3D ABSOLUTE POSE RECOVERY WITH NAVISCRIBE: AN OVERVIEW OF GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR SMARTPHONE APPLICATIONS Six Degrees of Freedom Interface for Absolute Pointing and Mouse Modes


Supplied by:
Electronic Scripting Products, Inc.
555 Bryant Street, \#142
Palo Alto, CA 94301
info@4espi.com
Note: The material and illustrations presented herein support the development of applications that employ true 3 D pose (absolute position and orientation, also referred to as the six degrees of freedom or 6 D.O.F.) of a smart phone or analogous device. Certain aspects of this technology may be proprietary to Electronic Scripting Products, Inc (ESPi). Please contact us at the e-mail listed above for details if you wish to build and implement such application(s).


#### Abstract

This document describes basic methods for determining the absolute pose (six degrees of freedom including position and orientation) of a smart phone in a stable reference frame. The frame is ascertained from on-board the phone by optical means such as its on-board camera. The camera is programmed to locate a sufficient number of noncollinear optical inputs derived from stationary objects in the environment to parameterize the stable frame. The stationary object can be the display screen of the host device. The 3D interface employs at least a portion of the phone's six absolute pose parameters recovered in the stable frame to generate user input.


## table of contents

GENERAL BACKGROUND ON RIGID BODY MOTION IN 3D ..... 3
OVERVIEW OF THE SMART PHONE APPLICATION ..... 7
DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWING FIGURES ..... 14
DRAWING FIGURES (18 SHEETS) ..... --
DETAILED DESCRIPTION ..... 17
ADDITIONAL APPLICATION DEVELOPMENT RESOURCES ..... 101

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## GENERAL BACKGROUND ON RIGID BODY MOTION IN 3D

When an item moves without constraints in a three-dimensional environment with respect to stationary objects, knowledge of the item's distance from and inclination to these objects can be used to derive a variety of the item's parameters of motion as well as its pose. Particularly useful stationary objects for pose recovery purposes include a ground plane, fixed points, lines, reference surfaces and other known features.

Over time, many useful coordinate systems and methods have been developed to parameterize stable reference frames defined by stationary objects. The pose of the item, as recovered and expressed in such stable frames with parameters obtained from the corresponding coordinate description of the frame, is frequently referred to as the item's absolute pose. Based on the most up-to-date science, we know that no absolute or stationary frame is available for defining truly absolute parameters. Stable frame is thus not to be construed to imply a stationary frame. More precisely stated, the stable frame in which the absolute pose is parameterized is typically not a stationary or even an inertial frame (for example, a reference frame defined on the Earth's surface is certainly stable, but not stationary and non-inertial due to gravity and Earth's rotation). Nevertheless, we shall refer to poses defined in stable frames as "absolute" in adherence to convention.

Many conventions have also been devised to track temporal changes in absolute pose of the item as it undergoes motion in the threedimensional environment. Certain types of motion in three dimensions can be fully described by corresponding equations of motion (e.g., orbital motion, simple harmonic motion, parabolic motion, curvilinear motion, etc.). These equations of motion are typically expressed in the stable frame defined by the stationary objects.

The parameterization of stable frames is usually dictated by the symmetry of the situation and overall type of motion. For example,
motion exhibiting spherical symmetry is usually described in spherical coordinates, motion exhibiting cylindrical symmetry in cylindrical coordinates and generally linear motion in Cartesian coordinates. More advanced situations may even be expressed in coordinates using other types of parameterizations, e.g., sets of linearly independent axes.

Unconstrained motion of items in many three-dimensional environments, however, may not lend itself to a simple description in terms of equations of motion. Instead, the best approach is to recover a time sequence of the item's absolute poses and reconstruct the motion from them. For a theoretical background, the reader is referred to textbooks on classical mechanics and, more specifically, to chapters addressing various types of rigid body motion. An excellent overall review is found in $H$. Goldstein et al., Classical Mechanics, $3^{\text {rd }}$ Edition, Addison Wesley Publishing, 2002.

Items associated with human users, e.g., items that are manipulated or worn by such users, generally do not move in ways that can be described by simple equations of motion. That is because human users exercise their own will in moving such items in whatever real threedimensional environment they find themselves. It is, however, precisely the three-dimensional motion of such items that is very useful to capture and describe. That is because such motion may communicate the desires and intentions of the human user. These desires and intentions, as expressed by corresponding movements of the item (e.g., gestures performed with the item), can form the basis for user input and interactions with the digital domain (e.g., data input or control input).

Many common methods for pose recovery of items moving without constraints in 3 D space employ optics. Such optical approaches to pose recovery are intuitive, since our own human vision system computes locations and motion trajectories of items in real threedimensional environments in that manner. This includes recovery of
our own pose and movement in a three-dimensional environment based on images provided by our eyes. The pose recovery algorithms from those images are implemented by our senses, which develop as part of our natural proprioception in early childhood.

The high accuracy and precision of optical pose recovery and navigation is due in large part to the very short wavelength of electromagnetic radiation in comparison with typical dimensions of objects and items of interest. Furthermore, radiation incurs negligible latency in short distance measurements due to the extremely large speed of light. EM radiation in the optical range (e.g., visible and IR) is also relatively immune to interference. Thus, it is well known that the problem of determining an absolute pose or a sequence of such absolute poses that represent a recovered motion trajectory of an item in almost any real three-dimensional environment may be effectively addressed by the application of optical apparatus and methods.

A particularly acute need for efficient, accurate and low-cost determination of the absolute pose of an item in a real threedimensional environment is found in the field of items associated with a human user. Such items may be held and manipulated by the user. Alternatively, such items may be worn by the user. In either case, the items are intended to help the user interact with the digital world. Besides smart phones that will be addressed in detail herein, such items encompass myriads of manipulated objects such as pointers, wands, remote controls, gaming objects, jotting implements, surgical implements, three-dimensional digitizers and various types of human utensils whose motion in real space is to be processed to derive a digital input for an application.

Unfortunately, motion mapping between space and cyberspace is not possible without the ability to digitize the absolute pose of the item in a well-defined and stable reference frame. All devices that do not solve the full motion problem, i.e., do not capture successive
absolute poses of the item with a method that accounts for all six degrees of freedom (namely, three translational and the three rotational degrees of freedom inherently available to rigid bodies in three-dimensional space) encounter limitations. Among many others, these limitations include information loss, appearance of an offset, position aliasing, gradual drift and accumulating position and orientation errors. The users of a Nintendo wii will be familiar with many of these issues.

The challenges for $3 D$ user interfaces with the digital world do not end with their ability to recover absolute pose in an efficient and accurate manner. Many additional issues need to be addressed and resolved, over and above those that we have discussed above. In fact, it may be in a large part due to the fact that some of the more basic challenges are still being investigated, that the questions about how to use the recovered poses are still unanswered.

## OVERVIEW OF THE SMART PHONE APPLICATION

The present application targets an interface that derives or produces input to a software application based on an absolute pose of a smart phone operated in a three-dimensional environment. Absolute pose means both the position and the orientation of the smart phone as described in a stable reference frame defined in that threedimensional environment.

The smart phone and its user are found in the three-dimensional environment. Such environment has a spatial extent that can be described with three dimensions or directions such as length, width and height, or the $X, Y$ and $Z$ axes. The absolute pose of the smart phone in the three-dimensional environment includes its position and its orientation. The position can change along any of the three directions. In other words, position has at least three translational degrees of freedom (i.e., translation along $X, Y$ and $Z$, or, in general, any three linearly independent axes). In addition, the absolute pose of the smart phone also includes its orientation. The orientation exhibits at least three rotational degrees of freedom (i.e., rotation around axes defined by $X, Y$ or $Z$ or, in general, rotation around any three linearly independent axes). Therefore, the smart phone has available to it at least six (6) degrees of freedom in the three-dimensional environment.

The interface to be deployed with the aid of the smart phone requires knowledge about at least one stationary object that has at least one feature that is detectable via an electromagnetic radiation in the optical range (e.g., from ultra-violet to infra-red). This feature has to present a sufficient number of non-collinear optical inputs to enable one to establish a stable reference frame in the threedimensional environment. In other words, the number and type of noncollinear optical inputs are sufficient to allow one to establish stable world coordinates. Such world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) are used to describe or parameterize the stable frame in the three-dimensional environment.

In rare cases, world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ may describe an actual inertial frame of reference in which the user resides (e.g., on a spacecraft in outer space). Normally, however, world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) describe a non-inertial frame in which the user, the smart phone and the stationary object all reside. The simplest noninertial frame is found on the surface of the Earth (due to gravity and our planet's motion, such as rotation around its axis). More complex non-inertial frames are encountered aboard planes, trains, cars or other aircraft or terrestrial vehicles that undergoes linear acceleration or some curvilinear motion.

The interface takes advantage of a camera on-board the smart phone for receiving the electromagnetic radiation. Based on the electromagnetic radiation received, the camera generates a signal that is related to at least one absolute pose parameter of the smart phone as defined in the stable frame. For example, in the simplest case, the signal amplitude, frequency or phase may be directly proportional to the at least one absolute pose parameter.

The interface communicates with an application (e.g., a software program) via any suitable communication link. The application employs the signal related to the one or more absolute pose parameters of the smart phone in the input. For example, the signal may constitute the complete input to the application. Alternatively, the signal may be used intermittently or present merely a subset of a continuous input stream.

As remarked above, in the three-dimensional environment, as dictated by the fundamental geometrical rules of 3 D space, the absolute pose of a rigid body and hence of the smart phone exhibits at least three translational and at least three rotational degrees of freedom. Thus, in the most basic embodiment of the invention, the signal is related to at least one absolute pose parameter which, in turn, is
related to one or more from among the at least three translational and at least three rotational degrees of freedom by a mapping.

A mapping, as understood in general and herein, is any rule or set of rules for establishing correspondence between the one absolute pose parameter and the at least three translational and the at least three rotational degrees of freedom. For example, the mapping may associate the at least one absolute pose parameter to any portion of each of the at least six degrees of freedom (the at least 3 translational and the at least 3 rotational degrees of freedom). Alternatively, the mapping may associate the at least one absolute pose parameter to only some predetermined portions of the at least six degrees of freedom. In fact, any mapping supported by the geometrical limits imposed on translations and rotations of rigid bodies in three-dimensional environments is a permitted mapping. (Although it should be noted that in a cyberspace, a virtual space, an augmented reality space and a mixed space in which new effect are desired, the rules of real space geometry may sometimes be disregarded.)

In a one-to-one interface, the mapping is a one-to-one mapping. In other words, there is a one-to-one mapping between the six degrees of freedom and the at least one absolute pose parameter. Thus, when the smart phone executes two translations (e.g., along $X$ and $Y$ axes) and a rotation (e.g., around the $Z$ axis), then these translations and the rotation are mapped one-to-one to the at least one absolute pose parameter. Specifically, in this case the mapping produces three absolute pose parameters corresponding to two translations (along $X$ and along $Y$ ) and one rotation (around $Z$ ).

In other applications, the mapping includes a scaling in at least one of the six or more degrees of freedom. In particular, when the item executes two translations (e.g., in $X$ and $Y$ ) and a rotation (e.g., around $Z$ ), the translations may be scaled $1: 2$ in the mapping. Such scaling will produce three absolute pose parameters corresponding to
$1 / 2$ the translation along $X$ axis, $1 / 2$ the translation along $Y$ axis, and the full (unscaled) rotation around $Z$ axis. Of course, one can instead scale the rotation and not the translations.

It is important for computational reasons to make a wise choice when defining the degrees of freedom given the application(s). For example, in many cases it is convenient to choose two translational degrees of freedom that define a plane in the three-dimensional environment; e.g., degrees of freedom in $X$ and in $Y$ can be used to define an $X-Y$ plane. When the application involves the use of a display, it is convenient to set up the three-dimensional environment in such manner that the $X-Y$ plane is plane-parallel with the display, or, more precisely, the screen of the display. In some such embodiments, the display is integrated into one of the stationary objects, such as the television or gaming system with which the smart phone cooperates.

In most cases, it is convenient to choose the at least three translational and at least three rotational degrees of freedom in such manner that they be not just linearly independent but mutually orthogonal. In other words, they should represent three mutually orthogonal translational degrees of freedom (e.g., $X, Y$ and $Z$ ) and three mutually orthogonal rotational degrees of freedom. These can be described by (pitch, yaw and roll) or their mathematical equivalents. Other options include but are not limited to: (heading, elevation and bank) and their mathematical equivalents, Euler angles $(\varphi, \theta, \psi)$ or Tait-Bryan angles and their mathematical equivalents, Cayley-Klein parameters (related to Euler angles) and their mathematical equivalents.

Of course, it is also possible to choose other orthogonal and nonorthogonal descriptions to keep track of the rotational and translational degrees of freedom. Some of these involve convolutions of displacements and/or angles (e.g., the pan angle concept), direction cosines and/or descriptions involving homogeneous
coordinate system and quaternions and all corresponding mathematical equivalents.

It should be noted, that mathematically the many options for keeping track of all three rotations can always be reduced to Euler angles and their equivalents. The choice of the rotation convention should be made based on the nature of the application and the range of absolute poses that the smart phone is expected to assume as well as the method in which the on-board camera receives the electromagnetic radiation (e.g., camera rotation matrices and corresponding machine vision conventions may dictate the most useful choice). Also, even though from the mathematical standpoint, choosing orthogonal coordinate systems guarantees efficiency, the actual application may not require, or may be better served, by adopting a description involving merely linearly independent axes.

In most cases, however, the choice of mutually orthogonal translational degrees of freedom to correspond to the three orthogonal Cartesian axes will be most appropriate and useful. In these cases the orthogonal Cartesian axes are preferably used as world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ to describe or parameterize the stable frame. Furthermore, a certain reference location or designated point on the smart phone is expressed in these world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) to define a position of the smart phone in world coordinates and thereby in the stable frame. (Note that in some conventions, the point chosen on the smart phone to indicate its position is abstract, e.g., a point such as the center of mass (C.O.M.) or some other point associated with the phone but not physically a part of it - also note that depending on the phone's geometry, the C.O.M. is not always within the physical volume.)

Indeed, in many embodiments, the interface is conveniently parameterized in six degrees of freedom (6 D.O.F. interface). In other words, the at least one absolute pose parameter includes six absolute pose parameters that map to three of the at least three
translational degrees of freedom and to three of the at least three rotational degrees of freedom. This provides for a full parameterization of the absolute pose of the smart phone in the three-dimensional environment. The application may use such full parameterization of the smart phone's absolute pose in the input to the application. Moreover, the reader will realize that choosing orthogonal translational degrees of freedom (e.g., X, Y and $Z$ axes) and orthogonal rotational degrees of freedom (e.g., Euler angles $(\varphi, \theta, \psi)$ ) is particularly convenient for such full parameterization.

In some embodiments the application has a feedback unit for providing feedback to the user in response to at least one portion of the full parameterization. For example, the feedback unit uses the phone's display to show visual information, some or all of which may represent the feedback. For example, the visual information may be an image, a portion of an image, an icon, a series of images (e.g., a video) or other visual information rendered from a point of view of the smart phone in the three-dimensional environment.

The point of view of the item is derived from the at least one portion, and preferably from the full parameterization of the item's pose, i.e., from the six absolute pose parameters (x,y,z, $\varphi, \theta, \psi$ ) or a subset of these. When employing an on-board camera it may also be convenient to work with alternative but mathematically equivalent parameterizations employing concepts such as surface normals (e.g., normal to the $X-Y$ plane discussed above), pan angles (e.g., convolutions of two rotation angles), horizon lines, vanishing points and other optics and imaging concepts from projective geometry.

In some cases the feedback unit is a tactile feedback unit. It is associated with the application and provides tactile information also sometimes referred to as haptic feedback to the user. In particular, the tactile or haptic information may consist of vibration is derived from at least a portion of the full parameterization of the smart
phone. Audio feedback may also be used to indicate various states of the smart phone as it moves in the three-dimensional environment.

In many smart phone applications, the one or more stationary objects used for establishing the stable frame will include a display that is integrated into the object. In some of these cases it is advantageous to use the full parameterization of the smart phone's pose in the application to compute an intersection of a mechanical axis of the phone with the display, or more precisely, with the area spanned by the display or its screen. The optical axis of the camera's lens can be chosen as the mechanical axis. Thus, a user holding the phone will point or indicate along the direction of the optical axis. This choice is particularly useful when one of the intended uses in the context of the application is to point and click and/or to point and control/move or the like (absolute pointer of absolute 3D mouse).

In embodiments where a display is provided and pointing is available, it is also convenient to introduce a place-holder entity and place it at the intersection of the optical axis with the display or its screen. Thus, the user will get visual feedback via the place-holder entity of where the phone is pointing. The place-holder entity can contain additional information apparent from its character. For example, the place-holder entity may by an insertion cursor, a feedback cursor, a control icon, a display icon or any other visual feedback entity whose appearance communicates information to the user.

Depending on the three-dimensional environment and modes of operation, the interface may also use the smart phone's relative motion sensor. Relative motion sensors are to be understood as sensors that are not capable of recovering absolute pose in the stable frame established in the three-dimensional environment. Suitable relative motion sensors include accelerometers, gyros, magnetometers, optical flow meters, acoustic devices and the like.

Any such sensor (or combination of them) can be placed on-board the smart phone for producing data indicative of a change in at least one among the at least three translational and the at least three rotational degrees of freedom. This relative data can be used to supplement (e.g., interpolate) the signal that is related to the at least one absolute pose parameter. In fact, it is preferable, as will become apparent in the detailed description of the smart phone implementation, to employ the phone's on-board gyros and accelerometers in a sensor fusion that enables very efficient and robust 3 D pose recovery.

## 1/18




FIG. 1B


FIG. 2

## 4/18



FIG. 3 A


FIG. 3C


FIG. 3B


FIG. 3D

5/18


FIG. 5

6/18


7/18



## 8/18



FIG. 9

## 9/18



FIG. 10

10/18


FIG. 11

## 11/18



## 12/18




FIG. 14

14/18


FIG. 15


FIG. 16

## 16/18



FIG. 17


## 18/18



FIG. 19

## DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWING FIGURES

In order to explain in detail the smart phone application, the description will refer to the following drawings:

Figs. 1A-B are isometric views of a three-dimensional environment in which the absolute pose of a smart phone is employed for deriving user input.
Fig. 2 is an isometric view of the three-dimensional environment of Figs. 1A-B that illustrates in more detail the parameterization employed by a smart phone interface.
Figs. 3A-D are isometric views of a gimbal-type mechanism that aids in the visualization of the 3 D rotation convention employed in describing the absolute orientation of the smart phone of Figs. 1A-B.
Figs. 4A-B are three-dimensional front and back views of the smart phone of Figs. 1A-B.
Fig. 5 is a three-dimensional schematic view of the on-board camera of the smart phone shown in Figs. 4A-B.
Figs. 6A-C are images of the three-dimensional environment of Figs. 1A-B acquired using three different types of camera lenses.

Figs. 7A-B are images of the environment as captured from the two vantage points corresponding to the first and second absolute poses shown in Figs. 1A and 1B respectively, as displayed on the screen of the smart phone.
Fig. 8 is a graph of a typical lens distortion curve.
Fig. 9 is a plan diagram of the CMOS photosensor and processing elements employed by the smart phone shown in Figs. 1AB.

Fig. 10 is a three-dimensional view illustrating an interface deployed in the three-dimensional environment in which the absolute pose of the smart phone shown in Figs. 1A-B is employed for generating input.

Fig. 11

Fig. 12

Fig. 13

Fig. 14

Fig. 15

Fig. 16

Fig. 17

Fig. 18

Fig. 19
is a three-dimensional isometric view showing a detailed trajectory of the smart phone in the three-dimensional environment of Figs. 1A-B during operation of the interface.
is a flow diagram illustrating the main steps executed by the interface.
is a three-dimensional diagram showing in more detail how the input signal generated by the interface and being related to all six absolute pose parameters of the smart phone manipulated by the user is received and employed in the application.
is a three-dimensional diagram illustrating how the signal related to all six absolute pose parameters of the smart phone is used to recover full trajectories of a point of interest (here point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ ) and additional information about the smart phone in a threedimensional digital environment of an application.
is a three dimensional diagram illustrating the projections of full trajectories into 2D subspaces. is a three dimensional view of a preferred embodiment of the interface employing a relative motion sensor in addition to the CMOS camera.
is a plan view of a preferred way of operating the CMOS camera employed in optical absolute pose recovery.
is a three-dimensional diagram illustrating a gaming application employing the preferred embodiment of the interface operating the CMOS camera in the preferred way illustrated in Fig. 17 and using a relative motion sensor for interpolation.
is a three dimensional perspective diagram which shows an additional advantage of the preferred embodiment employing optical absolute pose recovery supplemented by relative motion interpolation in a commonly encountered non-inertial reference frame.

## DETAILED DESCRIPTION

The various aspects of a smart phone based interface will be best understood by initially referring to two isometric views of a real three-dimensional environment 100 as illustrated in Figs. 1A-B. A user 102 residing in environment $\mathbf{1 0 0}$, which may be an indoor or an outdoor environment, is holding in his/her right hand 102' an item 104 that also resides in environment 100. It is important that item 104 be physically associated with user 102 such that the user's 102 physical disposition and changes therein are reflected by item 104. In other words, the static positions, poses, actions, gestures and other movements of user 102 need to translate in some manner to corresponding absolute position(s) and orientation(s) of item 104 and/or changes to corresponding position(s) and orientations(s) of item 104. For example, in the present case item 104 is a smart phone that is held in right hand 102' by user 102 and manipulated.

Three-dimensional environment 100 has a spatial extent that may be described by orthogonal or non-orthogonal coordinate systems (e.g, linearly independent axes). Because of the efficiency of description, we will use orthogonal coordinates herein. Of course, it will be understood by those skilled in the art that linearly independent sets of basis vectors or other geometrical constructs can also be used. For example, surfaces and vectors bearing predetermined relationships to those surfaces (e.g., surface normal or tangent) can also be used to describe or parameterize threedimensional environment 100.

Three-dimensional environment 100 is associated with a stable reference frame 106. For the sake of efficiency, stable frame 106 is parameterized by orthogonal coordinates. In particular, we chose a Cartesian coordinate system, referred to herein as stable coordinate system ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ).

When parameterizing the various frames that we will encounter in the description, we will employ a certain convention. According to this convention, capital letters denote the axes of the coordinates that parameterize the frame and the subscripts on the axes refer to the frame (e.g., subscript "s" refers to stable frame 106). The degrees of freedom as parameterized in the coordinates of the frame, e.g., displacements along axes $X_{s}, Y_{s}$ and $Z_{s}$, will be denoted by lower case letters along with subscripts referring to that frame. Thus, in the stable coordinate system $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ parameterizing real threedimensional environment 100 the actual numerical values of the three translational degrees of freedom (length, width and height or $x, y$ and $z$ ) will be denoted by $x_{s}$, $y_{s}$ and $z_{s}$. A similar convention will be employed for vectors, which will bear the subscript of the coordinate system in which they are expressed.

The orientation of the $X_{s}-, Y_{s}$-and $Z_{s}$-axes and the location of the origin (the $(0,0,0)$ point) of stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) parameterizing stable frame 106 may be selected according to the interface designer's preferences. In the present example, the origin of stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ is set near the upper left corner of a wall 108 in environment $\mathbf{1 0 0}$. The orthogonal or mutually perpendicular axes $X_{s}, Y_{s}$ and $Z_{s}$ make predetermined and known angles with respect to wall 108.

The absolute pose of item 104, in this case cell phone 104 in environment 100 includes its absolute position and its absolute orientation. The reason why the pose is referred to as absolute, is because it is expressed in stable frame 106 as parameterized by stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ that were selected by the designer. In contrast, many of today's input devices report relative position and/or relative orientation in $3 D$ space. In some cases that is because the sensors on-board these devices can only make differential measurements. In other words, they provide measurements of changes in position and/or orientation without the ability to keep those measurements referenced to a stable external frame parameterized by a
stable coordinate system without some additional calibration mechanisms. Inertial units such as accelerometers and gyros are good examples of such relative motion sensors.

Now, to gain a deeper understanding, the absolute position of smart phone 104 and its absolute orientation will be introduced separately. These independent explanations will then be combined into one uniform description of absolute pose.

To define absolute position, a reference point whose ( $x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}$ ) position will be tracked in stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) needs to be chosen on smart phone 104. The choice of such reference point is arbitrary, but some conventions are more efficient than others. For example, in many cases it is convenient to choose the center of mass (C.O.M.) of smart phone 104 as the reference point. In other cases, a protruding point or some other prominent or important aspect of smart phone 104 may be selected. In still other cases, the point-ofview of an on-board optical sensing unit such as a directional photosensor, e.g., a digital camera or a lensed position-sensing device (PSD), may be selected as the reference point. The choice will depend on the type of smart phone 104, the software application and the interface.

As shown in Fig. 2, in the present embodiment the center of mass (C.O.M.) of phone 104 is chosen as a reference point 110. Further, to simplify the description, Cartesian body coordinates ( $X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}$ ) whose origin coincides with C.O.M. 110 are associated with a moving frame 112 of phone 104 itself. To distinguish body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ from stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ that describe stable frame 106 of three-dimensional environment 100, we use the subscript letter "b" (b for body) throughout the present description and in the drawing figures.

A person skilled in the art will realize that body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ are $a$ useful tool for parameterizing moving frame 112 .

Indeed, body coordinates are a very well-known tool in classical mechanics for describing both the absolute position and the absolute orientation of bodies undergoing unconstrained motion in 3D space (or other spaces). Once again, such person will also realize that orthogonal and non-orthogonal conventions and systems may be employed in this description. The present description adheres to Cartesian coordinates merely for reasons of explanatory clarity and convenience without implying any limitations as to the types of descriptions and body coordinate choices that are available to the interface designer.

Body coordinates ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{b}}$ ) centered on C.O.M. 110 of phone 104 allow us to define the absolute position of phone 104, or more precisely the absolute position of its C.O.M. 110 in environment 100. The absolute position of C.O.M. 110 can change along any of the three directions $X_{s}, Y_{s}$ and $Z_{s}$ defined by stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ that parameterize the three translational degrees of freedom in stable frame 106 established in environment 100. In fact, successive absolute positions of C.O.M. 110 in time or, equivalently, the sequence of such positions of the origin of body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$, define an absolute trajectory 114 of the phone's 104 C.O.M. 110 through environment 100.

To illustrate the above point, Fig. 1A shows user 102 holding cell phone 104 in his/her right hand 102' in a first absolute position in environment 100 at a time $t_{1}$. Fig. 1B shows same user 102 holding cell phone 104 in his/her left hand 102" in a second absolute position at a later point in time $t_{5}$. Trajectory 114 traversed by phone 104, and specifically its C.O.M. 110 in traveling between these two positions, including the change over from right hand $\mathbf{1 0 2}^{\prime}$ to left hand 102" is shown in Fig. 2. Note that in the present embodiment in moving along trajectory 114 the absolute position of phone 104 or its C.O.M. 110 changes in all three degrees of translational freedom as parameterized by directions $X_{s}, Y_{s}$ and $Z_{s}$. In other words, the absolute position of phone 104 exhibits three translational degrees
of freedom whose numerical values in stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) are expressed by $x_{s}, y_{s}$ and $z_{s}$.

In order to simplify the description of trajectory 114 and express it directly in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ we employ the concept of a vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{\mathrm{s}}$. To distinguish vectors from scalars, we will designate them in boldfaced letters. To remain consistent, vectors will also carry the subscript of the coordinate system in which they are expressed (i.e., "s" in the present case). Vector $\mathbf{r}_{s}$ is represented by an ordered triple of numbers, namely the values $x_{s}$, $y_{s}$ and $z_{s}$ that represent the absolute position of C.O.M. 110. Differently put, these three numbers are the numerical values of displacements along $X_{s}-, Y_{s}-$ and $Z_{s}$-axes of stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ that need to be taken in order to arrive at C.O.M. 110 when starting out from the origin of stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$. Thus, vector $\mathbf{r}_{s}$ corresponds in this representation to $\left(x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}\right)$. It should be noted for completeness, that other vector representations are also available. For example, a vector may be represented by a magnitude and direction (e.g., in spherical coordinates) or a combination of the two (e.g., a magnitude and a direction in a 2 D subspace together with a rectilinear coordinate in a third dimension).

Furthermore, in order to keep track of vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}$ in time, we express vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}$ as a function of time, i.e., $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}=\boldsymbol{r}_{s}(t)$. The two times indicated in Figs. 1A-B \& 2 are: time $t_{1}$ when user 102 held phone 104 in right hand $\mathbf{1 0 2}^{\prime}$ in the absolute pose shown in Fig. $\mathbf{1 A}$ and time $t_{5}$ when user 102 held phone 104 in left hand 102'r in the absolute pose shown in Fig. 1B. In accordance with our convention, we thus designate the corresponding vectors $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}\left(t_{1}\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}\left(t_{5}\right)$.

Now, in addition to absolute position, the absolute pose also includes the absolute orientation of phone 104. As in the case of the absolute position, absolute orientation is expressed in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ with the aid of body coordinates ( $X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}$ ) centered on C.O.M. 110 of phone 104. For a rigid body such as phone

104, absolute orientation exhibits three rotational degrees of freedom (i.e., rotation around axes $X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}$ or other axes). Because rotations in $3 D$ do not commute, in other words, the final orientation after several rotations in 3D depends on the order of the rotations, a careful and consistent description needs to be selected to describe absolute orientation of phone 104. A person skilled in the art will realize that many such descriptions exist and indeed any of them can be used herein without limitation.

Figs. 3A-D illustrate a particular orthogonal rotation convention that takes the non-commutative nature of 3 D rotations into account and is employed in the present embodiment. Specifically, this convention describes the absolute orientation of phone 104 in terms of three rotation angles $\alpha_{b}, \beta_{b}$ and $\gamma_{b}$. Here, the rotations are taken around the three body axes $X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}$, which are initially aligned with the axes of stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) that parameterize stable frame 106 in environment 100. We keep the subscript "b" on rotation angles $\alpha_{b}, \beta_{b}$ and $\gamma_{b}$ in order to remind ourselves that they are taken in body coordinates ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{b}}$ ). However, since rotations do not require the definition of any new axes, they are expressed in lowercase letters. These letters will be also used to express the actual numerical values of the corresponding rotations to avoid the introduction of excessive notational rigor.

Our choice of rotation convention ensures that C.O.M. 110 of phone 104 does not move during any of the three rotations. It thus remains a reliable reference point for tracking trajectory 114 of C.O.M. 110 of phone 104 through environment 100. A person skilled in the art will recognize the importance of this feature of the 3D rotation convention chosen herein and that similar considerations are employed in navigating terrestrial vehicles, marine vehicles, aircraft, spaceships and other navigable vehicles, objects and craft. Indeed, such convention may also be used to describe free or unconstrained motion of arbitrary objects in 3D space.

Fig. 3A shows phone 104 in an initial, pre-rotated condition centered in a gimbal mechanism 118 that will mechanically constrain the rotations defined by angles $\alpha_{b}, \beta_{b}$ and $\gamma_{b}$. Mechanism 118 has three progressively smaller concentric rings or hoops 120, 122, 124. Rotating joints 121, 123 and 125 permit hoops $120,122,124$ to be respectively rotated in an independent manner. For purposes of visualization of the present 3 D rotation convention, phone 104 is rigidly fixed to the inside of third hoop 124 either by an extension of joint 125 or by any other suitable mechanical means (not shown).

In the pre-rotated state, the axes of body coordinates ( $X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}$ ) parameterizing moving frame 112 of phone 104 are triple primed $\left(X_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}, Y_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}, Z_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)$ to better keep track of body coordinate axes after each of the three rotations. In addition, the pre-rotated axes $\left(X_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}, Y_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}, Z_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)$ of body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ are aligned with axes $X_{s}, Y_{s}$ and $Z_{s}$ of stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ that parameterize stable frame 106 in environment $\mathbf{1 0 0}$. However, pre-rotated axes ( $X_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}, Y_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}, Z_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ ) are displaced from the origin of stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ by vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}$ introduced and explained above. C.O.M. 110 is at the origin of body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ and at the center of gimbal mechanism 118.

The first rotation by angle $\alpha_{b}$ is executed by rotating joint 121 and thus turning hoop 120, as shown in $\boldsymbol{F i g}$. 3B. Note that since body axis $Z_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ of phone 104 (see Fig. $3 A$ ) is co-axial with rotating joint 121 the physical turning of hoop 120 is equivalent to this first rotation in body coordinates ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{b}}$ ) of phone 104 around body $Z_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}$ axis. In the present convention, all rotations are taken to be positive in the counter-clockwise direction as defined with the aid of the right hand rule (with the thumb pointed in the positive direction of the coordinate axis around which the rotation is being performed). Hence, angle $\alpha_{b}$ is positive and in this visualization it is equal to $30^{\circ}$.

After each of the three rotations is completed, body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ are progressively unprimed to denote how many rotations have already been executed. Thus, after this first rotation by angle $\alpha_{b}$, the axes of body coordinates ( $X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}$ ) are unprimed once and designated $\left(X_{b}^{\prime \prime}, Y_{b}^{\prime \prime}, Z_{b}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ as indicated in Fig. 3B.

Fig. $3 C$ depicts the second rotation by angle $\beta_{b}$. This rotation is performed by rotating joint 123 and thus turning hoop 122. Since joint 123 is co-axial with once rotated body axis $X_{b}^{\prime \prime}$ (see Fig. 3B) such rotation is equivalent to second rotation in body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ of phone 104 by angle $\beta_{b}$ around body axis $X_{b}^{\prime \prime}$. In the counter-clockwise rotation convention we have adopted angle $\beta_{b}$ is positive and equal to $45^{\circ}$. After completion of this second rotation, body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ are unprimed again to yield twice rotated body axes $\left(X_{b}^{\prime}, Y_{b}^{\prime}, Z_{b}^{\prime}\right)$.

The result of the third and last rotation by angle $\gamma_{b}$ is shown in Fig. 3D. This rotation is performed by rotating joint 125, which turns innermost hoop 124 of gimbal mechanism 118. The construction of mechanism 118 used for this visualization has ensured that throughout the prior rotations, twice rotated body axis $Y_{b}^{\prime}$ (see Fig. 3C) has remained co-axial with joint 125. Therefore, rotation by angle $\gamma_{b}$ is a rotation in body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ parameterizing moving frame 112 of phone 104 by angle $\gamma_{b}$ about body axis $Y_{b}^{\prime}$.

This final rotation yields the fully rotated and now unprimed body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$. In this example angle $\gamma_{b}$ is chosen to be $40^{\circ}$, representing a rotation by $40^{\circ}$ in the counter-clockwise direction. Note that in order to return fully rotated body coordinates ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{b}}$ ) into initial alignment with stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) the order of rotations by angles $\alpha_{b}, \beta_{b}$ and $\gamma_{b}$ needs to be taken in exactly the reverse order (this is due to the order-dependence or non-commuting nature of rotations in $3 D$ space mentioned above).

It should be understood that mechanism 118 was employed for illustrative purposes to show how any 3D orientation of phone 104 consists of three rotational degrees of freedom. These non-commuting rotations are described or parameterized by rotation angles $\alpha_{b}, \beta_{b}$ and $\gamma_{\mathrm{b}}$ around body axes $Z_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}, X_{b}^{\prime \prime}$ and finally $Y_{b}^{\prime}$. What is important is that this 3 D rotation convention employing angles $\alpha_{b}, \beta_{b}, \gamma_{b}$ is capable of describing any possible orientation that phone $\mathbf{1 0 4}$ may assume in environment 100.

The description of trajectory 114 of C.O.M. 110 of phone 104 in environment 100 has been shown to have three translational degrees of freedom; here described in terms of displacements along $X_{s}-, Y_{s}-$ and $Z_{s}$-axes of stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$. A compact description of trajectory 114 in terms of vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}=\left(x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}\right)$ has also been introduced. We have additionally shown that the rotation of phone 104 can be described by three rotational degrees of freedom; parameterized by rotations around body axes $Z_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}, X_{b}^{\prime \prime}$ and $Y_{b}^{\prime}$ by angles $\alpha_{b}, \beta_{b}$ and $\gamma_{b}$ in that order. The rotations are executed while C.O.M. 110 remains fixed in stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ). Thus, the rotations do not change the definition of trajectory 114 as they do not affect the value of vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}$.

Since the descriptions of absolute position and absolute orientation of phone 104 using body coordinates ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{b}}$ ) and stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ are mutually independent, they can be combined. Such combination of vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}$ and rotation angles ( $\alpha_{b}, \beta_{b}, \gamma_{b}$ ) provides a compact description of the six (6) degrees of freedom available to phone 104 in three-dimensional environment 100. Specifically, the description of the six (6) degrees of freedom that will be employed herein is a direct combination of vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}$ with the rotation angles, namely: ( $\left.x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{b}, \beta_{b}, \gamma_{b}\right)$. To avoid future confusion and indicate that body axes $X_{b}, Y_{b}$ and $Z_{b}$ were originally aligned with stable coordinate axes $X_{s}, Y_{s}$ and $Z_{s}$, we will add the subscript "s" on the
three angles, thus referring to the degrees of freedom as: $\left(x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}\right)$.

The joint description of the absolute position and the absolute orientation of phone 104 in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ is a parameterization of the absolute pose of phone 104. Turning back to Figs. 1A-B, we can thus specify how phone 104 is held in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ by user 102 in different absolute positions and in various absolute orientations at times $t_{1}$ and $t_{5}$ in terms of the phone's 104 absolute pose parameters ( $x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}$ ) that use C.O.M. 110 as the reference point. In the present description absolute pose is thus parameterized by A.P. $=\left(x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}\right)$ where A.P. =A.P.(t), meaning that the absolute pose is a function of time. Indeed, since phone 104 can be moved in arbitrary ways by user 102 (unconstrained 3 D motion) all of the components of absolute pose A.P. are typically functions of time.

Of course, many descriptions including those utilizing other concepts and coordinates could have been employed to describe or parameterize the absolute pose of phone 104 in stable frame 106. As a result, we need to clearly distinguish the six degrees of freedom available to phone 104 as a rigid body, from the description chosen to parameterize these six degrees of freedom. It is worth stressing that the model or description of the degrees of freedom is not the same as the degrees of freedom themselves. The model is merely a way to describe and talk about the degrees of freedom with the aid of the chosen parameters.

In the present embodiment, absolute pose will be expressed by the combination of vector $\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{s}}$ with the rotation angles as defined above, namely A.P. $=\left(\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{s}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{s}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{s}}, \alpha_{\mathrm{sb}}, \beta_{\mathrm{sb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{sb}}\right)$. Since in our model these are descriptors of the six degrees of freedom, we will refer to $\left(x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}\right)$ as absolute pose parameters dictated by our specific parameterization of the absolute pose of phone 104 in stable
frame 106. In doing so, we also recognize the fact that other types of parameters can be deployed in other mathematical conventions and descriptions. However, a person skilled in the art, will recognize that at their core, all of these descriptions are mathematically equivalent, as they express the fundamental geometrical properties of rigid body motion in $3 D$ space.

It should also be recognized that additional degrees of freedom are in general available to bodies in 3 D space. In most conventional approaches, these are the roto-vibrational degrees of freedom. Although they may be important for some applications, e.g., when phone 104 consists of elements that move with respect to each other (such as in the case of a flip-phone), we will not explicitly keep track of these in the present embodiments. A person skilled in the art will understand how to parameterize these additional degrees of freedom and use them in a complete description of the absolute pose of phone 104 if and as necessary.

As seen in Figs. 1A-B, the interface further requires at least one stationary object 126 that has at least one feature 128 that is detectable via an electromagnetic radiation 130. In this embodiment, stationary object is a television 126 sitting on a table 208 and the detectable feature is its display screen 128. In the present embodiment, object 126 is thus stationary in stable frame 126.

Electromagnetic radiation 130 by which screen 128 is detectable is predominantly emitted by display screen 128 during operation. In general, however, electromagnetic radiation 130 may include ambient radiation or any radiation purposely reflected from screen 128.

It is important that feature 128, in this case screen $\mathbf{1 2 8}$, present a sufficient number and type of non-collinear optical inputs to establish a stable frame 134 in three-dimensional environment 100. In general, stable frame 134 may not be the same as stable frame 106 . In fact, the positions and orientations of non-collinear optical
inputs of screen 128 may be stationary, moving or even unknown in stable frame 106. We will discuss all situations below.

In the present embodiment, screen 128 defines a plane in 3D space of environment 100 and any number of points or regions on it, whether during active display operation or not, can be selected as the noncollinear optical inputs. Conveniently, it is edges 132 of screen 128 that are chosen as the non-collinear optical inputs. Edges 132 are line-like inputs and are mutually non-collinear. The reason for this choice is that edges 132 are most likely to provide high optical contrast and thus be more easily detectable via electromagnetic radiation 130 than any other portions of screen 128. In addition, one other non-collinear optical input from television 126 is selected to break the intrinsic symmetry of the rectangle of screen 128. In the present case, that additional non-collinear optical input is obtained from a feature or marking 129 on the upper left corner of television 126. Alternatively, a feature displayed on screen 128 or any other feature associated with television 128 can be used for this purpose. Marking 129 is a point-like input, or, if its area is used, it is an area-like input.

Preferably, all four edges 132 of screen 128 and marking 129 are used for non-collinear optical inputs to establish stable frame 134. Frame 134 is parameterized by frame coordinates which we will refer to as workspace or world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ for the purposes of the application. The reasons for this choice will become apparent later.

In the present embodiment, the origin of world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) is chosen to be coincident with the upper left corner of screen 128. A person skilled in the art will recognize, however, that as few as four point-like, fixed non-collinear optical inputs, e.g., in the form of point sources or point-like inputs, are sufficient to establish stable frame 134 in terms of its parameterization by world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$. Even fewer points may be sufficient when more
information about these points is provided. It should be noted that non-collinear in the sense employed in the present invention, (since any two points will always be collinear according to Euclidean geometry) means that the points are not all mutually collinear and that they establish a convex hull, which will be defined below.

In all embodiments, world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) are central to the interface because they define the position and orientation of the stationary object or television 126 in stable frame 134. In other words, although absolute pose expressed with absolute pose parameters $\left(x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}\right)$ of phone 104 is completely defined in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ using C.O.M. 110 as the reference point, for the purposes of many interfaces and applications these absolute pose parameters $\left(x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}\right)$ have to be related to world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$. In some cases, world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ are more important that stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$, as they may represent the coordinates of a workspace for human user 102. In fact, world coordinates should be understood to subsume coordinates for workspaces, gaming spaces, operation spaces and the like.

The relationship between stable frames 106 and 134 and between their descriptions by stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ and world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ can be captured in many ways. For example, one can fix the absolute pose of stationary object or television 126 in stable frame 106 and measure its position and orientation in it. For this purpose we introduce a vector $\mathbf{d}_{\mathrm{s}}$ corresponding to the displacement of upper left corner of screen 128. Vector $\mathbf{d}_{s}$ thus marks the displacement of the origin of world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ parameterizing stable frame 134 from the origin of stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$. It is helpful in this situation if stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) are coincident and aligned with a corner in environment 100, e.g., the corner of a room. In such cases, vector $\mathbf{d}_{s}$ can be measured while arranging television 126, and its absolute orientation in stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) could be ensured by aligning screen 128 plane-parallel to wall 108.

Alternatively, when stationary object 126 is designed to stay in the same place in environment 100, which is usually true of television 126 but may not be true of other objects (e.g., mobile objects) in other embodiments, one can simply choose world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) of frame 134 to be the same as stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ that parameterize frame 106 of environment 100 . In this case, it is frame 134 and hence the position and orientation of television 126 in environment $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ that defines stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ and concurrently world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$.

In the embodiment depicted in Figs. $\mathbf{1 A - B}$ and in Fig. 2 stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ are not coincident and not collinear with world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$. However, vector $d_{s}$ is known (e.g., by direct measurement with a measuring tape) and the relative orientation of axes $X_{w}, Y_{w}$ and $Z_{w}$ with respect to axes $X_{s}, Y_{s}$ and $Z_{s}$ is also known. For example, direction cosines or even the same rotation convention as described in Figs. 3A-D can be used to describe the relative difference in orientation between stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ and world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ with three rotation angles $\alpha_{\text {sw }}, \beta_{\text {sw }}$ and $\gamma_{\text {Sw }}$.

In the present embodiment, a coordinate transformation between stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ and world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) can be used to translate absolute pose parameters ( $x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}$ ) of phone 104 into its absolute pose parameters ( $x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}$ ) in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$. In this transformation we introduce vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{w}$ from the origin of world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) to C.O.M. $\mathbf{1 1 0}$ of phone 104. In addition, the rotational angles $\alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}$ and $\gamma_{s b}$ have to be converted into the orientation of fully rotated body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ with respect to world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ rather than stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$. Such conversion is performed with the aid of a rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{\text {sw }}$ that keeps track of the rotations that are required to obtain alignment between the axes of stable
coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ and the axes of world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ). Note that in representing matrices we extend our convention adopted for vectors and designate such rotation matrices by boldfaced letters. However, because a matrix is higher-order than a vector (vectors are $1^{\text {st }}$ order tensors, matrices are $2^{\text {nd }}$ order tensors, while scalar quantities can be thought of as $0^{\text {th }}$ order tensors) we use capital letters for denoting matrices.

The resulting absolute pose in world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) expressing the six degrees of freedom of phone 104 is then parameterized by $\left(x_{w}, y_{w}, Z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}\right)$. More precisely, $\boldsymbol{r}_{w}=\left(x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}\right)$ is the new displacement vector of C.O.M. 110 and $\left(\alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}\right)$ are the transformed angles expressing the orientation of phone 104. As remarked above, the angles are obtained by applying rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{\text {sw }}$ containing rotation angles $\left(\alpha_{S w}, \beta_{S w}, \gamma_{S W}\right)$ and thus adjusting for the misalignment of coordinate axes between stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) and world coordinates ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{w}}$ ).

A person skilled in the art will recognize that coordinate transformations are routine operations. They are described by corresponding vector operations to account for displacements or offsets and rotation matrices to account for the rotations. It is important in doing such transformations to preserve the correct handedness of the coordinates chosen (right-handed or left-handed) in order to avoid improper solutions. The corresponding mathematics will not be discussed herein as it has been well known for several centuries. An excellent background on coordinate transformations in many different coordinate systems is found in G.B. Arfken and H.J. Weber, "Mathematical Methods for Physicists", Harcourt Academic Press, $5^{\text {th }}$ Edition.

Stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ typically parameterize a stable and stationary frame of reference 106 in which user 102 resides with phone 104 (e.g., on the surface of planet Earth). Also note that in some rare cases stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ may even parameterize an
actual inertial frame, e.g., on a spaceship in outer space. Meanwhile, object or television 126 and world coordinates ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{w}}$ ) defined with the aid of its non-collinear features may be moving in environment 100, i.e., its position in stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) that parameterize stable frame $\mathbf{1 0 6}$ in environment $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ may be changing. In this case, the coordinate transformation between stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ and world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ is timedependent may need to be updated on a frequent basis.

Embodiments in which stationary object 126 is actually at rest in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ and is thus also stationary for the purposes of the interface and the application of the present invention are the simplest. In these embodiments, the coordinate transformation between stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) that parameterize frame 106 in environment 100 and world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) that are used to parameterize frame 134 in environment 100 for the purposes of the interface and the application need only be computed once. Of course, both stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ and world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ may also specify some other common non-inertial frame in which user 102, item 104 and stationary object 126 all reside (e.g., when aboard a plane, train, car or other aircraft or terrestrial vehicle that undergoes accelerated or curvilinear motion). Those situations are more complex and will be discussed later (e.g., see Figs. 16 \& 17 and corresponding description).

Figs. 4A-B will now be referred to in order to develop a deeper understanding of phone 104 and its capabilities. Fig. 4A is a threedimensional front view of phone 104 with a central cut-out section that exposes the reference point or C.O.M. 110. Phone 104 has onboard resources that include a display screen 136 , speakers 138 adapted for a human ear, microphone 140 adapted for a human mouth and selection buttons 142. Buttons 142 include dial buttons as well as other selection buttons that allow user 102 to activate a unit 144 on-board the phone 104 for receiving electromagnetic radiation 130 .

Fig. 4B shows the back of phone 104 where unit 144 resides. On-board unit 144 in this case is an on-board camera with an imaging lens 146. Lens 146 has a field of view 148 and an optical axis 150. Field of view 148 is sufficiently large to permit phone 104 to image a significant portion of environment 100, and especially of television 126 from the various absolute poses in which user 102 is expected to hold phone 104. Further, the letter $\boldsymbol{P}$ designates a point-of-view (P.O.V.) of camera 144. In this embodiment, phone 104 is also configured to display a view of environment 100 as imaged by camera 144 from point of view $\boldsymbol{P}$ on its display screen 136 (although this is an optional feature from the point of view of the interface of present invention).

Note that point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ of camera 144 does not coincide with C.O.M. 110 of phone 104 in this embodiment. Indeed, few if any phones are built in a way to ensure that C.O.M. 110 coincides with the point(s)-of-view of their on-board camera(s). Thus, there is usually an offset vector $\mathbf{O}_{b}$ (expressed in body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ as defined below; also see Fig. 5) between C.O.M. 110 of phone 104 and point-ofview $\boldsymbol{P}$ of camera 144.

Offset vector $\mathbf{o}_{b}$ is used to recover and properly report absolute pose of phone 104 in terms of absolute position parameters A.P. This is necessary because the determination of absolute pose of phone 104 is based on radiation 130 that is captured and imaged by camera 144 from point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ rather than from the "point-of-view" of C.O.M. 110 . Transformation of spatial information from point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ to C.O.M. 110 is once again accomplished by a coordinate transformation. In fact, since C.O.M. 110 and point-of-view $\mathcal{P}$ are fixed with respect to each other, the transformation simply involves adjustment of absolute pose by vector $\mathbf{o}_{b}$ without any rotations given proper choice of camera coordinates (e.g., alignment of camera image plane $X_{i}-Y_{i}$ with the $X_{b}-Y_{b}$ plane of body coordinates). In the event of lack of alignment, an additional rotation matrix will need to be applied. The details of
coordinate transformations required are well known and, as pointed out above, are discussed in detail in G.B. Arfken and H.J. Weber, "Mathematical Methods for Physicists", Harcourt Academic Press, 5 ${ }^{\text {th }}$ Edition.

Fig. 5 is a schematic view showing the relevant parts of on-board camera 144 required to support an interface of the present invention. Here, field of view 148 of lens 146 is parameterized in terms of a cone angle $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ measured from optical axis 150. Radiation 130 arriving from field of view 148 within cone angle $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is imaged by lens 146 onto a photosensor 152. Photosensor 152 has an image plane parameterized by image coordinates ( $X_{i}, Y_{i}$ ) that have an origin in the upper left corner of photosensor $\mathbf{1 5 2}$. For purposes of simple coordinate transformation, image plane $X_{i}-Y_{i}$ is preferably plane-parallel with the $X_{b}-Y_{b}$ plane of body coordinates $112\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ of phone 104. Photosensor 152 is a photodetector such as a pixellated array of photodiodes or a CMOS camera capable of detecting radiation 130.

The propagation of a particular photon bundle 130' belonging to radiation 130 is shown explicitly in Fig. 5. Photon bundle 130' undergoes refraction at the surface of lens 146 , passes through point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ and is imaged onto photosensor 152 at an image point 154. Note that the location of image point 154 in image plane $X_{i}-Y_{i}$ is largely determined by an angle $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ of propagation of photon bundle 130' with respect to optical axis 150 (also sometimes referred to as field angle), as well as the location in environment 100 from which photon bundle 130' has arrived and its wavelength $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$. In the approximation of ideal pinhole behavior of lens 146 , the imaging of radiation 130 emitted and/or reflected from different locations in environment 100 into cone angle $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ yields a perspective projection of the imaged portion of environment 100 on the surface of photosensor 152. Photosensor 152, in turn, is connected to image processing electronics 156 which include requisite firmware and software for processing radiation 130 imaged on photosensor 152.

Due to the generally non-ideal nature of lens 146, some common distortions and aberrations are inherited in the imaged portion of environment 100. The removal of such distortions and aberrations (including barrel distortion, pincushion distortion, coma, astigmatism, dispersion, etc.) is well understood by persons skilled in the art. Preferably, image processing electronics 156 are capable of removing such distortions and aberrations prior to image processing for better interface performance.

It is also understood that although lens 146 is visualized as a single part, it may be a refractive lens, a reflective element, a compound lens, a catadioptric lens (refractive and reflective), a graded index lens (GRIN lens), a Fresnel element or any other optical element capable of gathering radiation 130 from field of view 148 and delivering it to photosensor 152 to produce a perspective projection of environment 100.

The perspective projection of environment 100 needs to include at least one stationary object, here television 126 along with its noncollinear optical inputs, here edges 132A-D of screen 128 and marking 129. Images $132 A^{\prime}-D^{\prime}, 129 \prime$ of these non-collinear optical inputs are used to establish stable frame 134, parameterized by world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ with their origin in the upper left corner of screen 128. This requirement will dictate in many cases the minimum cone angle $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ required for operating the interface over a range of absolute poses of phone 104 acceptable to user 102.

Figs. 6A-C illustrate three images $\mathbf{1 5 8 A} \mathbf{A}$ C of environment $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ produced by refraction of radiation 130 as it passes through lens 146 and impinges on photosensor 156. Images 158A-C are acquired using three different types of lens 146 from the same absolute pose of phone 104; namely about 6 feet $(\approx 2 \mathrm{~m})$ away from television 126 . All images 158A-C are centered on the same point on wall 108 to the left of television 126. As a result, image center 162 for all images 158A-C is the same.

Image 158A is obtained when lens 146 has a wide angular field of view 148. In other words, cone angle $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is large and may be on the order of $50^{\circ}$ to $60^{\circ}$ or more. Image 158 B is obtained with a type of lens 146 that has an intermediate angular field of view 148 with a cone angle $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ of between $30^{\circ}$ and $50^{\circ}$. Finally, image $\mathbf{1 5 8 C}$ is produced when a type of lens 146 that has a narrow angular field of view 148 with a cone angle $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ of less than $30^{\circ}$, such as about $20^{\circ}$ or even less. All images contain imaged objects, including wall image 108' of wall 108, table image 208' of table 208 and television image 126' of television 126. Note that all images 158A-C are circular, since the angular field of view of lens 146 is usually circular.

In image 158A, image $126^{\prime}$ of the stationary object for defining stable frame 134 - in our case television 126 parameterized by world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ with an origin in the upper left corner of screen 128 - is rather small. In other words, image 126' of television 126, and in particular screen image $\mathbf{1 2 8}^{\prime}$ does not subtend a significant angular extent of field of view 148 . This is indicated in the drawing figure by a radius from the field's center. On the other hand, image 158A includes an image 108' of a significant portion of wall 108.

Lens 146 with such large angular field of view 148 is advantageous in situations where phone 104 will assume many different absolute poses within three-dimensional environment 100. That is because image 126' of television 126 and image 128' of screen 128 along with images $132 A^{\prime}-D^{\prime}$ of its edges $132 A-D$ and image 129 of marking 129 will remain in field of view 148 even when phone 104 is held at very oblique angles or close to screen 128.

On the other hand, lens 146 with a large angular field of view 148 is not advantageous when phone 104 will be operated far from screen 128 of television $\mathbf{1 2 6}$. That is because image 128' of screen 128 and images $132 A^{\prime}-D^{\prime}, 129^{\prime}$ of its non-collinear optical inputs or edges

132A-D and marking 129 will subtend only a small field angle. In other words, screen image $\mathbf{1 2 8}^{\prime}$ will represent a small portion of total image 158A. Therefore, a convex hull or convex envelope of the set of all points along edges 132A-D delimiting screen 128 and points on marking 129 i.e., the area defined by edge images 132A'-D' and by image 129' of marking 129 is small. Working with a small convex hull will limit the resolution of the interface. Differently put, it will negatively impact the accuracy in the recovery of absolute pose of phone 104 from the non-collinear optical inputs and thus restrict the performance of the interface of the invention.

Image 158C shown in Fig. 6C is obtained with a lens 146 that has a small angular field of view 148. Here, television image 126' as seen by phone 104 from the same distance as image 158A, subtends a large portion of field of view 148. Indeed, a portion of television 126, namely its upper right corner, is not even imaged because it falls outside field of view 148.

Lens 146 with such a small field of view 148 is advantageous as it provides a large convex hull from images 132A'-D', 129' of edges 132A-D of screen 128 and its marking 129. Thus, the accuracy in absolute pose recovery of phone 104 from these non-colinear optical inputs can be very good. Further, it is advantageous to use such type of lens 146 when phone 104 is operated far from screen 128 and is not expected to assume absolute poses at large angles to screen 128. This ensures that a large portion of or preferably entire image 128' of screen 128 and image 129' of marking 129 will always be in field of view 148.

Fig. 6B shows image 158B obtained with lens 146 that has an intermediate field of view 148. As seen by camera 144 of phone 104 from the same distance as images 158 A and 158C, entire image 128 ' of screen 128 and images 132A-D', 129' of its edges 132A-D and marking 129 are in field of view 148. This type of lens 146 is preferred for most interfaces according to the invention because it strikes a good
balance between range of operation of phone 104 and accuracy of absolute pose recovery. In particular, it can capture images 128', 129' of screen 128 and marking 129 from many absolute poses of phone 104, both far and close to television 126, e.g., between roughly about 15 feet ( $\approx 5 \mathrm{~m}$ ) and roughly about 3 feet ( $\approx 1 \mathrm{~m}$ ). This is true even when camera 144 is held at an oblique angle to screen 128, e.g., $45^{\circ}$ inclination with respect to the plane of screen 128 or the $X_{w}-Y_{w}$ plane defined in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$. At the same time, intermediate field of view 148 ensures that a sizeable convex hull or envelope of non-collinear optical inputs defined by images 132A-D', 129' of edges 132A-D and marking 129 will be present in image 158B. This fact enables high accuracy absolute pose recovery and hence good interface performance.

For high performance, additional optical requirements on lens 146 and camera 144 should be enforced. These requirements derive from the specific design of the interface and the use cases. It should be noted that in general it is impossible to specify a set of optimal optical requirements to fit all embodiments. Therefore, the below guidelines are provided so that a person skilled in the art will be able to choose the best type of lens 146 and camera 144 based on a balance between operating conditions, performance and cost.

First and foremost, lens 146 needs to capture a sufficient level or intensity of electromagnetic radiation $\mathbf{1 3 0}$. That is because image 158B must provide a computable-quality image 128' of screen 128 with its non-collinear optical inputs or edges 132A-D and of image 129' of marking 129. Specifically, the quality of image $\mathbf{1 2 8}^{\prime}$ must permit extraction of the imaged non-collinear optical inputs to enable absolute pose recovery of phone $\mathbf{1 0 4}$. For this reason it is advantageous to choose a small F-number lens 146, e.g., between about 1.2 and about 2.8, to ensure that even in low-light conditions lens 146 captures the requisite number of photons of radiation 130.

Second, lens 146 should preferably have a large depth-of-field. In other words, lens 146 should preferably be a quasi-pinhole lens so that objects near and far within angular field of view 148 remain in focus. The main reason is that it is hard to extract features if the image is too defocused. In addition, pinhole behavior is desirable because algorithms for absolute pose recovery of phone $\mathbf{1 0 4}$ are based on image 158B presenting a perspective projection of environment 100. In other words, pose recovery algorithms assume that the images can be treated as if they had been taken with a pinhole camera.

Depending on the difference in wavelengths or spectrum of radiation 130 employed, chromatic dispersion could be a problem. A way to address chromatic dispersion, which alters the focal distance with wavelength $\lambda$, is to ensure that lens 146 is effectively corrected for chromatic aberration. Alternatively, radiation 130 of a single and well-known wavelength $\lambda$ can be used to avoid chromatic dispersion issues.

Third, lens 146 and camera 144 should capture images 158B of threedimensional environment 100 at an appropriate frame rate and exposure time te. The frame rate will depend on the rate of change in absolute pose of phone 104. The faster phone 104 is being translated and rotated by user 102 during operation, the higher the frame rate or corresponding shutter speed of camera 144 should be set for capturing image 158B. Additionally, the exposure time $t_{e}$ during the frame should be sufficiently long to capture enough radiation 130 to generate the best possible image 158B, but not so long as to incur motion blur. Under operating conditions where rapid changes in absolute pose are expected a short exposure time is a must to avoid motion blur. In fact, there are certain parameters of absolute pose $\left(X_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}\right), ~ e . g ., ~ o r i e n t a t i o n ~ p a r a m e t e r s ~ s u c h ~ a s ~ a n g l e s ~ \alpha_{w b}$ and $\gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}$, that can produce massive motion blur even at relatively modest rates of change (e.g., on the order of several degrees per second). Meanwhile, pure translations of phone 104 (e.g., along the three translational degrees of freedom) tend to produce much lower
levels of motion blur. (The reader will realize that this is due to the large linear velocity associated with even a small angular velocity at a large distance away from the center of rotation.)

Fourth, lens 146 should produce minimal levels of optical aberrations and distortions in image 158B. Optical distortions are deviations from perfect perspective projection of environment 100 to image 158B on photosensor 152 of camera 144. As already noted above, such distortions typically include barrel distortion or pincushion distortion. Parallax is a distortion inherent in most wide-angle (fisheye) lenses. It occurs when the chief rays of all object points do not all intersect optical axis 150 of lens 146 at a single point, i.e., at point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$. This can be avoided by using reflective imaging optics incorporating a conic section of revolution as a reflective surface. For details on such optics the reader is referred to U.S. Pats. 7,038,846 and 7,268,956 as well as the references cited therein.

Another kind of lens imperfection is aberration including spherical aberration, coma, astigmatism etc. These aberrations limit the ability of lens 146 to image rays of radiation 130 from a point object in environment 100 to a perfect point in image 158B. Although some of these distortions and aberrations can be effectively removed by image processing electronics 156, it is advantageous that lens 146 be relatively aberration- and distortion-free to reduce the amount of processing dedicated to remediation of these detrimental effects in the image.

Fifth, lens 146 should be small and easy to implement in phone 104. It should preferably be moldable from typical optical materials, e.g., acrylic or other plastic, and it should be manufacturable in large quantities. That means that it should not involve difficult to mold surfaces, such as highly curved surfaces or surfaces having unusual lens prescriptions.

After selecting appropriate lens 146 based on the above guidelines and any further requirements specific to the application and interface, it is important to address any residual imaging problems.
Fig. 7A illustrates image 160A' (corresponding to full circular image 158B) of three-dimensional environment 100 obtained with lens 146 having an intermediate angular field of view 148 as displayed on display screen 136 of phone 104. Image $160 A^{\prime}$ is captured at time $t_{1}$ when phone 104 is held in the first absolute pose by user 102 in his/her right hand 102' as shown in Fig. 1A. Meanwhile, Fig. 7B illustrates image 160B' of three-dimensional environment 100 also obtained with lens 146 having an intermediate angular field of view 148, but taken at time $t_{5}$ when phone 104 is held in the second absolute pose by user 102 in his/her left hand 102'' as shown in Fig. 1B.

Images 160A' and 160B' as seen on screen 136 are rectangular rather than circular. This is unlike images 158A-C shown in Figs. 6A-C that capture the entire angular field of view 148 of lens 146 . The reason is that in practice the entire image circle may not always be captured by camera 144. Most photosensors such as pixellated photosensor 152 of camera 144 are rectangular or square. Thus, one option is for the image circle of image 160A' to be inscribed within the rectangular pixel array and underfill photosensor 152 to ensure capture of the entire angular field of view 148 afforded by lens 146. In this case, many peripheral pixels that lie in the corners of photosensor 152 are never used (no radiation 130 will be delivered to them through lens 146). Alternatively, the image circle of images 160A' can circumscribe or overfill by extending beyond the rectangular array of pixels of photosensor 152. Thus a portion of images 160A', 160B' near the periphery of the angular field of view 148 will "fall off" photosensor 152 and not be registered by camera 144. In the present embodiment, images 160A', 160B' underfill photosensor 152. The entire image circle afforded by lens 146 is thus captured by photosensor 152 and digitized.

Referring now to Fig. 7A, we examine the perspective projection of three-dimensional environment 100 in two-dimensional image 160A'. It is well known that perspective projections obey certain fundamental geometrical theorems on vanishing points, horizon lines, single and multiple-point perspectives, surface normals and the famous Desargues' theorem of projective geometry. In the present case, lines corresponding to extensions of the edges of wall image 108' converge to two vanishing points 164, 166. More precisely, the perspective projection in image 160A' exhibits two vanishing points 164, 166 both lying on a horizon line 168 and yielding a two-point perspective view of environment 100. Extensions of edge images 132A'- $\mathrm{D}^{\prime}$ (since television 126 was oriented to be plane-parallel with wall 108 and its edges 132A-D are thus parallel to the edges of wall 108) also converge to the same vanishing points 164,166 residing on horizon line 168 drawn in a dashed and dotted line.

Of course, vanishing points and horizon lines are mathematical constructs and not tangible parts of image 160A'. Furthermore, for most absolute poses assumed by phone 104 in the hands of user 102 vanishing points 164, 166 will fall well outside image 160A' projected on photosensor 152 and displayed on screen 136. Indeed, this is the case here as well, with only a small section of horizon line 168 actually intersecting image 160A'.

In order for the interface to recover the absolute pose of phone 104 accurately it is crucial that the perspective projection of environment 100 in image 160A' be very accurate. Indeed, it is well known in the fields of computer vision, robotic vision and navigation that very good imaging quality must be achieved if algorithms for camera pose recovery are to accurately report absolute pose parameters, such as ( $x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}$ ) or any other typical absolute pose parameters employed to parameterize the six degrees of freedom available to phone 104. In view of the above, image deviations have to be cured to the extent possible.

Referring now to Fig. 7B, we see image 160B' also yields a perspective projection of environment 100. This time, image $160 \mathbf{B}^{\prime}$ corresponds to environment 100 as witnessed by camera 144 from point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ (see Fig. 5) in the second absolute pose of phone 104, when held by user 102 in left hand 102'' at time $t_{5}$ as shown in Fig. 1B. Here, extensions of the lines corresponding to edges of wall image 108' and extensions of images of edges 132A'-D' of television screen image 128' converge to vanishing points 180 , 182 on a horizon line 184 on the other side of screen 136.

Now, in an enlarged section 186 of image 160B' we see that a portion of image 108' of wall 108, namely image 108A' of the edge of wall 108, shows a significant deviation 108A'' from a straight line. For purposes of better visualization, deviation 108A'' is greatly exaggerated in Fig. 7B. Deviation $108 \mathbf{A}^{\prime \prime}$ increases as a function of distance from image center 162. In other words, deviation 108A'' is a radial function and is just due to distortions caused by lens 146. A person skilled in the art should realize that imperfections in lens 146, overall misalignments between point of view $\boldsymbol{P}$ and center of photosensor 152, imperfect plane alignment between image plane $X_{i}-Y_{i}$ of lens 146 and the actual plane of photosensor's 152 surface, as well as various other mechanical tolerances may introduce significant distortions that can not be accounted for with a purely radial function associated with lens 146. Those imperfections may introduce significant errors, since parallel lines will not necessarily intersect in a unique vanishing point due to lens imperfections. As a result, we deviate from the assumption of a perfect perspective projection and introduce errors in the calculated pose. These issues are well understood in the art and will not be reiterated herein. The reader is referred to resources such as the textbook by Warren J. Smith, "Modern Optical Engineering", SPIE Press, The McGraw-Hill Companies (ISBN 978-0-07-147687-4).

When the only significant deviation 108A' is a radial function of lens 146, undistortion of image 160B' can be undertaken by a simple
undistortion correction or re-mapping of all points of image 160B'. Fig. 8 illustrates a radial distortion curve 186 of lens 146 that is used for such undistortion. A "perfect" curve 188, depicted for comparison in Fig. 8, is a straight line according to which radiation 130 arriving at the refractive surface of lens 146 from environment 100 at different field angles $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ is mapped at different image radii $\boldsymbol{r}_{\mathbf{i}}$ measured from image center 162. The actual value of radius $\mathbf{r}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ is indicated in pixels.

Our radial distortion curve 186 (barrel distortion) however, is not a straight line and its divergence from perfect curve $\mathbf{1 8 8}$ increases with radius $\boldsymbol{r}_{\mathbf{i}}$. (The opposite distortion in which the divergence decreases with radius is called pincushion distortion.) In practice, distortion curve 186 may be approximated by a polynomial or a higherorder curve to directly assign field angle $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ to image radius $\boldsymbol{r}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ or even directly to the corresponding pixel 190 in image plane $X_{i}-Y_{i}$. This may be done to save processing time in certain embodiments with a corresponding look-up table, rather than performing the undistortion calculation each time. In fact, fisheye lenses manufactured for video cameras regularly come with "warping" software for correction of barrel or pincushion distortion.

Fig. 9 is a diagram that shows the surface of photosensor 152 of camera 144 with image radius $\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{i}}$ indicated from image center 162 to the circular periphery of image $160 \mathbf{B}^{\prime}$. Image radius $\boldsymbol{r}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ corresponds to angular field of view 148 and underfills photosensor 152, as remarked above. Photosensor 152 is a pixellated CMOS sensor with pixels 190. Note that radius $\boldsymbol{r}_{\mathbf{i}}$ for curves $\mathbf{1 8 6}$, $\mathbf{1 8 8}$ graphed in Fig. $\mathbf{8}$ is quantified by number of pixels 190 from image center 162 rather than standard metric units. Meanwhile, the origin of the image coordinates $\left(X_{i}, Y_{i}\right)$ is indicated in the upper left corner of CMOS 152 (see also image parameterization found in Fig. 5).

Image 160B' is a perspective projection. It contains details such as images of non-collinear optical inputs or edges 132A'- $\mathbf{D}^{\prime}$ and of
marking 129' as well as edges 108' of wall 108 and table image 208'. These are indicated directly on pixels 190 of CMOS 152. Note that only a fraction of pixels 190 belonging to CMOS 152 is drawn in Fig. 9 for reasons of clarity. A normal the array of pixels 190 in CMOS 152 will range from $1,000 \mathrm{x} 1,000$ to several thousands per side, and the pixel array need not be square. The radius $\boldsymbol{r}_{\mathbf{i}}$ in practical and ideal radial distortion curves 186,188 of Fig. 8 is measured from center 162. Thus, for example, for a 2,000 by 2,000 array of pixels 190, image center 162 from which $\boldsymbol{r}_{i}$ is measured will fall approximately on the $1,000^{\text {th }}$ pixel 190 along $X_{i}$-axis and on the $1,000^{\text {th }}$ pixel 190 along $Y_{i}$-axis. The reason that this relationship is approximate is due to the various mechanical misalignments, optical aberrations and distortions as well as other tolerances and errors. In fact, the exact location of image center 162 should preferably be ascertained and corrected for in well-known ways when high quality interface performance is desired.

The diagram of Fig. 9 unveils the main parts of camera 144 and elements of image processing electronics 156. Specifically, camera 144 has a row multiplexing block 192 for interacting with rows of pixels 190. It also has a column multiplexing block 194 for interacting with columns of pixels 190. Blocks 192, 194 are connected to a demultiplexer 198 for receiving raw image data 196 from pixels 190 ordered in accordance with any multiplexing scheme. Depending on the level of sophistication of camera 144, blocks 192, 194 may be capable of collecting raw image data 196 only from designated rows or columns of pixels 190. In an advanced camera 144, blocks 192, 194 may be able to designate regions of interest defined by groups of pixels 190 and only report raw image data 196 from such regions of interest. Note that in some cameras, blocks 192, 194 are replaced by a single block or still other multiplexing and pixel control electronics.

In the present embodiment, blocks 192 , 194 simply report the image values of pixels 190 from an exposure taken during one frame (shutter
frame). Thus, for the purposes of the interface of invention, raw image data 196 are preferably simple gray scale values expressed in binary as 8-bit integers ranging from 0 to 255. Demultiplexer 198 is configured to receive such 8-bit raw image data 196 from all pixels 190 and to format it for image pre-processing. Such formatting may include, but is not limited to, the removal of latency and time effects due to shuttering conventions (e.g., use of rolling shutter vs. global shutter), enforcement of pixel reporting order and other functions well known in the art of formatting raw image data 196.

Demultiplexer 198 is connected to image pre-processing unit 200, which receives formatted raw image data 196. Pre-processing unit 200 performs dewarping (a.k.a. un-warping), realignment, normalization and smoothing functions. Specifically, pre-processing unit 200 realigns image 160B' based on relative position (distance, offset, tilt, etc.) of photosensor 152 with respect to lens 146 . Preferably, such relative position and its tolerances are determined prior to the use of camera 144 in the interface of the present invention.

Unit 200 also dewarps image $160 B^{\prime}$ based on known distortions of lens 146 including re-mapping of the values of pixels 190 in accordance with radial distortion curve 186 from Fig. 8. In addition, unit 200 may normalize the values of pixels 190, remove shot noise and dead pixels, apply smoothing functions and perform any other well known adjustments or image enhancements as necessary.

Unit 200 is connected to image processing unit 202. Unit 202 receives the corrected image from unit 200 and applies the processing steps necessary to recognize images of the non-collinear features or edges 132A'- $\mathbf{D}^{\prime}$ belonging to screen 128 and of marking 129' of television 126. A person skilled in the art will recognize that numerous image segmentation, contrast enhancement, edge detection and noise reduction techniques are known for performing this task. Some of the best known include: the sobel edge detector, the canny edge detector and various versions of the Hough transform in combination
with Gaussian filters. In fact, any known technique can be employed herein based on the type of environment 100, television 126, amount of radiation 130 and other standard optics and signal processing considerations known to those skilled in the art.

Typically, unit 202 first applies a differential filter to image 160B' to enhance edge contrast. In the present case, when television 126 is on and screen 128 is active, the edges of screen 128 present high contrast ratio non-collinear optical inputs (they are therefore relatively easy to find in image $160 B^{\prime}$ ). Unit 202 segments image 160B' and applies the selected edge detection algorithm. Depending on the application and as discussed below, unit 202 may also be programmed to detect images of wall edges 108' in order to ascertain stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ parameterizing stable frame 106 in environment 100. Edges or other features of wall 108 may be used as the corresponding non-collinear optical inputs.

The output of unit 202 is a complete image description of the rectangle formed by screen image 128' and either a point or area defined by marking image 129'. Such complete image description of edges 132A'- $\mathbf{D}^{\prime}$ and marking 129' may include line approximations or equations, including line fits, such as a least squares fit. In addition, if required, unit 202 also outputs an image description of the rectangle formed by images of wall edges 108' and of table 208'.

A camera pose recovery unit 204 is connected to unit 202 for receiving its output. Unit 204 employs the geometrical description of the non-collinear optical inputs, namely the lines and points of screen image 128' and image of marking 129' to recover the absolute pose of camera 144 in accordance with wellunderstood principles widely employed in computer vision and robotics. Pose recovery is mathematically possible because vanishing points 180 and 182 as well as horizon line 184 and the size of screen image 128' fully determine the absolute pose of camera 144 based on its point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$. In
practice, robust methods are used to deal with noise and imperfect modeling.

It should be noted that pose is also sometimes referred to as exterior orientation and translation in the fields of computer vision and robotics. In fact, in pose recovery algorithms as may be applied by unit 204 it is common to work with parameters that are different from absolute pose parameters ( $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{w}}, \alpha_{\mathrm{wb}}, \boldsymbol{\beta}_{\mathrm{wb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}$ ) used in mechanics to describe the rigid body motion of phone 104. Of course, any parameterization ultimately describes the six degrees of freedom available to phone 104 (or any rigid body bearing camera 144 whose pose is being recovered) and therefore a mathematical transformation can be used to move between the rigid body description predominantly used in mechanics (and physics) and the computer vision description.

In camera pose recovery unit 204 employing computer vision algorithms, absolute pose of phone 104 is described by means of a rotation and translation transformation that brings the object, in this case television 126 and more specifically its screen 128 and marking 129, from a reference pose to the observed pose. This rotation transformation can be represented in different ways, e.g., as a rotation matrix or a quaternion. The specific task of determining the pose of screen 128 in image $160 B^{\prime}$ (or stereo images or image sequence, as discussed further below) is referred to as pose estimation. The pose estimation problem can be solved in different ways depending on the image sensor configuration and choice of methodology.

A class of pose estimation methodologies involves analytic or geometric methods. Once photosensor 152 is calibrated the mapping from 3D points in the scene or environment 100 and 2 D points in image 160B' is known. Since the geometry and size of the object comprising the non-collinear optical inputs, i.e., screen 128 , is known, this means that the projected screen image 128' is a well-known function of screen's 128 pose. Thus, it is possible to solve the pose
transformation from a set of equations which relate the 3D coordinates of the points along edges 132A-D with their 2D image 132A' $\mathbf{A}^{\prime}$ coordinates.

Another class of methodologies involves learning based methods. These methods use an artificial learning-based system, which learns the mapping from 2 D image features to pose transformation. In short, this means that a sufficiently large set of images $128^{\prime}, 129$ of the non-collinear optical inputs produced by edges of screen 128 and marking 129 collected in different poses, i.e., viewed from different absolute poses of phone 104, must be presented to unit 204 during a learning phase. Once the learning phase is completed, unit 204 will be able to present an estimate of the absolute pose of camera 144 given images 128', 129' of screen 128 and marking 129.

Yet another class of methodologies involves solving the pose estimation and image calibration simultaneously. In such an approach unit 200 does not dewarp (or un-warp) image 160B' and instead an algorithm utilizes warped features. For example, an artificial learning-based system is presented with dewarped 2D image features for a large set of known poses. After the learning phase is completed the algorithm is then able to estimate pose from uncalibrated features.

In a vast majority of embodiments of the interface camera pose recovery unit 204 employs the first class of methods, i.e., analytic or geometric methods. That is because they are the most efficient, while keeping the computational burden within the limited computational range of image processing electronics 156. Specifically, on-board units, in this case camera 144, that are capable of receiving radiation 130 and processing images do not have sufficient computational resources and on-board power to implement processing-intensive algorithms for camera pose recovery. Thus, the algorithms being run by unit 204 should preferably consume just a small fraction of on-board processing resources.

To implement an efficient analytic or geometric method in unit 204, it is important to first calibrate camera 144. Calibration is performed prior to running the algorithm by presenting camera 144 with an image of screen 128' in a set of canonical positions and providing its physical measurements. Of course, in the present embodiment, television 126 may communicate with phone 104 wirelessly and provide the necessary information about its screen 128 to phone 104 and more specifically to unit 204 upon inquiry. For requisite teachings on camera calibration the reader is referred to the textbook entitled "Multiple View Geometry in Computer Vision" (Second Edition) by R. Hartley and Andrew Zisserman. Another useful reference is provided by Robert Haralick, "Using Perspective Transformations in Scene Analysis", Computer Graphics and Image Processing 13, pp. 191-221 (1980). For still further information the reader is referred to Carlo Tomasi and John Zhang, "How to Rotate a Camera", Computer Science Department Publication, Stanford University and Berthold K.P. Horn, "Tsai's Camera Calibration Method Revisited".

Now, as already remarked, camera pose recovery unit 204 receives output of unit 202 in the form of a complete image description of the rectangle formed by the non-collinear optical inputs in the form of edges 132A'- $\mathbf{D}^{\prime}$ and marking 129'. In addition, unit 202 also provides a complete image description of additional non-collinear optical inputs, such as the rectangle formed by images of wall edges 108' and preferably of table 208'. With this additional data, camera $\mathbf{1 4 4}$ can be calibrated with respect to both stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) parameterizing stable frame 106 of environment 100 as well as world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) defined by television 126.

In the most general case, unit 204 may use points from the complete description of images $132 A^{\prime}-D^{\prime}, 129$ as well as $108^{\prime}$, 208' for determining the absolute pose of camera 144 with an iterative closest point algorithm or any other suitable algorithm. Preferably, unit 204 estimates absolute pose of camera 144 in stable coordinates
$\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ with respect to stable coordinate origin in the upper left area of environment 100, and in world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) with respect to world coordinate origin in the upper left corner of screen 128.

Since in the present embodiment most non-collinear optical inputs are line-like, unit 204 preferably implements much faster algorithms than iterative closest point. For example, it employs a type of algorithm generally referred to in the art as pose estimation through comparison. In this approach a database of screen images 128' obtained at different rotations and translations is compared to the complete image description provided by unit 202. For efficiency reasons, such comparison preferably employs a homography. A homography is an invertible transformation from the real projective plane on the surface of photosensor 152 to a projective plane in a canonical position of camera 144 that maps straight lines to straight lines. Because straight lines are preserved under this type of operation, the transformation is also frequently called a collineation, a projective transformation or even projectivity by those skilled in the art. The reader is again referred to the textbook entitled "Multiple View Geometry in Computer Vision" (Second Edition) by R. Hartley and Andrew Zisserman.

When working with images of rectangles $128^{\prime}$ and $\mathbf{1 0 8}^{\prime}$ there exists symmetry between certain absolute poses of camera 144. Therefore, additional information from image 160B' is necessary to break this symmetry. Differently put, additional non-collinear optical input is required to unambiguously define up, down, left and right. In the present embodiment, optical information from any point of table image 208' can be used to break the symmetry for determining the absolute pose in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$. Similarly, optical information from any point of marking image 129' can be used to break the symmetry for determining the absolute pose in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ that parameterize absolute reference frame $\mathbf{1 3 4}$ for the purposes of the interface.

Image processing electronics 156 have an output module 206 that is connected to camera pose recovery unit 204. Module 206 receives information about the absolute pose of phone 104 computed by the pose recovery algorithm deployed by unit 204. Specifically, it receives pose information in the format used by the camera pose recovery algorithm of computer vision. This description may contain descriptors such as angles with respect to surface normals - for example, the normal to the surface of screen 128 or the normal to the surface of wall 108. Such descriptions are intrinsically expressed in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ that parameterize world frame 134 and in stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) that parameterize stable frame 106 in environment 100. However, these descriptions may not be expressed in absolute pose parameters ( $x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}$ ) and ( $x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}$ ) that were previously used to parameterize the absolute pose of phone 104 in the language of mechanics of rigid body motion. Therefore, module 206 may need to translate the output of unit 204 to mechanical absolute pose parameters ( $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{s}}, \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{s}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{s}}, \alpha_{\mathrm{sb}}, \beta_{\mathrm{sb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{sb}}$ ) and ( $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{w}}, \alpha_{\mathrm{wb}}, \beta_{\mathrm{wb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}$ ). Of course, some embodiments of the interface may be designed to work directly with the computer vision description from the point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ of camera 144 and no such translation is necessary.

Any computer vision algorithm deployed by camera pose recovery unit 204 will inherently determine the absolute pose of phone 104 from the point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ of camera 144 (see Fig. 5). Since in the present embodiment absolute pose is reported with respect to center of mass C.O.M. 110 that coincides with the origin of body coordinates ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{b}}$ ) of phone 104, module 206 needs to translate the absolute pose output of unit 204 from the point-of-view $\mathcal{P}$ of camera 144 into body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ of phone 104. This translation is accomplished by a coordinate transformation involving the addition of the fixed offset vector $o_{b}$ (see Fig. 5) to the absolute pose output of unit 204. Thus, output module 206 translates the output of unit 204 into mechanical absolute pose parameters ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{w}}, \alpha_{\mathrm{wb}}, \beta_{\mathrm{wb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}$ ) and
( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{s}}, \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{s}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{s}}, \alpha_{\mathrm{sb}}, \beta_{\mathrm{sb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{sb}}$ ). Further, module 206 generates a signal 210 related to one or more of the recovered absolute pose parameters of phone 104.

Signal 210 is related to one or more of the absolute pose parameters in any suitable manner. In the simplest case, signal 210 contains all absolute pose parameters expressed in both stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ and in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$. In other embodiments, signal 210 contains a subset of the absolute pose parameters, e.g., just the absolute position or just the absolute orientation. Still other embodiments need signal 210 that only contains two absolute position parameters expressed in stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ), such as $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}\right)$, or in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$, such as ( $\left.X_{w}, Y_{w}\right)$. Signal 210 may also be related to just one absolute pose parameter, e.g., the absolute distance from screen 128 along the $z$-direction expressed in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ or in world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ). Still other applications may require signal 210 to provide one or more orientation angles, such as $\gamma_{s b}$ or $\gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}$ in applications where the roll (twist) of phone 104 is important. Further, signal 210 may be related to the absolute pose parameter or parameters in linear and non-linear ways or in accordance with any function including scaling, transposition, subspace projection, reflection, rotation, quantization or other function applied to any one or to all of the absolute pose parameters contained in signal 210. For example, signal 210 may contain derivatives, including first- and higher-order derivatives, integrals or re-scaled values of any of the absolute pose parameters or any linear combination thereof. Additionally, signal 210 may be related to the absolute pose parameter or parameters either in its amplitude, its frequency or its phase.

Fig. 10 illustrates in more detail the elements of an advantageous embodiment of an interface 212 according to the invention. Interface 212 is deployed in environment 100, where human user 102 manipulates phone 104 to assume various absolute poses as introduced in Figs. 1AB. We initially concentrate on a first absolute pose assumed by
phone 104 along trajectory 114 at a time $t_{0}$ before time $t_{1}$ illustrated in Fig. 1A. In this absolute pose at time $t_{0}$ all three angles $\left(\alpha_{w b}, \beta_{\mathrm{wb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}\right)$ describing the absolute orientation of phone 104 in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ happen to be equal to zero. This means that fully rotated body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ are aligned with the triple primed body coordinates $\left(X_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}, Y_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}, Z_{b}^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)$ and with world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) (see rotation convention in Figs. 3A-D). Meanwhile, at time $t_{0}$ the absolute position of phone 104 as described in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ by vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{w}\left(t_{0}\right)$ is not equal to zero. (Stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ and corresponding vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}\left(t_{0}\right)$ from their origin to C.O.M. 110 are not shown in Fig. 10 for reasons of clarity - refer to Fig. 2 where vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}$ is drawn explicitly.)

This absolute pose of phone 104 at time $t_{0}$ with no rotations as expressed in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ corresponds to absolute pose parameters as follows: A.P. $=\left(x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}\right)=\left(x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, 0,0,0\right)$. Although phone 104 does not ever need to assume such absolute pose for enabling the operation of interface 212, it is nevertheless shown for pedagogical reasons. In this way, the reader can gain a more intuitive idea about when along trajectory 114 the phone's 104 pose does not involve any rotations.

At time $t_{0}$ camera 144 employs its image processing electronics 156 in the manner described above. As a result, phone $\mathbf{1 0 4}$ generates signal 210 related to at least one of its recovered absolute pose parameters $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}\right)$ expressed in world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ). As mentioned above, phone 104 can also determine and report recovered absolute pose parameters $\left(x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}\right)$ expressed in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$. In other words, absolute pose parameters $\left(x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}\right)$ and ( $\left.x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}\right)$ can be computed at time $t_{0}$ and used to construct related signal 210. In the present embodiment of interface 212, signal 210 is directly proportional to all six recovered absolute pose parameters ( $x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}$ ) in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$. However, it is not related to, and more
strictly does not contain any of the absolute pose parameters $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}\right)$ as reported in stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ). Signal 210 is thus proportional to the values of absolute pose parameters $\left(x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}\right)=\left(x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, 0,0,0\right)$ expressed in units corresponding one-to-one to real 3 D space of environment $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ in the absolute frame of reference 134 parameterized by world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$.

Interface 212 takes advantage of communication link 214 of phone 104 to communicate signal 210 to an application 216 running on a host unit 218. It is the objective of interface 212 to derive or produce input to application 216 based on the absolute pose of phone 104. More precisely, application 216 is designed to employ signal 210 as an input of interface 212. In the present embodiment, link 214 is the down-link of the phone's 104 Bluetooth wireless link. It will be appreciated by persons skilled in the art that any suitable link, wireless or wired, may be used to transmit signal 210 to application 216.

Host unit 218 belongs to television 126 and is incorporated into its base 220. Host unit 218 has a processor and other typical resources to implement application 216 and to drive screen 218. In fact, it should be noted, that if on-board image processing electronics 156 cannot properly handle the camera pose recovery, this task could be assigned to host unit 218, as it will typically have a stable power supply and considerable computing resources.

In the embodiment shown, application 216 is a home shopping application that displays to user 102 products 222, 224, 226 that can be purchased with the aid of interface 212. Of course, products 222, 224, 226 may include any merchandise available from any commercial source or database, e.g., a web-based database or a home shopping network that application 216 can access via the Internet. Here, product 222 is a necktie, product 224 is a motorcycle helmet and product 226 is a bag. Application 216 displays necktie 222, helmet

224 and bag 226 on screen 128 in a way that makes it easy for user 102 to make his or her selection.

In fact, in the present embodiment of interface 212, signal 210 constitutes the complete input from user 102 to application 216. The absolute pose of phone 104 supplied to application 216 is used to move a cursor 228 on screen 128 and to thus allow user 102 to select among products 222, 224, 226. A person skilled in the art will recognize this functionality as absolute 3 D pointing capability and/or as an absolute 3D mouse. In fact, cursor 228 can be employed in conjunction with depressing an agreed upon button (see below), to endow it with other capabilities such as scrolling or otherwise bringing up a larger selection of products.

We now examine the operation of interface 212 by referring to Fig. 10 and to a more detailed view of trajectory 114 of phone 104 and corresponding images 230A-G of screen 128 captured by camera 144 during operation, as shown in Fig. 11. We will also refer to the flow diagram of Fig. 12 that illustrates the steps executed by application 216 and image processing electronics 156 on-board phone 104 during the operation of interface 212.

Interface 212 is initialized when user $\mathbf{1 0 2}$ presses a predetermined button 142 or performs any suitable initialization action or sequence of actions. In the example shown in Fig. 10, interface 212 is initialized at time $t_{0}$ by depressing a button 142A on phone 104. Of course, it is understood that phone 104 does not need to be initialized in interface 212 while its orientation angles are zero.

Fig. 11 depicts image 230A projected onto photosensor 152 of camera 144 at the time of initialization, $t_{0}$, of interface 212. Additionally, time $t_{0}$ coincides with the start of trajectory 114 of phone 104.

The steps performed by interface 212 at initialization are found in the flow diagram of Fig. 12. Initialization signal is used in step 232 to start interface 212 by activating camera 144 and image processing electronics 156. In subsequent step 234, camera 144 is instructed to capture image 230A of environment 100. Image 230A may optionally be displayed to user 102 on screen 136 of phone 104.

It is important in step 234 that image 230A be captured at a sufficiently short exposure time, $t_{e}$, to ensure that it contains no appreciable motion blur. For example, exposure time $t_{e}$ in situations where user 102 is expected to move phone 104 relatively slowly may be set on the order of 100 ms to $25 \mathrm{~ms}(1 / 10$ to $1 / 40 \mathrm{sec})$. On the other hand, exposure time $t_{e}$ should be significantly shorter, e.g., 10 ms or even less (1/100 sec and faster) in situations where person 102 is expected to move phone $\mathbf{1 0 4}$ relatively quickly. In the event a rolling shutter is employed, the exposure time $t_{e}$ should be adjusted accordingly to ensure no significant time delay between the capture time of radiation 130 by first and last pixels 190.

A person skilled in the art will recognize that the $F / \#$ of lens 146 must be sufficiently low and the ISO sensitivity of photosensor 152 must be set sufficiently high to enable camera 144 to capture image 230A under the ambient illumination conditions and given the amount of radiation 130 emitted by screen 128. Specifically, image 230A has to be of sufficient quality to permit recognition of images $132 \mathbf{A}^{\prime} \mathbf{- D}^{\prime}$, 129' of edges 132 A-D and of marking 129 that are chosen as noncollinear optical inputs to image processing unit 204 and camera pose recovery module 206.

In next step 236, raw image data 196 is demultiplexed and formatted. It is then forwarded in step 238 for pre-processing of image 230A by image pre-processing unit 200. After step 238, if possible, a determination should be made at step 240 whether image 230 A is of sufficient quality to warrant further processing, or if another image should be captured. For example, if image 230A is of insufficient
quality to support image processing and feature extraction, i.e., line detection to find images of edges 132A'-D' and image of marking 129' that represent the non-collinear optical inputs, then another image should be captured at an adjusted exposure time $t_{e}$ and ISO setting. The corresponding adjustments are made in step 242 in accordance with well-known principles of optics. In fact, if it is possible to make the image quality determination sooner, e.g., at step 236, then an instruction to proceed to step 242 should be issued by interface 212 after that step.

A sufficiently high quality image 230A is forwarded to step 244, in which dewarped or corrected image 230A is processed by image processing unit 202. Step 244 involves filtering, image segmentation, contrast enhancement and extraction of images of noncollinear optical inputs in this embodiment the images of edges 132 $\mathbf{A}^{\prime}-\mathrm{D}^{\prime}$ and image of marking 129'. As indicated above, the requisite techniques are well-known in the art of robotic and computer vision. In general, feature extraction reduces the complexity of pose estimation by using a reduced representation of environment 100 instead of the raw image as input to a pose recovery algorithm. Edges, corners, blobs, ridges, intensity gradients, optical flow, etc. are all well-known image features familiar to a skilled artisan. Alternatively, more sophisticated features include Scale-Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT) by David Lowe or Speeded Up Robust Features (SURF) by Herbert Bay et al.

There is a significant amount of additional literature about the extraction of the invariant and non-collinear optical inputs from the images (a.k.a. feature extraction). Extraction of such features will require the application of suitable image segmentation modules, contrast thresholds, line detection algorithms (e.g., Hough transformations) and many others. For more information on edge detection in images and edge detection algorithms the reader is referred to U.S. Patents 6,023,291 and 6,408,109 and to Simon Baker and Shree K. Nayar, "Global Measures of Coherence for Edge Detector

Evaluation", Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, June 1999, Vol. 2, pp. 373-379 and J. Canny, "A Computational Approach to Edge Detection", IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence, Vol. 8, No. 6, Nov. 1986 for basic edge detection. Additional useful teachings can be found in U.S. Patent 7,203,384 to Carl and U.S. Patent 7,023,536 to Zhang et al. A person skilled in the art will find all the required modules in standard image processing libraries such as OpenCV (Open Source Computer Vision), a library of programming functions for real time computer vision. For more information on OpenCV the reader is referred to $G$. R. Bradski and A. Kaehler, "Learning OpenCV: Computer Vision with the OpenCV Library", O'Reilly, 2008.

Extracted non-collinear optical inputs 132A'- $\mathbf{D}^{\prime}$, $12 \mathbf{1 2}^{\prime}$ are supplied to camera pose recovery unit 204 in step 246 . Unit 204 applies the rules of perspective geometry in an analytic or geometric algorithm to solve the inverse problem of finding the collineation that maps the extracted non-collinear optical inputs, i.e., 132A'- $\mathbf{D}^{\prime}$ and 129', to what a reference or canonical position will produce (reference inputs 132A'-D', 129' as seen from the reference or canonical pose). Due to the effects of noise, feature mismatch, imperfect calibration and/or incomplete modeling of environment 100, the set of extracted features or inputs can never be mapped exactly into the reference set. In preferred embodiments, a robust method finds the collineation that minimizes the sum of algebraic errors between the set of extracted features and the reference set. The reader is invited to review K. Kanatani, "Geometric Computation for Machine Vision", pp. 153-155 for more details. For a simpler but less robust approach the reader is referred to Robert M. Haralick, "Determining Camera Parameters from the Perspective Projection of a Rectangle", Journal of Pattern Recognition, Vol. 22, Issue 3, 1989.

In step 248 the output of camera pose recovery unit 204 is provided to output module 206. In one embodiment, the output of pose recovery unit 204 is the collineation computed in step 246 . This collineation
is converted to absolute pose parameters either by unit 204 or by output module 206. Absolute pose parameters can be expressed in many different formats. In the present embodiment, they are expressed as a translation vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{\mathrm{w}}$ and rotations $\left(\alpha_{w b}, \beta_{\mathrm{wb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}\right)$ in world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) that parameterize frame 134. In another embodiment, they are expressed as a reference vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{r w}$ and a surface normal $\mathbf{n}$ in body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$. In yet another embodiment, the orientation, regardless of reference, is expressed using a quaternion representation. Output module 206 uses the output to generate signal 210 that is related to at least one of the absolute pose parameters irrespective of how they are expressed or parameterized (i.e., absolute pose parameters of mechanics, computer vision or still some other convention).

Now, unit 204 expresses the absolute pose of phone 104 in reference to the point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ of camera 144 (as defined by lens 146) rather than center of mass C.O.M. 110 of phone 104. That is because the geometric algorithm in step 246 operates on image 230A as seen from point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$. Therefore, output module 206 must also convert the absolute pose of phone 104. Such conversion to body coordinates 112 centered on C.O.M. 110 of phone 104 is accomplished once again by a coordinate transformation that adds offset vector $\mathbf{o}_{\mathrm{b}}$. (In a more complicated case than that shown in Fig. 5, when image plane $X_{i}-Y_{i}$ is not plane parallel with respect to plane $X_{b}-Y_{b}$ of body coordinates 112, a rotation matrix will also have to be applied as a part of the coordinate transformation. Coordinate transformation methods are known to those skilled in the art and the diligent reader is again referred to G.B. Arfken, op. cit.)

In addition to the coordinate transformation, interface 212 requires that the at least one absolute pose parameter of phone 104 be expressed or reported by unit 206 in a stable frame. In the present embodiment two choices of such stable frames for reporting the one or more pose parameters of phone 104 are available.

The first stable frame is defined by stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) that parameterize frame 106 in environment 100. Stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ do not move as they are defined by wall 108 and other stationary objects that produce optically discoverable non-collinear optical inputs. Thus, frame 106 can be taken as the stable frame that defines environment 100 in the context of the surface of a very stable (and reliable) reference in the surroundings.

The second stable frame 134 is defined by world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) (or workspace coordinates) in the Cartesian convention with respect to the upper left corner of screen 128. In the present embodiment, frame 134 is usually stationary within first stable frame 106 because television 126 does not move. In other words, a coordinate transformation between stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) and world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ is constant in time. This transformation is conveniently expressed by constant vector $\mathbf{d}_{\text {s }}$ (see Fig. 2) and a constant rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{\text {sw }}$ (not shown) if the axes of stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ parameterizing frame 106 and the axes of world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ defining frame 134 are not aligned (they are not aligned in the present embodiment and hence a rotation matrix must be used).

Since in the present embodiment object 126 is a large television designed to stay in the same place in environment 100, interface 212 employs frame 134 parameterized by world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) as the stable frame. In other words, because television 126 is at rest in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ defining stable frame 106 on the surface of the Earth, stable frame 134 parameterized by world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ is also at rest as long as television 126 does not move. Therefore, unless application 216 needs to know and keep confirming where television 126 is located in stable frame 106, interface 212 may dispense with recovering the absolute pose of phone 104 in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ altogether. Thus, the non-collinear optical inputs of wall 108 (i.e., its edges and corners) and of table 208 do not need to be used for camera pose recovery with respect to these
objects to track phone 104 in stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ). Note, however, that in embodiments where the object that user 102 is interacting with is not stationary in absolute reference frame 106, it may be necessary to keep track of the item's 104 absolute pose in both stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ and in world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) to achieve proper operation of interface 212.

As remarked above, in the present embodiment signal 210 is related to all six absolute pose parameters ( $x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}$ ) by being directly proportional to them. In general, however, the relation between signal 210 and the one or more absolute pose parameters chosen to parameterize the six degrees of freedom of phone 104 is much more broadly defined. Signal 210 needs only be related to one absolute pose parameter of phone 104 as expressed in stable frame 134 (or stable frame 106). Furthermore, signal 210 may be encoded in frequency, amplitude or phase.

The one or more absolute pose parameters to which signal 210 is related, e.g., by being directly proportional to them as in this case, need not directly correspond to one of the six absolute pose parameters defined by $\left(\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{w}}, \alpha_{\mathrm{wb}}, \beta_{\mathrm{wb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}\right)$. Instead, the one or more absolute pose parameters to which signal 210 is related needs only in turn be related by a mapping to at least one of the six degrees of freedom of phone 104 that may be parameterized in any manner (e.g., by mechanics conventions, computer vision conventions or still other conventions). The present case is the simplest, since the mapping is a one-to-one mapping of all six absolute pose parameters $\left(\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{w}}, \alpha_{\mathrm{wb}}, \beta_{\mathrm{wb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}\right)$, to which signal 210 is directly proportional, to the six degrees of freedom parameterized with these same absolute pose parameters, namely $\left(x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}\right)$. More complex mappings that are not one-to-one and involve scaling as well will be examined in subsequent embodiments.

The one-to-one mapping of all absolute pose parameters $\left(\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{w}}, \alpha_{\mathrm{wb}}, \beta_{\mathrm{wb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}\right)$ of phone 104 in the same convention as that used
to parameterize the six degrees of freedom of phone 104 in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ makes interface 212 a special type of interface. Interfaces where the one or more absolute pose parameters to which signal 210 is related map to all the translational and rotational degrees of freedom are referred to herein as fully parameterized interfaces. Under this definition, interface 212 is fully parameterized, since signal 210 contains a full parameterization of the absolute pose of phone 104.

In the next step indicated in Fig. 12, on-board communication link 214 sends signal 210 to host unit 218 in the form of a Bluethooth formatted $R F$ signal. In step 250, signal 210 is received by a hostside receiving unit and forwarded as input to application 216. It is noted that although Bluetooth is used in this embodiment, any other RF protocol, as well as IR or sonic (e.g., ultrasonic) link or other point-to-point connection (including a wired connection) may be used by interface 212 to transmit signal 210 in the corresponding format and code from phone 104 to host 218.

Depending on the rate of motion of phone 104 and type of trajectory 114 that interface 212 is expected to support, it is important that the overall time duration between the capture of image 230 A and transmission of signal 210 to host unit 218 be kept relatively short. For example, the time required for completing steps 234 through 248 in flow diagram of Fig. 12 should be kept at $10-20 \mathrm{msec}$. The time delay required for transmission to host 218 and reception as input to application 216 should also be kept as short as possible, and ideally at less than 10 msec . The reason for such rapid processing and transmission in interface 212 has to do with the human perception of delay. According to accepted standards and IEEE specifications human user interfaces should ideally produce a delay of less than 30 msec in order to be perceived as real-time by user 102.

Application 216 receives signal 210 with full parameterization of phone 104 as an input of interface 212. Specifically, the values
contained in signal 210 are employed as input of user 102 by application 216.

To interpret the absolute pose of phone 104 application 216 uses a set of application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$ to parameterize its digital three-dimensional environment 252. These application coordinates ( $X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}$ ) with their origin in the lower right corner of screen 128 are shown in Fig. 10. Of course, the choice of origin and orientation of coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$ is merely exemplary and can be selected by the interface designer as convenient or as dictated by application 216. In the present embodiment, television 126 supports 3D viewing and thus having a three-dimensional coordinate system $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$ makes sense. In $2 D$ televisions the $Z_{a}-a x i s$ may not be necessary.

Application 216 uses absolute pose parameters ( $x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}$ ) of phone 104 delivered by signal 210 as input of user 102. In the present embodiment, it translates these pose parameters into application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$ to define the pose of phone 104 in digital three-dimensional environment 252. Environment 252 is thus a cyberspace or a virtual space that is like real space.

At this stage, application 216 is capable of using its driver 254 of display screen 128 to display to user 102 a virtual phone 104' in an absolute pose that mirrors the absolute pose of phone 104 in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$. Such virtual phone $\mathbf{1 0 4}^{\prime}$ can be displayed in digital three-dimensional environment 252 parameterized by application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$ and can be particularly advantageous when using a three-dimensional type of television 126. Note that when environment 252 of application 216 is a cyberspace, a virtual space or a portion of a mixed space where the standard rules of 3 D geometry apply, the ability to obtain full absolute pose of phone 104 is crucial to life-like interactions.

In the present simple home shopping application interface 212 is designed to only assists in computing the intersection of optical axis 150 of lens 146 with display 128. Application 216 then instructs cursor control 256 to draw a placeholder entity, in this case a feedback cursor 228 at that intersection to provide visual feedback to user 102.

At time $t_{0,}$ we see from Figs. 10 and 11 that optical axis 150 does not intersect with display 128. This is further evidenced by the fact that in image 230A taken at time $t_{0}$ image center 162 , which always lies along optical axis 150 of lens 146 , is not on image $\mathbf{1 2 8}^{\prime}$ of screen 128. Therefore, cursor control 256 does not draw feedback cursor 228 on screen 128.

Instead, application 216 instructs screen driver 254 to keep products 222, 224, 226 displayed on screen 128. Meanwhile, while user 102 is not pointing at screen 128, application 216 may perform support, cross-check and other functions. For example, application 216 may cross-check with a database 258 of merchandise that products 222, 224, 226 are properly displayed. Application 216 may additionally verify with remote resources 260 that may include the Internet as well as proprietary resources and links that products 222, 224, 226 are still in stock and available for sale to user 102 . In performing these functions, application 216 may take advantage of data in signal 210. For example, it may terminate them when cursor 228 is getting close to screen 128.

Application 216 has a feedback module 262 that can send feedback to phone 104 for the benefit of user 102. Application 216 can provide feedback to user 102 in any form supported by on-board resources 264 of phone 104. Advantageously, the feedback is sent by an up-link 214' of the Bluetooth wireless link employed to transmit signal 210 to host 218.

For example, in the present embodiment feedback is in the form of audio information that is communicated to user 102 via on-board resources 264 that include speakers 138 (see Fig. 4A). Specifically, application 216 uses speakers 138 to send the following audio information to user 102 at time $t_{0}$ in response to the recovered absolute pose of phone 104: "You are pointing off-screen. Please indicate the product you want to find out about by pointing at it".

At time $t_{1}$, interface 212 once again repeats steps 234 through 248 (see flow diagram of Fig. 12) to recover the absolute pose of phone 104 in world coordinates $\left(X_{W}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ and send it to application 216. The time elapsed between time $t_{0}$ and $t_{1}$, also sometimes expressed in terms of frame rate by those skilled in the art, may either be dynamically controlled by application 216 or it may be pre-set.

When user 102 moves phone 104 rapidly and interface 212 requires accurate absolute pose information so that application 216 runs properly, the time between time $t_{0}$ and $t_{1}$ should be kept short. Put another way, a high frame rate is required to accurately capture absolute pose of phone 104 when user 102 is moving phone 104 quickly. In fact, images of screen $\mathbf{1 2 8}^{\prime}$ may need to be captured and processed without significant latency at frame rates approaching 100 Hz or even 200 Hz in such situations. Note that a correspondingly short exposure time $t_{e}$ needs to be chosen at such high frame rates to permit sufficient time between capturing radiation 130 for each frame.

On the other hand, much slower frame rates, e.g., on the order of 10 Hz , may be sufficient when user 102 is not moving phone 104 quickly. To optimize the on-board resources of phone 104 and to not overload its processors, it is thus preferable to dynamically adjust the frame rate according to the motion of phone 104. When phone 104 moves slowly, a frame rate of near 10 Hz is selected, while at extremely fast speeds a frame rate in excess of 100 Hz is chosen.

In the present case, frame rate is initially set to 10 Hz at time $\mathrm{t}_{0}$. Therefore, the time elapsed between $t_{0}$ and $t_{1}$ is $1 / 10^{\text {th }}$ of $a$ second. At time $t_{1}$ the absolute pose of phone 104 is significantly different than it was at time $t_{0}$. Indeed, the absolute pose at time $t_{1}$ corresponds to user 102 holding phone 104 in his/her right hand 102' as shown in Fig. 1A. It is clear from comparing image 230B obtained by on-board camera 144 at time $t_{1}$ to image 230A obtained at time $t_{0}$, that optical axis 150 now does intersect the surface of screen 128, as center of image 162 is within edges $132 \mathrm{~A}-\mathrm{D}$ of screen 128. As a result, application 216 instructs cursor control 256 to draw feedback cursor 228 at the intersection of optical axis 150 and the surface of screen 128, so that user 102 can see where he/she is pointing phone 104.

In addition, application 216 instructs feedback module 262 at time $t_{1}$ to generate and send additional feedback to user 102 . This time the feedback is in the form of tactile or haptic information communicated to on-board resources 264 of phone 104 by communication link 214'. The haptic information is a fast vibration of phone 104 achieved by deploying its on-board vibrator resource (not shown).

In the manner described above, camera 144 of interface 212 captures successive images 230C-G at times $t_{2}, t_{3}, t_{4}, t_{5}$ and $t_{6}$. Note that at time $t_{5}$ user 102 is holding phone 104 in left hand 102'' as previously shown in Fig. 1B. At times $t_{3}$ and $t_{4}$ optical axis 150 once again does not intersect screen 128. Hence, application 216 again uses speakers 138 to send the following audio information to user 102 at times $t_{3}$ and $t_{4}$ in response to the absolute pose of phone 104: "You are pointing off-screen. Please indicate the product you want to find out about by pointing at it".

At time $t_{5}$ user 102 has manipulated phone 104 into an absolute pose in which optical axis 150 intersect screen 128 at the location of product 226. In response, application 216 instructs cursor control 256 to draw feedback cursor 228 on top of displayed product 226. In
addition, application 216 generates visual feedback via feedback module 262 and sends it to on-board resources 264 of phone 104. The visual feedback is displayed on screen 136 of phone 104 and communicates the attributes of product 226 to user 102. For example, the attributes include information such as: price, size, material, make, satisfaction, quality report, special features, number of facebook friends who have purchased same product, most recent tweet about product, etc. Of course, the feedback may be supplied in audio format and use speakers 138 to communicate the same information to user 102.

User 102 may depress a corresponding selection button 142B at time $t_{5}$, while pointing at product 226 as shown in Fig. 10, to communicate to application 216 that he/she wishes to purchase product 226. Application 216 generates the corresponding signal indicating user's 102 purchase decision 266 and submits it for processing in any manner known to those skilled in the art of on-line sales. Preferably, purchase decision 266 is made by a single depression of selection button 142B, thus making it a "one-click" transaction. In fact, any compatible "one-click" shopping technique can be applied in interface 212. Feedback including visual and/or audio information congratulating user 102 on his/her purchase may be issued by application 216 via feedback module 262.

At time $t_{6}$, user 102, having purchased product 226, moves far away from screen 128. This is apparent from image 230G in Fig. 11, where the size of screen image $\mathbf{1 2 8}^{\prime}$ subtends only a small fraction of field-of-view 148. At this time, user 102 presses still another selection button 142 (not specifically indicated herein) to instruct interface 212 to issue a stop command 268 to application 216. Stop command 268 terminates application 216, turns off camera 144 and places interface 212 on stand-by or turns it off completely.

At this point, we understand a basic embodiment of interface 212 and its method of operation. However, in the implementation described so
far, interface 212 did not take full advantage of the six degrees of freedom of phone 104. Those are the absolute pose parameters $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}\right)$ in Cartesian world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) that were set up to parameterize frame 134 of environment 100. Moreover, all data pertaining to absolute pose of phone 104 in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$, i.e., absolute pose parameters ( $\left.X_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}\right)$ were even discarded.

To take advantage of the full set of absolute pose parameters that interface 212 can recover at successive times, it is necessary to gain a still deeper appreciation of trajectory 114 of phone 104 and conventions used to describe it. Fig. 13 illustrates in more detail phone 104 and trajectory 114 traversed between time $t_{0}$ and $t_{5}$ by its center of mass C.O.M. 110. In the convention used herein, the motion of the rigid body of interest, namely of phone 104, consists of translations and rotations.

In particular, the position and orientation of phone 104, i.e., its absolute pose A.P. at any time $t>t_{0}$ is completely characterized by the position of its C.O.M. 110 and by the rotation matrix $\mathbf{R} \in S O(3)$ (special orthogonal matrix in 3D) that describes the rotational state of any point in its body coordinates $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ in the stable frame of our choice. As already noted above, we have two frame choices, namely frame 106 described by stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) and frame 134 described by world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ). The corresponding equations in frames 106 and 134 respectively are:

$$
\begin{align*}
& A \cdot P \cdot s(t)=\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{s}}(\mathrm{t}) \mathbf{O}_{\mathrm{b}}+\mathbf{r}_{\mathrm{s}}(\mathrm{t})  \tag{1A}\\
& \mathrm{A} \cdot \mathrm{P} \cdot \mathrm{w}(\mathrm{t})=\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{w}}(\mathrm{t}) \mathbf{O}_{\mathrm{b}}+\boldsymbol{r}_{\mathrm{w}}(\mathrm{t}) \tag{1B}
\end{align*}
$$

In these equations, we are using the notation conventions introduced above and in which A.P. (t) denotes time-dependent absolute pose of phone 104. Uppercase bold letters denote matrices, lowercase boldface letters denote vectors and subscripts refer to the reference frames in which the quantities are expressed. We have chosen to
demonstrate the effect of the rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}$ on vector $\mathbf{o}_{b}$ expressing the offset from C.O.M. 110 to point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ of camera 144 residing on-board phone 104 . The reason for this choice is because point-of-view $\mathcal{P}$ is a point of special interest on phone 104 as it is the vantage point from which the pose recovery algorithms recover camera pose.

The operation of a matrix on a vector produces another vector. We use two subscripts to denote the result. Therefore, in Eq. 1A the result of applying rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{s}(t)$ to vector $\mathbf{o}_{b}$ is vector $\mathbf{o}_{\mathrm{sb}}$. We thus know that the resulting vector is expressed after rotation from the vantage point of stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ). Similar logic applies to Eq. 1B that yields $\mathbf{o}_{w b}$.

In general, rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{s}$ incorporates all three rotations ( $\alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}$ ) previously introduced in Figs. 3A-D. The individual rotations can be expressed by the components of rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{s}$ around the body axes $Z_{b}, Y_{b}$ and $X_{b}$ starting with the body axes being aligned with the axes of the frame being used, in this case axes $X_{s}$, $Y_{s}$ and $Z_{s}$ of frame 106, as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R_{z b}\left(\alpha_{s b}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos \alpha_{s b} & -\sin \alpha_{s b} & 0 \\
\sin \alpha_{s b} & \cos \alpha_{s b} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \\
& R_{x b}\left(\beta_{s b}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \cos \beta_{s b} & -\sin \beta_{s b} \\
0 & \sin \beta_{s b} & \cos \beta_{s b}
\end{array}\right) \\
& R_{y b}\left(\gamma_{s b}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos \gamma_{s b} & 0 & \sin \gamma_{s b} \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
-\sin \gamma_{s b} & 0 & \cos \gamma_{s b}
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The complete rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{s}$ is obtained by simply multiplying the above individual rotation matrices in the order of the convention. In other words, $\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{s}}=\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{yb}}\left(\gamma_{\mathrm{sb}}\right) \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{xb}}\left(\boldsymbol{\beta}_{\mathrm{sb}}\right) \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{zb}}\left(\alpha_{\mathrm{sb}}\right)$. It should be noted that
rotation matrices are always square and have real-valued elements. Algebraically, a rotation matrix in 3-dimensions is a $3 x 3$ special orthogonal matrix (SO(3)) whose determinant is 1 and whose transpose is equal to its inverse:

$$
\mathbf{R}^{\mathrm{T}}=\mathbf{R}^{-1} ; \operatorname{det}(\mathbf{R})=1, \quad \text { Eq. } 3
$$

where superscript $T$ indicates the transpose matrix and superscript -1 indicates the inverse matrix.

Having properly defined rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{s}$ and its behavior, we return to Fig. 13. Note first that the same rotation convention may be used to define the relative orientation of world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) to stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ by a rotation matrix. Also, we can define the rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{w}}$ that describes rotation angles $\left(\alpha_{\mathrm{wb}}, \beta_{\mathrm{wb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}\right)$ from the point of view of world coordinates $\left(\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{w}}\right)$ of frame 134. To recover trajectory 114 between any two absolute poses in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ we thus need to use Eq. 1A with rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{s}$ as described above. To recover trajectory 114 between any two absolute poses in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ we use Eq. 1 B with rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{w}}$.

In the present embodiment, trajectory 114 between A.P.s $\left(t_{i}\right)$ and A.P.s $\left(t_{j}\right)$ is recovered by having camera pose recovery algorithm in step 246 executed by unit 204 first account for rotations and then for translations. In other words, the algorithm first recovers the absolute orientation of phone 104 as expressed by matrix $\mathbf{R}_{s}\left(t_{i}\right)$ in terms of the three rotation angles or the computer vision mathematical equivalent. The algorithm then computes the translation vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{s}\left(t_{i}\right)$. The same approach is taken in computing A.P.w $\left(t_{i}\right)$ and A.P.w $\left(t_{j}\right)$ to describe trajectory 114 in world coordinates. Alternatively, vector $\mathbf{d}_{\mathrm{s}}$ and the rotation matrix between the two coordinate systems $\mathbf{R}_{s w}$ is used to calculate A.P.w $\left(t_{i}\right)$ and A.P.w( $t_{j}$ ) from A.P.s $\left(t_{i}\right)$ and A.P.s $\left(t_{j}\right)$.

It is important to note that other conventions are possible. These will also recover trajectory 114 in stable and world coordinates. However, the exact description will differ. Therefore, once a trajectory convention is selected for interface 212 it is best to enforce it throughout.

Unit 204 of interface 212 provides complete absolute pose descriptions A.P.w $\left(t_{0}\right)$, ... A.P.w $\left(t_{i}\right)$, A.P.w $\left(t_{j}\right), \ldots, A . P \cdot{ }_{w}\left(t_{5}\right)$ at the corresponding times $t_{0}, \ldots, t_{i}, t_{j}, \ldots, t_{5}$ in signal 210, which is proportional to all of the six degrees of freedom described by the absolute poses. Thus, application 216 has sufficient information to recover trajectory 114 of C.O.M. 110 of phone 104 along with the orientation of phone 104 at those times. In the present embodiment, application 216 uses the pose information just to draw feedback cursor 228 at the location where optical axis 150 of optic 146 happens to intersect the plane of screen 128 at the time of pose measurement.

With the aid of offset vector $O_{b}$ between C.O.M. 110 and point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ of camera 144, Fig. 13 illustrates trajectory 114 of C.O.M. 110 alongside trajectory 114 ' of point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$. During the time between $t_{0}$ and $t_{5}$ vector $\mathbf{o}_{b}$ executes $a$ complex motion about C.O.M. 110 due to changes in the absolute pose of phone 104. At time $t_{0}$ point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ is to the right of C.O.M. 110 and optical axis 150 extending from point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ does not even intersect screen 128. As phone 104 is moved by user 102, optical axis 150 finally intersects screen 128 at point $x_{a 1}$ expressed in application coordinates ( $X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}$ ).

Once optical axis 150 intersects screen 128, application 126 draws feedback cursor 228 at that intersection point. In addition, application 126 draws a trajectory 270 on screen 128 to indicate the 2D trace traversed by cursor 228. Trajectory 270 is 2D since it is a projection from 3D space of environment 100 into 2D space of screen
128. Since screen 128 is co-planar with plane $X_{a}-Y_{a}$ of application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$ that parameterize digital three-dimensional environment 252, trajectory 270 is expressed by coordinates ( $x_{a}, y_{a}$ ) (or, more strictly ( $X_{a}, y_{a}, 0$ ), since $z_{a}=0$ in plane $X_{a}-Y_{a}$ ).

Of course, trajectory 270 has to be interpolated between the times at which the sequence of absolute poses of phone 104 is recovered by unit 204. The higher the frame rate of camera 144 the more absolute poses can be recovered between time $t_{0}$ and $t_{5}$. Correspondingly, more intersection points between screen 128 and optical axis 150 can be computed to thus improve the interpolation of trajectory 270 . As mentioned above, for rapid motion a frame rate in excess of 100 Hz is desirable.

At times when optical axis 150 is not intersecting screen 128 , application 216 does not generate optical user feedback on screen 128. In other words, cursor 228 is absent at those times. This, however, does not mean that information derived from the absolute poses of phone 104 is not useful during those periods. For example, as seen in Fig. 13, between points $\mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{a} 2}$ and $\mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{a} 3}$ optical axis 150 is once again off screen 128. If application 216 could draw cursor 228, it would be a phantom cursor $228^{\prime}$ located along trajectory 270 extending onto wall 108.

Of course, in the present configuration application 216 cannot draw outside its own screen 128 on wall 108. However, since application 216 still knows where phone 104 is being pointed (unit 204 keeps providing it with the full absolute pose information in signal 210), it may indicate to user 102 how to move phone 104 to bring cursor 228 back on screen 128. In some embodiments, the location of phantom cursor 228' could be displayed to user 102 with information that it is off-screen or its distance from screen 128 could be indicated by an audio feedback. Application 216 can in fact do much more with the absolute pose information of phone 104. That is because, in accordance with the invention, signal 210 is proportional to all six
degrees of freedom parameterized by A.P.(t) $=\left(x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}\right)$ in this embodiment.

To understand the capability of fully parameterized interface 212, we refer now to Fig. 14. This isometric diagram illustrates how C.O.M. 110 trajectory 114 and point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ trajectory 114' are represented internally by application 216 in its application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$. Note that in this case, application 216 sets the origin of its application coordinates ( $X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}$ ) in the lower left back corner of the volume corresponding to digital three-dimensional environment 252. Of course, if screen 128 were a volumetric 3D display, application 216 could display trajectories 114, 114' to user 102 in a one-to-one or in a scaled format (e.g., 1:4). Indeed, even a non-3D display can be used to represent 3 D information with appropriate calibration known to those skilled in video arts (e.g., illustrating trajectories 114, 114' in a perspective view).

Application 216 receives a succession of absolute poses of phone 104 from signal 210. For the sake of simplicity, Fig. 14 only shows the successive positions of C.O.M. 110 and of point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ along with offset vector $\mathbf{o}_{b}$, rather than showing the entire phone 104 it its successive absolute poses. The absolute poses of phone 104 are measured at a constant frame rate. Therefore, the successive positions of C.O.M. 110 and point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ are spaced equally in time. However, explicit reference to time has been dropped in this drawing figure for the sake of clarity. Furthermore, trajectories 114 and 114' drawn in real three-dimensional environment 100 correspond to those actually executed by phone $\mathbf{1 0 4}$ due to manipulation by user 102 (actual quantities rather than measured and interpolated data).

The values of pose parameters in signal 210 in the present embodiment are mapped one-to-one to all six degrees of freedom of phone 104.

Thus, application 216 receives signal 210 containing data about the six degrees of freedom at equal time intervals set by the frame rate.

Since it is difficult to show the orientation portion of absolute pose, we will use a different way to help visualize this information. To do this, we show how the absolute pose A.P. information contained in signal 210 is used. To do this, we pick two points namely the positions of C.O.M. 110 and point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ at equal time intervals in world coordinates. These two points define between them a vector $\mathbf{O}_{\mathrm{bw}}$, which is related to the original offset vector $\mathbf{o}_{\mathrm{b}}$ that is fixed in body frame 112. Vector $\mathbf{o}_{b w}$ is obtained by transforming offset vector $\mathbf{o}_{\mathrm{b}}$ with the aid of vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{\mathrm{w}}$ and rotation angles $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\mathrm{wb}}, \boldsymbol{\beta}_{\mathrm{wb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}$. In other words, the absolute pose A.P. (t) $=\left(x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}\right)$ recovered and supplied in signal 210 at the corresponding time is used to compute vector $\mathbf{O}_{\text {bw }}$ from vector $\mathbf{O}_{b}$.

In addition, to showing vector $\mathbf{O}_{\text {bw }}$, we indicate the direction of optical axis 150. As shown, application 216 keeps track of it with a corresponding vector 275 extending from point $\mathbf{2 7 4}$ that represents point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ in application coordinates ( $X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}$ ). For visualization purposes it is only the direction of optical axis 150 that we are interested in, rather than the magnitude of the vector representing optical axis $\mathbf{1 5 0}$ to the point at which it intersects screen 128. In this way we can simplify our example. To accomplish this, we introduce a unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{w}}$ along optical axis 150 .

A unit vector is defined to be a vector whose length is 1 (unit length) and is commonly denoted by a "hat". Differently put, a unit vector is a normalized vector that is particularly useful in defining a direction in space without carrying with it information about the magnitude along that direction. The method for extracting directional information from any vector $\mathbf{v}$ and converting it to a unit vector $\hat{v}$ is given by the following equation:

$$
\hat{v}=\frac{v}{\|v\|}, \quad \text { Eq. } 4
$$

where $\|v\|$ is the norm or length of the vector (usually computed by employing the Pythagorean Theorem). In fact, when working in any basis, such as our Cartesian stable, world, body and application coordinates, introduced thus far, we may use the unit vector representation of that basis to more efficiently indicate directions. In particular, the convention for defining a cartesian coordinate system by unit vectors is usually as follows:

$$
\hat{i}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right] ; \quad \hat{j}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right] ; \quad \hat{k}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right] . \quad \text { Eq. } 5
$$

The use of unit vectors is extensive in coordinate transformations, such as those explained in supporting literature.

The absolute pose information carried in signal 210 is thus visualized by how vector $\mathbf{o}_{\mathrm{b}}$ transforms into vector $\mathbf{O}_{\mathrm{bw}}$. All six degrees of freedom are employed in this transformation, which is therefore indicative of the complete absolute pose information recovered by interface 212 and contained in signal 210.

Application 216 shows vector $O_{b w}$ in its own application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$, where this vector is mapped to vector $\mathbf{o}_{b a}$. In the same vein, unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{w}}$ is mapped to unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{a}}$ in application coordinates along optical axis 275. The nature of the mapping employed is discussed below.

Note that in the present embodiment, application 216 keeps track of the absolute pose of phone 104 even outside of its three-dimensional digital environment 252. This is reminiscent of the previous case, when application 216 could use only the portion of plane $X_{a}-Y_{a}$ that corresponded to screen 128 as its two-dimensional digital environment
252. In that case, application 216 could only draw feedback cursor 218 at the intersection of optical axis 150 of phone 104 with its screen 128. Nevertheless, application 216 knew where optical axis 150 intersected plane $X_{a}-Y_{a}$ and could provide other kinds of feedback (e.g., audio, tactile/haptic, etc.) to user 102.

Similarly, in the present case, application 216 keeps track of the absolute pose of phone 104 even when that absolute pose is not within the volume of its three-dimensional digital environment 252. The limiting factor here is the ability of camera 144 to recover the absolute pose of phone 104. If camera 144 can no longer see a sufficient number of non-collinear optical inputs (here edges 132A-D and marking 129), then the absolute pose of phone 104 cannot be recovered unambiguously. This is usually because camera 144 is too far away or turned at too steep an angle for edges 132A-D and marking 129 to be within its field-of-view 148. In other cases, camera 144 might not see a sufficient number of non-collinear optical inputs to recover absolute unambiguously pose due to occlusions and other causes interfering with line-of-sight.

The above bring us to an important aspect of the present invention pertaining to the subject of mapping. What the present application addresses is how to map between the one or more pose parameters contained in signal 210 and the six degrees of freedom. In simple cases, including the present embodiment, the parameterization used to define the six degrees of freedom is the same as the convention in which the one or more, and in this case all six, pose parameters are parameterized and reported in signal 210 . This shared parameterization makes it easier to explain the mapping and the associated issues.

It is important to stress, however, that the parameterizations of the six degrees of freedom and the description of the one or more pose parameters to which signal 210 is related do not need to be the same. For example, the rigid body motion of phone 104 could be
parameterized with Cartesian coordinates (or even cylindrical or spherical coordinates) and Euler angles that employ body coordinates (also sometimes referred to as object coordinates), while the camera pose recovery could use robotic vision parameterization such as surface normal $n$ to screen 128 (which is collinear with the world coordinate axis $Z_{w}$ in the present embodiment; see Fig. 14) and $a$ quaternion to report the one or more pose parameters in signal 210. A person skilled in the art will realize that since all descriptions share the same geometrical basis of rigid body motion in 3D space, they are mathematically equivalent. Of course, a skilled artisan will also realize that the best choice of parameterization is made based on environment 100, application 216, interface 212 and other factors.

We return now to Fig. 14, to discuss the issues of mapping of absolute pose parameters ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{w}}, \alpha_{\mathrm{wb}}, \beta_{\mathrm{wb}}, \gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}$ ) contained in signal 210 to the six degrees of freedom of phone 104 parameterized in the same manner. As already noted, the absolute pose parameters to which signal 210 is directly proportional are reported at regular time intervals (set by the frame rate of camera 144). They are visualized with the aid of points 272, 274, or the transformation of offset vector $\mathbf{o}_{\mathrm{b}}$ to vector $\mathbf{o}_{\mathrm{bw}}$ and its mapping to vector $\mathbf{o}_{\mathrm{b}}$, and the mapping of unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{w}}$ to unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{a}}$. Application 216 thus has available to it all the data required to plot points 272, 274 and unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{a}}$ in its virtual or digital 3 D environment 252 in a one-to-one relationship to real 3D environment 100.

In most cases, however, digital 3D environment 252 is either bigger or smaller than real 3 D environment 100 in which phone 104 resides. In other words, the direct mapping of real 3D environment 100 to digital 3D environment 252 is rarely 1:1. Thus, re-plotting actual positions of points 272, 274 and unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{a}}$ in a one-to-one mapping is usually not feasible. Therefore, it is convenient for the
mapping to comprise a scaling in at least one among the three translational and the three rotational degrees of freedom.

In the case of interface 212, all three translational degrees of freedom are scaled 1:4 (note that Fig. 14 is not showing the actual 1:4 scaling exactly for reasons of clarity). In other words, the values of ( $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{w}}$ ) (or, equivalently, vector $\boldsymbol{r}_{\mathrm{w}}$ ) are scaled 1:4 in the mapping so that the corresponding application values ( $\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{a}}$ ) expressed in application coordinates ( $X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}$ ) are just one fourth of the values of $\left(x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}\right)$. Also note that since the origins and orientations of world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ and application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$ are not the same, a corresponding coordinate transformation has to be applied between them to correctly translate between ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{w}}$ ) and ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{z}_{\mathrm{a}}$ ).

Interface 212 does not use a mapping that scales or in some other way alters any of the three rotational degrees of freedom. That is because application 216 is designed to work with vector $\mathbf{O}_{\mathrm{ba}}$ (between points 272, 274) that corresponds to transformed and scaled but otherwise undistorted offset vector $\mathbf{O b}_{\text {bw }}$ between C.O.M. 110 and point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$. If offset vector $O_{b a}$ were distorted due to scaling in any of the rotational degrees of freedom, than the rotations executed by user 102 in real 3D space of environment 100 would not correspond to those recovered in application 216. For example, a full twist or rotation by $360^{\circ}(2 \pi)$ in angle $\alpha_{w b}, \beta_{\mathrm{wb}}$ or $\gamma_{\mathrm{wb}}$ would not correspond to a complete twist or rotation by the corresponding angle in application coordinates ( $X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}$ ) as interpreted in application 216. Of course, in some cases scaling of one or more of the three rotational degrees of freedom may be useful.

Based on signal 210 periodically reporting the full absolute pose as visualized by vector $\mathbf{O}_{\mathrm{bw}}$ and unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{w}}$, application 216 recovers corresponding vector $\mathbf{o}_{\mathrm{ba}}$ between points 272, 274 and unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{a}}$ in its digital 3D environment 252. The result is a time series of
vectors $\mathbf{o}_{\text {ba }}$ that define points along recovered trajectories 278, 278' and a series of unit vectors $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{a}}$. Trajectories 278, 278' correspond to actual trajectories 114, 114' to the extent that application 216 is able to interpolate between the successive values of vector $\mathbf{O}_{\mathrm{bw}}$ in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$. A person skilled in the art will recognize that simple interpolation between successive vectors obw can be performed naively, i.e., by simple curve fitting. This may be practicable when the frame rate is high, e.g., on the order of 100 Hz or higher. However, at lower frame rates interpolation quality can be improved by additional analysis of the data from signal 210.

A temporal series or a time sequence of pose data containing the six degrees of freedom can be further processed to derive other quantities. These quantities may include, for example, first- and higher-order time derivatives of the translational and rotational degrees of freedom. Therefore, given a sufficient number of vectors Obw, application 216 can start computing reliable values of first and second order time derivatives of linear displacements (i.e., $\frac{d x_{w}}{d t}, \frac{d y_{w}}{d t}, \frac{d z_{w}}{d t}$ and $\left.\frac{d^{2} x_{w}}{d t^{2}}, \frac{d^{2} y_{w}}{d t^{2}}, \frac{d^{2} z_{w}}{d t^{2}}\right)$. These quantities can be used to construct vectors that describe the linear velocities and accelerations of C.O.M. 110, denoted by $\mathbf{v}_{\text {C.o.m. }}(t)$ and point-of-view $\boldsymbol{p}$, denoted by $\mathbf{v}_{\text {с.о.м. }}(t), \mathbf{a}_{\text {с.о.м. }}(t)$ and $\mathbf{v}_{\mathcal{P}}(t), \mathbf{a}_{\mathcal{P}}(t)$, respectively.

The same procedure can be applied to the rotational degrees of freedom to find angular velocities (commonly denoted by $\omega_{q}$ with subscript "q" indicating the axis around which the rotation is taking place) and angular accelerations $\left(\frac{d \omega}{d t}\right)$. A person skilled in the art will appreciate that when dealing with angular quantities, the axes around which the angular velocities and accelerations are computed need to be properly defined just as in the case of the rotation convention. For example, to keep matters simple the rotations can be defined along body coordinate axes $\left(X_{b}, Y_{b}, Z_{b}\right)$ of phone 104. With that
choice, the angular quantities can be: $\omega_{z b}, \omega_{y b}, \omega_{x b}$ and $\frac{d \omega_{z b}}{d t}, \frac{d \omega_{y b}}{d t}, \frac{d \omega_{x b}}{d t}$. It should, be understood that the rotations do not need to be defined in the same convention as the 3 D rotation convention of phone 104 in body coordinates ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{b}}$ ).

Once the linear and angular velocities and accelerations are computed, application 216 can employ them in any useful manner. For example, the values of these derived quantities may be used as additional input in application 216 including gesture input, control input or just plain data input. Also, in some embodiments, application 216 can suggest the most appropriate frame rate for camera 144 based on linear velocities and accelerations as well as angular velocities and accelerations to avoid motion blur and/or to improve accuracy and performance of interface 212.

Even with scaling, portions of recovered trajectories 278, 278' are still outside digital 3 D environment 252. Location 280 shows where trajectories 278, 278' enter into digital environment 252. Location 282 shows where trajectories 278, 278' again leave environment 252. Therefore, when environment 252 coincides with the volume in which visual display to user 102 can be generated, the portions of recovered trajectories 278, 278' outside digital environment 252 cannot be visualized to user 102. However, other feedback, including visual, audio, tactile/haptic, etc. may still be provided to user 102 as a function of trajectories 278, 278' lying outside digital environment 252. Another alternative in non-linear scaling (e.g., logarithmic) to effectively compress virtual trajectories to stay bounded with the physical dimensions of the display.

In the present embodiment, the three translational degrees of freedom available to phone 104 are conveniently parameterized by Cartesian coordinate axes $X_{W}, Y_{w}$ and $Z_{w}$. Of these, two translational degrees of freedom, namely those parameterized by $X_{w}$ and $Y_{w}$ axes define a plane in environment 100. This plane is plane-parallel, and indeed co-
planar with display screen 128. The reason this is advantageous is that user motion in any plane that is plane-parallel with screen 128 is easily translated to motion in the plane of screen 128. Hence this motion can be used directly to drive corresponding user feedback, such as generating motion of cursor 228, producing a trace (e.g., digital ink) or drawing some other place-holder indicating the position of C.O.M. 110 of phone 104 in application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$.

Fig. 15 illustrates the above point with a further mapping by projection from digital 3D environment 252 into 2D subspaces. In the case shown, the 2 D subspace is a plane $X_{a}-Y_{a}$ defined in application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$. Plane $X_{a}-Y_{a}$ is plane parallel to plane $X_{w}-Y_{w}$ and thus to screen 128. In this projection, information about $Z_{a}$ recovered trajectories $\mathbf{2 7 8}$, 278' in the $Z_{w}$ axis (corresponding to $Z_{a}$ axis) is discarded. Incidentally, so it the $Z_{w}$ axis component of unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{w}}$ (corresponding to $Z_{a}$-axis of unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{a}}$ ). The projected 2D trajectories 278A, 278A' and the 2D points 272A, 274A corresponding to projections of 3 p points 272, 274 are very useful in certain embodiments of application 216. Specifically, for actions in which only information in the plane of screen 128 is required as input, 2D trajectories 278A, 278A' and 2D points 272A, 274A offer all the required information to generate user input.

A similar approach can be taken to obtain user input information from projections of 3 D trajectories into 2 D planes $X_{w}-Z_{w}, \quad Y_{w}-Z_{w}$ corresponding to planes $X_{a}-Z_{a}, Y_{a}-Z_{a}$ in application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$. It is instructive to note that the 2D projections still contain a lot of information about the absolute pose of phone 104. Indeed, even projections of certain degrees of freedom into 1D subspaces, i.e., their projections onto lines, may be sufficient to provide meaningful input data for application 216.

Now, a mapping exists between the one or more absolute pose parameters to which signal 210 is related and at least one of the six degrees of freedom of phone 104. Given the above examples of 3D to 2D projections we are ready to gain a better appreciation for the kinds of mappings that can be performed in principle, and those that may be particularly useful in a preferred implementation of the interface.

A mapping is a rule or set of rules of correspondence or relation between sets, that associate(s) each element in a set (also called the domain) with a unique element in the same or another set (also called the range). Any type of mapping including many-to-one (e.g., projections into lower-dimensional subspaces) and one-to-many (e.g., duplication of some elements into higher-dimensional subspaces) can be used in the present invention. For the purposes of the present description, we define the first set to contain between one and six degrees of freedom available to phone 104 in 3D environment 100. We define the second set to contain the one or more absolute pose parameters to which signal 210 is related (e.g., by being directly proportional to them).

In the present embodiment, Fig. 14 shows a one-to-one and proportional mapping between these two sets. The parameterization is full, and thus all six degrees of freedom in the first set are mapped to the second set. In addition, of the six degrees of freedom in the first set, the three translational degrees of freedom are mapped with a concurrent 1:4 scaling factor to the corresponding three absolute pose parameters $\left(X_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}\right)$ corresponding to these translational degrees of freedom in signal 210. The rotational degrees of freedom in the first set are mapped one-to-one without scaling to the corresponding three absolute pose parameters ( $\alpha_{b w}, \beta_{b w}, \gamma_{b w}$ ) corresponding to these rotational degrees of freedom in signal 210.

It is important to realize that the mapping can be applied anywhere in interface 212. In other words, although in the present embodiment
the mapping is performed on-board phone 104 by image processing electronics 156 during step 248 (see Fig. 12), it could also be performed elsewhere. For example, the mapping of the data in signal 210 could be carried out in host 218 either by application 216 or by other processing resources. In fact, the mappings of absolute pose parameters defined in world coordinates by signal 210 through projection into planes $X_{a}-Y_{a}, X_{a}-Z_{a}, Y_{a}-Z_{a}$ in application 216 is also a permissible mapping. Clearly, the concept of mapping is very powerful and useful in generating user input in 3D interfaces.

Referring back to Fig. 15, we examine a useful mapping for representing the rotational degrees of freedom of phone 104 in application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$. In particular, Fig. $\mathbf{1 5}$ shows unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{w}}$ fully recovered as vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{a}}$ in digital 3 D environment 252 of application 216. Now, unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{a}}$ is mapped by projection along the $Z_{a}$ axis only, as shown in the lower left block 279. Of course, such projection is generally not going to preserve the unit norm of a unit vector (unless the dot product of unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{a}$ with the basis vector $\hat{k}$ for the $Z_{a}$ axis as defined above is equal to one). Therefore, such projection of unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathrm{a}}$ is designated by $\mathbf{u}_{a}$ without the "hat" to indicate that it may vary in magnitude. Furthermore, the projection of unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{a}$ is time-dependent, so that $\mathbf{u}_{a}=\mathbf{u}_{a}(t)$. Block 279 illustrates the projection of unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{a}$ at times $t_{0}$ and $t_{1}$, or $\mathbf{u}_{a}\left(t_{0}\right)$ and $\mathbf{u}_{a}\left(t_{1}\right)$. Clearly, the projection of the rotational state of phone 104 about world axis $Z_{w}$ and thus around axis $Z_{a}$ changes during that time period. We can ascertain this by looking back at Fig. 13 or Fig. 14. To keep track of the change in time, application 216 computes an angular velocity $\omega_{z a}$ of vector $\mathbf{u}_{\mathrm{a}}(t)$ about axis $\mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{a}}$.

In fact, similar mappings can be applied to break down the rotational degrees of freedom around any one or more axes in world coordinates and application coordinates. In the art, such projections are given different names, including "pan angles", "attitude angles", "tilt
angles" and still other names. Clearly, the mapping of the three rotational degrees of freedom can recover any such angle or combinations thereof for use as input to application 216. Furthermore, in order to adjust angular sensitivity, the mapping may include scaling of any of the three rotational degrees of freedom.

The above embodiments have been disclosed first, in order to present the foundations necessary for understanding the preferred embodiment shown in Fig. 16. Corresponding parts in this preferred implementation of an interface 300 are labeled with the same reference numerals as in prior embodiments for clarity. It will be appreciated by a person skilled in the art, however, that analogous parts or steps can be modified to suit the particular embodiment.

Fig. 16 shows item 104, which is once again embodied by a phone, in a real three-dimensional environment 302 on the surface of planet Earth 304. Environment 302 lies in the northern hemisphere and is shown along an expanded view indicated by dotted lines above Earth 304. Earth $\mathbf{3 0 4}$ is parameterized by Earth coordinates ( $X_{e}, Y_{e}, Z_{e}$ ) employing the Cartesian coordinate convention. The origin of Earth coordinates $\left(X_{e}, Y_{e}, Z_{e}\right)$ is located at the center of mass of the planet and oriented such that rotation of Earth 304 described by angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\text {e }}$ ( $2 \pi /$ day or $15^{\circ}$ /hour) is around axis $Z_{e}$.

Phone 104 has on-board camera 144 whose point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ is offset by vector $\mathbf{o}_{\mathrm{b}}$ from its C.O.M. 110, just as in the previous embodiments. The same body coordinates ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{b}}$ ) are employed in describing moving frame 112 of phone 104. In the present case, stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ of stable frame 106 within which the motion of phone 104 is measured are defined by a room 308, and their origin is located in upper corner $\mathbf{3 0 8}$. . It is important to note that as far as radiation 130 used by on-board camera 144 to recover the phone's 104 absolute pose is concerned, stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) parameterizing stable frame 106 in environment 302 and Earth coordinates ( $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{e}}, \mathrm{Z}_{\mathrm{e}}$ )
parameterizing Earth frame 304 are fixed with respect to each other (barring earthquakes or other natural disasters affecting room 308).

Interface 300 further includes a stationary object 310 having a screen 312 whose edges 313 embody a set of non-collinear optical inputs detectable via electromagnetic radiation $\mathbf{1 3 0}$. World coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) parameterizing world frame 134, or more precisely a gaming space in the present embodiment, are located in the upper left corner of screen 312. Axes $X_{w}$ and $Y_{w}$ of gaming space 134 define plane $X_{W}-Y_{w}$ that is co-planar with screen 312.

In contrast to previous embodiments in which the stationary object, namely television 126, did not move in stable frame 106, in the present embodiment object 310 may move from time to time, or even frequently. That is because object 310 is a small game console. Thus, displacement vector $\mathbf{d}_{s}$ from stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) parameterizing frame 106 to world coordinates ( $X_{W}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) defined by game console 310 is shown with an explicit dependence on time; $\mathbf{d}_{\mathrm{s}}=\mathbf{d}_{\mathrm{s}}(\mathrm{t})$. Additionally, note that rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{sw}}$ for performing the 3 D rotation that needs to be executed along with the addition of displacement vector $\mathbf{d}_{\mathrm{s}}(\mathrm{t})$ to complete the coordinate transformation between stable frame 106 and gaming frame 134 is also time dependent in this embodiment; $\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{SW}}=\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{SW}}(\mathrm{t})$.

Game console 310 has a selection unit or touch control 314 that is used for operating it. Touch control 314 is also used for as a feature for breaking the symmetry of screen 312 for unambiguous pose recovery. Console 310 may have additional controls as well as mechanisms (not shown) for placing it in an appropriate location in room 308.

In addition to camera 144, phone 104 is equipped with a relative motion sensor 316 offset from C.O.M, 110 by an offset vector $\mathbf{i}_{\mathrm{b}}$. Relative motion sensor 316 has the capability to produce data
indicative of a change in at least one among the six degrees of freedom of phone 104. In fact, in the present case, sensor 316 is a compound inertial sensor including gyroscopes and accelerometers. These devices are well-known in the art. They can sense rotations about, and translations along, three orthogonal axes $X_{i}, Y_{i}$ and $Z_{i}$ that define inertial sensor coordinates ( $X_{i}, Y_{i}, Z_{i}$ ) in an inertial sensor frame 318 that is attached to phone 104. The rotations that are sensed by the gyroscopes of motion sensor 316 are explicitly indicated by angular velocities $\omega_{\mathrm{xi}}, \omega_{\mathrm{yi}}$ and $\omega_{z i}$.

Inertial devices such as MEMS accelerometers and solid state gyroscopes do not interact with real 3 D environment 302 by detecting radiation 130. Instead, solid state gyroscopes are sensitive to rotational speeds and accelerometers are sensitive to acceleration and gravity effects.

More precisely, the accelerometers sense Earth 304 due to its gravity along a vector $\mathbf{e}_{i}$ between the given accelerometer and the center of the Earth (E.C.). Since phone 104 moves, vector $\mathbf{e}_{i}$ exhibits an explicit dependence on time; $\mathbf{e}_{\mathrm{i}}=\mathbf{e}_{\mathrm{i}}(\mathrm{t})$. In most practical applications, what one needs to consider is that the accelerometer senses the gravitational acceleration $\mathbf{a}_{g}$ in stable frame 106 of environment 302. In addition, the accelerometers are sensitive to the actual acceleration of phone 104 in frame 106. Thus, since the accelerometers are sensitive to the actual acceleration and the influence of acceleration due to gravity, it is necessary to subtract the influence of gravity. To do this, the accelerometers need to obtain an estimate of the orientation of phone 104. It is mainly due to the problems associated with pose estimation and gravitational acceleration that accelerometers drift in stable reference frame 106 or gaming frame 134 and only provide indication of relative motion by double integration.

Meanwhile, gyroscopes measure changes in the rotation of phone 104 about the axes of inertial coordinates ( $X_{i}, Y_{i}, Z_{i}$ ) of frame 318 due to noise and imperfect initial conditions (angular bias). The output of the solid state gyroscope has to be integrated to estimate orientation. As a result, a constant bias error causes an angular error that grows linearly with time. In addition, the integrated noise introduces errors with standard deviation proportional to the square root of time.

During operation of interface 300 the recovery of absolute pose of phone 104 based on images obtained with the aid of radiation 130 is performed as already described in the previous embodiments. However, because console 310 is not always stationary in room 308, signal 210 preferably includes absolute pose parameters ( $x_{w}, y_{w}, z_{w}, \alpha_{w b}, \beta_{w b}, \gamma_{w b}$ ) and $\left(X_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s b}, \beta_{s b}, \gamma_{s b}\right)$. In other words, absolute pose parameters in gaming coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ of gaming frame 134 and in stable coordinates ( $X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}$ ) of stable frame 106 of environment 302 are computed and reported in signal 210. As a result, game application 216 can keep track not only of where phone 104 is with respect to console 130, but also where they both are in environment 302, i.e., in room 308. This information may not be required for all game applications 216. However, any application 216 that involves an augmented reality that overlaps with environment 302 will typically require this additional data.

In addition, interface 300 also receives signals related to changes in the pose of phone 104 from motion sensor 316. Unfortunately, such relative pose data from motion sensor 316 is not calibrated with respect to either frame 106 or frame 134. Thus, it cannot be used directly to corroborate, replace or augment absolute pose data obtained through camera pose recovery in frames 106 and 134. Consequently, unless a simple "mouse-mode" or "relative pointing mode" is required for user input by gaming application 216, the relative pose data from motion sensor 316 is not very helpful.

The main advantage of motion sensor 316 is its speed, which may be between 100 Hz and 200 Hz or even higher. Meanwhile, operating camera 144 at such frame rates is very resource intensive and may further be limited by the available level of radiation 130. Simply put, at frame rates of 100 Hz and above the images recovered by camera 144 may be too dim to extract the non-collinear optical inputs 313 and 314 for algorithms of step 246 (see Fig. 12) to yield good camera pose recovery. In addition, processing image data at such rates is computationally intensive and requires a lot of on-board power.

Fortunately, the drift experienced by accelerometers and gyroscopes of motion sensor 316 is typically not significant over short time periods. Specifically, because of single integration and accumulation of errors the gyroscopes can provide good readings of rotations executed by phone $\mathbf{1 0 4}$ over periods of 10 sec or more. Double integration and errors due to imperfect cancellation of gravity due to errors in orientation estimates render accelerometers less robust. Their readings of changes in motion are reliable over periods of a few seconds. The constant bias error causes a position error that grows quadratically with time. Further, the integrated noise introduces errors with standard deviation proportional to time raised to the power of $3 / 2$. This is in addition to imperfect gravity cancellation.

The preferred embodiment takes advantage of the strengths of optical pose recovery with camera 144 and relative pose information from motion sensor 316. Specifically, absolute pose data from signal 210 is employed to periodically calibrate the gyroscopes and accelerometers of motion sensor 316. In performing the calibrations, the accelerometers should be calibrated, for example, once every $1-5$ sec and the gyroscopes should be calibrated, for example, once every $10-20 \mathrm{sec}$.

With this strategy, interface 300 can leverage the strength of motion sensor 316 to offset the weakness of camera 144. By operating camera 144 at a frame rate of just a few Hz or even less than 1 Hz , interface 300 can employ high-quality absolute pose parameters recovered in frames 106 and 134 to keep the accelerometers and gyroscopes calibrated in these frames. For very high-performance, the accelerometers can be calibrated about once every second and the gyroscopes about once every two seconds. Then, while camera 144 is off and not taxing on-board resources of phone 104 , motion sensor 316 can provide its relative pose information to supplement or even interpolate between absolute pose parameters reported by signal 210.

The relative pose data can be processed on-board phone 104 and submitted to host 310 along with signal 210. Alternatively, it can be processed separately and sent to host 310 on a dedicated channel for processing off-board. Furthermore, the relative pose data can be related to just one absolute pose parameter or more. In a fully parameterized interface $\mathbf{3 0 0}$, the relative pose data can be related to all six degrees of freedom. A person skilled in the art of sensor fusion will understand the various tradeoffs and optimizations involved in achieving the best performance with the least resource allocation and power consumption. Further information on this subject is provided by Oliver J. Woodman, "An Introduction to Inertial Navigation", Technical Report Number 696, University of Cambridge, August 2007.

In addition to the above, it is preferable to use data from motion sensor 316 to also stabilize camera 144. This is important at times when camera 144 cannot support a sufficiently short exposure time $t_{e}$, either due to rolling shutter, insufficient level of radiation 130, excessive angular movement by user 102 or other reasons. At such times, the data from sensor 316 should be sent to image processing electronics 156 to help remove motion blur from the image. Alternatively, or in addition, if lens 146 is adjustable, the data from motion sensor 316 can also be used to actively adjust lens 146
to avoid motion blur. Active and passive motion blur removal is a subject known to those skilled in the art. The reader is referred to literature in the field of optical image stabilization for further information.

To further decrease the resources dedicated to camera 144 and its power consumption, it is preferable to implement sparse imaging. In fact, the preferred embodiment relates to changes in the typical operation of row and column multiplexing blocks 192, 194 (see Fig. 9). The approach is referred to as sparse-imaging or selective imaging and it is illustrated in Fig. 17.

The plan view of photosensor 152 in Fig. 17 shows a preferred method of allocating pixels 190 for sparse imaging. It is based on the previous embodiment where the stationary object is television 126 with screen 128. Regions $\mathbf{3 2 0}$ of pixels 190 are not used in this embodiment. Instead, only selected rows and columns are activated by camera 144 to collect image data from radiation 130.

For example, every $5^{\text {th }}$ or even every $10^{\text {th }}$ row, and every $5^{\text {th }}$ or even every $10^{\text {th }}$ column of pixels 190 belonging to photosensor 152 are active. In addition, regions of interest around image 129' of marking 129 or around images of other features of interest (e.g., those that can further improve the quality of camera pose recovery) can include active pixels 190, as shown. In the present embodiment every $10^{\text {th }}$ row and every $10^{\text {th }}$ column of pixels 190 are active, thus drastically reducing the number of pixels 190 that need to be processed by image processing electronics 156. (Note that Fig. 17 does not show all pixels 190 and is merely illustrative of the sparse sampling concept.)

Non-collinear optical inputs 132A-D, 129 and therefore their images 132A'- $\mathbf{D}^{\prime}$, 129' are intrinsically high contrast. That is because edges 132A-D are the light-to-dark transitions between illuminated screen 128 and the mechanical frame of television 126. Marking 129
is usually a highly visible feature by manufacturing design, although its contrast may be lower. In an alternative embodiment, if marking 129 does not provide sufficient optical contrast, the non-collinear optical input for breaking the rectangle symmetry of screen 128 can be the power light typically embedded in the mechanical frame of television 126 or still some other high optical contrast feature attached to or integrated with television 126.

Sparse column and row imaging works well, because it is known that full images $132 A^{\prime}-D^{\prime}$ are lines. Thus, to reconstruct them, it is sufficient to detect a few of their line segments in the sparse image obtained only from active pixels 190. The same goes for image 129' with the additional simplification that image 129 does not need to be as high-quality since it is may be used for symmetry braking only.

Smart camera technology methods can be applied concurrently or in addition to sparse imaging to further simplify the image capture process and reduce resource allocation on-board phone 104. For example, when camera 144 is a modern smart camera, it may employ 12bit grayscale values in pixels 190 to support operation in lower light conditions or, alternatively, to shorten exposure time te and/or support an increase in frame rate. Additionally, smart camera 144 may support frame averaging, multiple regions of interest (MROIs) as well as localized brightness adjustment and application of various filtering functions.

As a person skilled in the art will realize, it would be advantageous to apply such image processing functions in sensor 152 rather than having to apply them after demultiplexing in image processing electronics 156. Furthermore, camera 144 can benefit from any number of the other improvements as well. For example, once images 132A'- $\mathbf{D}^{\prime}$ and 129' of edges 132A-D and marking 129 (representing the noncollinear features) are found in a first full frame image, camera 144 may set regions of interest around these images only. The margin around the images should be large enough to ensure that the
corresponding images do not move outside the region of interest from frame to frame. In this way, the number of pixels 190 needed to track images of the non-collinear optical inputs from frame to frame can be reduced still further than with simple column and row imaging.

The improved performance of interface $\mathbf{2 1 2}$ when phone $\mathbf{1 0 4}$ employs smart camera 144 and interpolates with motion sensor 316 can be leveraged for more involved applications. Fig. 18 illustrates in a three-dimensional diagram in which an embodiment of application 216' designed for gaming takes advantage of the preferred embodiment of interface 212 for a shooting game. Note that most of game application 216' in this embodiment runs on-board phone 104.

Specifically, game application 216' employs screen 136 of phone 104 not only for providing visual feedback to user 102, but also to enable additional interaction with user 102 via an interface 212'. Game application 216' of this variety is frequently referred to as a "mobile application" or simply an "app" by those skilled in the art. Such "apps" are typically written in JavaScript, C, C++ as well as many "app development" specific software languages. In the embodiment shown, interface 212' employs the touch-sensitive screen 136 to display a touch button 142C.

Game application 216' takes advantage of the volume parameterized by application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$ to display digital 3D application environment or gaming environment 252 to user 102. Note that it is possible to use screen 136 to display gaming environment 252 to user 102. Normally, however, screen 136 is too small and screen 128 of television 126, or, in this case screen 312 of game console 310 is better suited for visualizing for showing user 102 gaming environment 252.

Nevertheless, certain important aspects of the game can be displayed to user 102 on screen 136. These aspects can involve information that normally interferes with gaming environment 252. For example,
information about the user's 102 status, score and gaming parameters may be more conveniently communicated to user 102 by visual feedback presented on screen 136. In the present case, the stars on display 136 indicate to user 102 his/her score.

Fig. 18 shows recovered trajectory 278 of C.O.M. 110 in application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$. Also shown are short portions of recovered trajectory 278' of point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$, as well as recovered trajectory 278' $\mathbf{\prime O}^{\prime \prime}$ motion sensor 316. The recovered locations of C.O.M. 110, point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ and motion sensor 316 are indicated in application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$ by corresponding primed references $110^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}$, 316' for more clarity.

Open points along recovered trajectory 278' indicate the recovered positions of point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}$ from camera pose recovery performed in accordance with any suitable algorithm. As explained above, this data visualizes the full parameterization of the absolute pose A.P.(t) of phone 104 in application coordinates ( $X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}$ ) at the corresponding point in time (when the image was captured by camera 144). For example, A.P. ( $t_{p}$ ) is associated with the first point along recovered trajectory $\mathbf{2 7 8}^{\prime}$ at image capture time $t_{p}$ when unit vector was $\hat{u}_{a}\left(t_{p}\right)$.

Black points along recovered trajectory 278' indicate the recovered positions of point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}$ based on data from relative motion sensor 316, and more precisely from its gyroscopes and accelerometers. Therefore, motion sensor 316 enables interpolation of all six degrees of freedom of phone $\mathbf{1 0 4}$ with relative poses collected between the times when camera 144 enables recovery of the absolute pose. In a practical application, motion sensor 316 may operate at up to 200 Hz and camera 144 at just 1 Hz . Therefore, the ratio of black points to open points would be about 200:1 (much larger than shown for illustrative purposes in Fig. 18).

It is important to note that motion sensor 316 initially recovers the relative pose with respect to itself. In other words, its relative pose data about phone 104 inherently pertains to trajectory 278'' of motion sensor 316 and a unit vector drawn from its center (not shown). Therefore, to interpolate trajectory 278 of C.O.M. $\mathbf{1 1 0}$ or, as in this case, to interpolate trajectory 278' of point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ a coordinate transformation must be applied to the data provided by motion sensor 316 .

This is easily accomplished since offset vector $\mathbf{i}_{\text {bw }}$ in world coordinates of motion sensor 316 from C.O.M. 110 and its orientation can be determined from the optical pose recovery. In addition, offset vector $O_{b w}$ of point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}$ from C.O.M. 110 and its orientation is also known. Thus, the coordinate transformation to be applied to relative pose data of motion sensor 316 to interpolate the pose at point-of-view $\boldsymbol{P}^{\prime}$ between optical absolute pose recovery points involves adding the total offset due to both offset vectors $\mathbf{i}_{\text {bw }}$ and $\mathbf{o}_{\text {bw }}$ and the application of the rotation matrix. Once again, the reader is referred to G.B. Arfken (op. cit.) for the various intricacies involved in coordinate transformations.

Focusing now on recovered trajectory $\mathbf{2 7 8}^{\prime}$ we see the effect of drift in accelerometers and gyroscopes of motion sensor 316. The drift manifests itself in an accumulating departure $\delta$ from trajectory 278'. The orientation of unit vector $\hat{u}_{a}(t)$ also drifts with time within some solid angle (not shown). However, once camera 144 obtains the absolute pose from its algorithm, the departure $\delta$ from properly recovered trajectory 278' and the orientation of unit vector $\hat{u}_{a}(t)$ can both be compensated. At the same time, the gyroscopes and accelerometers of motion sensor 316 should be re-calibrated with the newest absolute pose.

The designer of interface 300 may wish to smoothen the jumps in recovered trajectory 278' and in camera orientation by applying any
suitable algorithm. Useful reference on this subject is provided by Kenneth Gade, "Introduction to Inertial Navigation and Kalman Filtering", INS Tutorial, Norwegian Centre, FFI (Norwegian Defense Research Establishment).

The considerably better quality of recovered trajectory 278' and unit vector $\hat{u}_{a}(t)$ permit game application $216^{\prime}$ to engage user 102 in a more challenging implementation of interface 300 than shopping (which only required good absolute pointing capabilities). Thus, building on the preferred implementation of interface 212, game application 216' involves cutting down apples 322 from trees 324 displayed on gaming console 310 in gaming environment 252. In a preferred embodiment, screen 312 of console 310 permits a very realistic display of this scene with proper depth perception for user 102 (along $Z_{a}$-axis of application coordinates ( $X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}$ )). In fact, $a$ number of gaming consoles with high-definition 3D displays capable of realistic 3D scene rendering are now available.

At the present time, user 102 (in this case user 102 is a gamer) has already cut down two apples 322. A particular apple 322A is still hanging on branch 326 of a tree 324 that is being swayed by a gusty wind. The objective is to cut down apple 322A by its stem, without damaging it, so that it remains edible. Gamer 102 moves phone 104 in real 3D environment 302 to get optical axis 152 in gaming coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ and recovered as axis 275 along unit vector $\hat{u}_{a}(t)$ in game or application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$, to cut the stem of virtual apple 322A. Optical axis 150 of camera 144 thus extends along the correspondingly oriented virtual machete 328.

Game application 216' displays machete 328 in the form of a blade to facilitate the task. At time $t_{q}$, user 102 has machete 328 pointed directly at apple 322 A but in the wrong position and orientation for cutting. It is indeed clear from the location and orientation of the
blade that making a cut at this point by touching button 142C on screen 136 and executing a "poke" or "swag" is not wise.

It should be noted that a number of choices are open to the designer of game application $\mathbf{2 1 6}^{\prime}$ regarding the cutting action. First, for a very realistic gaming experience, it may be desirable to overlap world or gaming coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ with application coordinates $\left(X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}\right)$ such that the motion of phone 104 in environment 302 is one-to-one with its motion in gaming environment 252. This also means, that gaming environment 252 extends beyond what can be displayed on screen 312 into real 3 D environment 302 in which user 102 resides.

Second, to make the game easier, the designer may choose to map the degrees of freedom of phone 104 with a down-scaling of the angular degrees of freedom. This will make it easier for user $\mathbf{1 0 2}$ to target the stem of apple 322A.

Third, the distance along the $Z_{w}$ axis of gaming coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) can also be scaled for further simplification. Of course, with such simplification gaming application 216' is no longer as life-like, since a complete one-to-one mapping is lost. Thus, the various scaling functions or even removal of some degrees of freedom in the mapping (e.g., removal of rotation of phone 104 about optical axis 150) should be weighed against the desired user experience. Indeed, if the application is to be completely life-like, the designer may dispense with internal application coordinates ( $X_{a}, Y_{a}, Z_{a}$ ) altogether and work in gaming coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ only. This approach is viable for virtual reality games and life-like simulations.

Fig. 19 illustrates still another advantage of the preferred embodiment of interface $\mathbf{3 0 0}$ employing phone $\mathbf{1 0 4}$ with sensor fusion attained by contemporaneously employing camera 144 and motion sensor 316. In this embodiment real three-dimensional environment 302 is once again located on the surface of planet Earth 304, and it is
parameterized by Earth coordinates ( $X_{e}, Y_{e}, Z_{e}$ ) as previously introduced in Fig. 16. Stable coordinates $\left(X_{S}, Y_{S}, Z_{S}\right)$ that parameterize stable frame 106 have their origin on the ground (e.g., on a milepost) and are aligned with rails 332 of a train car 330 as shown in Fig. 19.

In contrast to previous embodiments, however, user 102 of phone 104 is not at rest in stable frame 106. Instead, he/she is on train car 330 that is moving in stable frame 106. User 102 perceives him/her to be in another stable frame 334 in environment 302 that is moving along with train car 330. To complicate matters, stable frame 334 perceived by user 102 is not moving in a uniform manner. That is because a velocity of train car 330, described by vector $\mathbf{v}$ in stable coordinates $\left(X_{S}, Y_{S}, Z_{s}\right)$ attached to Earth 304 , is changing. Train car 330 is accelerating along its direction of motion and also slowly turning right along rails 332. These changes in velocity vector $\mathbf{v}$ are described by quantities $\Delta \mathbf{v}_{\mathrm{y}}$ and $\Delta \mathbf{v}_{\mathrm{x}}$, respectively. (Strictly speaking, since quantities $\Delta \mathbf{v}_{\mathrm{y}}$ and $\Delta \mathbf{v}_{\mathrm{x}}$ indicate direction in stable coordinates $\left(X_{s}, Y_{s}, Z_{s}\right)$ with the corresponding subscripts they are vector components, and therefore scalars. Thus, we do not need to consider them as vectors and it is technically not necessary to use boldface letters for them according to our convention.)

Accelerated frames, such as frame 334, are referred to in the art as non-inertial. Here, stable frame 334 of user 102 is actually such a non-inertial frame. If user 102 could not see out the window of train car 330, he/she would only be able to tell that his/her frame 334 is non-inertial by feeling the time rate of change in velocity $\mathbf{v}$, or acceleration $\mathbf{a}=\mathrm{dv} / \mathrm{dt}$. The ability of user 102 to feel acceleration in the same way as the force of gravity $\mathbf{F}_{g}$ is due to the principle of equivalence discovered by Albert Einstein. A similar situation is encountered on airplanes, in terrestrial vehicles such as buses or cars, on ships and on amusement rides, to give just a few examples.

Because motion sensor 316 contains gyroscopes and accelerometers, which are inertial sensors, they are subject to the same experiences as user 102 in accordance with the principle of equivalence. Thus, they will not be able to distinguish between motion of phone 104 within frame 334, and specifically the changes in vector $\mathbf{v}$, and the motion of frame 334 in stable frame 106 that is attached to the surface of planet Earth 304 and subject to acceleration $\mathbf{a}_{g}$ produced by gravity. Indeed, one of the major problems with inertial sensors is that their calibration in non-inertial frames becomes harder and their drift increases faster.

Of course, the reader will realize that Earth's frame 304 is noninertial too. In fact, it is a rotating frame subject to effects including pseudo-forces such as the Coriolis effect and centripetal forces. However, effects due to angular velocity $\omega_{e}$ and acceleration $\mathbf{a}_{g}$ of Earth 304 are known and typically small (Earth's effects are negligible for large Rossby numbers). Thus, its effects can be compensated for in applications where user 102 is stationary in stable frame 106. Unfortunately, train car 330 and its associated frame 334 parameterized by world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) are in motion that is not known in advance and cannot be accounted for as easily. Hence, the limitations of motion sensor 316 are exacerbated in frame 334 producing much more rapid drift.

Fortunately, in the preferred embodiment of interface 300, phone 104 is equipped with camera 144 which uses screen 128 to recover its absolute pose as defined world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$. The latter are attached to screen 128 at its bottom left corner (note that this is a different origin and orientation than in the first embodiment shown in Figs. 1A-B). This means that as long as screen $\mathbf{1 2 8}$ does not move inside train car 330 world coordinates ( $X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}$ ) will undergo the exact same motion within stable coordinates ( $X_{S}, Y_{S}, Z_{s}$ ) of stable frame 106 on Earth's surface as does train car 330. Therefore, world
coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ are stationary from the vantage point of user 102 and interface 300.

This means that absolute pose of phone 104 recovered optically in world coordinates $\left(X_{w}, Y_{w}, Z_{w}\right)$ by camera 144 is automatically stationary in frame 334. Therefore, the optically recovered absolute pose can be used to remove the errors due to pseudo-forces and drift that the motion sensor 316 experiences due to the changing velocity $\mathbf{v}$ of train car 330. In practice, this also means that re-calibration of motion sensor 316 needs to be performed more frequently than in the embodiment described in Fig. 16.

The above embodiments are provided for the purpose of familiarizing the reader with the issues involved in properly designing and optimizing a 3D interface that employs the hardware resources available in current smart phones. The actual design and implementation of the interface may require additional information not provided herein. Furthermore, the example applications on which the explanations are based are not to be construed as being in any way recommended to the interface designer. A game developer should rely on his or her best judgment and gaming experience in determining where a 3D interface providing all six degrees of freedom would be most advantageous.

## ADDITIONAL APPLICATION DEVELOPMENT RESOURCES

The researches at ESPi have built a number of alpha prototypes that recover absolute pose (all six degrees of freedom) from perspective views of various types of stationary objects and their non-collinear optical inputs. If you have a specific application in mind that employs optical inputs that we have already tested with any of our prototypes, then we may be able to provide you with the corresponding code. We have a YouTube video showing a few of these alpha units at the following link:
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Tcqu4NNRXQM

If you are unable to get to the video by clicking on the above link, simply search on YouTube with the key word "naviscribe".

You will notice that the alphas are implemented in several manipulated items such as a wand, a toy gun and a stylus/digital pen. In all of these embodiments, IR LEDs are used as the non-collinear optical inputs for pose recovery purposes. The IR LEDs emit at a wavelength of 950 nm and are time sequenced at about 3.3 kHz . Instead of a CMOS camera, the on-board photosensor is a positionsensing device (PSD) with an IR filter that passes radiation centered on 950 nm only. The $P S D$ is a low-cost reverse-biased p-n photodiode that captures light from each of the IR LEDs (one at a time) and directly reports its centroid. Using the PSD and sequentially flashing IR LEDs eliminates the need for computationally intensive image processing that is required when using a pixellated photosensor. The delay you will notice in the above-referenced YouTube video is due to MatLab (approximately 200 ms delay). The ESPi optical navigation algorithms actually support pose recovery on the order of $10-20 \mathrm{~ms}$.

ESPi researchers have also tested in a breadboard set-up the approach in which the on-board photosensor is a CMOS camera. In this case, the non-collinear optical inputs were the edges and corners of a
regular 8.5 x 11 sheet of white paper on a grey desk. The manipulated item was a long stylus with an inking nib. This breadboard unit was built to calibrate the computational load for absolute pose recovery at frame rates up to 100 Hz and a target inplane accuracy of about +/- 1 mm . (For comparison, it is noteworthy that at a vastly lower processing load, the embodiments employing a PSD and flashing or strobing IR LEDs support in-plane accuracy of down to 0.2 mm or better.) The lighting conditions were low (typical office environment) and the contrast ratio on the corners and edges was hence fairly poor. Under those conditions, the computational load required an ARM7-type or faster processor. It was also observed that improvements in edge contrast had a large effect on the performance of pose recovery algorithms. Based on those findings, it is expected that designating edges and corners of an illuminated display screen as the non-collinear optical inputs will result in a massive performance improvement as compared to the breadboard set-up.

The code for recovering absolute poses in the PSD and strobing IR LEDs demos was written in MatLab. One specific navigation code was compiled into C++ to run on low-cost non-floating point processors such as the PXA270 by Intel ( 500 MHz clock). When using pointsources as the non-collinear optical inputs (e.g., strobing IR LEDs mounted around the bezel of the host display screen) the load on the PXA270 was less than $20 \%$ at full frame rate, and even under $15 \%$. This is equivalent to about 120 MIPs (Million Instructions Per Second).

The number of instructions per second will increase as the optical inputs become more difficult to detect and identify. For example, when using lines representing the edges of a screen of the television unit, the computational load will likely increase by a factor of 5 or more. This is why sensor fusion with an inertial unit on-board the smart phone is an excellent solution. Since the gyros and accelerometers can provide readings at 200 Hz , the optical inputs only need to be processed at intervals over which the drift in the
inertial units starts being significant. Since these times are on the order of seconds, the optical computations can be performed at sub 1 Hz rates, thus vastly reducing the computational burden.

In addition to the optics, ESPi researchers have studied the sensor fusion problem. The drift and calibration problems of inertial devices are in some cases non-trivial. That is because of the different ways in which drift accumulates on gyros versus accelerometers. Knowing exactly when to re-calibrate and what situations to avoid is important. We can provide additional guidance to the app interface designer in making the right sensor fusion choices for designing an effective 6 D.O.F. interface.

For any additional information, please contact us at: info@4espi.com

To arrange a meeting, call Marek Alboszta during regular business hours at: (650) 862-1085 (cell)

Disclaimer: Nothing in the foregoing document is to be construed as a representation of viability of the technology for any particular purpose or application. The information is provided for the purposes of teaching and should be verified by an implementer who is skilled in the art. ESPi does not accept any liability for the statements made herein and the interface designer should perform their own duediligence and research to make the proper design choices.


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