Lecture 8, Sep 26, 2025

Camera Pose Estimation (Perspective-n-Point)

- \bullet The pose estimation problem is the estimation of the pose of an object (or camera) from 3D-2D correspondences
 - Typically we know where the points lie on the object in 3D, and we also know where those points appear in our image
 - This is known as the *perspective-n-point* or PnP problem
 - * For 3 points, this is known as P3P
 - * 3 points is the minimum number of points we need to get a solution, but often we want to use more points to remove ambiguity and reject noise
 - This process can be used to estimate the camera pose for extrinsic calibration; intrinsic parameters can be estimated at the same time
 - * This is how camera calibration with a checkerboard works
- There are linear and nonlinear algorithms for this
 - The linear case locally linearizes the problem and may not be very accurate if the initial guess is bad
 - The nonlinear algorithm uses an initial guess and iterates to find the solution
 - We often start from the linear algorithm and then use nonlinear algorithm to refine
- Solving for $P = K \begin{bmatrix} C & t \end{bmatrix}$ requires at least 6 correspondences (since there are 6 degrees of freedom), but if we have intrinsics already we only need 3
- The linear algorithm for solving PnP is the direct linear transform (DLT), which stacks a system of equations
 - We have $P \in \mathbb{R}^{3\times 4}$ (the combination of the extrinsic and intrinsic matrices) with 12 unknowns
 - For each correspondence we can construct 2 equations from it; with 6 correspondences we can solve the whole system

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$$x_i = \frac{p_{00}X_i + p_{01}Y_i + p_{02}Z_i + p_{03}}{p_{20}X_i + p_{21}Y_i + p_{22}Z_i + p_{23}}$$

* $y_i = \frac{p_{10}X_i + p_{21}Y_i + p_{22}Z_i + p_{23}}{p_{20}X_i + p_{21}Y_i + p_{22}Z_i + p_{23}}$

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- * Note the division due to normalization
- Because the intrinsics matrix K is upper-triangular, we can do a QR factorization on P to recover the separate intrinsic and extrinsic matrices
- However, DLT does not impose constraints on the structure of the resulting matrices, namely the structure of the rotation matrix, so after QR factorization we often end up with a result that does not fit into our camera models, forcing us to make an approximation; this is why DLT is not an exact solution

Nonlinear Least Squares

- Nonlinear least squares (Gauss-Newton optimization) is an optimization approach we can use to solve this system
 - For nonlinear least squares, we wish to optimize $E(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x})^T\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x})$ where $\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{x})$ is some nonlinear function
 - * Note e(x) = f(x) y, i.e. the prediction minus the observation; the order is important, otherwise we end up maximizing the error instead!
 - * In the linear case we can substitute e(x) = Ax b and expand the error function, then take a derivative to obtain the normal equation
 - For the nonlinear case we linearize around an initial guess (the operating point) x_{op}
 - $-e(m{x})pprox e(m{x}_{op})+m{J}_e\deltam{x}$ where $m{J}_e=rac{\partial m{e}}{\partial m{x}}igg|_{m{x}_{op}}$ is the Jacobian and \deltam{x} is a small deviation
 - * Now substitute this back into the error function and notice we get an expression very similar to the linear form, so we can use the same techniques to solve this

- We can solve the linearized system, and add the δx to our initial operating point x_{op} to get the next linearization point
- Do this until our Jacobian becomes sufficiently small which means we have converged
- We are essentially approximating the cost function as a quadratic at each step and optimizing the quadratic for a local solution
- Important notes for nonlinear least squares:
 - Choosing good initial guesses is important, otherwise the optimization process can get trapped in a local minimum
 - The states we are solving for must exist in a vector space (i.e. we cannot apply constraints, since then the vector space is no longer closed)
- For multiple errors, we sum over all the errors, so in the normal equation we sum over J^TJ and J^Te and multiply in the end

$$-E(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{e}_i(\boldsymbol{x})^T \boldsymbol{e}_i(\boldsymbol{x})$$
$$-\delta \boldsymbol{x}^* = -\left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{J}_{e_i}^T \boldsymbol{J}_{e_i}\right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{J}_{e_i}^T \boldsymbol{e}_i(\boldsymbol{x}_{op})\right)$$

- Note we need to reevaluate the Jacobian for each measurement *i*, since the linearization point is all different!
- Often we have associated uncertainties for each error, so we can do a weighted version of least squares,

so
$$E(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{e}_i(\boldsymbol{x})^T \boldsymbol{W}_i \boldsymbol{e}_i(\boldsymbol{x})$$

- Now we have
$$\delta oldsymbol{x}^* = -\left(\sum_{i=1}^N oldsymbol{J}_{e_i}^T oldsymbol{W}_i oldsymbol{J}_{e_i}\right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N oldsymbol{J}_{e_i}^T oldsymbol{W}_i oldsymbol{e}_i(oldsymbol{x}_{op})\right)$$

- $-W_i$ are symmetric matrices, one describing the weight for each measurement
- Often we want scalar weights so W_i for each measurement i is just a multiple of the identity
- For vector-valued observations, we can use the inverse of the measurement covariance matrix Σ , known as the *information matrix*
- Note nonlinear least squares is equivalent to a maximum likelihood estimate if we assume our data has
 additive noise drawn from IID multivariate zero-mean Gaussians; weights are the information matrices
 of each noise Gaussian in this case
- To use NLS for pose estimation, we optimize the reprojection error $e_i = x_i f(p_i; C, t, K)$
 - f is our projection function which takes p_i , converts it to the camera frame using the extrinsic calibration, then to pixel space using the intrinsics and normalizes it
 - But, rotation matrices have constraints, so we can't use Gauss-Newton as-is; we need to either express C in a way that ensures it is a rotation matrix, or modify our update so that C remains orthogonal
- This leads to the Wahba problem, which involves identifying a rotation matrix C between frames given corresponding unit vector measurements u_i, v_i in two frames

- The cost function is
$$E(C) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (Cu_i - v_i)^T (Cu_i - v_i) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} e_i(C)^T e_i(C)$$

- Approach 1: Euler angles
 - * Optimize over 3 Euler angles instead
 - * However, this runs the risk of Gimbal lock if our solution ends up near points with Gimbal lock, we run into numerical sensitivity issues or our solution may collapse entirely
 - This can work if we have good initial guesses
 - * Let $C(\theta) = C_3(\theta_3)C_2(\theta_2)C_1(\theta_1)$, then $e_i(\theta_{op} + \delta\theta) = e_i(\theta_{op}) + J_{e_i}\delta\theta$
 - * The Jacobian $J_{e_i} = \frac{\partial Cu_i}{\partial \theta}$ can be computed in each column as follows:

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$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{C} \boldsymbol{u}_i}{\partial \theta_3} = \left[\boldsymbol{1}_3 \right]_{\times} \boldsymbol{C}_3(\theta_3) \boldsymbol{C}_2(\theta_2) \boldsymbol{C}_1(\theta_1) \boldsymbol{u}_i$$

$$\begin{split} \bullet \quad & \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{C}\boldsymbol{u}_i}{\partial \theta_2} = \boldsymbol{C}_3(\theta_3) \left[\boldsymbol{1}_2\right]_{\times} \boldsymbol{C}_2(\theta_2) \boldsymbol{C}_1(\theta_1) \boldsymbol{u}_i \\ \bullet \quad & \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{C}\boldsymbol{u}_i}{\partial \theta_1} = \boldsymbol{C}_3(\theta_3) \boldsymbol{C}_2(\theta_2) \left[\boldsymbol{1}_1\right]_{\times} \boldsymbol{C}_1(\theta_1) \boldsymbol{u}_i \\ \bullet \quad & \text{Note } \boldsymbol{1}_i \text{ is a zero vector with 1 in the } i \text{th spot} \end{split}$$

- Approach 2: use axis-angle
 - * To avoid gimbal lock we keep the operating point C_{op} in matrix form, and consider a perturbation $C(\delta \phi)$, so the update becomes $C_{op} \leftarrow C(\delta \dot{\phi})C_{op}$
 - * Recall the Rodrigues formula: $C(\phi) = 1 + \sin \phi \left[\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} \right]_{\times} + (1 \cos \phi) \left[\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} \right]_{\times}^{2}$
 - For small angles ϕ we approximate $\sin \phi = 0, \cos \phi = 1$
 - $C(\delta \phi) \approx 1 + \delta \phi \left[\hat{\boldsymbol{n}} \right]_{\times} = 1 + \left[\delta \phi \right]_{\times}$ * Substitute the approximation for $C(\delta \phi)$:

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{oldsymbol{e}} & oldsymbol{e}_i(\delta oldsymbol{\phi}) = oldsymbol{C} oldsymbol{u}_i - oldsymbol{v}_i \ &= oldsymbol{C}(\delta oldsymbol{\phi}) oldsymbol{C}_{op} oldsymbol{u}_i - oldsymbol{v}_i \ &= oldsymbol{C}_{op} oldsymbol{u}_i - oldsymbol{v}_i + oldsymbol{[\delta oldsymbol{\phi}]}_{ imes} oldsymbol{C}_{op} oldsymbol{u}_i \ &= oldsymbol{e}_i(oldsymbol{C}_{op}) - oldsymbol{[C}_{op} oldsymbol{u}_i]_{ imes} \delta oldsymbol{\phi} \ &= oldsymbol{e}_i(oldsymbol{C}_{op}) + oldsymbol{J}_{e_i} \delta oldsymbol{\phi} \end{aligned}$$

* Therefore the Jacobian is $J_{e_i} = -[C_{op}u_i]_{\times}$, and with this we can use the normal equation to compute the update for $\delta\phi^*$ and update the operating point