

# REALTIME LOCALIZATION OF A CENTRAL CATADIOPTRIC CAMERA USING VERTICAL LINES

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Abstract: Catadioptric sensors are used in mobile robot localization because of their panoramic field of view. However most of the existing systems require a constant orientation of the camera and a planar motion, and thus the localization cannot be achieved in general for persons handling a camera. In this paper, we use the images of the vertical lines of indoor environment to localize in realtime the central catadioptric camera orientation and the 2D position. The pose detection is done in two steps. First, a two axes absolute rotation is computed to bring the vertical line images in vertical position on the viewing sphere. Then the 2D pose is estimated using a 2D map of the site.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Our goal is to localize in realtime a central catadioptric camera held by a person inside a known building. Benosman and Kang gave in (Benosman 2001) a detailed description of these cameras. They are able to acquire instantaneously some panoramic images and have a single viewpoint. They are frequently used in robotic applications where the provided 360° field of view is useful for image based localization and 3D reconstruction. Image based localization methods can be divided in two categories:

A: methods requiring *a priori* knowledge about the place where to localize the robot (for example a database of appearance images corresponding to different locations) (Padjla 2001). These methods require the acquisition of many images and constrain the orientation of the sensor. Moreover, the robust realtime matching of occluded images is a relatively complex problem, even if the panoramic field of view make it easier than in the perspective case.

B: methods using Simultaneous Localization And Mapping (Shakernia 2003). They do not require an acquisition of the database before the localization. Invariant points from the scene are often detected in many images acquired at different locations using Scale Invariant Feature Transform, KLT or Harris detector, and then Structure From Motion is performed in order to detect the position of the camera in the re-

constructed scene.

We propose a new method to achieve the localization of a central catadioptric camera using the vertical lines images. We use this method to localize persons. In this application, the accuracy is not very important (0.3m is sufficient) but the sensor can be held in different orientations and many occlusions can occur.

First, the vertical lines provide information about the absolute orientation of the sensor around two axes thanks to the common vanishing points. Second, they can be used for localization using a simple 2D map because they are invariant to translations about the vertical axis. Vertical lines are numerous inside buildings and difficult to occlude completely. Thus, vertical lines based method particularly fits our application.

Our method allows a realtime matching with varying orientation around every axes. We can use *a priori* knowledge consisting in a 2D map which is easy to acquire. Thus, the camera to localize do not have to acquire images continuously from a known starting position. Moreover, vertical lines images are well detected in varying poses and this compensates the fact that they can be less numerous than corners in the image.

In this paper, we first give a method to retrieve the two axes orientation using the vertical lines images acquired with a calibrated camera. Then we show how to determine the 2D pose using a simple 2D map of the scene and present some experimental results.

## 2 THE VERTICAL LINES IMAGES DETECTION

The catadioptric camera is calibrated using the Geyer & Daniilidis method (Geyer 1999) in order to know the correspondence between the viewing sphere and the image. The detection of a central catadioptric line image  $dl_i$  can be accomplished by finding the orientation of the plane  $\pi_i$  containing  $dl_i$  (the line image  $dl_i$  lifted on the viewing sphere) and the viewpoint  $F$  as shown on fig. 1. Ying & Hu (Ying 2004) and Vasseur & Mouaddib (Vasseur 2004) proposed robust methods to detect the line images using a two parameters Hough transform. For our experiments, we use our own realtime line image detector which is based on robust least squares fitting of planes on the image points projected on the mirror surface. It provides the same kind of results than the Hough based methods but with increased speed.

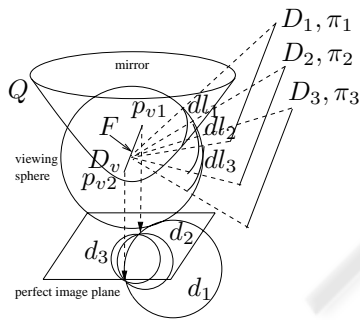


Figure 1: Central catadioptric projection of parallel lines to portions of great circles on the viewing sphere and the paracatadioptric projection on the image.

The parallel lines can be detected from the image by finding the two vanishing points located at the intersection of parallel lines images which are conics (Geyer 2001). In this case, the detection of vanishing points is difficult because the conics parameters are not accurately estimated from small conic sections on noisy data and thus parallel lines images do not intersect precisely in the same points (see fig 6.g for an example).

We propose a method to gather the potentially parallel lines in space based on the detection of the line  $D_v$  which is common to a set of planes  $\pi_i$  defined by parallel lines  $D_i$  in space.  $D_v$  defines a bundle of planes. In practice, the detected planes  $\pi_i$  do not intersect exactly in  $D_v$ . Nevertheless, our method allows the gathering from a criterion based on an angular measurement.

The intersection of two planes  $\pi_i$  and  $\pi_j$  respectively with normals  $n_i$  and  $n_j$  is a line in the direction  $h(\pi_i, \pi_j)$  passing through  $F$ . We have chosen to use  $g(\pi_i, \pi_j)$ , a normalized vector in the top hemisphere

defined by:  $g(\pi_i, \pi_j) = \frac{n_i \wedge n_j}{\|n_i \wedge n_j\|} \cdot \text{sign}((n_i \wedge n_j)_z)$ .

We give a criterion which measures how close to a single line three planes  $\pi_i$ ,  $\pi_j$  and  $\pi_k$  intersect. It uses the angular measurement  $\omega(\pi_i, \pi_j, \pi_k)$  between  $g(\pi_i, \pi_j)$  and  $g(\pi_i, \pi_k)$ :  $\omega(\pi_i, \pi_j, \pi_k) = \text{acos}(g(\pi_i, \pi_j) \cdot g(\pi_i, \pi_k))$ .

To deal with planes which have a normal near the axis  $z$ , a "close" intersection between three planes  $\pi_i, \pi_j, \pi_k$  is detected in the following two cases:  $\omega(\pi_i, \pi_j, \pi_k) < \omega_{thres}$  or  $\omega(\pi_i, \pi_j, \pi_k) > \pi - \omega_{thres}$ . The parameter  $\omega_{thres}$  is an angular threshold and has to be set in accordance with the accuracy of the sensor. On the figure 2, a small angle between  $g(\pi_1, \pi_2)$ ,  $g(\pi_1, \pi_3)$  and  $g(\pi_1, \pi_4)$  indicates that  $\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3$  and  $\pi_4$  almost define a bundle of planes so we can conclude that  $D_1, D_2, D_3$  and  $D_4$  are potentially parallel in space.

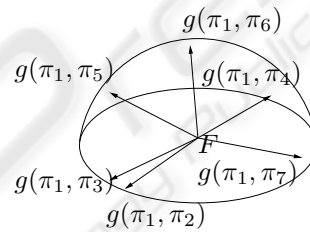


Figure 2: Angles between planes intersections.

A score is given to each gathered solution by summing the scores  $sc_i$  corresponding to planes  $\pi_i$  inside the bundle. The score  $sc_i$  is computed for each line image by counting the number of corresponding pixels. So the gathered solution having the best score fits the greatest number of line points and thus corresponds to the main orientation inside the scene.

This method is robust to erroneous detection of vertical lines because the normal of such lines do not fit inside the threshold and thus are not taken in account. Once the planes have been gathered, a more precise intersection is computed using iterative Levenberg Marquardt (LM) algorithm. Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be respectively the azimuth and elevation of the line  $P_{(\alpha, \beta)}$  corresponding to the best intersection. Its corresponding 3D vector coordinates are  $P_{3D(\alpha, \beta)} = [P_x, P_y, P_z]$  and  $P_x = (\cos(\alpha) \cdot \cos(\beta))$ ,  $P_y = (\sin(\alpha) \cdot \cos(\beta))$  and  $P_z = \sin(\beta)$ . The intersection of two random planes from the gathered set is used as an initialization value. The different planes are weighted by their scores  $sc_i$  and  $P_{3D(\alpha, \beta)}$  is computed to be the most possibly perpendicular line to all the weighted normalized normals of planes  $n_i$  by minimizing the following criteria:

$$C(\alpha, \beta) = \sum sc_i \left| \text{acos}(P_{3D(\alpha, \beta)} \cdot n_i) - \frac{\pi}{2} \right|^2 \quad (1)$$

$$(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) = \arg \min_{(\alpha, \beta)} C(\alpha, \beta) \quad (2)$$

As the vertical lines are often the most numerous inside buildings, this method is used to detect their relative orientation and thus to detect the sensor's orientation around two axes. To increase the robustness of the vertical line detection, we can restrict the potential orientations by asking the user to hold the camera in an interval of angular values ( $\pm 45^\circ$ ). It is thus easy to discard the candidate orientations that cannot be vertical. The two axes orientation of the sensor is obtained by computing the 3D rotation  $R(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$  that brings  $P_{3D(\alpha, \beta)}$  to a vertical line.

### 3 THE 2D POSE DETECTION

Once the rotation  $R(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$  has been detected, the localization can be achieved in 2D. The altitude is not estimated as it can vary between different users and it is not an useful data in our application where only an approximate localization of the camera inside the 2D map is needed. For buildings with multiple floors, a single 2D map can be created by lifting the different floors maps to different locations on the same plane. A 2D map contains the positions of vertical lines  $(x_i, y_i)$  and the occlusive segments joining these points.

In the noiseless and non degenerate cases (no more than two map points and camera position lie on the same line), 3 points are sufficient to localize the camera. However, due to the limited accuracy of the vertical line detector, more points should be used to achieve an accurate localization.

The figure 3 shows an example of a simple 2D map made of 8 points and 8 occlusive segments.

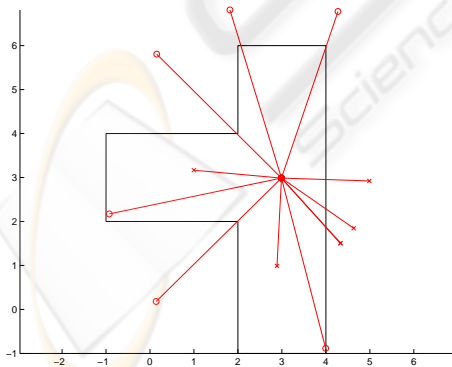


Figure 3: The 2D map (in black), inlier lines images (long red lines with circles) and outliers (short red lines with cross) after localization (the sensor is located at the intersection of all the red lines). The scale is in meter unit.

Each plane  $\pi_i$  corresponding to a detected vertical

line is defined by an value  $\gamma_i$ .  $\gamma_i$  is the angle around the vertical axis corresponding to the intersection of the plane  $\pi_i$  with the horizontal plane. The plane  $\pi_i$  is not sufficient to know on which side of the viewing sphere lie a vertical line  $D_i$ . Let  $p_i$  be the image points corresponding to the line image  $d_i$ . These points are lifted to the viewing sphere in  $P_i$  and then rotated to  $RP_i = R(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) \cdot P_i$  in order to align the viewing sphere with the vertical. As the  $p_i$  correspond to a vertical line of the scene, the  $RP_i$  lie on the same meridian on the viewing sphere. We use the center of mass of  $RP_i$  to know on which side of the sphere the line is located and thus can compute the corresponding angular value  $\gamma_i$  in the range  $[0, 2\pi]$ . If the  $RP_i$  lie on the two sides of the sphere, then we detect a line on each side of the camera. A descriptor of a location is defined by a vector of different  $\gamma_i$ .

Let us first consider that the correspondences between every  $\gamma_i$  and 2D scene point  $i$  (corresponding to a vertical line located in  $(x_i, y_i)$ ) are known.

Let the pose be defined by three parameters.  $x_c$  and  $y_c$  are the 2D position of the camera in the map and  $\gamma_c$  is the rotation.

Let  $\gamma_a$  be the angular direction corresponding to the point  $i$  in the map viewed from the pose  $(x_c, y_c, \gamma_c)$ :

$$\gamma_a = \text{atan2}(y_i - y_c, x_i - x_c) - \gamma_c \quad (3)$$

The correct pose best fits the different angular values  $\gamma_a$  for every  $\gamma_i$ . The angular error has to be expressed in the interval  $[-\pi, \pi]$  in order to be near zero for small deviations in the two directions. Finally  $E(i, x_c, y_c, \gamma_c)$  corresponds for each point  $i$  to the squared angular difference:

$$E(i, x_c, y_c, \gamma_c) = \left| \gamma_i - \gamma_a \right|_{[-\pi, \pi]}^2 \quad (4)$$

The pose is then estimated using Levenberg Marquardt to minimize the following criteria:

$$(\hat{x}_c, \hat{y}_c, \hat{\gamma}_c) = \arg \min_{(x_c, y_c, \gamma_c)} \sum V_i \quad sc_i \quad E(i, x_c, y_c, \gamma_c) \quad (5)$$

where  $V_i$  is equal to 1 if the point  $i$  is not occluded by segments of the map from  $(x_c, y_c)$  and 0 else.  $sc_i$  is the score corresponding to the plane  $\pi_i$  as described in the previous section.

In practice, all the  $V_i$  are equal to 1 if the correspondences are all correct because only the non occluded lines are detected on the image. If we do not deal with the occlusions and noise and use a sufficient number of points ( $> 4$ ), the convergence is generally obtained for any initialization value.

Let us now consider the more complex problem of detecting inliers and outliers  $\gamma_i$  and finding the correspondences with points from the map. A simple RANSAC scheme would result in long process-

ing time even if only a few of the possible correspondences have to be tested, as at least triplets (3 correspondences) of couples (1 map point and one  $\gamma_i$ ) are needed to compute a pose  $P_R$ .

In order to reduce the computational complexity, we propose to achieve a Delaunay triangulation of the 2D map (as shown on the fig 4). We then use the three corners of each triangle as triplets of points to match, as they are never occluded (by map segments) from inside the triangle. The correspondences between the triangle corners points  $i$  and  $\gamma_i$  have to respect the order constraint. If there are  $N$  map points,  $M$  values  $\gamma_i$  and  $P$  Delaunay triangles, the number of all possible solutions to test is reduced from  $(N.M)^3$  to less than  $P.M^3$  as there are less than  $M^3$  combinations of correspondences verifying the order constraint.

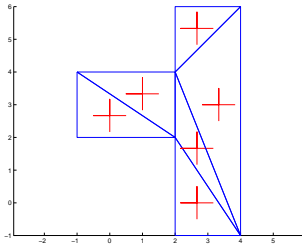


Figure 4: The Delaunay triangulation of the 2D map and the corresponding initialization value (red crosses).

We now show how to discard quickly an invalid triplet of correspondences. Two points  $i$  and  $j$  and a relative angle  $\gamma_i - \gamma_j$  define a circle of potential locations for  $(x_c, y_c)$  as shown on fig 5. The third point  $k$  should lie on a line related to  $(x_i, y_i) - (x_c, y_c)$  by  $\gamma_k - \gamma_i$  and to  $(x_j, y_j) - (x_c, y_c)$  by  $\gamma_j - \gamma_k$ . So, if the two extremum positions are considered for the camera position  $(x_c, y_c)$ ,  $(x_k, y_k)$  should lie inside the zone between the two lines  $L_i$  and  $L_j$  defined by the tangents of the circle at point  $i$  (resp.  $j$ ) and the angles  $\gamma_k - \gamma_i$  (resp.  $\gamma_j - \gamma_k$ ). Thus, if  $(x_k, y_k)$  is inside the circle or outside the zone delimited by  $L_i$  and  $L_j$ , the triplet is discarded.

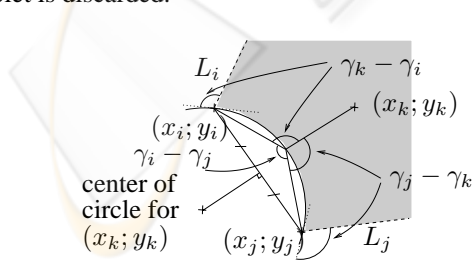


Figure 5: Fast detection of valid triplets (i,j,k).

The non linear optimization of the Equ. 5 is applied on the retained triplets of points in order to es-

timate the pose. The center of the Delaunay triangle is used as initial value (fig. 4). The process is applied to several different triplets and the pose  $P_R$  which fits the greatest numbers of  $\gamma_i$  within an angular threshold  $thres_\gamma$  and without occlusion due to occluding segments is kept.

Once the best pose  $P_R$  has been computed from three points, the optimization is achieved on all the detected inliers using the pose  $P_R$  as initialization value.

The figure 3 shows the localization of a pose in the 2D map. The inliers are shown in red long line finishing with a circle and the outliers are shown in red short line finishing with a cross.

Once the camera has been localized, it is easy to track it inside the map if three lines images are visible on the two successive images. Each vertical line projection  $\gamma_i$  is tracked individually to keep the correspondence information and the new pose is estimated using the last pose as initialization value. Some correspondences are removed and others are added during the process.

## 4 RESULTS

In our experiments, we use 568\*426 pixels images, a paracatadioptric sensor [4] and a Pentium IV based computer running at 1.8 Ghz. The figure 1 shows parallel lines imaged by this sensor. In a perfect image plane, with zero skew and square pixels, these projections are circles having two common points (the projections of the vanishing points  $p_{v1}$  and  $p_{v2}$ ).

In order to validate the two axes orientation detection, the camera is mounted on a rotating table moved by a high accuracy step motor ( $0.03^\circ/\text{step}$ ). We apply the method to images of a scene containing two main sets of parallel lines disposed on the 3D pattern shown on the figure 6.a, parameter  $\omega_{thres}$  being set to  $4^\circ$ . In this example, 45 lines images have been detected. The best set of potentially parallel lines contains 23 lines and is shown on the figure 6.b. The figure 6.e shows the normals of planes  $\pi_i$  and the corresponding computed orientation  $(\alpha, \beta)$  in 3D. The figures 6.f and 6.g show the two estimated vanishing points on the paracatadioptric image plane. The orientation of the sensor is closely related to the relative position of the vanishing points around the projection of the viewpoint.

We apply the method for different rotations and plot the orientation error as a function of the real orientation on the figure 6.c. 10 tests are done on different images for 9 different values of rotation from  $-60^\circ$  to  $60^\circ$  using a  $15^\circ$  step. The plot shows the maximum, minimum and mean error. The figure 6.d shows the result for the other axis obtained by rotating the

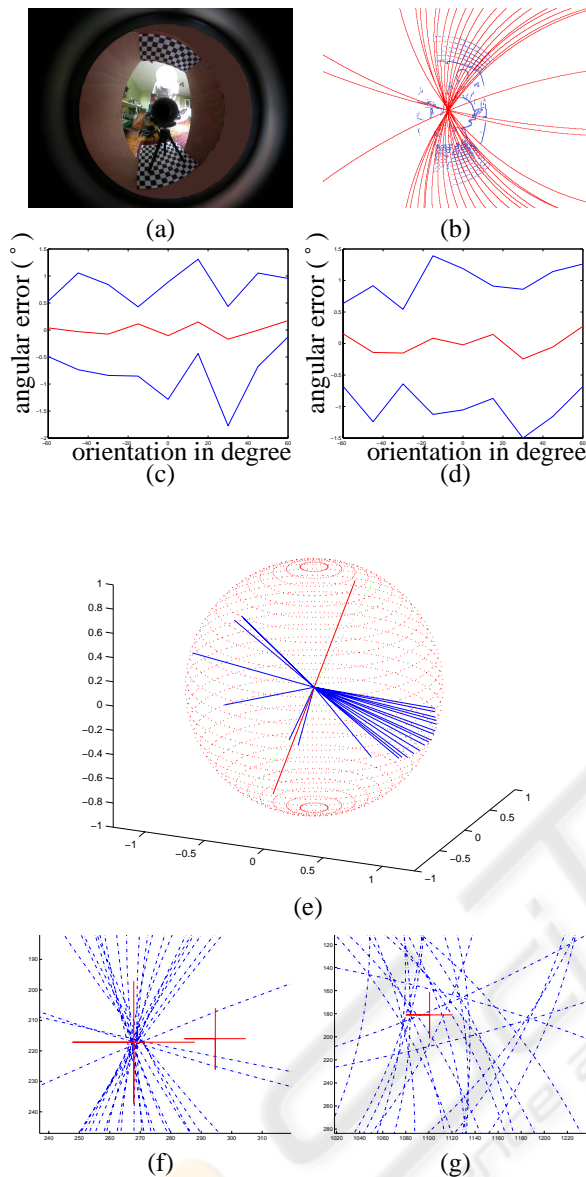


Figure 6: (a) An image of the 3D pattern. (b) Detected lines images. (c) Maximum, mean and minimum error in degree versus ground trust orientation. (d) Same plotting than (c) around the other axis of rotation. (e) The normalized normals to the different planes of the bundle and the retrieved orientation (orthogonal line ). (f) One computed vanishing point (Big cross) and projection of the sphere center on the image plane (Small cross). (g) The second vanishing point (Big cross.)

3D pattern by  $\pi/2$ . These curves show that the estimation is not biased and that the absolute maximum deviation is less than  $2^\circ$ .

Once the orientation around the two axes has been determined, for validation purpose, a rectification of the image is achieved in order to obtain an image from

the same viewpoint but with a fixed sensor's orientation. The figure 7.a shows an image acquired by our camera projected to a cylinder whose axis of rotation is the revolution axis of the paraboloidal mirror. The figure 7.b shows the same image projected to a vertical cylinder, whose relative orientation is estimated using the vertical lines projections. The images of the vertical lines of the scene are approximately vertical in the cylindrical projection, as the orientation of the sensor has been well estimated. A completely rotation invariant image can be generated by shifting the cylindrical image by the detected orientation  $\hat{\gamma}_c$ .

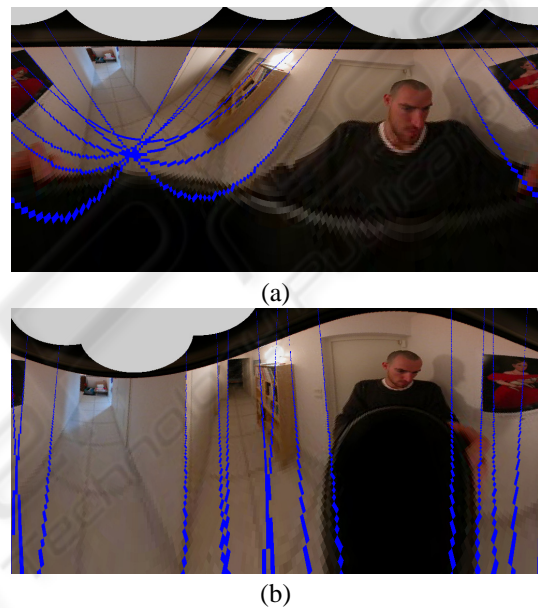


Figure 7: The cylindrical projection of the original (a) and rectified (b) image and some of the detected vertical lines.

We now validate the 2D pose detection using the synthetic map of the fig 3. 100 random poses are generated inside this map and 6 random inliers are kept while 5 random outliers are added. The two first rows of table 1 shows the mean and max absolute deviation for the pose parameters without noise. On the first part of the table, the  $\gamma_i$  are noised. For a random angular maximum deviation of  $2^\circ$  (which correspond to the accuracy of our vertical lines detector), the max pose error is less than 10cm and  $2.3^\circ$ . The second part of the table shows the influence of errors in the 2D map (positions of the vertical lines) using a  $2^\circ$  deviation for  $\gamma_i$ . Errors of about 20cm do not degrade very much the accuracy of the pose estimation. The last column shows how many poses have been completely erroneously estimated because of a bad choice of inliers. Theses false matches are not taken into account in the calculus of the deviations.

The method is now used to localize a real camera

Table 1: Varying deviations of  $\gamma_i$  or  $(x_i, y_i)$  over 100 tests and their influence on the absolute deviation of pose estimation parameters. (sub row 1=mean, sub row 2=max). The right column shows the number of images that have been erroneously localized.

$\Delta\gamma_i$	$\Delta x_c$ (m)	$\Delta y_c$ (m)	$\Delta\gamma_c(^{\circ})$	bad
0°	0.0007	0.0060	0.0917	0
	0.0677	0.0597	1.7762	
2°	0.0110	0.0127	1.0485	1
	0.0523	0.0998	2.3090	
5°	0.0294	0.0305	2.4981	3
	0.1743	0.1163	4.2628	
10°	0.0501	0.0647	4.8415	4
	0.1820	0.2830	7.3625	
$\Delta(x_i, y_i)$	$\Delta x_c$ (m)	$\Delta y_c$ (m)	$\Delta\gamma_c(^{\circ})$	bad
0.2m	0.0467	0.0516	1.1115	2
	0.1895	0.1645	3.6326	
0.5m	0.1321	0.1455	1.6100	4
	0.7256	0.4124	7.7750	

inside three different rooms (approx. surface: 60m<sup>2</sup>) containing 63 main vertical lines (wall corners, windows and doors borders, racks and desks) whose positions are measured by hand. The fig 7.b shows a part of the indoor environment used in this experiment. We processed 40 images randomly selected from a sequence of 150 frames acquired at 15fps. 32 images were correctly localized, the position of the camera being estimated inside a 20cm tolerance (We use the tiled floor to localize approximately the camera as ground thrust).  $\gamma_c$  is compared with the angle given by an electronic compass whose accuracy is about 2°. The maximum detected orientation error for  $\gamma_c$  in the 32 images is less than 4°. The 8 images which have been erroneously localized can geometrically correspond to different locations due to outliers. However when we use the complete sequence to track the pose and the correspondences between vertical lines and  $\gamma_i$ , all the 150 images are correctly localized.

The detection of the lines images takes about 40 ms (mean time for 150 images for approx 20000 contour points and up to 100 lines to detect). The computation of  $(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$  is generally achieved in less than 1 ms. The 2D pose estimation time greatly depends of the complexity of the 2D map and the number of the detected vertical lines. In our experiments, the localization of the first image of the sequence has needed 1.2 sec. The tracking of the following poses, however, has been achieved in a few ms. During the first two seconds, the computer processes the first pose and caches the incoming images. Then it processes the cached images more quickly than the acquisition rate and thus can localize in realtime at 15 fps after about

three seconds of initialization.

## 5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have proposed an original method to detect the pose of a central catadioptric camera from an image of a indoor environment containing vertical lines. The two axes orientation detection which is first applied can be used in others applications to detect arbitrary sets of parallel lines. The 2D pose estimation, in spite of its apparent simplicity has exhibited an high computational complexity due to the presence of outliers and unknown matches. We have proposed improvements allowing to achieve the pose estimation in realtime using a smart selection of the correspondences between the lines in the 2D map and the detected vertical lines. Realtime is also obtained thanks to a caching of the images and a tracking of the correspondences inside the sequence. As future work, we plan to integrate colorimetric information to avoid false detections that are geometrically correct and to accelerate the search of the correspondences by discarding incompatible matches. Methods based on 1D Panoramas (Briggs 2005) will also be investigated. Then, experiments on entire buildings will be achieved to validate the approach at a wide scale.

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