Finger Tracking as an Input Device for Augmented Reality

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Abstract

This paper describes experiments in the use of cross-correlation as a means of tracking pointing devices for a digital desk. The first section introduces the motivation by describing the potential for applying real time computer vision to man machine interaction. The problem of tracking is then formulated and addressed as a problem of optimal signal detection. Signal detection leads to a formulation of tracking using cross-correlation with a reference template as shown section 2. The problems of normalisation, choosing the size of the reference template and search region are addressed. A method is provided to detect when to initiate tracking as well as when tracking has failed. The problem of updating the reference mask is also addressed.

1 Computer Vision and Man Machine Interaction.

One of the effects of the continued exponential growth in available computing power has been an exponential decrease in the cost of hardware for real time computer vision. This trend has been accelerated by the recent integration of image acquisition and processing equipment in personal computers for multi-media applications. Lowered cost has meant more wide-spread experimentation in real time computer vision, creating a rapid evolution in robustness and reliability of computer vision techniques, and the development of architectures for integrated vision systems [Cro 94].

Man-machine interaction provides a fertile applications area for this technological evolution. The barrier between physical objects (paper, pencils, calculators) and their electronic counterparts limits both the integration of computing into human tasks, and the population willing to adapt to the required input devices. Computer vision, coupled with video projection using low cost devices, makes it possible for a human to use any convenient object, including bare hands, as digital input devices. In such an "augmented reality" [Wel 93a] information is projected onto ordinary objects and acquired by watching the way objects are manipulated. A simple example of augmented reality is provided by the "digital desk" [Wel 93b].

In the digital desk, illustrated in figure 1, a computer screen is projected onto a physical desk using a video-projector, such as a liquid-crystal "data-show" working with standard overhead projector. A video-camera is set up to watch the work area such that the surface of the projected image and the surface of the imaged area coincide.
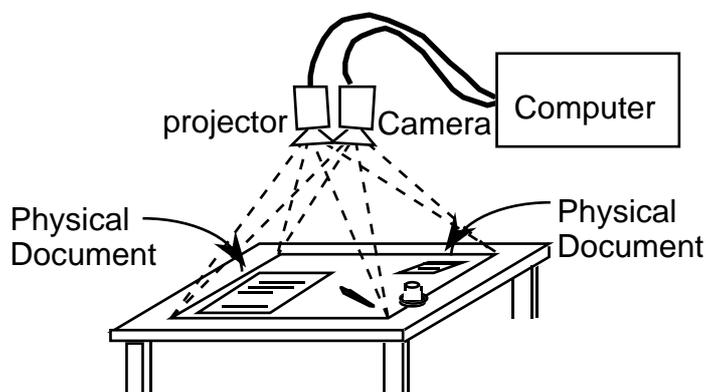

Figure 1 The Digital Desk (after [Wel 93]).

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The projective transformation between the projected work-space (or screen) coordinates $^{S}P = (x,y)$ and the image coordinates $^{i}P=(i, j)$ is easily described as a reversible perspective transformation represented by a 3x3 homogeneous coordinate matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} w\ x \\ w\ y \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \ ^{S}_{i}\mathbf{M} \begin{bmatrix} i \\ j \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The letter "w" represents the deformation due to perspective. This notation permits the pixel coordinates of ^{S}P to be recovered as a ratio of polynomials of ^{i}P. That is, for a matrix $^{S}_{i}\mathbf{M}$ composed of 3 rows $^{S}_{i}M_1$, $^{S}_{i}M_2$ and $^{S}_{i}M_3$:

$$x = \frac{w\ x}{w} = \frac{^{S}_{i}M_1 \cdot \ ^{i}P}{^{S}_{i}M_3 \cdot \ ^{i}P} \qquad\qquad y = \frac{w\ y}{w} = \frac{^{S}_{i}M_2 \cdot \ ^{i}P}{^{S}_{i}M_3 \cdot \ ^{i}P}$$

If the viewpoint of the projector and camera are very close, the denominator of this projection can be approximated by a constant, s, giving an affine or "weak perspective" transformation from the image to the workspace. In this case:

$$x = \ = \frac{1}{s}(^{S}_{i}M_1 \cdot \ ^{i}P) \quad \text{and} \quad y = \ = \frac{1}{s}(^{S}_{i}M_2 \cdot \ ^{i}P)$$

The coefficients of this affine transformation, $^{S}_{i}M_1$ and $^{S}_{i}M_2$ and the scale factor, s, can be determined by observing the image position of the four corners of workspace.

The visual processes required for the digital desk are relatively simple. The basic operation is tracking of some pointing device, such as a finger, a pencil or an eraser. Such tracking should be supported by by methods to determine what device to track and to detect when tracking has failed. A means are also required to detect the equivalent of a "mouse-down" event for selection.

The tracking problem can be expressed as: "Given an observation of an object at time t, determine the most likely location of the same object at time t+ΔT". Because the pointing device can change, our system must include some form of "trigger" in which the pointing device is presented to the system. The observation of the pointing device is a small neighbourhood, w(n, m), of an image p(i, j) obtained at some prior time, t. This neighbourhood will serve as a "reference template". Thus the problem can be expressed as given the position of the pointing device in the kth image, determine the most likely position of the pointing devise in the k+1th image.

For implementation reasons, we have chosen to use a square neighbourhood of size N by N. The origin of this neighbourhood is the upper left corner. A point at (0, N/2) is designated as the "hot-spot". The size of the tracked neighbourhood must be determined such that the neighbourhood includes a sufficiently large portion of the device to be tracked and a minimum of the background.

The image at time (k+1)ΔT to be searched will be noted as $p_{k+1}(i, j)$. The search process can generally be accelerated by restricting the search to a region of this image, denoted s(i, j). This search region is sometimes called a "Region of Interest". Since most image processing algorithms have computational costs which are proportional to the number of pixels, restricting the search to a smaller number of pixels provides a means to accelerate the search. Our system arbitrarily uses a square search region of size M by M, whose center is is denoted as (i_o, j_o). The center corresponds to the location where the reference template was detected in the previous image.

We have experimented with two different approaches to tracking pointing devices: correlation tracking and active contours (snakes)[Ber 94]. The active contour model [Kas 87] presented problems which we believe can be resolved, but which will require additional experiments. Because

of this, plus space limitations, in this paper we present only techniques for correlation tracking.
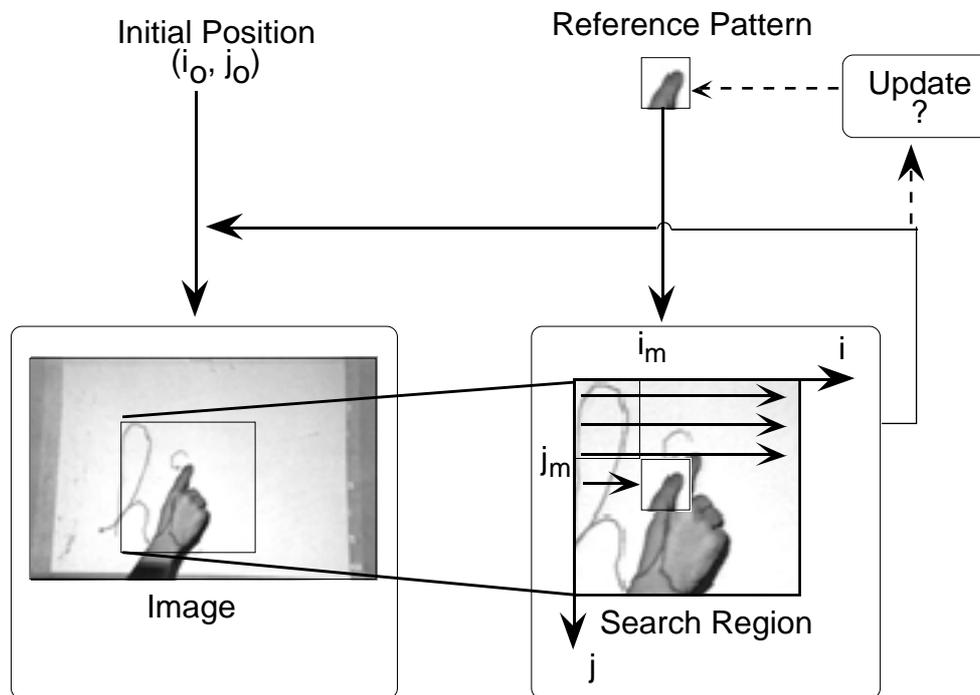
2 Tracking by Correlation

The tracking problem can be expressed as a problem of optimal signal detection [Woz 65]. This formulation leads to tracking by correlating a reference template with a region of the image. However, the optimal signal detection model leaves a number of implementation details to be determined. These implementation details depend on the application domain, and thus require experimentation.

Correlation has been occasionally used in computer vision since the 1960's. However, its use has generally been rejected because it does not provide a general solution for view-point invariant object recognition. In addition, the hardware to support real time implementation of correlation has only recently become sufficiently low cost to be of general use.

Tracking of pointing devices for the digital desk provides a number of simplifications that make the use of cross-correlation well suited. For example, the illumination of the workspace is controlled and generally uniform. The device to be tracked remains close to a 2D surface and thus its appearance changes little. Change in view point is limited to (slow) rotation of the template within the 2D workshop. Correlation tracking provides an easy implementation for real time operations, and can be accelerated by special purpose hardware used for image coding.

2.1 Correlation and Sum of Squared Difference

In the signal detection formulation for tracking, a reference template, $w(i,j)$, is compared to all neighbourhoods within the search region, $s(i, j)$ of a received signal $p_k(i, j)$ centred on a pixel (i_o, j_o), as shown in figure 2. The pixel (i_o, j_o) represents the position at which the tracked object is expected to be found, based on previous observations.

Figure 2. The components of a finger tracking system based on cross-correlation.

The optimum receiver requires that the received image and reference signals be expressed in an orthogonal basis set. The pixels which make up an image provide just such a basis set. A well known result from signal detection theory shows that for additive white noise, the probability of error can be minimized by minimizing the sum of squared difference between the reference and received signal expressed in the chosen basis space. In terms of searching for the new position of the object, this can be expressed mathematically as determining the position (i_m, j_m) within the search region $s(i,$

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j) which minimizes the sum of squared difference:

$$(i_m, j_m) = \underset{(i,j)}{\text{Min}} \left\{ \sum_{m=0}^{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N} (p_k(i+m,j+n) - w(m, n))^2 \right\}$$

Matching image neighbourhoods by sum of squared differences has come to be known in the vision community as SSD [Ana 89]. This technique provides a simple and robust method for motion measurement and stereo correspondence matching. The SSD expression can be rewritten as

$$\underset{(i,j)}{\text{Min}} \left\{ \sum_{m=0}^{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N} (p_k(i+m,j+n)^2 - 2\, p_k(i+m,j+n)\, w(m,n) + w(m, n)^2) \right\}$$

If the terms $p_k(i+m,j+n)$ and $w(m,n)$ are suitably normalised, then minimizing the sum of squared differences is equivalent to finding the position (i_m, j_m) which maximizes the inner product $<p_k(i+m,j+n), w(m,n)>$. Computing an inner product at each point (i,j) is known as the cross-correlation of $w(m, n)$ with $p_k(i+m,j+n)$.

The summation terms $w(m, n)^2$ and $p_k(i+m,j+n)^2$ express the energy contained in the reference pattern and the neighbourhood beginning at (i, j). The signal processing literature contains many possible normalisation techniques [Asc 92] for this energy. In a related project [Mar 94] we compared a number of possible normalisation techniques. Experimental showed that the most robust results were obtained by dividing the correlation by the energies of the neighbourhood and the reference signal, as shown by:

$$p(m,n) \otimes w(m,n) = \frac{\displaystyle\sum_{m=0}^{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N} p_k(i+m,j+n)\, w(m,n)}{\sqrt{\displaystyle\sum_{m=0}^{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N} p_k(i+m,j+n)^2 \sum_{m=0}^{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N} w(m,n)^2}}$$

This robustness was most evident in scenes in which the ambient illumination varied. For the finger tracking presented in this paper, the background is sufficiently uniform that adequate performance was obtained without normalisation. This gives the formula for un-normalized cross correlation:

$$p(m,n) \otimes w(m,n) = \sum_{m=0}^{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N} p_k(i+m,j+n)\, w(m,n)$$

cross-correlation is well suited to real time tracking. The results presented below were obtained using a conventional personal computer (Apple Quadra AV 840) equipped with a built in frame grabber. In the last few years, a group at the University of Tokyo [Ino 92], have used an M-PEG image coding chip to build a very simple video-rate correlation device. In large volume production, such a device would be expected to have size and costs similar to those of a frame-grabber.

Implementing cross-correlation required solving practical problems concerning the size of the reference template, the size of the search region and when to when to initialise the reference template. These are described in the following sections.

2.2 Size of the Mask

The size of the correlation template depends on the image size of the object to be tracked. If the template window is too large, correlation may be corrupted by the background. On the other extreme is that the template is composed only of the interior of the pointing device then the reference template will be relatively uniform, and a high correlation peak will be obtained with any uniform region of the

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image, including other parts of the pointing device. For a reasonable correlation peak, the reference template size should be just large enough to include the boundary of the pointing device, which contains the information which is used for detection and localisation.

Our workspace is of size 40 cm by 32 cm. This surface is mapped onto an image of 192 x 144 pixels, giving pixel sizes of 2 mm by 2.2 mm. At this resolution a finger gives a correlation template of size 8 by 8 pixels or 16mm by 18mm, as shown in figure 3.
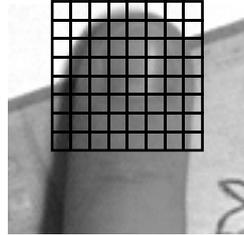
Figure 3 reference template for a finger.

2.3 Size of the search region.

Given a image processing cycle time of ΔT seconds per cross-correlation, and a maximum pointer speed of V_m pixels/sec, it is possible to specify that the pointing device will be found within a radius of $M = \Delta T\, V_m$ pixels of its position in the previous frame. Fitts law [Car 83] permits us to place an upper limit on the movement of the pointing device. However, this limit is based on assumptions which are best verified experimentally.

For images of 192 x 144 pixels, our built-in digitizer permits us to register images at a maximum frame rate of 24 frames per second, giving a cycle time of $\Delta T_{max} = 41.7$ msec. This represents an upper limit on image acquisition speed which is attainable only if image tracking were to take no computation time. Considerations based on Fitts law [Card 83] indicated expected tracking speeds of up to 180 cm/sec. To verify this, we performed an experiment in which a finger was filmed making typical pointing movements in our workspace. The maximum speeds and accelerations observed in this experiment were $V_m = 1390$ mm/sec and and $A_m = 17\,660$ mm/sec^2. Expressed in pixels this gives 695 pixels/sec, and 8 830 pixels/sec^2.

The computational cost of cross-correlation is directly proportional to the number of pixels in the search region. Thus reducing the number of pixels will decrease the time needed for the inner loop of correlation by the same amount. This, in turn, increases the number of times that correlation can be operated within a unit time, further decreasing the region over which the search must be performed. This positive feedback relation can be expressed analytically.

A cross-correlation is composed of m inner products of the reference template and an image neighbourhood, one for each pixel of the (2M+1) by (2M+1) search region, such that $m = (2M+1)^2$. Each inner product costs n multiplies and adds, where n is the number of pixels in the N by N reference template, such that $n = N^2$. Thus the cycle time for a cross correlation is proportional to m and n, where k is the factor of proportionality (determined by the time to fetch, add and multiply pixels).

$$\Delta T = k\, m\, n = k\, (2M+1)^2 \cdot N^2.$$

Computing a cross correlation every ΔT seconds, permits a maximum speed of

$$V_m = \frac{M}{\Delta T} = \frac{M}{k \cdot (2M+1)^2 \cdot N^2} \approx \frac{1}{2kMN^2}$$

Thus there is an inverse relation between the width of the search region, M, and the maximum tracking speed, V_m. The smaller the search region, the faster the finger movement that can be tracked, up to a limit set by the digitizing hardware. The fastest tracking movement can be expected at a

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relatively small search region. This is confirmed by experiments.

To verify the inverse relation between M and V_m, we systematically varied the size of the search region from M = 10 to 46 pixels and measured the cycle time that was obtained. Figure 4 shows the maximum displacement speed V_m in pixels/sec plotted for different size search regions. The maximum speed of 126 pixels/sec is obtained with M=26.
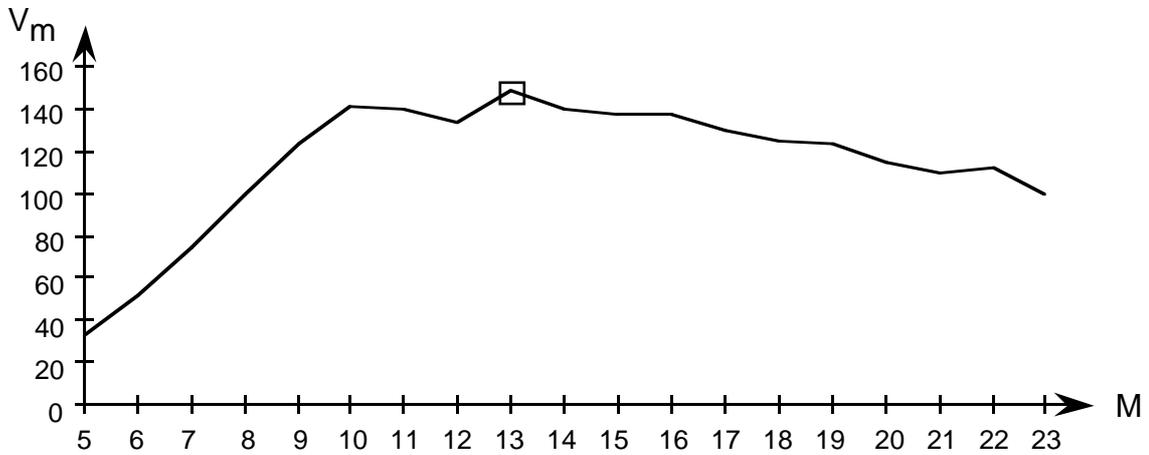
Figure 4 Maximum speed of trackable movement V_m as a function of the search region width.

2.4 Triggering and breaking tracking

When is not active, the system monitors a size of 8 by 8 pixel "tracking trigger", $T_k(i,j)$, located in the lower right corner of the workspace. As each image is acquired at time k, the contents of this tracking trigger are subtracted from the from the contents at the previous image k-1. This creates a difference image as shown in figure 5. The energy of the different image is computed as

$$E_k = \sum_{m=0}^{7} \sum_{n=0}^{7} (T_k(m,n) - T_{k-1}(m,n))^2$$

When a pointing device enters the tracking trigger, the energy rises above a threshold. In order to assure that the tracking device is adequately positioned, the system waits until the difference energy drops back below the threshold before acquiring the reference template. At that point, the contents of the tracking trigger, $T_k(m, n)$ are saved as a reference image, and the tracking process is initiated.

Figure 5 Temporal different of images in the reference square.

Tracking continues as long as the inner product remains above a relatively low threshold. However, it can happen that the tracker locks on to a pattern on the digital desk (for example a photo of the pointing device!). To cover this eventually, if the tracked location of the pointer stops moving for more than a few seconds (say 10), the system begins again to observe the difference energy in the tracking trigger. If the trigger energy rises above threshold, the tracker will break break the previous track and re-initialise the reference pattern with the new contents of the tracking trigger.

2.5 Updating the reference mask

As the user moves the pointing device around the workspace, there is a natural tendency for the

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device to rotate, as shown in figure 6. This, in turn, will decrease the inner product and may even cause loss of tracking. In order to avoid loss of tracking, the inner product of each correlation is compared to the energy in the reference template, to produce a similarity measure, S.

$$S = \frac{\sum\limits_{m=0}^{N} \sum\limits_{n=0}^{N} p_k(i+m,j+n)\ w(m,n)}{\sum\limits_{m=0}^{N} \sum\limits_{n=0}^{N} w(m,n)^2}$$

If tracking is operating properly, the ratio of these values should be close to 1. When this ratio drops below a threshold (for example .95), then the reference template is updated using the contents of the image at time k-1 at the detected position.
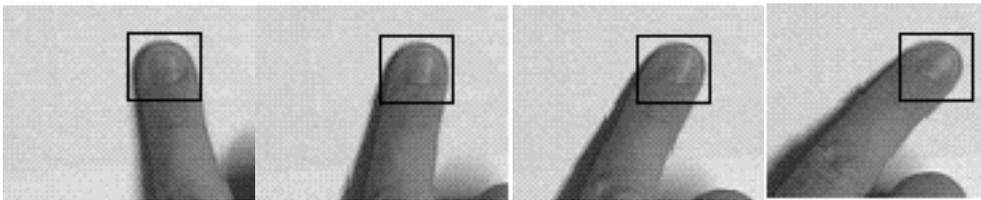
Figure 6 Change in reference template as a function of finger orientation.

3. Demonstration: FingerPaint

As a simple demonstration, our finger tracking system was used to build a demonstration program called "finger-paint". Finger paint uses a work-space projected with overhead projector using a liquid-crystal display "data-show". A CCD camera with an 18mm lens observes this workspace and provides visual input. Mousedown detection was simulated using the space bar of the keyboard. The user can use tracking to draw picture or letters, as shown in figure 7.

a   b
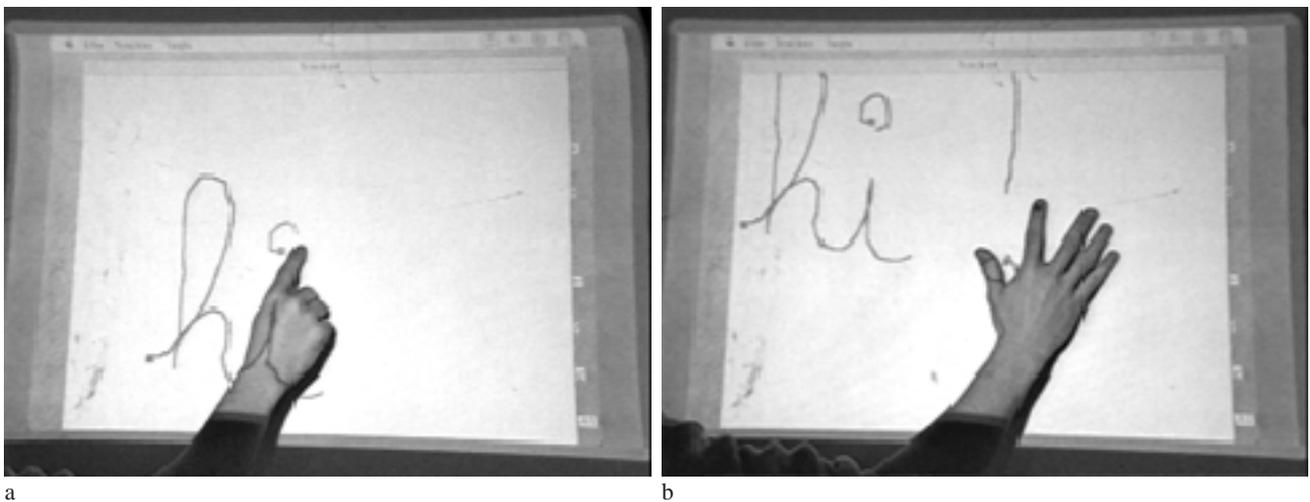
Figure 7. Drawing and placing with "fingerpaint".

Cross-correlation provides a simple means to track pointing devices for a digital desk. The widespread availability image acquisition and processing hardware adequate for real time correlation makes it very likely that real-world physical world objects will come to replace the mouse and keyboard as the communication device in computer systems.

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