]$ (so horizontal surfaces have white-balanced illumination), and set V'_a to the average value of V_a for all horizontal surface points in

the scene. This white-balancing constraint says that the sun and sky combined irradiance must sum to the same number k in all color channels, expressible as:

$$k = \vec{n}' \cdot \vec{s} \cdot E_s^\perp(t) + V_a'(t) \cdot E_a^\perp(t) \quad (12)$$

Combining eqs. (11) and (12) yields:

$$E_a^\perp = \frac{k}{V_a'(t) + (\vec{n}' \cdot \vec{s}) / (\vec{n} \cdot \vec{s}) (V_a(t)/C - V_a(t - \Delta t))} \quad (13)$$

To sum up, we could now, given the pixel values at time t and time $t - \Delta t$ of only one shadow pixel, compute the irradiance ratios $C^{r/g/b}$ in the three color channel using eq. (10), insert into eq. (13) to get the sky irradiance in three channels (up to a scale factor of k), then insert into eq. (11) to get the sun irradiance in three channels (up to a scale factor of k). To solve this overall scale problem we have chosen the following approach. The input image is actually measurements of scene radiances scaled by the camera radiance-to-pixel-value proportionality constants $c^{r/g/b}$ (see eq. (1)). We wish to scale the estimated irradiances such that the reflected radiance of virtual surface in the augmented scene is on the same brightness level as the input image. k is the irradiance on a horizontal surface in the scene. A suitable average average albedo for general surfaces is 0.3 (earth's average albedo), so the reflected radiance from such a surface would be $L_{\text{avg}} = \rho_{\text{avg}} \cdot k \cdot 1/\pi$. Let P_{avg}^g be the average pixel value in the green channel of the input image. We want the reflected radiance to equal the average image intensity which means that we should set k to:

$$k = \pi P_{\text{avg}}^g / \rho \quad (14)$$

By computing the scale factor this way the augmented object changes brightness according to changes to camera illumination sensitivity, e.g., if the camera aperture is changed the luminance level of the image changes, and the luminance level of the augment object changes with the same amount. This allows us to enable the Automatic Gain Control (AGC) of the camera so the method can be applied to very long sequences with large variations in illumination.

This completes the theoretical background for the illumination estimation from shadows. For rendering purposes we need the *radiances* of the sun and the sky, not the irradiances. The radiance of the sky is computed as $L_a(t) = E_a^\perp(t)/\pi$ and the radiance of the sun disk is computed as $L_s(t) = E_s^\perp(t)/(2\pi \cdot (1 - \cos(d/2)))$, where $d = 0.53$ degrees. The denominator is the solid angle subtended by a sun disk of 0.53 degree radius.

In the subsequent section we describe how the illumination is estimated robustly from a whole population of detected shadow pixels, not just from a single one.



Figure 5: Dynamic shadow detection based on image differencing (frames 180, 520, and 1741). These are the raw detected shadow pixels. The spurious shadow pixels in the top right of the images are removed with morphological operations.

7 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We have Matlab and C++ versions of the shadow detection, and we have a Matlab implementation of the illumination estimation.

In the C++ version shadow detection is running at approx. 8 Hz on an Intel Core Duo 2 2.3 GHz machine running Windows XP SP2, equipped with 2 GByte RAM. This framerate includes the stereo disparity computations, and the construction of the geometry mesh from the depth data. Figure 5 illustrates the shadow detection on some random frames from a long image sequence with rapidly changing illumination conditions (partly overcast and very windy).

The expressions for estimating the illumination conditions involve quantities relating to the geometry of the scene, namely the sky dome visibility fraction V_a and the surface normals. We construct triangle meshes of the scene from the live disparity data (an example mesh is shown in figure 2). The disparity data is in 640×480 pixel resolution, which is mean filtered with a kernel size of 5×5 . A 160×120 regular vertex grid is imposed on the disparity map and

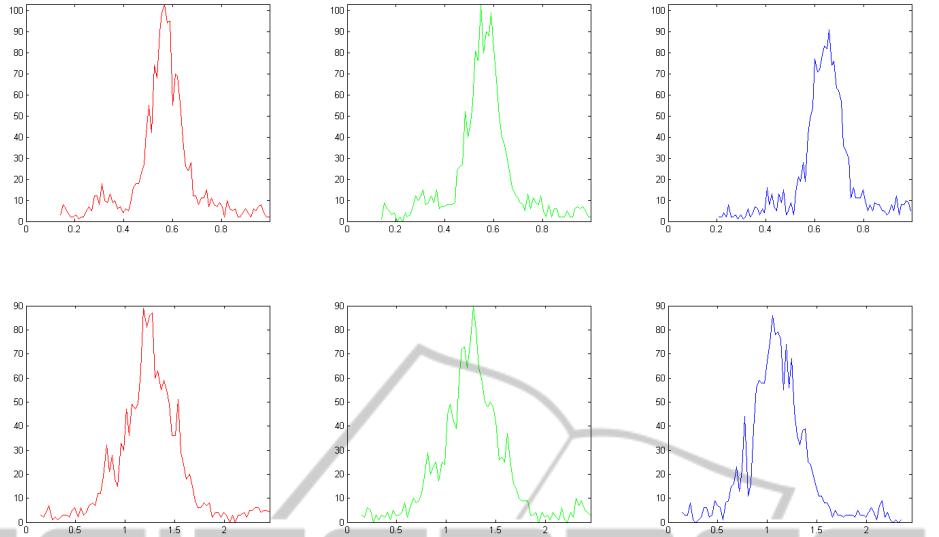


Figure 6: Top row: sky irradiance histograms for R, G, and B color channels. Bottom row: similar for sun irradiance. For each histogram the horizontal axis shows the irradiance value with a scale factor k of 1, and the vertical axis is number of pixels voting for that irradiance value. The histogram corresponds to the scene in figure 1.

the xyz position of each vertex is found by converting the corresponding disparity value to depth and multiplying the pixel's unit ray direction vector with that depth. Two triangles are formed for every group of 4 vertices, resulting in $2 \times 160 \times 120$ triangles, from which triangles with normals almost perpendicular to the viewing direction are discarded (typically triangles that correspond to depth discontinuities). We get per pixel normals by rendering the scene mesh using a normal shader. For all renderings in this paper we have used the RADIANCE rendering package, (Ward, 2009). Per pixel sky dome visibility is computed by rendering irradiance values of the mesh (with mesh albedo set to zero to avoid global illumination inter-reflections) when illuminated with a sky dome of radiance $1/\pi$. Using this approach a normal pointing straight into the sky and having un-occluded view of the sky will receive an irradiance of 1, so the V_a values will be in the range of 0 to 1 as desired. Figure 4 shows examples.

With per pixel geometry quantities, and with irradiance ratios C computed per detected shadow pixels using eq. (10) we have a whole population of pixels voting for the irradiances of the sky and the sun. Each pixel, through eq. (13), contributes three channel values for the sky irradiance, and through eq. (11) for the sun irradiance. This is computed for all shadow pixels and histograms are formed of sky and sun irradiances for each color channel, see figure 6.

From each of these histograms the most voted for irradiance value is selected (histogram peak). Future work includes either fitting a Gaussian distribution, employ a mean shift algorithm, or to use Ran-

dom Sample Consensus (RANSAC), to find the mean more robustly than just taking peak value. In the example in figure 6 the elected and finally scaled radiance values are:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Sky radiance} &= [0.6548 \quad 0.6662 \quad 0.7446] \\ \text{Sun radiance} &= [60197 \quad 57295 \quad 51740] \end{aligned}$$

These numbers indicate primarily that the radiance of the sun is 5 orders of magnitude higher than that of the sky, which is consistent with the fact that the sun's subtended solid angle is 5 orders of magnitude smaller than a hemi-spherical sky dome, but as a rule of thumb provides roughly the same irradiance as the sky dome. Furthermore it can be noticed that the sky's color balance clearly is much more blue than that of the sun. Figure 7 show more examples of objects rendered into scenes with illumination estimated using the technique proposed in this paper.

Qualitatively, judging from figures 1 and 7 the generated results are encouraging and the estimated illumination conditions visually match the real scene conditions sufficiently well to be convincing. Subsequently we present some more controlled experiments.

Synthetic Geometry, Synthetic Illumination

To test the technique's performance on a scene for which ground truth is available for the illumination a synthetic scene has been rendered at two time instances with a shadow casting pole moving from one frame to another, see figure 8.

The ground truth sky radiance for the scene in figure 8 is $[0.0700 \quad 0.1230 \quad 0.1740]$ and the sun ra-



Figure 7: Two examples of scenes with augmentations using the proposed technique for estimating illumination from automatically detected shadows.

diance is [72693 57178 42247]. The estimated sky radiance is [0.0740 0.1297 0.1804] and the sun radiance is [71687 55488 40622], i.e., estimations are within 5% of ground truth. A large proportion of the deviation between ground truth and estimation result is believed to be due to influence from indirect illumination (light reflecting from one surface on to others), a phenomenon which is not taken into account by the applied two part illumination model (sun and sky are assumed to be the only illuminants in the scene).

Real Geometry, Synthetic Illumination

To test the performance under more realistic conditions a pair of images were produced where the dynamic objects are synthetic, but they are casting shadow on real mesh geometry obtained from the stereo camera. Figure 10 illustrates how these images were generated.

The two frame image sequence thus generated shows synthetically generated dynamic shadows on real stereo geometry, using real camera images as scene albedo, and yet we still have perfect ground truth for the illumination, since the shadows are rendered into the image.

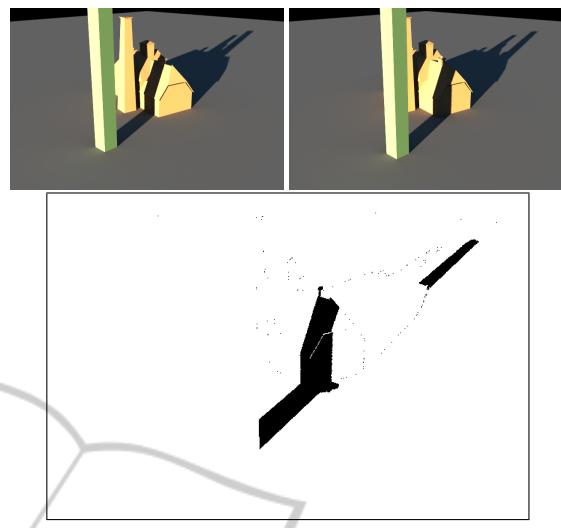


Figure 8: Top: Two frames of a synthetic scene. Bottom: detected dynamic shadow pixel population to be used for illumination estimation.

The ground truth sky radiance for the scene in figure 10 is [1.0109 1.1644 1.2085] and the sun radiance is [83082 81599 73854]. The estimated sky radiance is [1.0658 1.2212 1.2614] and the sun radiance is [88299 82764 79772], i.e., estimations are within roughly 5% of ground truth, except for the red channel of the sun, which shows an error of around 8%. Figure 11 shows an augmentation into this semi-synthetic scene with the estimated illumination.

As in the previous all synthetic data example the discrepancy is believed to be due to not explicitly taking indirect illumination into account. For example the sun's red channel is somewhat over-estimated, since in the shadow a lot of red-toned illumination from the brick-walled building in the background of figure 10 vanishes, and the assumed simplified illumination model can only "explain" this by estimating the sun's red channel higher than it actually is.

Real Geometry, Real Illumination

As a final example of the performance of the presented technique we return to the scene from figure 1, this time to another frame in the same sequence, approximately 6 seconds earlier, see figure 9.

In figure 1 the sky radiance is estimated to [0.6548 0.6662 0.7446] and the sun radiance to [60197 57295 51740]. From the frame in figure 9 the same values are estimated at [0.6106 0.5874 0.6746] and [68927 69784 62741], respectively.

A significant change in the estimated illumination is noted on the quantitative level, although visually the augmentation in the two cases is equally convinc-



Figure 9: Even with the shadow falling on completely different materials and with completely different geometric properties the estimation illumination is comparable to that of figure 1.

ing. The relatively large quantitative differences are, in addition to the fact that this scene in particular involves substantial indirect illumination contributions, due to a lot of the pixels for the sunlit brick wall are saturated in the red channel, i.e., exceed 255 in pixel value. Naturally, such imperfect image exposure makes it difficult for the technique to estimate proper results.

8 DISCUSSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

The work described here is intended for sequences of limited length (up to minutes). Furthermore it requires the presence of dynamic objects to cast shadows. We are developing additional techniques which will be bootstrapped by the technique presented here, but afterwards will be able to handle illumination estimation also in the absence of dynamic shadows, and over very long image sequences.

The described technique is based on an assumptions that surfaces in the scene are predominantly diffuse. While this is a fair assumption for much outdoor material it is far from satisfactory to have this constraint. We are presently pursuing analysis of very long time sequences (full day, several days) and are developing techniques to classify pixels that do not agree with the majority on how the illumination in the scene changes. Those pixels are either glossy/specular, a leaf has fallen on the surface, or even snow. Our ambition is to develop techniques that are robust enough to handle seasonal changes.

In the illumination estimation approach presented in section 6 the illumination model does not take into

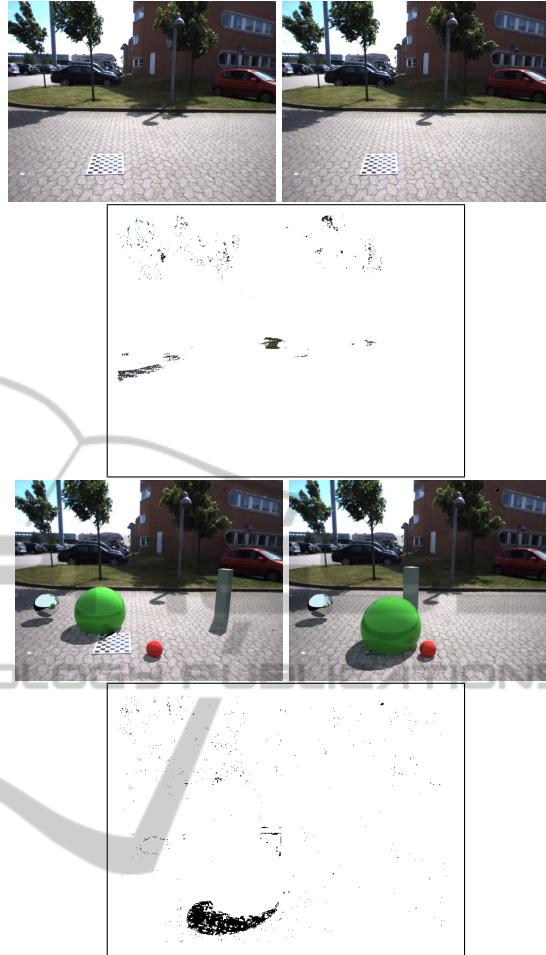


Figure 10: First row: frames 25 and 30 from real stereo image sequence. Second row: detected shadow pixels from trees moving in the wind. Third row: frame 30 augmented with moving synthetic objects, using the illumination estimated from the shadow pixels in row two. Notice the reflection of the sky in the artificial chrome ball to the left.

account the indirect global illumination contribution from other surfaces in the scene. We are presently rephrasing this work into a framework that does take this into account. Moreover, we are investigating how to employ a more realistic sky model than the uniform radiance sky dome used here. A more realistic, non-uniform sky dome could be the Perez model, (Perez et al., 1993), or the Preetham model, (Preetham et al., 1999).

The shadow detection is presently running at 8 Hz including the stereo disparity computation. The illumination estimation process itself poses no real computational load, but the required ambient occlusion map is not straight forward to obtain as this requires some form of ray casting. Real-time global illumination methods are beginning to appear in the litterature,

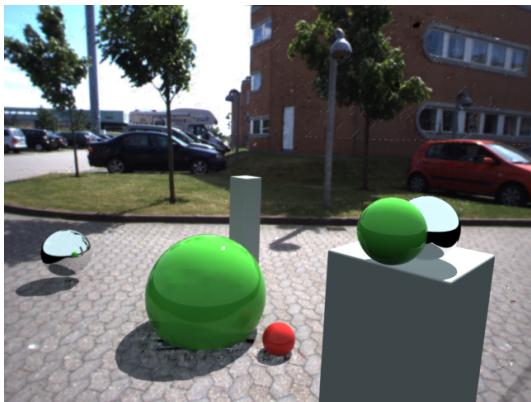


Figure 11: Augmentation into the scene were the illumination was estimated from the shadows of moving augmentations, which in turn were rendered into the original scene with illumination estimated from the shadows of trees moving in the wind.

and for the use in conjunction with the work in this paper we only need ambient occlusion factors for the detected shadow pixels, not for the entire image.

9 CONCLUSIONS

We have presented a technique for adaptively estimating outdoor daylight conditions directly from video imagery, and the technique has a potential for real-time operation. The main scientific contribution is a theoretically well-founded technique for estimation of the radiances of sky and sun for a full outdoor illumination model directly from Low Dynamic Range image sequences. The main contribution from a systems point of view is a demonstration that automatic detection of dynamic shadows can feed information to the illumination estimation.

The presented work can be used for rendering virtual objects in Augmented Reality, but we conjecture that illumination estimation can also make many classical computer vision techniques more robust to illumination changes.

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