# Vision Algorithms for Mobile Robotics 

Lecture 03<br>Camera Calibration Part 2

Davide Scaramuzza
http://rpg.ifi.uzh.ch

## Lab Exercise 2 - Today

Implement your first camera motion estimator using the DLT algorithm


## Goal of today's lecture

- Learn how to calibrate a camera
- Study the foundational algorithms for camera localization


Two applications of the camera localization algorithms covered in this lecture: drone navigation \& Microsoft Hololens

## Today’s Outline

- Camera calibration
- Camera localization
- Non conventional camera models: fisheye and catadioptric cameras


## Camera Calibration

- Calibration is the process to determine the intrinsic parameters ( $K$ plus lens distortion) and extrinsic parameters $(R, T)$ of a camera. For now, we will neglect the lens distortion and see later how it can be determined.
- $K, R, T$ can be determined by applying the perspective projection equation to known 3D-2D point correspondences:

$$
\lambda\left[\begin{array}{c}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=K[R \mid T] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
Z_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

- There are two popular methods:
- Tsai's method: uses 3D objects
- Zhang's method: uses planar grids


## Today's Outline

- Camera calibration
- Tsai's method: From 3D objects
- Zhang's method: from planar grids
- Camera localization
- Non conventional camera models: fisheye and catadioptric cameras


## Tsai's Method: Calibration from 3D Objects

- This method was proposed in 1987 by Tsai and consists of measuring the 3D position of $\boldsymbol{n} \geq \mathbf{6}$ control points on a 3D calibration target and the 2D coordinates of their projection in the image.



## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

The idea of the DLT is to rewrite the perspective projection equation as a homogeneous linear equation and solve it by standard methods. Let's write the perspective equation for a generic 3D-2D point correspondence:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lambda\left[\begin{array}{c}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=K[R \mid T] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
Z_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right] \Rightarrow \\
& \Rightarrow \lambda\left[\begin{array}{c}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha_{u} & 0 & u_{0} \\
0 & \alpha_{v} & v_{0} \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{llll}
r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} & t_{1} \\
r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} & t_{2} \\
r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} & t_{3}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
Z_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right] \\
& \Rightarrow \lambda\left[\begin{array}{c}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\alpha_{u} r_{11}+u_{0} r_{31} & \alpha_{u} r_{12}+u_{0} r_{32} & \alpha_{u} r_{13}+u_{0} r_{33} & \alpha_{u} t_{1}+u_{0} t_{3} \\
\alpha_{v} r_{21}+v_{0} r_{31} & \alpha_{v} r_{22}+v_{0} r_{32} & \alpha_{v} r_{23}+v_{0} r_{33} & \alpha_{v} t_{2}+v_{0} t_{3} \\
r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} & t_{3}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
Z_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

The idea of the DLT is to rewrite the perspective projection equation as a homogeneous linear equation and solve it by standard methods. Let's write the perspective equation for a generic 3D-2D point correspondence:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\lambda\left[\begin{array}{c}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=K[R \mid T] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
Z_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right] \Rightarrow \\
\Rightarrow \lambda\left[\begin{array}{c}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha_{u} & 0 & u_{0} \\
0 & \alpha_{v} & v_{0} \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{llll}
r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} & t_{1} \\
r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} & t_{2} \\
r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} & t_{3}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
Z_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right] \\
\Rightarrow \\
\lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
m_{11} & m_{12} & m_{13} & m_{14} \\
m_{21} & m_{22} & m_{23} & m_{24} \\
m_{31} & m_{32} & m_{33} & m_{34}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
Z_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right]
\end{gathered}
$$

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Rightarrow \lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right] & =\left[\begin{array}{llll}
m_{11} & m_{12} & m_{13} & m_{14} \\
m_{21} & m_{22} & m_{23} & m_{24} \\
m_{31} & m_{32} & m_{33} & m_{34}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
Z_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right] \\
& \Rightarrow \lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=M \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
Z_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right] \\
& \Rightarrow \lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
m_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
m_{2}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
m_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
Z_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

$$
\Rightarrow \quad \lambda\left[\begin{array}{c}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
m_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
m_{2}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
m_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
Z_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right] \longrightarrow P
$$

Conversion back from homogeneous coordinates to pixel coordinates leads to:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
u=\frac{\lambda u}{\lambda}=\frac{m_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot P}{m_{3}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot P} \\
v=\frac{\lambda v}{\lambda}=\frac{m_{2}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot P}{m_{3}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot P}
\end{array} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned}
& \left(m_{1}^{\mathrm{T}}-u_{i} m_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}\right) \cdot P=0 \\
& \left(m_{2}^{\mathrm{T}}-v_{i} m_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}\right) \cdot P=0
\end{aligned}
$$

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

- By re-arranging the terms, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(m_{1}^{\mathrm{T}}-u_{i} m_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}\right) \cdot P=0 \\
& \left(m_{2}^{\mathrm{T}}-v_{i} m_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}\right) \cdot P=0
\end{aligned} \Rightarrow\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
P_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} & 0^{\mathrm{T}} & -u_{1} P^{\mathrm{T}} \\
0^{\mathrm{T}} & P_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} & -v_{1} P^{\mathrm{T}}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{l}
m_{1} \\
m_{2} \\
m_{3}
\end{array}\right)=\binom{0}{0}
$$

- For $n$ points, we can stack all these equations into a big matrix:

$$
\left(\right)\left(\begin{array}{l}
m_{1} \\
m_{2} \\
m_{3}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
0 \\
\vdots \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right)
$$

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

## $\mathrm{Q} \cdot \mathrm{M}=0$

## Minimal solution

- $Q_{(2 n \times 12)}$ should have rank 11 to have a unique (up to a scale) non-zero solution $M$
- Because each 3D-to-2D point correspondence provides 2 independent equations, then $5+\frac{1}{2}$ point correspondences are needed (in practice 6 point correspondences!)


## Over-determined solution

- For $n \geq 6$ points, a solution is the Least Square solution, which minimizes the sum of squared residuals, $\|Q M\|^{2}$, subject to the constraint $\|M\|^{2}=1$. It can be solved through Singular Value Decomposition (SVD). The solution is the eigenvector corresponding to the smallest eigenvalue of the matrix $Q^{T} Q$ (because it is the unit vector $x$ that minimizes $\|Q x\|^{2}=x^{T} Q^{T} Q x$.
- Matlab instructions:
- $[U, S, V]=\operatorname{SVD}(Q) ;$
- $\mathrm{M}=\mathrm{V}(:, 12)$;


## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

## Degenerate configurations

$$
\mathrm{Q} \cdot \mathrm{M}=0
$$

1. Points lying on a plane and/or along a single line passing through the center of projection

2. Camera and points on a twisted cubic (i.e., smooth curve in 3D space of degree 3)

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

- Once we have determined $M$, we can recover the intrinsic and extrinsic parameters by remembering that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{M}=\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{R} \mid \mathbf{T}) \\
& {\left[\begin{array}{llll}
m_{11} & m_{12} & m_{13} & m_{14} \\
m_{21} & m_{22} & m_{23} & m_{24} \\
m_{31} & m_{32} & m_{33} & m_{34}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
\alpha_{u} & 0 & u_{0}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{rlll}
r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} t_{1} \\
0 & \alpha_{v} & v_{0}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{rl}
r_{21} & r_{22} \\
r_{23} & t_{2} \\
0 & 0 \\
\hline
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{lll}
r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33}
\end{array}\right] }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

- Once we have determined $M$, we can recover the intrinsic and extrinsic parameters by remembering that:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathbf{M}=\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{R} \mid \mathbf{T}) \\
{\left[\begin{array}{llll}
m_{11} & m_{12} & m_{13} & m_{14} \\
m_{21} & m_{22} & m_{23} & m_{24} \\
m_{31} & m_{32} & m_{33} & m_{34}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\alpha r_{11}+u_{0} r_{31} & \alpha r_{12}+u_{0} r_{32} & \alpha r_{13}+u_{0} r_{33} & \alpha t_{1}+u_{0} t_{3} \\
\alpha r_{21}+v_{0} r_{31} & \alpha r_{22}+v_{0} r_{32} & \alpha r_{23}+v_{0} r_{33} & \alpha t_{2}+v_{0} t_{3} \\
r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} & t_{3}
\end{array}\right]}
\end{gathered}
$$

- However, notice that we are not enforcing the constraint that $\boldsymbol{R}$ is orthogonal, i.e., $\boldsymbol{R} \cdot \boldsymbol{R}^{\boldsymbol{T}}=\boldsymbol{I}$
- To do this, we can use the so-called $\mathbf{Q R}$ factorization of $\boldsymbol{M}$, which decomposes $M$ into a $R$ (orthogonal), T, and an upper triangular matrix (i.e., $K$ )
- What if $K$ is known (calibrated camera)?


## Example of Tsai's Calibration Results

Recommendation: use many more than 6 points (ideally more than 20 ) and non coplanar


Corners can be detected with accuracy $<0.1$ pixels (see Lecture 5)


How can we estimate the lens distortion parameters?
How can we enforce $\alpha_{u}=\alpha_{v}$ and $K_{12}=0$ ?

## Reprojection Error

- The reprojection error is the Euclidean distance (in pixels) between an observed image point and the corresponding 3D point reprojected onto the camera frame.
- The reprojection error gives us a quantitative measure of the accuracy of the calibration (ideally it should be zero).



## Reprojection Error

- The reprojection error can be used to assess the quality of the camera calibration
- What reprojection error is acceptable?
- What are the sources of the reprojection error?
- How can we further improve the calibration parameters?



## Non-Linear Calibration Refinement

- The calibration parameters $K, R, T$ determined by the DLT can be refined by minimizing the following cost:

$$
\begin{gathered}
K, R, T, \text { lens distortion }= \\
\operatorname{argmin}_{K, k_{1}, R, T} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|p^{i}-\pi\left(P_{W}^{i}, K, k_{1}, R, T\right)\right\|^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

- This time we also include the lens distortion $k_{1}$ parameter(can be set to 0 for initialization)
- Can be minimized using Levenberg-Marquardt (more robust than Gauss-Newton to local minima)



## Non-Linear Calibration Refinement

- The calibration parameters $K, R, T$ determined by the DLT can be refined by minimizing the following cost:

$$
\begin{gathered}
K, R, T, \text { lens distortion }= \\
\operatorname{argmin}_{K, k_{1}, R, T} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|p^{i}-\pi\left(P_{W}^{i}, K, k_{1}, R, T\right)\right\|^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

- This time we also include the lens distortion $k_{1}$ parameter(can be set to 0 for initialization)
- Can be minimized using Levenberg-Marquardt (more robust than Gauss-Newton to local minima)



## Non-Linear Calibration Refinement

- The calibration parameters $K, R, T$ determined by the DLT can be refined by minimizing the following cost:

$$
\begin{gathered}
K, R, T, \text { lens distortion }= \\
\operatorname{argmin}_{K, k_{1}, R, T} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|p^{i}-\pi\left(P_{W}^{i}, K, k_{1}, R, T\right)\right\|^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

- This time we also include the lens distortion $k_{1}$ parameter(can be set to 0 for initialization)
- Can be minimized using Levenberg-Marquardt (more robust than Gauss-Newton to local minima)



## Non-Linear Calibration Refinement

- The calibration parameters $K, R, T$ determined by the DLT can be refined by minimizing the following cost:

$$
\begin{gathered}
K, R, T, \text { lens distortion }= \\
\operatorname{argmin}_{K, k_{1}, R, T} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|p^{i}-\pi\left(P_{W}^{i}, K, k_{1}, R, T\right)\right\|^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

- This time we also include the lens distortion $k_{1}$ parameter(can be set to 0 for initialization)
- Can be minimized using Levenberg-Marquardt (more robust than Gauss-Newton to local minima)



## Today's Outline

- Camera calibration
- Tsai's method: From 3D objects
- Zhang's method: from planar grids
- Camera localization
- Non conventional camera models: fisheye and catadioptric cameras


## Zhang's Algorithm: Calibration from Planar Grids

- Tsai's calibration requires that the world's 3D points are non-coplanar, which is not very practical
- Today's camera calibration toolboxes (Matlab, OpenCV) use multiple views of a planar grid (e.g., a checker board)
- They are based on a method developed in 2000 by Zhang (Microsoft Research)



## Zhang's Algorithm: Calibration from Planar Grids

- Tsai's calibration requires that the world's 3D points are non-coplanar, which is not very practical
- Today's camera calibration toolboxes (Matlab, OpenCV) use multiple views of a planar grid (e.g., a checker board)
- They are based on a method developed in 2000 by Zhang (Microsoft Research)



## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

As in Tsai's method, we start by writing the perspective projection equation (again, we neglect the radial distortion). However, in Zhang's method the points are all coplanar, i.e., $\boldsymbol{Z}_{\boldsymbol{w}}=\mathbf{0}$, and thus we can write:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{c}
{\left[\begin{array}{c}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=K[R \mid T] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right] \Rightarrow} \\
\Rightarrow \lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha_{u} & 0 & u_{0} \\
0 & \alpha_{v} & v_{0} \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \cdot \cdot\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\
r_{21} & t_{1} \\
r_{22} & r_{23} & t_{2} \\
r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33}
\end{array} t_{3}\right.
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right] .
$$

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

As in Tsai's method, we start by writing the perspective projection equation (again, we neglect the radial distortion). However, in Zhang's method the points are all coplanar, i.e., $\boldsymbol{Z}_{\boldsymbol{w}}=\mathbf{0}$, and thus we can write:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\lambda\left[\begin{array}{c}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=K[R \mid T] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right] \Rightarrow \\
\Rightarrow \lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
\alpha_{u} & 0 & u_{0} \\
0 & \alpha_{v} & v_{0} \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{llll}
r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} & t_{1} \\
r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} & t_{2} \\
r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} & t_{3}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right] \\
\\
\Rightarrow \\
\lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
h_{11} & h_{12} & h_{13} \\
h_{21} & h_{22} & h_{23} \\
h_{31} & h_{32} & h_{33}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right]
\end{gathered}
$$

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

$$
\Rightarrow \lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
h_{11} & h_{12} & h_{13} \\
h_{21} & h_{22} & h_{23} \\
h_{31} & h_{32} & h_{33}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $h_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}$ is the i -th row of $H$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Rightarrow & \lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=H \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right] \\
\Rightarrow & \lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
h_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
h_{2}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
h_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

$$
\Rightarrow \lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
h_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
h_{2}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
h_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{w} \\
Y_{w} \\
1
\end{array}\right] \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{P}
$$

Conversion back from homogeneous coordinates to pixel coordinates leads to:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u=\frac{\lambda u}{\lambda}=\frac{h_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot P}{h_{3}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot P} \\
& v=\frac{\lambda v}{\lambda}=\frac{h_{2}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot P}{h_{3}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot P}
\end{aligned} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned}
& \left(h_{1}^{\mathrm{T}}-u_{i} h_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}\right) \cdot P_{i}=0 \\
& \left(h_{2}^{\mathrm{T}}-v_{i} h_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}\right) \cdot P_{i}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

- By re-arranging the terms, we obtain:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(h_{1}^{\mathrm{T}}-u_{i} h_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}\right) \cdot P_{i}=0 \\
\left(h_{2}^{\mathrm{T}}-v_{i} h_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}\right) \cdot P_{i}=0
\end{gathered} \quad \Rightarrow \begin{aligned}
& P_{i}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot h_{1}+0 \cdot h_{2}^{\mathrm{T}}-u_{i} P_{i}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot h_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}=0 \\
& 0 \cdot h_{1}^{\mathrm{T}}+P_{i}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot h_{2}^{\mathrm{T}}-v_{i} P_{i}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot h_{3}^{\mathrm{T}}=0
\end{aligned} \quad \Rightarrow\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
P_{i}^{\mathrm{T}} & 0^{\mathrm{T}} & -u_{1} P_{i}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
0^{\mathrm{T}} & P_{i}^{\mathrm{T}} & -v_{1} P_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{l}
h_{1} \\
h_{2} \\
h_{3}
\end{array}\right)=\binom{0}{0}
$$

- For $n$ points (from a single view), we can stack all these equations into a big matrix:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
P_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} & 0^{\mathrm{T}} & -u_{1} P_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
0^{\mathrm{T}} & P_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} & -v_{1} P_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
\cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\
P_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} & 0^{\mathrm{T}} & -u_{n} P_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} \\
0^{\mathrm{T}} & P_{n}^{\mathrm{T}} & -v_{n} P_{n}^{\mathrm{T}}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{l}
h_{1} \\
h_{2} \\
h_{3}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
\vdots \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right) \Rightarrow \mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{H}=\mathbf{0}
$$

## Applying the Direct Linear Transform (DLT) algorithm

## $\mathrm{Q} \cdot \mathrm{H}=0$

Minimal solution

- $Q_{(2 n \times 9)}$ should have rank 8 to have a unique (up to a scale) non-trivial solution $H$
- Each point correspondence provides 2 independent equations
- Thus, a minimum of 4 non-collinear points is required

Solution for $n \geq 4$ points

- It can be solved through Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) (same considerations as before)


## How to recover $K, R, T$

- $H$ can be decomposed by recalling that:
- Differently from Tsai's, the decomposition of $H$ into $K, R, T$

$$
\left[\begin{array}{lll}
h_{11} & h_{12} & h_{13} \\
h_{21} & h_{22} & h_{23} \\
h_{31} & h_{32} & h_{33}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha_{u} & 0 & u_{0} \\
0 & \alpha_{v} & v_{0} \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{lll}
r_{11} & r_{12} & t_{1} \\
r_{21} & r_{22} & t_{2} \\
r_{31} & r_{32} & t_{3}
\end{array}\right]
$$ requires at least two views if we assume $\alpha_{u} \neq \alpha_{v}$, or 1 view if $\alpha_{u}=\alpha_{v}$

- In practice the more views the better, e.g., 20-50 views spanning the entire field of view of the camera for the best calibration results!
- Notice that now each view $j$ has a different homography $H^{j}$ (and so a different $R^{j}$ and $T^{j}$ ). However, $\boldsymbol{K}$ is the same for all views:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{lll}
h_{11}^{j} & h_{12}^{j} & h_{13}^{j} \\
h_{21}^{\prime} & h_{22}^{j} & h_{23}^{j} \\
h_{31}^{j} & h_{33}^{J} & h_{33}^{j}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\alpha_{u} & 0 & u_{0} \\
0 & \alpha_{v} & v_{0} \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{lll}
r_{11}^{j} & r_{12}^{j} & t_{1}^{j} \\
r_{21}^{j} & r_{12}^{j} & t_{2}^{j} \\
r_{31}^{j} & r_{32}^{j} & t_{3}^{j}
\end{array}\right]
$$

## How to recover $K, R, T$ from $H$ and from multiple views?

1. Estimate the homography $H_{i}$ for each $i$-th view using the DLT algorithm.
2. Determine the intrinsics $K$ of the camera from a set of homographies:
3. Each homography $H_{i} \sim K\left(\boldsymbol{r}_{1}, \boldsymbol{r}_{2}, \boldsymbol{t}\right)$ provides two linear equations in the 6 entries of the matrix $\mathrm{B}:=K^{-\top} K^{-1}$. Letting $\boldsymbol{w}_{1}:=K \boldsymbol{r}_{1}, \boldsymbol{w}_{2}:=K \boldsymbol{r}_{2}$, the rotation constraints $\boldsymbol{r}_{1}^{\top} \boldsymbol{r}_{1}=\boldsymbol{r}_{2}^{\top} \boldsymbol{r}_{2}=1$ and $\boldsymbol{r}_{1}^{\top} \boldsymbol{r}_{2}=0$ become $\boldsymbol{w}_{1}^{\top} B \boldsymbol{w}_{1}-\boldsymbol{w}_{2}^{\top} B \boldsymbol{w}_{2}=0$ and $\boldsymbol{w}_{1}^{\top} B \boldsymbol{w}_{2}=0$.
4. Stack $2 N$ equations from $N$ views, to yield a linear system $A \boldsymbol{b}=\mathbf{0}$. Solve for $\boldsymbol{b}$ (i.e., $B$ ) using the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD).
5. Use Cholesky decomposition to obtain $K$ from $B$.
6. The extrinsic parameters for each view can be computed using $K$ :
$\boldsymbol{r}_{1} \sim \lambda K^{-1} H_{i}(:, 1), \boldsymbol{r}_{2} \sim \lambda K^{-1} H_{i}(:, 2), \boldsymbol{r}_{3}=\boldsymbol{r}_{1} \times \boldsymbol{r}_{2}$ and $T_{i}=\lambda K^{-1} H_{i}(:, 3)$, with $\lambda=1 / K^{-1} H_{i}(:, 1)$. Finally, build $R_{i}=\left(\boldsymbol{r}_{1}, \boldsymbol{r}_{2}, \boldsymbol{r}_{3}\right)$ and enforce rotation matrix constraints.

## Types of 2D Transformations



| Name | Matrix | \# D.O.F. | Preserves: | Icon |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- | :---: |
| translation | $[\boldsymbol{I} \mid \boldsymbol{t}]_{2 \times 3}$ | 2 | orientation $+\cdots$ | $\square$ |
| rigid (Euclidean) | $[\boldsymbol{R} \mid \boldsymbol{t}]_{2 \times 3}$ | 3 | lengths $+\cdots$ | $\checkmark$ |
| similarity | $[s \boldsymbol{R} \mid \boldsymbol{t}]_{2 \times 3}$ | 4 | angles $+\cdots$ | $\checkmark$ |
| affine | $[\boldsymbol{A}]_{2 \times 3}$ | 6 | parallelism $+\cdots$ | $\square$ |
| projective | $[\tilde{\boldsymbol{H}}]_{3 \times 3}$ | 8 | straight lines | $\square$ |

This matrix is called Homography

## Projective Transformation (Homography)

- A point $(x, y)$ is transformed into $\left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)$ via:

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{\prime} & =\frac{a_{1} x+a_{2} y+a_{3}}{a_{7} x+a_{8} y+1} \\
y^{\prime} & =\frac{a_{4} x+a_{5} y+a_{6}}{a_{7} x+a_{8} y+1}
\end{aligned}
$$



- Homogeneous coordinates:

$$
\lambda\left[\begin{array}{c}
x^{\prime} \\
y^{\prime} \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{llc}
a_{1} & a_{2} & a_{3} \\
a_{4} & a_{5} & a_{6} \\
a_{7} & a_{8} & 1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x \\
y \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Application to Augmented Reality

- Today, there are thousands of application of Zhang's algorithm, e.g. Augmented Reality (AR)
- See AprilTag or ARuco Markers



## Application to Robotics

- Do we need to know the size of the tag?
- For Augmented Reality?
- For Control?


My lab. Video.
Marc Pollefeys' lab. Video.

## Today's Outline

- Camera calibration
- Camera localization
- Non conventional camera models: fisheye and catadioptric cameras


## Camera Localization (or Perspective from $n$ Points: PnP)

- This is the problem of determining the 6DoF pose of a camera (position and orientation) with respect to the world frame from a set of 3D-2D point correspondences.
- It assumes that the camera is already calibrated (i.e., we know its intrinsic parameters)
- The DLT can be used to solve this problem but is suboptimal. We want to study algebraic solutions to the problem.



## How Many Points are Enough?

- 1 Point:
- infinite solutions


## - 2 Points:

- infinitely many solutions, but bounded
- 3 Points (non collinear):
- up to 4 solution


## - 4 Points:

- Unique solution


## 1 Point

## - 1 Point:

- infinite solutions

Image plane



## 2 Points

## - 2 Points:

- infinite solutions, but bounded



## 3 Points (P3P problem)

## From the law of cosines:

- 3 Points (non collinear):
- up to 4 solution

$$
\begin{aligned}
& s_{1}^{2}=L_{B}^{2}+L_{A}^{2}-2 L_{B} L_{A} \cos \theta_{A B} \\
& s_{2}^{2}=L_{A}^{2}+L_{C}^{2}-2 L_{A} L_{C} \cos \theta_{A C} \\
& s_{3}^{2}=L_{B}^{2}+L_{C}^{2}-2 L_{B} L_{C} \cos \theta_{B C}
\end{aligned}
$$

Image plane


## Algebraic Approach: reduce to $4^{\text {th }}$ order equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& s_{1}^{2}=L_{B}^{2}+L_{A}^{2}-2 L_{B} L_{A} \cos \theta_{A B} \\
& s_{2}^{2}=L_{A}^{2}+L_{C}^{2}-2 L_{A} L_{C} \cos \theta_{A C} \\
& s_{3}^{2}=L_{B}^{2}+L_{C}^{2}-2 L_{B} L_{C} \cos \theta_{B C}
\end{aligned}
$$

- It is known that $\boldsymbol{n}$ independent polynomial equations, in $\boldsymbol{n}$ unknowns, can have no more solutions than the product of their respective degrees. Thus, the system can have a maximum of 8 solutions. However, because every term in the system is either a constant or of second degree, for every real positive solution there is a negative solution.
- Thus, with 3 points, there are at most 4 valid (positive) solutions.


## Algebraic Approach: reduce to $4^{\text {th }}$ order equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& s_{1}^{2}=L_{B}^{2}+L_{A}^{2}-2 L_{B} L_{A} \cos \theta_{A B} \\
& s_{2}^{2}=L_{A}^{2}+L_{C}^{2}-2 L_{A} L_{C} \cos \theta_{A C} \\
& s_{3}^{2}=L_{B}^{2}+L_{C}^{2}-2 L_{B} L_{C} \cos \theta_{B C}
\end{aligned}
$$

- By defining $\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{L}_{\boldsymbol{B}} / \boldsymbol{L}_{\boldsymbol{A}}$, it can be shown that the system can be reduced to a $4^{\text {th }}$ order equation:

$$
G_{0}+G_{1} x+G_{2} x^{2}+G_{3} x^{3}+G_{4} x^{4}=0
$$

How can we disambiguate the 4 solutions? How do we determine $R$ and $T$ ?

- A $4^{\text {th }}$ point can be used to disambiguate the solutions. A classification of the four solutions and the determination of $R$ and $T$ from the point distances was given by Gao's algorithm, implemented in OpenCV (solvePnP P3P)


## Modern Solution to P3P

A more modern version of P3P was developed by Kneip in 2011 and directly solves for the camera's pose (not distances from the points). This solution inspired the algorithm currently used in OpenCV (solvePnP AP3P), by Ke'17, which consists of two steps:

1. Eliminate the camera's position and the features' distances to yield a system of 3 equations in the camera's orientation alone.
2. Successively eliminate two of the unknown 3-DOFs (angles) algebraically and arrive at a quartic polynomial equation.

- Outperforms previous methods in terms of speed, accuracy, and robustness to close-to-singular cases.


Kneip, Scaramuzza, Siegwart. A Novel Parameterization of the Perspective-Three-Point Problem for a Direct Computation of Absolute Camera Position and Orientation. IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), 2011. PDF.

## Solution to PnP for $n \geq 4$

An efficient algebraic solution to the PnP problem for $n \geq 4$ was developed by Lepetit in 2009 and was named EPnP (Efficient PnP) and can be found in OpenCV (solvePnP EPnP)

- EPnP expresses the $n$ world's points as a weighted sum of four virtual control points
- The coordinates of these virtual control points become the unknowns of the problem, which can be solved in $O(n)$ time by solving a constant number of quartic polynomial equations
- The final pose of the camera is then solved from the control points


## Application to Monocular Localization

Localization: Given a 3D point cloud (map), determine the pose of the camera


Video of Oculus Insight (the VIO used in Oculus Quest): built by former Zurich-Eye team, today Facebook Zurich.
The story from Zurich-Eye to Facebook Oculus Quest.

## Application to Multi-Robot mutual Localization

Here, the drone carries 5 LEDs that are used by the ground robot to control the drone's position relative to it


## Application to Monocular Visual Odometry



## Robust Estimation in Presence of Outliers

- All PnP problems (solved by DLT, EPnP, or P3P algorithms) assume that the 3D-2D point correspondences are correct. If the correspondences are incorrect (i.e., tey contain outliers), then the output of these algorithms can be incorrect.
- The RANSAC algorithm (Lecture 08) can be used, in conjunction with the PnP algorithm, to remove the outliers (we will do this in Exercise 07).
- PnP with RANSAC can be found in OpenCV's (solvePnPRansac)


## EPnP vs. DLT

If a camera is calibrated, only $R$ and $T$ need to be determined. In this case, should we use DLT or EPnP for localization?

## EPnP vs. DLT: Accuracy vs. noise

## EPnP is up to $\mathbf{1 0}$ times more robust to noise than DLT



Plots from
Lepetit, Moreno Noguer, Fua, EPnP: An Accurate $O(n)$ Solution to the PnP Problem, International Journal of Computer Vision. PDF.

## EPnP vs. DLT: Accuracy vs. number of points

## EPnP is up to $\mathbf{1 0}$ times more accurate than DLT



Plots from
Lepetit, Moreno Noguer, Fua, EPnP: An Accurate $O(n)$ Solution to the PnP Problem, International Journal of Computer Vision. PDF.

## EPnP vs. DLT: Timing

## EPnP is up to $\mathbf{1 0}$ times more efficient than DLT



Plots from

## PnP problem: Recap

| Calibrated camera |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| (i.e., instrinc parameters are known) | Uncalibrated camera <br> (i.e., intrinsic parameters unknown) |
| Either DLT or EPnP can be used | Only DLT can be used |

EPnP: minimum number of points: $\mathbf{3}$ (P3P) +1 for disambiguation DLT: Minimum number of points: 4 if coplanar, 6 if non-coplanar

The output of both DLT and EPnP can be refined via non-linear optimization
by minimizing the sum of squared reprojection errors

## Today's Outline

- Camera calibration
- Camera localization

Case study: Vision-based Autonomous Drone Racing

- Non conventional camera models: fisheye and catadioptric cameras


## nature



Kaufmann, Bauersfeld, Loquercio, Mueller, Koltun, Scaramuzza,


## 2018: autonomous drone race in Madrid



Maximum speed 3 km/h

## 2019: autonomous drone race in Austin

## 

Maximum speed $30 \mathrm{~km} / \mathrm{h}$

## Our AI Drone, named SWIFT

The eyes
Intel RealSense camera
From 0 to $100 \mathrm{~km} / \mathrm{h}$ in 1 second Weight:
0.8 kg

Max acceleration:
5 G

## Neural-Network controller trained with Reinforcement Learning



## Can we outrace the best human pilot?

After 7 years of work, in June 2022, we invited the world champions of drone racing


Alex Vanover
DRL World Champion


Thomas Bitmatta

MultiGP International World Champion


Marvin Schaepper

Swiss Drone League Champion


AI Drone
Both human and Al drones were identical

Kaufmann, Bauersfeld, Loquercio, Mueller, Koltun, Scaramuzza,


Kaufmann, Bauersfeld, Loquercio, Mueller, Koltun, Scaramuzza, Champion-Level Drone Racing using Deep Reinforcement Learning, Nature, 2023. PDF. Datasets. Our video. Video by Nature

## Drone Racing

## Autonomous Drone

"Swift"

World's Best Human Pilots
A. Vanover, T. Bitmatta, M. Schaepper

## Compute Drone Pose via Gate Detection and P3P

## Calculate Uncertainty of Drone Position



The uncertainty of the estimation distance increases quadratically with the distance.

Can you prove it mathematically?

## Calculate Uncertainty of Drone Position



## Today's Outline

- Camera calibration
- Camera localization
- Non conventional camera models: fisheye and catadioptric cameras


## Overview on Omnidirectional Cameras

Fisheye


Wide FOV dioptric cameras (e.g. fisheye)

Catadioptric
360 o all around


Catadioptric cameras (e.g. cameras and mirror systems)


## Camera View Comparison



Perspective


Fisheye


Catadioptric

## Central vs Noncentral Omnidirectional Cameras

## Non-Central projection system

Rays do not intersect in a single point


Central projection system
Rays intersect in a single point


## Central Omnidirectional Cameras

Hyperbola + Perspective camera


NB: one of the foci of the hyperbola must lie in the camera's center of projection

Parabola + Orthographic lens


## Why do we prefer central cameras?

Because we can:

- Apply standard algorithms valid for perspective geometry.
- Unwarp parts of an image into a perspective one
- Transform image points into normalized vectors on the unit sphere



## Recall: Normalized Image Coordinates (Lecture 2, slide 62)

If we pre-multiply both terms of the perspective projection equation in camera frame by $K^{-1}$, we get:

$$
\lambda\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=K\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{c} \\
Y_{c} \\
Z_{c}
\end{array}\right] \Rightarrow \lambda K^{-1}\left[\begin{array}{l}
u \\
v \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{c} \\
Y_{c} \\
Z_{c}
\end{array}\right] \Rightarrow \lambda\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{u-u_{0}}{\alpha} \\
\frac{v-v_{0}}{\alpha} \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
X_{c} \\
Y_{c} \\
Z_{c}
\end{array}\right] \quad \underset{p_{c}}{\substack{\boldsymbol{p}_{c} \\
\boldsymbol{X}_{c}}}
$$

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
\bar{u} \\
\bar{v} \\
1
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{u-u_{0}}{\alpha} \\
\frac{v-v_{0}}{\alpha} \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

## How do we model world points that lie behind the camera?

The standard pinhole model is not enough. We need a distortion model.


Wide FOV dioptric cameras (e.g. fisheye)


## Unified Omnidirectional Camera Model (for Fisheye and Catadioptric cameras)

- We model the focal length as polynomial function, whose coefficients are the parameters to be estimated
- The coefficients of the polynomial, the intrinsic parameters, and extrinsics are then found via DLT



## OCamCalib: Omnidirectional Camera Calibration Toolbox

- Released in 2006, OCamCalib is the standard toolbox for calibrating wide angle cameras (fisheye and catadioptric)
- Since 2015, included in the Matlab Computer Vision Toolbox


Example calibration images of a catadioptric camera


Example calibration images of a fisheye camera

## Projection of Image Points on the Unit Sphere

- Always possible after the camera has been calibrated



## Projection of Image Points on the Unit Sphere

- Always possible after the camera has been calibrated


Points


Rays

## Summary (things to remember)

- Calibration from 3D objects: DLT algorithm
- Calibration from planar grids: DLT algorithm using homography projection
- Reprojection Error and non linear optimization
- P3P algorithm
- DLT vs EPNP comparison
- Omnidirectional cameras
- Central vs non central projection
- Unified (spherical) model for perspective and omnidirectional cameras


## Readings

- Ch. 2.1 of Szeliski book, $2^{\text {nd }}$ Edition
- Chapter 4 of Autonomous Mobile Robots book: link


## Understanding Check

## Are you able to:

- Describe the differences between Tsai's and Zhang's calibration methods
- Explain and derive the DLT in both Tsai's and Zhang's methods? What is the minimum number of point correspondences they require?
- Describe the general PnP problem and derive the behavior of its solutions?
- Explain the working principle of the P3P algorithm? Why do we need 4 points? What's the key difference between P3P and EPnP?
- What is the reprojection error and how is it used for refining the calibration?
- What are the key technical differences between DLT and EPnP their differences in terms of robustness to noise, number of points, and computational efficiency?
- Prove mathematically that the uncertainty of the distance estimated by PnP increases quadratically with the distance.
- Define central and noncentral omnidirectional cameras?
- What kind of mirrors ensure central projection?

