Hand-Eye Calibration: 4-D Procrustes Analysis Approach

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Abstract—We give a universal analytical solution to the hand-eye calibration problem AX = XB with known matrices A and B and unknown variable X, all in the set of special Euclidean group SE(3). The developed method relies on the 4-D Procrustes analysis. A unit-octonion representation is proposed for the first time to solve such a Procrustes problem through which an optimal closed-form eigendecomposition solution is derived. By virtue of such a solution, the uncertainty description of X, being a sophisticated problem previously, can be solved in a simpler manner. The proposed approach is then verified using simulations and real-world experimentations on an industrial robotic arm. The results indicate that it owns better accuracy and better description of uncertainty and consumes much less computation time.

Index Terms—Hand-eye calibration, homogenous transformation, least squares, octonions, quaternions.

I. INTRODUCTION

THE main hand-eye calibration problem studied in this paper is aimed to compute the unknown relative homogeneous transformation X between a robotic gripper and an attached camera, whose poses are denoted as A and B, respectively, such that AX = XB. Hand-eye calibration can be solved via general solutions to the AX = XB problems or through minimizing direct models established using reprojection errors [1]. However, the hand-eye problem AX = XBis not restricted only to the manipulator-camera calibration. Rather, it has been applied to multiple sensor calibration problems, including magnetic/inertial ones [2], camera/magnetic ones [3], and other general models [4]. That is to say, the solution of AX = XB is more generalized and has broader applications than the methods based on reprojection-error minimization. The early study of the hand-eye calibration problem can be dated back to 1980s when some researchers try

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to determine the gripper-camera transformation for accurate robotic perception and reconstruction. During the past over 30 years, there have been a large variety of algorithms solving the hand-eye problem AX = XB. Generally speaking, they can be categorized into two groups. The first group consists of those algorithms that calculate the rotation in the first step and then compute the translation part in the second step, while in the second group, algorithms compute the rotation and translation simultaneously. There are quite a lot of methods belonging to the very first group that we call them as separated ones, including the representatives of rotationlogarithm-based ones, such as Tsai and Lenz [5], Shiu and Ahmad [6], Park and Martin [7], Horaud and Dornaika [8], and quaternion-based one from Chou and Kamel [9]. The simultaneous ones appear in the second group with the related representatives of as follows.

- 1) *Analytical Solutions*: Quaternion-based method by Lu and Chou [10], dual-quaternion-based one by Daniilidis [11], Sylvester-equation-based one by Andreff *et al.* [12], and dual-tensor-based one by Condurache and Burlacu [13].
- 2) Numerical Solutions: Gradient/Newton methods by Gwak et al. [14], linear-matrix-inequality (LMI)-based one by Heller et al. [15], alternativelinear-programming-based one by Zhao [16], and pseudo-inverse-based one by Zhang [3] and Zhang et al. [17].

Each kind of algorithms has its own pros and cons. The separated ones cannot produce good enough results with those cases when translation measurements are more accurate than rotation. The simultaneous ones can achieve better optimization performances but may consume a large quantity of time when using numerical iterations. Some algorithms will also suffer from their own ill-posed conditions in the presence of some extreme data sets [18]. What is more, the uncertainty description of X in a hand-eye problem AX = XB, being an important but difficult problem, has always troubled researchers until the first public general iterative solution by Nguyen and Pham [19]. An intuitive overview of these algorithms in the order of publication time can be found out in Table I.

Until now, hand-eye calibration has accelerated the development of robotics communities according to its various usages in sensor calibration and motion sensing [20], [21]. Although it has been quite a long time since the first proposal of hand-eye calibration, the studies around it are still

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TABLE I Comparisons Between Related Methods

Methods	Туре	Parameterization or Basic Tools	Computation Speed	Accuracy	Has Uncertainty Description?
Tsai et al. 1989 [5]	Separated, Analytical	Rotation Logarithms	High	Medium	No
Shiu et al. 1989 [6]	Separated, Analytical	Rotation Logarithms	Low	Low	No
Park et al. 1994 [7]	Separated, Analytical	Rotation Logarithms, SVD	Medium	Medium	No
Horaud 1995 [8]	Separated, Analytical	Rotation Logarithms, Eigen-decomposition	High	Medium	No
Chou et al. 1991 [9]	Separated, Analytical	Quaternion, SVD	High	Medium	No
Daniilidis 1999 [11]	Simultaneous, Analytical	Dual Quaternion, SVD	Medium	Medium	No
Andreff et al. 2001 [12]	Simultaneous, Analytical	Sylverster Equation, Kronecker Product	High	Medium	No
Lu et al. 2002 [10]	Simultaneous, Analytical	Quaternion, SVD	Low	Medium	No
Gwak et al. 2003 [14]	Simultaneous, Optimization	Gradient/Newton Method	Very Low	High	No
Heller et al. 2014 [15]	Simultaneous, Optimization	Quaternion, Dual Quaternion, LMI	Very Low	High	No
Condurache et al. 2016 [13]	Simultaneous, Analytical	Dual Tensor, SVD or QR Decomposition	Medium	Medium	No
Zhang et al. 2017 [17]	Simultaneous, Optimization	Dual Quaternion, Pseudo Inverse	Medium	Medium	No
Zhao 2018 [16]	Simultaneous, Optimization	Dual Quaternion, Alternative Linear Programming	Very Low	High	No
Nguyen et al. 2018 [19]	Separated, Optimization	Rotation Iteration	Very Low	High	Yes

very popular. There is still a remaining problem that no algorithm can simultaneously estimate X in AX = XB while preserving highly accurate uncertainty descriptions and consuming extremely low computation time. These difficulties are rather practical since in the hand-eye problem AX = XB, the rotation and translation parts are tightly coupled with high nonlinearity, which motivates Nguyen and Pham to derive the first-order approximation of the error covariance propagation. It is also the presented nonlinearity that makes the numerical iterations much slower.

To overcome the current algorithmic shortcomings, in this paper, we study a new 4-D Procrustes analysis tool for the representation of homogeneous transformations. Understanding the manifolds has become a popular way for modern interior analysis of various data flows [22]. The geometric descriptions of these manifolds have always been vital, which are usually addressed with the Procrustes analysis that extracts the rigid, affine, or non-rigid geometric mappings between the data sets [23], [24]. Early studies on Procrustes analysis have been conducted since 1930s [25]–[27], and later generalized solutions are applied to spacecraft attitude determination [28], [29], image registration [30], [31], laser scan matching using iterative closest points (ICP) [32], [33], and so on. Motivated by these technological advances, this paper has the following contributions.

- We show some analytical results to the 4-D Procrustes analysis in Section III and apply them to the solution of hand-eye calibration problem detailed in Section II.
- Since all variables are directly propagated into final results, the solving process is quite simple and computationally efficient.
- 3) Also, as the proposed solution is in the form of the spectrum decomposition of a 4×4 matrix, the closed-form probabilistic information is given precisely and flexibly for the first time using some recent results in automatic control.

Finally, via simulations and real-world robotic experiments in Section IV, the proposed method is evaluated to own better potential accuracy, computational loads, and uncertainty descriptions. Detailed comparisons are also shown to reveal the sensitivity of the proposed method subject to input noise and different parameter values.

II. PROBLEM FORMULATION

We start this section by first defining some important notations in this paper that are mostly inherited from [34]. The *n*-dimensional real Euclidean space is represented by \mathbb{R}^n , which further generates the matrix space $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ containing all real matrices with *m* rows and *n* columns. All *n*-dimensional rotation matrices belong to the special orthogonal group SO(*n*) := { $R \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} | R^T R = I$, det(R) = 1}, where *I* denotes the identity matrix with proper size. The special Euclidean space is composed of a rotation matrix R and a translational vector *t*, such that

$$\operatorname{SE}(n) := \left\{ T = \begin{pmatrix} R & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} | R \in \operatorname{SO}(n), t \in \mathbb{R}^n \right\}$$
(1)

with **0** denoting the zeros matrix with adequate dimensions. The Euclidean norm of a given squared matrix X will be defined with $||X|| = (tr(X^T X))^{1/2}$, where tr denotes the matrix trace. The vectorization of an arbitrary matrix X is defined as vec(X), and \otimes represents the kronecker product between two matrices. For a given arbitrary matrix X, X^{\dagger} is called its Moore–Penrose generalized inverse. Any rotation R on SO(3) has its corresponding logarithm given by

$$\log(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{\phi}{2\sin\phi}(\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{R}^T)$$
(2)

in which $1 + 2\cos\phi = \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{R})$. Given a 3-D vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)^T$, its associated skew-symmetric matrix is

$$[\mathbf{x}]_{\times} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -x_3 & x_2 \\ x_3 & 0 & -x_1 \\ -x_2 & x_1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(3)

satisfying $x \times y = [x]_{\times} y = -[y]_{\times} x$, where y is also an arbitrary 3-D vector. The inverse map from the skew-symmetric matrix to the 3-D vector is denoted as $[x]_{\times}^{\wedge} = x$.

Now, let us describe the main problem in this paper. Given two measurement sets

$$\mathcal{A} = \{ A_i | A_i \in SE(3), i = 1, 2, \dots, N \}$$

$$\mathcal{B} = \{ B_i | B_i \in SE(3), i = 1, 2, \dots, N \}$$
 (4)

consider the hand-eye calibration least square

$$\underset{X \in \text{SE(3)}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \mathcal{J} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \|\boldsymbol{A}_{i}\boldsymbol{X} - \boldsymbol{X}\boldsymbol{B}_{i}\|^{2}$$
(5)



Fig. 1. Relationship between various homogeneous transformations for gripper-camera hand-eye calibration.

where A_i and B_i come to the reality using poses in two successive measurements (also see [11, Fig. 1])

$$A_{i} = T_{A_{i+1}} T_{A_{i}}^{-1}$$

$$B_{i} = T_{B_{i+1}}^{-1} T_{B_{i}}$$
(6)

with T_{A_i} being the *i*th camera pose with respect to the standard objects in a world frame and

$$T_{B_i} = T_{B_{i,3}} T_{B_{i,2}} T_{B_{i,1}}$$
(7)

are gripper poses with respect to the robotic base, in which $T_{B_{i,1}}$, $T_{B_{i,2}}$, and $T_{B_{i,3}}$ are the transformations between joints of robotic arms. The relationship between these homogeneous transformations can be found out in Fig. 1. The task for us in the remainder of this paper is to give a closed-form solution of X considering rotation and translation simultaneously and, moreover, derive the uncertainty description of X.

Let us write A and B into

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} R_A & t_A \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} R_B & t_B \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (8)

Then, one easily obtains

$$\begin{aligned} R_A R_X &= R_X R_B \\ R_A t_X + t_A &= R_X t_B + t_X \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

The method by Park and Martin [7] first computes R_X from the first equation of (9) and then solves t_X by inserting R_X into the second sub-equation. The Park's step for computing R_X is tantamount to the following optimization:

$$\underset{\boldsymbol{R}_{X}\in\mathrm{SO}(3)}{\arg\min}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\|\boldsymbol{R}_{X}\boldsymbol{a}_{i}-\boldsymbol{b}_{i}\|^{2}$$
(10)

with

$$a_i = [\log(\mathbf{R}_{A_i})]^{\wedge}$$

$$b_i = [\log(\mathbf{R}_{B_i})]^{\wedge}.$$
(11)

Note that (10) is in fact a rigid 3-D registration problem, which can be solved instantly with singular value decomposition (SVD) or eigendecomposition [29], [32]. However, the solution of Park and Martin does not take the translation into account for R_X , while the accuracy of R_X is actually affected by t_X . Therefore, there are some other methods trying to compute R_X and t_X simultaneously [11], [12]. While these methods fix the remaining problem of Park and Martin, they may not achieve global minimum, as the optimization

$$\arg \min_{\mathbf{R}_{X} \in SO(3), t_{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{3}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\frac{\|\mathbf{R}_{X} \mathbf{a}_{i} - \mathbf{b}_{i}\|^{2}}{+\|\mathbf{R}_{X} t_{B} + t_{X} - \mathbf{R}_{A} t_{X} - t_{A}\|^{2}} \right)$$
(12)

is not always convex. Hence, the iterative numerical methods are proposed to achieve the globally optimal estimates of R_X and t_X , including solvers in [3], [14], [16], and [17]. In Section III, we show a new analytical perspective for hand-eye calibration problem AX = XB using the proposed 4-D Procrustes analysis.

III. 4-D PROCRUSTES ANALYSIS

The whole results in this section are proposed for the first time solving specific 4-D Procrustes analysis problems. The developed approach is, therefore, named the 4DPA method for simplicity in the later contents.

A. Some New Analytical Results

R

Problem 1: Let $\{\mathcal{U}\} = \{u_i \in \mathbb{R}^4\}$ and $\{\mathcal{V}\} = \{v_i \in \mathbb{R}^4\}$, where $i = 1, 2, ..., N, N \ge 3$, be the two point sets in which the correspondences are well matched, such that u_i corresponds exactly to v_i . Find the 4-D rotation R and translation vector t, such that

$$\underset{\in \mathrm{SO}(4), t \in \mathbb{R}^4}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \|\boldsymbol{R}\boldsymbol{u}_i + \boldsymbol{t} - \boldsymbol{v}_i\|^2. \tag{13}$$

)

Solution: Problem 1 is actually a 4-D registration problem that can be easily solved via the SVD

$$R = U \operatorname{diag}[1, 1, 1, \operatorname{det}(UV)]V^{T}$$
$$t = \overline{v} - R\overline{u}$$
(14)

with

$$USV^{T} = H$$

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (u_{i} - \bar{u})(v_{i} - \bar{v})^{T}$$

$$\bar{u} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} u_{i}, \bar{v} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} v_{i}$$
(15)

where $S = \text{diag}(s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4)$ is the diagonal matrix containing all singular values of H. However, SVD cannot reflect the interior geometry of SO(4), and such geometric information of special orthogonal groups will be very helpful for further proofs [35], [36]. The 4-D rotation can be characterized with two unitary quaternions $q_L = (a, b, c, d)^T$ and $q_R = (p, q, r, s)^T$ by [37]

$$\boldsymbol{R} = \boldsymbol{R}_L(\boldsymbol{q}_L)\boldsymbol{R}_R(\boldsymbol{q}_R) \tag{16}$$

with

$$R_{L}(q_{L}) = \begin{pmatrix} a & -b & -c & -d \\ b & a & -d & c \\ c & d & a & -b \\ d & -c & b & a \end{pmatrix}$$
$$R_{R}(q_{R}) = \begin{pmatrix} p & -q & -r & -s \\ q & p & s & -r \\ r & -s & p & q \\ s & r & -q & p \end{pmatrix}$$
(17)

being the left and right matrices. Interestingly, such $R_L(q_L)$ and $R_R(q_R)$ are actually matrix expressions for quaternion products from left- and right-hand sides, respectively. Rising from 3-D spaces, the 4-D rotation is much more sophisticated because the 4-D cross product is not as unique as that in the 3-D case [38]. Therefore, methods previously relying on the 3-D skew-symmetric matrices are no longer extendable for 4-D registration. The parameterization of $R \in SO(4)$ by (16) can also be unified with the unit octonion given by

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\boldsymbol{q}_L^T, \boldsymbol{q}_R^T)^T \in \mathbb{R}^8.$$
(18)

Our task here is to derive the closed-form solution of such σ and therefore compute **R** and **t**. Using the analytical form in (16), we can rewrite the rotation matrix **R** into **R** = (c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4) , with c_1, c_2, c_3 , and c_4 standing for the four

columns of R, respectively. For each column, the algebraic factorization can be performed via

$$c_{1} = P_{1}(\sigma)\sigma$$

$$c_{2} = P_{2}(\sigma)\sigma$$

$$c_{3} = P_{3}(\sigma)\sigma$$

$$c_{4} = P_{4}(\sigma)\sigma$$
(20)

where $P_1(\sigma)$, $P_2(\sigma)$, $P_3(\sigma)$, $P_4(\sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 8}$ are given in Appendix A. These matrices, however, are subjected to the following equalities:

$$P_{1}(\sigma)P_{1}^{T}(\sigma) = P_{2}(\sigma)P_{2}^{T}(\sigma) = P_{3}(\sigma)P_{3}^{T}(\sigma) = P_{4}(\sigma)P_{4}^{T}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{2}(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}+d^{2}+p^{2}+q^{2}+r^{2}+s^{2})I = I.$$
(21)

Then, following the step of [39], one can obtain that ideally:

$$\boldsymbol{P}_{1}^{T}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\boldsymbol{H}_{1} + \boldsymbol{P}_{2}^{T}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\boldsymbol{H}_{2} + \boldsymbol{P}_{3}^{T}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\boldsymbol{H}_{3} + \boldsymbol{P}_{4}^{T}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\boldsymbol{H}_{4} = \boldsymbol{\sigma} \quad (22)$$

where H_1 , H_2 , H_3 , and H_4 are the four rows of the matrix H, such that

$$\boldsymbol{H} = \left(\boldsymbol{H}_{1}^{T}, \boldsymbol{H}_{2}^{T}, \boldsymbol{H}_{3}^{T}, \boldsymbol{H}_{4}^{T}\right)^{T}.$$
 (23)

Evaluating the left part of (22), an eigenvalue problem is derived to [39]

$$W\sigma = \lambda_{W,\max}\sigma. \tag{24}$$

The optimal eigenvector σ is associated with the maximum eigenvalue $\lambda_{W,\max}$ of W, with W being an 8×8 matrix in the form of

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{0} & K\\ K^T & \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix} \tag{25}$$

where **K** is shown in (19), as shown at the bottom of this page. This indicates that $\lambda_{W,\max}$ subjects to

$$\det(\lambda_{W,\max}I - W)$$

$$= \det(\lambda_{W,\max}I)\det\left(\lambda_{W,\max}I - \frac{1}{\lambda_{W,\max}}K^{T}K\right)$$

$$= \det\left(\lambda_{W,\max}^{2}I - K^{T}K\right)$$
(26)

where the details are shown in Appendix A. In other words, $\lambda_{W,\max}^2$ is the eigenvalue of the 4 × 4 matrix $K^T K$. As the symbolic solutions to the generalized quartic equations have been detailed in [40], the computation of the eigenvalues of W will be very simple. When σ is computed, it also gives R and, thus, will produce t according to (14).

$$\boldsymbol{K} = \begin{pmatrix} H_{11} + H_{22} + H_{33} + H_{44} & H_{12} - H_{21} - H_{34} + H_{43} & H_{13} + H_{24} - H_{31} - H_{42} & H_{14} - H_{23} + H_{32} - H_{41} \\ H_{12} - H_{21} + H_{34} - H_{43} & H_{33} - H_{22} - H_{11} + H_{44} & H_{14} - H_{23} - H_{32} + H_{41} & -H_{13} - H_{24} - H_{31} - H_{42} \\ H_{13} - H_{24} - H_{31} + H_{42} & -H_{14} - H_{23} - H_{32} - H_{41} & H_{22} - H_{11} - H_{33} + H_{44} & H_{12} + H_{21} - H_{34} - H_{43} \\ H_{14} + H_{23} - H_{32} - H_{41} & H_{13} - H_{24} + H_{31} - H_{42} & -H_{12} - H_{21} - H_{34} - H_{43} & H_{22} - H_{11} + H_{33} - H_{44} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(19)$$

Sub-Problem 1: Given an improper rotation matrix \tilde{R} which is not strictly on SO(4), find the optimal rotation $R \in SO(4)$ to orthonormalize \tilde{R} .

Solution: This is the orthonormalization problem and can be solved by replacing H as R in (15), as indicated in [41]–[43].

Problem 2: Let $\{\mathcal{E}\} = \{\mathbf{Z}_i \in SO(4)\}$ and $\{\mathcal{Z}\} = \{\mathbf{Z}_i \in SO(4)\}$, where i = 1, 2, ..., N, be the two matrix sets in which \mathbf{E}_i corresponds exactly to \mathbf{Z}_i . Find the 4-D rotation \mathbf{R} , such that

$$\underset{\boldsymbol{R}\in\mathrm{SO}(4)}{\arg\min}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \|\boldsymbol{E}_{i}\boldsymbol{R} - \boldsymbol{R}\boldsymbol{Z}_{i}\|^{2}.$$
(27)

Solution: First, we provide some properties on this problem. Problem 2 is very different with (10) because for rotation on SO(4), the exponential map indicates a 6×6 skew-symmetric matrix. Therefore, the previous 3-D registration method cannot be extended to the 4-D case. In the solution to Problem 1, we reveal some identities of unit octonion for the representation of rotation on SO(4). Note that this is very similar to the previous quaternion decomposition from rotation (QDR) that has been used for solving AR = RB, where $A, B, R \in$ SO(3) [44]. Then, we are going to extend the QDR to the octonion decomposition from rotation (ODR) for the solution of Problem 2.

Like (20), $\mathbf{R} \in SO(4)$ can also be decomposed from rows, such that

$$R = (r_1^T, r_2^T, r_3^T, r_4^T)^T$$

$$r_1 = \sigma^T Q_1(\sigma)$$

$$r_2 = \sigma^T Q_2(\sigma)$$

$$r_3 = \sigma^T Q_3(\sigma)$$

$$r_4 = \sigma^T Q_4(\sigma)$$
(28)

where $Q_1(\sigma)$, $Q_2(\sigma)$, $Q_3(\sigma)$, and $Q_4(\sigma) \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 8}$ are shown in Appendix A.

Invoking this ODR, we are able to transform $E_i R - R Z_i$ into

$$\boldsymbol{E}_{i}\boldsymbol{R} - \boldsymbol{R}\boldsymbol{Z}_{i} = (\boldsymbol{M}_{i,1}\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \boldsymbol{M}_{i,2}\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \boldsymbol{M}_{i,3}\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \boldsymbol{M}_{i,4}\boldsymbol{\sigma}) \qquad (29)$$

where i = 1, 2, ..., N and

$$M_{i,1} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^{T} G_{11,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{12,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{13,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{14,i} \end{pmatrix}, \quad M_{i,2} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^{T} G_{21,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{22,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{23,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{24,i} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$M_{i,3} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^{T} G_{31,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{32,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{33,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{34,i} \end{pmatrix}, \quad M_{i,4} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^{T} G_{41,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{42,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{43,i} \\ \sigma^{T} G_{44,i} \end{pmatrix}$$
(30)

in which each $G_{jk,i}$, j, k = 1, 2, 3, 4 takes the form

$$\boldsymbol{G}_{jk,i} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{0} & \boldsymbol{J}_{jk,i} \\ \boldsymbol{J}_{jk,i}^T & \boldsymbol{0} \end{pmatrix}$$
(31)

with parameter matrices $J_{jk,i} \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 8}$ given in Appendix A. Afterward, the optimal octonion can be sought

by

$$\arg \min_{\boldsymbol{R} \in \text{SO}(4)} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \|\boldsymbol{E}_{i} \boldsymbol{R} - \boldsymbol{R} \boldsymbol{Z}_{i}\|^{2}$$

$$= \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{T} \boldsymbol{\sigma}=1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{T} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{4} \sum_{k=1}^{4} \boldsymbol{G}_{jk,i}^{2} \right) \boldsymbol{\sigma}$$

$$= \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{T} \boldsymbol{\sigma}=1} \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{T} \boldsymbol{F} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$$
(32)

where

$$F = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{4} \sum_{k=1}^{4} G_{jk,i}^{2}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{4} \sum_{k=1}^{4} \begin{pmatrix} J_{jk,i} J_{jk,i}^{T} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & J_{jk,i}^{T} J_{jk,i} \end{pmatrix}.$$
(33)

Equation (32) indicates that σ is the eigenvector belonging to the minimum eigenvalue of F, such that

$$F\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \lambda_{\boldsymbol{F},\min}\boldsymbol{\sigma}.$$
 (34)

Since $J_{jk,i} J_{jk,i}^T$ and $J_{jk,i}^T J_{jk,i}$ have quite the same spectrum distribution, (33) also implies that there are two different minimum eigenvalues for F with their associated eigenvectors representing q_L and q_R , respectively. That is to say, q_L and q_R are the eigenvectors of F_{11} and F_{22} , such that

$$F_{11} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{4} \sum_{k=1}^{4} J_{jk,i} J_{jk,i}^{T}$$

$$F_{22} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{4} \sum_{k=1}^{4} J_{jk,i}^{T} J_{jk,i}$$

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} F_{11} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & F_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$
(35)

associated with their minimum eigenvalues, respectively. Then, inserting the computed q_L and q_R values into (16) gives the optimal $\mathbf{R} \in SO(4)$ for Problem 2.

Sub-Problem 2: Let $\{\mathcal{E}\} = \{E_i \in SO(4)\}$ and $\{\mathcal{Z}\} = \{Z_i \in SO(4)\}$, where i = 1, 2, ..., N, be the two sequential matrix sets in which E_i does not exactly correspond to Z_i . Find the 4-D rotation R

$$\underset{\boldsymbol{R}\in\mathrm{SO}(4)}{\operatorname{arg\,min}}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \|\boldsymbol{E}_{i}\boldsymbol{R} - \boldsymbol{R}\boldsymbol{Z}_{i}\|^{2}$$
(36)

provided that $\{\mathcal{E}\}$ and $\{\mathcal{Z}\}$ are sampled asynchronously.

Solution: In this problem, $\{\mathcal{E}\}\)$ and $\{\mathcal{Z}\}\)$ are the asynchronously sampled measurements with different timestamps. First, we need to interpolate the rotations for smooth consensus. Suppose that we have two successive homogeneous transformations E_i and E_{i+1} with timestamps of $\tau_{E,i}$ and $\tau_{E,i+1}$, respectively. There exists a measurement of Z_i with a timestamp of $\tau_{Z,i} \in [\tau_{E,i}, \tau_{E,i+1}]$. Then, the linear interpolation $E_{i,i+1}$ on SO(4) can be found out by

$$\arg\max_{E_{i,i+1}\in \mathrm{SO}(4)} \operatorname{tr} \begin{bmatrix} w \left(E_{i} E_{i,i+1}^{T} - I \right)^{T} \left(E_{i} E_{i,i+1}^{T} - I \right) \\ + (1 - w) \left(E_{i,i+1} E_{i+1}^{T} - I \right)^{T} \left(E_{i,i+1} E_{i+1}^{T} - I \right) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \arg\max_{E_{i,i+1}\in \mathrm{SO}(4)} \operatorname{tr} \{ E_{i,i+1} [w E_{i} + (1 - w) E_{i+1}]^{T} \} \quad (37)$$

where w is the timestamp weight between E_i and $E_{i,i+1}$, such which yields that that

$$w = \frac{\tau_{E,i+1} - \tau_{Z,i}}{\tau_{E,i+1} - \tau_{E,i}}.$$
(38)

Then, the interpolation can be solved using the solution to Problem 1 by letting $\boldsymbol{H} = [w\boldsymbol{E}_i + (1 - w)\boldsymbol{E}_{i+1}]^T$. After the interpolation, a new interpolated set $\{\tilde{\mathcal{E}}\}$ can be established that well corresponds to $\{\mathcal{Z}\}$ and \boldsymbol{R} can be solved via the solution to Problem 2.

B. Uncertainty Descriptions

In this section, we use \hat{x} for representing the true value of the noise-disturbed vector x. The expectation is denoted using $\langle \cdots \rangle$ [29], [45]. All the errors in this section are assumed to be zero-mean, which can be found out in [29]. As all the solutions provided in Section III-A are all in the spectrum-decomposition form, the errors of the derived quaternions can be given by the perturbation theory [46]. In a recent error analysis for the attitude determination from vector observations by Chang *et al.* [47], the first-order error of the estimated deterministic quaternion q is

$$\delta \boldsymbol{q} = [\boldsymbol{q}^T \otimes (\lambda_{\max} \boldsymbol{I} - \boldsymbol{M})^{\dagger}] \delta \boldsymbol{m}$$
(39)

provided that m = vec(M), λ_{max} being the maximum eigenvalue of the real symmetric matrix M

$$Mq = \lambda_{\max}q. \tag{40}$$

The above-mentioned quaternion error is presented, given the assumption that δq is multiplicative, such that

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{q}} = \delta \boldsymbol{q} \odot \boldsymbol{q} \tag{41}$$

where \odot denotes the quaternion product. The following contents will discuss the covariance expressions for this type of quaternion error.

Using (39), we have the following quaternion error covariance:

$$\Sigma_{\delta q} = \langle \delta q \, \delta q^T \rangle$$

= $\langle [q^T \otimes (\lambda_{\max} I - M)^{\dagger}] \delta m \delta m^T [q^T \otimes (\lambda_{\max} I - M)^{\dagger}]^T \rangle$
= $[q^T \otimes (\lambda_{\max} I - M)^{\dagger}] \Sigma_{\delta m}$
 $\times [q^T \otimes (\lambda_{\max} I - M)^{\dagger}]^T$ (42)

in which

$$\Sigma_{\delta m} = \frac{\partial m}{\partial b} \Sigma_b \left(\frac{\partial m}{\partial b} \right)^T \tag{43}$$

where **b** denotes all input variables contributed to the final form of **M**. Let us take the solution to Problem 2 for example. For q_L , we have

$$F_{11}q_L = \lambda_{F,\min}q_L = \lambda_{F_{11},\min}q_L \tag{44}$$

$$M = -F_{11}, \lambda_{\max} = -\lambda_{F_{11},\min}$$

$$m = -\operatorname{vec}(F_{11})$$

$$\frac{\partial m}{\partial b} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{4} \sum_{k=1}^{4} \frac{\partial \operatorname{vec}(J_{jk,i}J_{jk,i}^{T})}{\partial b}$$

$$b = [\operatorname{vec}(E_{i})^{T}, \operatorname{vec}(Z_{i})^{T}]^{T}$$
(45)

where we assume that **b** for every pair of $\{E_i, Z_i\}$ have the same probabilistic distribution. The computation of $(\partial (J_{jk,i}J_{jk,i}^T)/\partial b)$ can be intuitively conducted using analytical forms of matrices in Appendix A, and this part of work is left for the audience of this paper. The covariance of q_R can, therefore, be computed by replacing F_{11} with F_{22} in (45). The cross-covariance between q_L and q_R can also be given as follows:

$$\Sigma_{\delta q_L \delta q_R} = \langle \delta q_L \delta q_R^T \rangle$$

$$= \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} q_L^T \otimes (F_{11} - \lambda_{F_{11},\min} I)^{\dagger} \end{bmatrix} \delta m_L \\ \delta m_R^T [q_R^T \otimes (F_{22}, \lambda_{F_{22},\min} I)^{\dagger}]^T \right\rangle$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} q_L^T \otimes (F_{11} - \lambda_{F_{11},\min} I)^{\dagger} \end{bmatrix} \Sigma_{\delta m_L \delta m_R} \\ \begin{bmatrix} q_R^T \otimes (F_{22}, \lambda_{F_{22},\min} I)^{\dagger} \end{bmatrix}^T$$
(46)

in which $m_L = \text{vec}(F_{11}), m_R = \text{vec}(F_{22})$, and $\Sigma_{\delta m_L \delta m_R}$ is given by

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\delta \boldsymbol{m}_L \delta \boldsymbol{m}_R} = \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{m}_L}{\partial \boldsymbol{b}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{b}} \left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{m}_R}{\partial \boldsymbol{b}} \right)^T.$$
(47)

Eventually, the covariance of the octonion σ will be

$$\Sigma_{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{\delta q_L} & \Sigma_{\delta q_L \delta q_R} \\ \Sigma_{\delta q_R \delta q_L} & \Sigma_{\delta q_R} \end{pmatrix}.$$
(48)

C. Solving AX = XB From SO(4) Perspective

The SO(4) parameterization of SE(3) is presented by Thomas [37] that

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} R & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \xleftarrow{\mathcal{F}_1}_{\mathcal{F}_1^{-1}} R_{T,\text{SO}(4)} = \begin{pmatrix} R & \varepsilon t \\ \varepsilon t^T R & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
(49)

in which ε denotes the dual unit that enables $\varepsilon^2 = 0$. The right part of (49) is on SO(4), and a practical method for approaching the corresponding homogeneous transformation is that we can choose very tiny numbers for $\varepsilon = 1/d$, where $d \gg 1$ is a positive scaling factor to generate real-number approximation of $R_{T,SO(4)}$

$$\boldsymbol{R}_{T,\text{SO}(4)} \approx \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{R} & \frac{1}{d}\boldsymbol{t} \\ \frac{1}{d}\boldsymbol{t}^{T}\boldsymbol{R} & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (50)

It is also noted that the mapping in (49) is not unique. For instance, the following mapping also holds for $R_{T,SO(4)}^T R_{T,SO(4)} = R_{T,SO(4)} R_{T,SO(4)}^T = I$ when $d \gg 1$:

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{0} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \underset{\mathcal{F}_{2}^{-1}}{\overset{\mathcal{F}_{2}}{\longrightarrow}} \mathbf{R}_{T,\mathrm{SO}(4)} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \varepsilon \mathbf{t} \\ -\varepsilon \mathbf{t}^{T} \mathbf{R} & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$
(51)

The convenience of such mapping from SE(3) to SO(4) is that some nonlinear equations on SE(3) can be turned to

linear ones on SO(4). Choosing a scaling factor *d* makes an approximation of homogeneous transformation on SO(4). Then, the conventional hand-eye calibration problem AX = XB can be shifted to

$$\arg\min_{X \in SE(3)} \mathcal{J} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \|A_i X - X B_i\|^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \arg\min_{R_{X,SO(4)} \in SO(4)} \mathcal{J}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \|R_{A_i,SO(4)} R_{X,SO(4)} - R_{X,SO(4)} R_{B_i,SO(4)}\|^2$$
(52)

which can be instantly solved via the solution to Problem 2. With asynchronously sampled measurements, the problem can be refined with solution to Sub-Problem 2. While the uncertainty descriptions of σ related to $R_{X,SO(4)}$ are shown in Section III-B, we would reveal what the covariances of the rotation and translation look like. Suppose that, now, we have obtained the covariance of σ in (48) for $R_{X,SO(4)}$. The covariances between the columns of the rotation and translation are considered. Recalling (20), one finds out that the covariance between the *i*th column and *j*th column of $R_{X,SO(4)}$ is calculated by

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\delta c_{i}\delta c_{j}} \\ &= \langle [\boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\delta\sigma)\sigma + \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\sigma)\delta\sigma] [\boldsymbol{P}_{j}(\delta\sigma)\sigma + \boldsymbol{P}_{j}(\sigma)\delta\sigma]^{T} \rangle \\ &= \left\langle \begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\delta\sigma)\sigma\sigma^{T}\boldsymbol{P}_{j}^{T}(\delta\sigma) + \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\sigma)\delta\sigma\delta\sigma^{T}\boldsymbol{P}_{j}^{T}(\sigma) \\ + \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\delta\sigma)\sigma\delta\sigma^{T}\boldsymbol{P}_{j}^{T}(\sigma) + \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\sigma)\delta\sigma\sigma^{T}\boldsymbol{P}_{j}^{T}(\delta\sigma) \right\rangle \\ &= \left\langle \begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{Y}_{i}(\sigma)\delta\sigma\delta\sigma^{T}\boldsymbol{Y}_{j}^{T}(\sigma) + \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\sigma)\delta\sigma\delta\sigma^{T}\boldsymbol{P}_{j}^{T}(\sigma) \\ + \boldsymbol{Y}_{i}(\sigma)\delta\sigma\delta\sigma^{T}\boldsymbol{P}_{j}^{T}(\sigma) + \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\sigma)\delta\sigma\delta\sigma^{T}\boldsymbol{Y}_{j}^{T}(\sigma) \\ + \boldsymbol{Y}_{i}(\sigma)\Sigma_{\sigma}\boldsymbol{Y}_{j}^{T}(\sigma) + \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\sigma)\Sigma_{\sigma}\boldsymbol{Y}_{j}^{T}(\sigma) \\ &+ \boldsymbol{Y}_{i}(\sigma)\Sigma_{\sigma}\boldsymbol{P}_{j}^{T}(\sigma) + \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\sigma)\Sigma_{\sigma}\boldsymbol{Y}_{j}^{T}(\sigma) \end{split} \right. \end{split}$$
(53)

where $P_i(\delta\sigma)\sigma = Y_i(\sigma)\delta\sigma$ and $Y_i(\sigma)$ is a linear mapping of σ , which can be evaluated by symbolic computations. For the current 4-D Procrustes analysis, interestingly, we have

$$Y_i(\sigma) = P_i(\sigma). \tag{54}$$

Therefore, (53) can be interpreted as

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\delta \boldsymbol{c}_i \delta \boldsymbol{c}_j} = 4 \boldsymbol{P}_i(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} \boldsymbol{P}_j^T(\boldsymbol{\sigma}).$$
(55)

In particular, the rotation-translation cross-covariances will be described by taking the first three rows and three columns of covariance matrices of $d \cdot \Sigma_{\delta c_1 \delta c_4}$, $d \cdot \Sigma_{\delta c_2 \delta c_4}$, $d \cdot \Sigma_{\delta c_3 \delta c_4}$, respectively. More specifically, if we need to obtain the covariance of $R_{X,SO(4)}$, one arrives at

$$\Sigma_{\boldsymbol{R}_{X,SO(4)}} = \left\langle \delta \boldsymbol{R}_{X,SO(4)} \delta \boldsymbol{R}_{X,SO(4)}^{T} \right\rangle$$

=
$$\sum_{i=1}^{4} \left[Y_{i}(\sigma) + \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\sigma) \right] \Sigma_{\sigma} \left[Y_{i}(\sigma) + \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\sigma) \right]^{T}$$

=
$$4 \sum_{i=1}^{4} \boldsymbol{P}_{i}(\sigma) \Sigma_{\sigma} \boldsymbol{P}_{i}^{T}(\sigma)$$
(56)

where

$$\delta \boldsymbol{R}_{\boldsymbol{X},\text{SO}(4)} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta \boldsymbol{P}_{1}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\boldsymbol{\sigma} + \boldsymbol{P}_{1}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\delta\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \, \delta \boldsymbol{P}_{2}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\boldsymbol{\sigma} + \boldsymbol{P}_{2}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\delta\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \\ \delta \boldsymbol{P}_{3}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\boldsymbol{\sigma} + \boldsymbol{P}_{3}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\delta\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \, \delta \boldsymbol{P}_{4}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\boldsymbol{\sigma} + \boldsymbol{P}_{4}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\delta\boldsymbol{\sigma} \end{bmatrix} \\ = \begin{bmatrix} [\boldsymbol{Y}_{1}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) + \boldsymbol{P}_{1}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})]\delta\boldsymbol{\sigma}, [\boldsymbol{Y}_{2}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) + \boldsymbol{P}_{2}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})]\delta\boldsymbol{\sigma}, \\ [\boldsymbol{Y}_{3}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) + \boldsymbol{P}_{3}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})]\delta\boldsymbol{\sigma}, [\boldsymbol{Y}_{4}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}) + \boldsymbol{P}_{4}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})]\delta\boldsymbol{\sigma} \end{bmatrix}.$$
(57)

The covariance of R_X then equals to

$$\Sigma_{R_X} = \Sigma_{R_{X,SO(4)}}(1:3, 1:3)$$
(58)

where (1:3, 1:3) denotes the block containing first three rows and columns. Finally, the covariance of t_X is given by

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{t}_{\boldsymbol{X}}} = d^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\delta \boldsymbol{c}_4 \delta \boldsymbol{c}_4} (1:3, 1:3).$$
(59)

D. Discussion

The presented SO(4) algorithm for hand-eye calibration has the following advantages.

- 1) It can simultaneously solve rotation and translation in X for hand-eye calibration problem AX = XB and thus own comparable accuracy and robustness with previous representatives.
- 2) All the items from *A* and *B* are directly propagated to the final forms of eigendecomposition without any pre-processing techniques, e.g., quaternion conversion from rotation, rotation logarithm remaining in the previous studies.
- According to the direct propagation of variables to the final result, the computation speed is extremely fast.
- 4) The uncertainty descriptions can be obtained easily with the given analytical results.

However, the proposed method also owns its drawback, that is, the accuracy of the final computed X is actually affected by the scaling factor d. Here, one can find out that d is actually a factor that scales the translation part to a small vector. However, this does not mean that larger d will lead to better performance since very large d may reduce the significant digits of a fixed word-length floating-point number. Therefore, d can be empirically determined according to the scale of translation vector and the required accuracy of floating-number processing. For instance, for a 32-bit computer, one single-precision floating-point number requires 4 bytes for storage, then $d = 1 \times 10^5 \sim 1 \times 10^6 \approx 2^{16} \sim 2^{20}$ will be redundant enough, guaranteeing the accuracy of at least 2^{20-32} m = 2^{-12} m = 2.44×10^{-04} m, which is enough for most optical systems with measurement ranges of 10 m. How to choose the most appropriate d value dynamically and optimally will be a difficult but significant task in later works. The algorithmic procedures of the proposed method are described in Algorithm 1 for intuitive implementation. Engineers can also turn to the links in the Acknowledgment section for some MATLAB codes.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

A. Experiments on a Robotic Arm

The first category of experiments is conducted for a gripper-camera hand-eye calibration shown in Fig. 1.

Algorithm 1 Proposed 4DPA Method for Hand-Eye Calibration

Parameter: Empirical value of *d*.

Require:

- Get N measurements of A_i, B_i in {A} and {B} respectively. If they are not synchronously measured, get the most appropriate interpolated sets using solution to Sub-Problem 2.
- 2) Select a scaling factor *d* empirically for SE(3) SO(4) mapping.

Step 1: Convert measurements in $\{A\}$ and $\{B\}$ to rotations on SO(4) via (51).

Step 2: Solve the hand-eye calibration problem AX = XB via the solution to **Problem 2**. Remap the calculated SO(4) solution to SE(3) using (51).

Step 3: Obtain the covariance of the octonion σ related to *X*. Compute the rotation-rotation and rotation-translation cross-covariances via (55).



Fig. 2. Gripper-camera hand-eye calibration experiment.

The data set is generated using a UR10 robotic arm and an Intel Realsense D435i camera attached firmly to the end-effector (gripper) of the robotic arm (see Fig. 2).

The UR10 robotic arm can give accurate outputs of homogeneous transformations of various joints relative to its base. The D435i camera contains color, depth, and fisheye sub-cameras along with an inertial measurement unit (IMU). In this section, the transformation of the end-effector T_{B_i} of the robotic arm is computed using those transformations from all joints via (7). We only pick up the color images from D435i to obtain the transformation of the camera with respect to the 12×9 chessboard. Note that in Fig. 1, the standard objects can be arbitrary ones with certain pre-known models, e.g., point cloud model and computer-aided design (CAD) model. The D435i is factory-calibrated for its intrinsic parameters, and we construct the following projection model for the utilized camera:

$$l_{\text{cam},j} = \begin{pmatrix} l_{\text{cam},1,j} \\ l_{\text{cam},2,j} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} l_{\text{cam},2,j} \\ l_{\text{cam},2,j} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = O\left(\frac{L_{\text{cam},1,j}}{L_{\text{cam},3,j}}, \frac{L_{\text{cam},2,j}}{L_{\text{cam},3,j}}, 1\right)^T$$
(60)

where $I_{\text{cam},j}$ denotes the *j*th measured feature points (corner) of the chessboard in the camera imaging frame, O is the matrix accounting for the intrinsic parameters of the camera, and $L_{\text{cam},j} = (L_{\text{cam},1,j}, L_{\text{cam},2,j}, L_{\text{cam},3,j})^T$ is the projected *j*th feature point in the camera ego-motion frame. To obtain the *i*th pose between the camera and the chessboard, we can relate the standard point coordinates of the chessboard $L_{\text{chess},j}$ for j = 1, 2, ... in the world frame from a certain model with that in the camera frame by

$$L_{\text{chess},j} = T_{A_i} L_{\text{cam},j}.$$
 (61)

By minimizing the projection errors from (61), T_{A_i} will be obtained with nonlinear optimization techniques, e.g., the Perspective-n-Point algorithm [48], [49]. In our experiment, the scale-invariant feature transform (SIFT) is invoked for the extraction of the corner points of the chessboard [50]. We use several data sets captured from our platform to produce comparisons with representatives, including classical ones of Tsai and Lenz [5], Park and Martin [7], Chou and Kamel [9], Daniilidis [11], and Andreff *et al.* [12] and recent ones of Heller *et al.* [15], Zhao [16], and Zhang *et al.* [17]. The error of the hand-eye calibration is defined as follows:

Error
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \|A_i X - X B_i\|^2}$$
 (62)

where A_i and B_i are detailed in (6). All the timing statistics, computation and visualization are carried out on a MacBook Pro 2017 with i7-3.5-GHz CPU along with the MATLAB r2018a software. All the algorithms are implemented using the least coding resources. We employ YALMIP to solve the LMI dqhec optimization in the method of Heller *et al.* [15]. For Zhao's method [16], we invoke the fmincon function in MATLAB for numerical solution.

The robotic arm is rigidly installed on the testing table and is operated smoothly and periodically to capture the images of the chessboard from various directions. Using the above-described mechanisms, we form the series of $\{\mathcal{A}\}, \{\mathcal{B}\}$. We select $d = 10^4$ as a scaling factor for evaluation in this section, as the translational components are all within [-2, 2] m, and in such a range, the camera has the empirical positioning accuracy of about $0.05 \sim 0.2$ m. We choose the \mathcal{F}_2 mapping in (51) for conversion from SE(3) to SO(4) since in real applications, it obtains much more accurate hand-eye calibration results than the \mathcal{F}_1 mapping (49) presented in [37]. The scalar thresholds for the other numerical methods are all set to 1×10^{-15} to guarantee the accuracy. We conduct eight groups of the experiments using the experimental platform. The errors and computation timespans are processed 100 times for averaged performance evaluation, which are provided in Tables II and III. The least errors are marked using the green color, and the best ones for computation time are tagged in blue. The statistics of the proposed method are marked bold in Tables II and III for emphasis. The digits after the case serial numbers indicate the sample counts for the studied case.

One can see that with growing sample counts, all the methods obtain more accurate estimates of X. While with

TABLE II
COMPARISONS WITH CLASSICAL METHODS FOR GRIPPER-CAMERA HAND-EYE CALIBRATION

Cases	Tsai 19	989 [5]	Chou 1	991 [9]	Park 1	994 [7]	Daniilidis	1999 [11]	Andreff	2001 [12]	Proposed 4	4DPA 2019
	Error	Time (s)	Error	Time (s)								
1 (224)	1.2046×10^{-02}	4.0506×10^{-02}	6.8255×10^{-03}	1.0190×10^{-02}	6.8254×10^{-03}	3.5959×10^{-02}	$6.7082 imes 10^{-03}$	3.8308×10^{-02}	7.2650×10^{-03}	5.7292×10^{-03}	6.7857×10^{-03}	$4.4819 imes 10^{-03}$
2 (253)	1.0243×10^{-02}	4.2952×10^{-02}	5.8650×10^{-03}	1.1760×10^{-02}	5.8650×10^{-03}	3.9486×10^{-02}	$5.7704 imes 10^{-03}$	4.1492×10^{-02}	5.8754×10^{-03}	6.8972×10^{-03}	5.8290×10^{-03}	$4.8991 imes 10^{-03}$
3 (298)	8.0653×10^{-03}	4.9823×10^{-02}	5.0514×10^{-03}	1.3105×10^{-02}	5.0517×10^{-03}	4.6559×10^{-02}	$4.9084 imes 10^{-03}$	4.8626×10^{-02}	5.4648×10^{-03}	7.2326×10^{-03}	4.9803×10^{-03}	$5.5470 imes 10^{-03}$
4 (342)	6.8136×10^{-03}	5.3854×10^{-02}	4.7192×10^{-03}	1.4585×10^{-02}	4.7254×10^{-03}	5.6970×10^{-02}	4.0379×10^{-03}	5.3721×10^{-02}	4.8374×10^{-03}	6.7880×10^{-03}	$4.0207 imes 10^{-03}$	$5.5404 imes 10^{-03}$
5 (392)	5.5242×10^{-03}	6.3039×10^{-02}	3.4047×10^{-03}	1.7253×10^{-02}	3.4012×10^{-03}	6.0697×10^{-02}	3.3850×10^{-03}	6.4505×10^{-02}	4.0410×10^{-03}	8.9159×10^{-03}	$3.1678 imes 10^{-03}$	$7.3957 imes 10^{-03}$
6 (433)	4.8072×10^{-03}	6.7117×10^{-02}	2.9723×10^{-03}	1.8354×10^{-02}	2.9694×10^{-03}	6.9967×10^{-02}	2.8957×10^{-03}	6.5703×10^{-02}	3.6410×10^{-03}	9.8837×10^{-03}	$2.7890 imes 10^{-03}$	$7.8954 imes 10^{-03}$
7 (470)	4.3853×10^{-03}	7.6869×10^{-02}	2.7302×10^{-03}	1.9827×10^{-02}	2.7270×10^{-03}	1.9827×10^{-02}	2.6640×10^{-03}	7.5553×10^{-02}	3.3262×10^{-03}	1.0373×10^{-02}	$2.5397 imes 10^{-03}$	$8.1632 imes 10^{-03}$
8 (500)	4.0938×10^{-03}	8.5545×10^{-02}	2.5855×10^{-03}	2.1506×10^{-02}	2.5807×10^{-03}	7.5722×10^{-02}	2.4610×10^{-03}	7.7225×10^{-02}	3.0083×10^{-03}	1.2008×10^{-02}	$2.3137 imes 10^{-03}$	$8.5382 imes10^{-03}$

 TABLE III

 COMPARISONS WITH RECENT METHODS FOR GRIPPER-CAMERA HAND-EYE CALIBRATION

Cases	Heller 2	014 [15]	Zhang 2	017 [17]	Zhao 2	018 [16]	Proposed 4	4DPA 2019
	Error	Time (s)	Error	Time (s)	Error	Time (s)	Error	Time (s)
1 (224)	7.9803×10^{-03}	1.4586×10^{-02}	7.6125×10^{-03}	8.8201×10^{-03}	7.1485×10^{-03}	8.0861×10^{-02}	$6.7857 imes 10^{-03}$	$4.4819 imes 10^{-03}$
2 (253)	6.7894×10^{-03}	1.5661×10^{-02}	6.7908×10^{-03}	9.7096×10^{-03}	6.1710×10^{-03}	1.0787×10^{-01}	$5.8290 imes 10^{-03}$	$4.8991 imes 10^{-03}$
3 (298)	5.6508×10^{-03}	1.8173×10^{-02}	6.0203×10^{-03}	1.2561×10^{-02}	5.3021×10^{-03}	1.4893×10^{-01}	$4.9803 imes 10^{-03}$	$5.5470 imes 10^{-03}$
4 (342)	4.7192×10^{-03}	2.2755×10^{-02}	5.2743×10^{-03}	1.5332×10^{-02}	4.4003×10^{-03}	2.2291×10^{-01}	$4.0207 imes 10^{-03}$	$5.5404 imes10^{-03}$
5 (392)	3.8706×10^{-03}	2.5399×10^{-02}	4.3269×10^{-03}	1.8800×10^{-02}	3.6041×10^{-03}	3.0347×10^{-01}	$3.1678 imes 10^{-03}$	$7.3957 imes 10^{-03}$
6 (433)	3.3504×10^{-03}	2.6373×10^{-02}	3.9732×10^{-03}	2.1613×10^{-02}	3.1658×10^{-03}	3.8768×10^{-01}	$2.7890 imes 10^{-03}$	$7.8954 imes 10^{-03}$
7 (470)	3.0547×10^{-03}	2.7973×10^{-02}	3.3633×10^{-03}	2.5498×10^{-02}	2.8912×10^{-03}	5.0153×10^{-01}	$2.5397 imes 10^{-03}$	$8.1632 imes 10^{-03}$
8 (500)	2.8862×10^{-03}	2.9879×10^{-02}	3.0215×10^{-03}	3.2041×10^{-02}	2.6871×10^{-03}	5.8727×10^{-01}	$2.3137 imes10^{-03}$	$8.5382 imes10^{-03}$

larger quantities of measurements, the processing speeds for the algorithms become slower. However, among all methods, despite they are analytical or iterative, the proposed SO(4)method almost always gives the most accurate results within the least computation time. The reason is that the proposed 4DPA computes the rotation and translation in X simultaneously and well optimizes the loss function \mathcal{J} of the hand-eye calibration problem. The proposed algorithm can obtain better results than almost all other analytical and numerical ones, except for the cases 1–3 using the method of Daniilidis. This indicates that with a few samples, the accuracy of the proposed 4DPA is lower than that of the method of Daniilidis but is still close. However, a few samples indicate relative low confidence in calibration accuracy, and for cases with higher quantities of measurements, the proposed 4DPA method is always the best. This shows that the designed 4-D Procrustes analysis for mapping from SE(3) to SO(4) is more efficient than other tools, e.g., the mappings based on dual quaternion [11] and Kronecker product [12]. Furthermore, our method uses the eigendecomposition as the solution that is regarded as a robust tool for engineering problems. Our method can reduce the estimation error to about 3.06%-94.01% of original stats compared with the classical algorithms and 0.39%-86.11% compared with the recent numerical ones. The proposed method is also free of pre-processing techniques such as quaternion conversion in other algorithms. All the matrix operations are simple and intuitive, which makes the computation very fast. Our method can lower the computation time to about 9.98%-70.68% of original stats compared with the classical analytical algorithms and 1.45%-28.58% compared with the recent numerical ones. A synchronized sequence of the camera-chessboard poses and end-effector poses is made open-source (see the links in the Acknowledgment section). Every researcher can freely download this data set and evaluate the accuracy and computational efficiency. The advantages of the developed method on both precision and computation time will lead to very effective implementations of hand-eye calibration for industrial applications in the future.

B. Error Sensitivity to the Noises and Different Parameters of d

In this section, we study the sensitivity of the proposed method subject to input measurement noises. We define the noise corrupted models of rotations as

$$R_{A,i} = \hat{R}_{A,i} + \operatorname{Error}_{R_X} \mathcal{R}_1$$

$$R_{B,i} = \hat{R}_{B,i} + \operatorname{Error}_{R_X} \mathcal{R}_2$$
(63)

where \mathcal{R}_1 and \mathcal{R}_2 are the random matrices whose columns subject to Gaussian distribution with covariances of I and Error_{R_X} is a scalar accounting for the rotation error. Likewise, the noise models of translations can be given by

$$t_{A,i} = t_{A,i} + \operatorname{Error}_{t_X} \mathcal{T}_1$$

$$t_{B,i} = \hat{t}_{B,i} + \operatorname{Error}_{t_X} \mathcal{T}_2$$
(64)

with noise scale of $\operatorname{Error}_{I_X}$ and \mathcal{T}_1 and \mathcal{T}_2 noise vectors subject to normal distribution also with a covariance of I. The perturbed rotations are orthonormalized after the addition of the noises. Here, the Gaussian distribution is selected by following the tradition in [19] since this assumption of distribution covers most cases that we may encounter in the real-world applications.

We take all the compared representatives from Section IV-A to this part by adding three more ones of the proposed method with different d values of $d = 10^3$, $d = 10^5$, and $d = 10^6$. Then, we can see both the comparisons with the representatives and observe the influence of the positive scaling factor d. Several simulations are conducted where we generate data sets of \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} with N = 1000, and the obtained results are averaged for ten times. We independently evaluate the effect of $\operatorname{Error}_{R_X}$ and $\operatorname{Error}_{t_X}$ imposed on Error . The relationship between $\operatorname{Error}_{t_X}$ and $\operatorname{Error}_{t_X}$ and Error is shown in Fig. 3, while the relationship between $\operatorname{Error}_{t_X}$ and $\operatorname{Error}_{t_X}$ is the form of the log plot. We can see that with increasing errors in rotation and translation, the errors in the computed X value all arise to a large extent. One can see in the magnified plot of Fig. 3 that



Fig. 3. Sensitivity of errors subject to input rotation noises.

the optimization methods achieve the best accuracy, but the proposed method can also obtain the comparable estimates. It is shown that with various values of d, the performances of the proposed method differ quite a lot. Fig. 4 indicates that with $d = 10^3$, the evaluated errors on translation are the worst among all compared ones. However, with a larger d value, this situation has been significantly improved, generating the magnified image in Fig. 4 that when $d = 10^5$ and $d = 10^6$, the errors of the proposed method are quite close to the least ones. As in Section IV-A, we have tested that the proposed method has the fastest execution speed, it is shown that for the studied cases, the developed method can be regarded as a balancing one between the accuracy and computation speed.

C. Simulations on Uncertainty Descriptions

The uncertainty description of the hand-eye calibration problem AX = XB is studied by Nguyen and Pham for the first time iteratively in [19]. It works very well with



Fig. 4. Sensitivity of errors subject to input translation noises.

both synthetic and real-world data. However, it still has its drawbacks as follows.

- 1) The covariance of the rotation R_X is independently estimated from $R_A R_X = R_X R_B$, but, in fact, the accuracy of R_X is also affected by t_A and t_B .
- 2) The covariances of R_X and t_X are required to be computed iteratively, while how many iterations would be sufficient to provide accurate enough results is still an unsolved problem.

Hence, the covariance should also be decided by t_A and t_B and, if possible, do not require iterations. The proposed SO(4) method in this paper, however, simultaneously estimates R_X and t_X together and can also generate the analytical probabilistic information within several deterministic steps considering the tightly coupled relationship inside AX = XB. Let us define $\xi_{R_X,x}$, $\xi_{R_X,y}$, and $\xi_{R_X,z}$ as errors in rotation R_X around the x-, y-, and z-axes, while $\xi_{t_X,x}$, $\xi_{t_X,y}$, and $\xi_{t_X,z}$ being errors in translation t_X about the x-, y-, and

$$\delta \mathbf{R}_{X,SO(4)} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X,SO(4)}^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X} & \delta t_{X}/d \\ -\delta t_{X}^{T} \mathbf{R}_{X}/d - t_{X}^{T} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X}/d & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X}^{T} & -\mathbf{R}_{X}^{T} \delta t_{X}/d - \delta \mathbf{R}_{X}^{T} t_{X}/d \\ \delta t_{X}^{T}/d & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X}^{T} + \frac{1}{d^{2}} \delta t_{X} \delta t_{X}^{T} & -\frac{1}{d} \left(\delta \mathbf{R}_{X} \mathbf{R}_{X}^{T} \delta t_{X} + \delta \mathbf{R}_{X} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X}^{T} t_{X} \right) \\ -\frac{1}{d} \left(\delta t_{X}^{T} \mathbf{R}_{X} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X}^{T} + t_{X}^{T} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X}^{T} \right) & \frac{1}{d^{2}} \left(t_{X}^{T} \mathbf{R}_{X} \mathbf{R}_{X}^{T} \delta t_{X} + t_{X}^{T} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X} \mathbf{R}_{X}^{T} \delta t_{X} + t_{X}^{T} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X}^{T} t_{X} \right) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Sigma_{\mathbf{R}_{X,SO(4)}} = \left\langle \delta \mathbf{R}_{X,SO(4)} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X,SO(4)}^{T} \right\rangle \qquad (65)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{\mathbf{R}_{X}} + \frac{1}{d^{2}} \Sigma_{t_{X}} & -\frac{1}{d} \left(\left(\delta t_{X} \times \delta \theta_{X} \right) + \Sigma_{\mathbf{R}_{X}} t_{X} \right) \\ -\frac{1}{d} \left(\left(\delta t_{X} \times \delta \theta_{X} \right) + \Sigma_{\mathbf{R}_{X}} t_{X} \right)^{T} & \frac{1}{d^{2}} \left(\left(t_{X}^{T} \left(\delta t_{X} \times \delta \theta_{X} \right) + t_{X}^{T} \Sigma_{\mathbf{R}_{X}} t_{X} \right) \\ \\ \approx \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{\mathbf{R}_{X}} + \frac{1}{d^{2}} \Sigma_{t_{X}} & -\frac{1}{d} \Sigma_{\mathbf{R}_{X}} t_{X} \\ -\frac{1}{d} t_{X}^{T} \Sigma_{\mathbf{R}_{X}} & \frac{1}{d^{2}} t_{X}^{T} \Sigma_{\mathbf{R}_{X}} t_{X} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(66)$$



Fig. 5. 2-D covariance projections of the solutions to hand-eye calibration using the proposed method and that of Nguyen and Pham. The gray dashed lines indicate the mean bounds of the simulated statistics. The green dashed lines are from the solution of Nguyen and Pham, while the black solid ones are from our proposed algorithm. The discrete points in blue reflect the simulated samples.

z-axes, respectively. Given the covariances Σ_{R_X} and Σ_{t_X} , the covariance of the equivalent SO(4) transformation can be computed by (66) where we have

$$\delta \boldsymbol{R}_{\boldsymbol{X},\text{SO}(4)} = \begin{pmatrix} \delta \boldsymbol{R}_{\boldsymbol{X}} & \delta \boldsymbol{t}_{\boldsymbol{X}}/d \\ -\delta \boldsymbol{t}_{\boldsymbol{X}}^T \boldsymbol{R}_{\boldsymbol{X}}/d - \boldsymbol{t}_{\boldsymbol{X}}^T \delta \boldsymbol{R}_{\boldsymbol{X}}/d & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (67)$$

and $\delta \mathbf{R}_{X,SO(4)} \delta \mathbf{R}_{X,SO(4)}^T$ is simplified from (65) to (66), as shown at the bottom of the previous page, according to [51]

$$R_{X} = -[\boldsymbol{\omega}]_{\times} R_{X}$$

$$\delta R_{X} = -[\delta \theta_{X}]_{\times} R_{X}$$

$$\delta R_{X} R_{X}^{T} = -[\delta \theta_{X}]_{\times}$$
(68)

in which ω is the angular velocity vector and θ_X denotes the small angle rotation of R_X . Therefore, with $\Sigma_{R_{A_i}}$, $\Sigma_{t_{A_i}}$, $\Sigma_{R_{B_i}}$, and $\Sigma_{t_{B_i}}$, we can compute $\Sigma_{R_{A_i},SO(4)}$ and $\Sigma_{R_{B_i},SO(4)}$. In this paper, we consider that the system errors in each measurement step are identical, and therefore, we have

$$\Sigma_{R_{A_i}} = \Sigma_{R_A}, \quad \Sigma_{t_{A_i}} = \Sigma_{t_A}$$

$$\Sigma_{R_{B_i}} = \Sigma_{R_B}, \quad \Sigma_{t_{B_i}} = \Sigma_{t_B}.$$
(69)

Now, we conduct the same simulation as that provided in the Python open-source codes of Nguyen and Pham [19] (https://github.com/dinhhuy2109/python-cope/ examples/test_axxb_covariance.py). The input covariances are

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{R}_{A}} &= 10^{-10}\boldsymbol{I}, \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{t}_{A}} = 10^{-10}\boldsymbol{I} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{R}_{B}} &= \begin{pmatrix} 4.15625 & -2.88693 & -0.60653 \\ -2.88693 & 32.0952 & -0.14482 \\ -0.60653 & -0.14482 & 1.43937 \end{pmatrix} \times 10^{-5} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{t}_{B}} &= \begin{pmatrix} 19.52937 & 2.12627 & -1.06675 \\ 2.12627 & 4.44314426 & 0.38679 \\ -1.06675 & 0.38679 & 2.13070 \end{pmatrix} \times 10^{-5}. \end{split}$$

$$\end{split}$$

$$\end{split}$$

$$\end{split}$$

$$\end{split}$$

$$\end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{t}_{B}} &= \begin{pmatrix} 19.52937 & 2.12627 & -1.06675 \\ 2.12627 & 4.44314426 & 0.38679 \\ -1.06675 & 0.38679 & 2.13070 \end{pmatrix} \times 10^{-5}. \end{split}$$

$$\end{split}$$

The simulation is carried out for 10000 times, generating the randomly perturbed $\{A\}$, $\{B\}$, and in each set, there are

60 measurements. Σ_b is computed according to the simulated statistics for $\{\mathcal{A}\}, \{\mathcal{B}\}$. The statistical covariance bounds of the estimated R_X and t_X values are then logged. Using the method by Nguyen and Pham and our proposed method, the 2-D covariance projections are shown in Fig. 5. One can see that both methods can estimate the covariance correctly, while our method achieves very slightly smaller covariances bounds. This reflects that our proposed method has reached the accuracy of Nguyen and Pham for uncertainty descriptions. What needs to be pointed out is that the proposed method is fully analytical rather than the iterative solution in the method of Nguyen and Pham. While the analytical methods are always much faster than iterative ones, this simulation has indirectly reflected that the proposed method can both correctly estimate the transformation and determine the precision covariance information within a short computational period, which is beneficial to those applications with high demands on a real-time system with rigorous scheduling logics and timing.

D. Extension to the Extrinsic Calibration Between 3-D Laser Scanner and a Fisheye Camera

In this section, the developed 4DPA method in this paper is employed to solve the extrinsic calibration problem between a 3-D laser scanner and a fisheye camera, mounted rigidly on an experimental platform shown in Fig. 6. This platform contains a high-end 2-D laser scanner of Hokuyo UST 10-lx spinned by a powerful Dynamixel MX-28T servo controlled through the serial ports by the onboard Nvidia TX1 computer with graphics processing unit (GPU). It also consists of an Intel Realsense T265 fisheye camera with a resolution of 848 × 800 and a frame rate of 30 frames/s, along with an onboard factory-calibrated IMU. The spin mechanism and the feedback of an internal encoder of the servo guarantee the seamless stitching of successive laser scans that produce highly accurate 3-D scene reconstructions.

TABLE IV TRAJECTORY ERRORS BEFORE AND AFTER THE EXTRINSIC CALIBRATION USING THE PROPOSED METHOD

Experiment	Before: X(m)	After: X(m)	Before: Y(m)	After: Y(m)	Before: Z(m)	After: Z(m)
1 2 3	$1.997 \\ 2.278 \\ 1.463$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.725 \ 1.080 \ 0.605 \end{array}$	$1.803 \\ 1.722 \\ 1.825$	$0.476 \\ 0.997 \\ 0.583$	$0.828 \\ 1.322 \\ 1.199$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.379 \\ 0.763 \\ 0.691 \end{array}$



Fig. 6. Experimental platform equipped with a 3-D laser scanner and a fisheye camera, along with other processing devices.



Fig. 7. Signal flowchart in the extrinsic calibration between the 3-D laser scanner and the fisheye camera using the proposed algorithm.

The single sensor or a combination of a laser scanner and a camera will be of great importance for scene measurement and reconstruction [52]–[54]. However, due to inevitable installation misalignments, the extrinsic calibration between the laser scanner and the camera should be performed for reliable measurement accuracy. Several algorithms have been proposed to deal with the calibration issues inside these sensors recently [55]–[57]. These methods in fact require some standard objects such as large chessboards to obtain satisfactory results. We, here, extend our method to solving this extrinsic calibration, without needs of any other standard reference systems. The sensor signal flowchart can be seen in Fig. 7.

For the developed system, we can gather three sources of data, i.e., images from the fisheye camera, the inertial readings of angular rate and acceleration, and the 3-D laser scans. At the first stage, the fisheye camera and the IMU measurements are processed via feature extraction [50] and navigation integral mechanisms [58], respectively. Then, they are integrated together for the camera pose, denoted as T_{A_i} with an index of i, using the method in [59]. The pose of the 3-D laser scanner, denoted as T_{B_i} with index *i*, is computed via the 3-D ICP [33], as shown in Fig. 8. As the camera and the laser scanner poses have the output frequencies of 200 and 1 Hz, respectively, the synchronization between them is conducted by continuous linear quaternion interpolation that we developed recently [43]. Then, using the properly synced T_{A_i} and T_{B_i} , we are able to form the proposed hand-eye calibration principle with entry point equation in (6). With procedures shown in Algorithm 1, where d is set to $d = 10^5$ empirically, the extrinsic parameters, i.e., the rotation and the translation between the laser scanner and the fisheye camera, are calculated.

Then, these parameters are applied to the developed platform for 3-D trajectory verification using the Visual-lidar Odometry and Mapping (V-LOAM), method [60]. We put the system into measurement mode and then start moving it from origin to origin. Then, when computing the trajectories with the uncalibrated and calibrated data, we can find out that the trajectory after the calibration has much less odometric errors (see Fig. 9). In later periods, a similar experiment is repeated twice. The detailed statistics of the trajectory errors are presented in Table IV containing results on each of the x-, y-, and z-axes. One can see that the errors have been significantly reduced after calibration, which indicates the effectiveness of the proposed calibration scheme in real-scene measurement application. Also, the results of the proposed 4DPA method for hand-eye calibration will be affected by the value of d, as described in the previous sections. Therefore, a study on such an influence is conducted using the data for experiment 3 (see Table V).

We tune the *d* value from 1×10^3 to 1×10^7 . The errors indicate that the chosen value $d = 1 \times 10^5$ in this section results in sufficiently accurate estimates. And with larger values of *d*, the error bounds almost reach their limits. While for those small values of *d*, we can see that they cannot deal with the calibration accurately. The reason is that



Fig. 8. Reconstructed scenes using the presented 3-D laser scanner. They are later used for the pose estimation of the laser scanner frame with ICP.

TABLE V Verified 3-D Trajectory Errors After Hand-Eye Calibration With Different Values of d (Experiment 3)

d	X(m)	Y(m)	Z(m)
1×10^3	2.068	1.275	2.342
1×10^4	1.472	0.637	1.944
$1 imes 10^5$	1.463	0.605	1.825
1×10^6	1.462	0.600	1.799
1×10^7	1.462	0.599	1.798



Fig. 9. Projected XY trajectories before and after the extrinsic calibration between the 3-D laser scanner and the fisheye camera.

the approximation in (51) requires large d for more precise computation (but not too large, see Section III-D). The optimal dynamic selection of the parameter d will be the next task for us in the near future.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper studies the classical hand-eye calibration problem AX = XB by exploiting a new generalized method on SO(4). The investigated 4-D Procrustes analysis provides us with very useful closed-form results for hand-eye calibration. With such a framework, the uncertainty descriptions of the obtained transformations can be easily computed. It is verified that the proposed method can achieve better accuracy and much less computation time than representatives in the real-world data sets. The proposed uncertainty descriptions for the 4×4 matrices are also universal to other similar problems, such as spacecraft attitude determination [29] and 3-D registration [32]. We also notice that the Procrustes analysis on SO(n) may be of benefit to solve the generalized hand-eye problem AX = XB in which SE(n) and this is going to be discussed in the next task for us in further works.

APPENDIX A Some Closed-Form Results

A. Analytical Forms of Some Fundamental Matrices

Taking $c_1 = P_1(\sigma)\sigma$ as an example, one can explicitly write out

$$\boldsymbol{c}_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} ap - bq - cr - ds \\ aq + bp + cs - dr \\ ar + cp - bs + dq \\ as + br - cq + dp \end{pmatrix}.$$

One would be very easy to verify that $c_1 = P_1(\sigma)\sigma$. Then, the similar factorization can be established for c_2 , c_3 , and c_4 and r_1 , r_2 , r_3 , and r_4 , respectively, generating the following results:

$$P_{1}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\times \right)$$

$$P_{2}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -q & -p & s & -r & -b & -a & -d & c \\ p & -q & r & s & a & -b & c & d \\ -s & -r & -q & p & d & -c & -b & -a \\ r & -s & -p & -q & -c & -d & a & -b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P_{3}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -r & -s & -p & q & -c & d & -a & -b \\ s & -r & -q & -p & -d & -c & -b & a \\ p & q & -r & s & a & b & -c & d \\ -q & p & -s & -r & b & -a & -d & -c \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P_{4}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -s & r & -q & -p & -d & -c & b & -a \\ -r & -s & p & -q & c & -d & -a & -b \\ q & -p & -s & -r & -b & a & -d & -c \\ p & q & r & -s & a & b & c & -d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Q_{1}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} p & -q & -r & -s & a & -b & -c & -d \\ -q & -p & s & -r & -b & -a & -d & c \\ -q & -p & s & -r & -b & -a & -d & c \\ -r & -s & -p & q & -c & d & -a & -b \\ -s & r & -q & -p & -d & -c & b & -a \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Q_{2}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} q & p & s & -r & b & a & -d & c \\ p & -q & r & s & a & -b & c & d \\ s & -r & -q & -p & -d & -c & -b & a \\ -r & -s & p & -q & c & -d & -a & -b \end{pmatrix}$$
$$Q_{3}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} r & -s & p & q & c & d & a & -b \\ -s & -r & -q & p & d & -c & -b & -a \\ p & q & -r & s & a & b & -c & d \\ q & -p & -s & -r & -b & a & -d & -c \end{pmatrix}$$
$$Q_{4}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} s & r & -q & p & d & -c & b & a \\ r & -s & -p & -q & -c & -d & a & -b \\ -q & p & -s & -r & b & -a & -d & -c \\ p & q & r & -s & a & b & c & -d \end{pmatrix}$$

The results of $J_{jk,i}$ can then be computed using symbolic computation tools, e.g., MATLAB and Mathematica

```
J_{11,i}
        e_{11} - z_{11} e_{12} + z_{21} e_{13} + z_{31} e_{14} + z_{41}
        e_{14} + z_{41} e_{13} - z_{31} z_{21} - e_{12} z_{11} - e_{11}
J_{12,i}
        e_{21} - z_{21} e_{22} - z_{11} e_{23} + z_{41}
        e_{22} - z_{11} \quad z_{21} - e_{21} \quad e_{24} + z_{31} \quad z_{41} - e_{23}
  =
        e_{23} - z_{41} \quad z_{31} - e_{24} \quad -e_{21} - z_{21} \quad e_{22} - z_{11}
       e_{24} + z_{31} e_{23} + z_{41} z_{11} - e_{22}
J_{13,i}
       \begin{pmatrix} e_{31} - z_{31} & e_{32} - z_{41} & e_{33} - z_{11} & e_{34} + z_{21} \\ e_{32} + z_{41} & -e_{31} - z_{31} & e_{34} + z_{21} & z_{11} - e_{33} \\ e_{33} - z_{11} & z_{21} - e_{34} & z_{31} - e_{31} & e_{32} + z_{41} \end{pmatrix}
        e_{34} - z_{21} e_{33} - z_{11} z_{41} - e_{32} -e_{31} - z_{31}
J_{14,i}
        e_{41} - z_{41} e_{42} + z_{31} e_{43} - z_{21} e_{44} - z_{11}
        e_{44} - z_{11} e_{43} + z_{21}
J_{21,i}
        \begin{pmatrix} e_{12} - z_{12} & z_{22} - e_{11} & e_{14} + z_{32} & z_{42} - e_{13} \\ z_{22} - e_{11} & z_{12} - e_{12} & -e_{13} - z_{42} & z_{32} - e_{14} \\ z_{32} - e_{14} & z_{42} - e_{13} & e_{12} + z_{12} & e_{11} - z_{22} \end{pmatrix}
         e_{13} + z_{42} - e_{14} - z_{32} - z_{22} - e_{11} - e_{12} + z_{12}
J_{22,i}
         e_{22} - z_{22} - e_{21} - z_{12} e_{24} + z_{42} - e_{23} - z_{32}
         J_{23,i}
         e_{32} - z_{32} - e_{31} - z_{42} e_{34} - z_{12} z_{22} - e_{33}
        J_{24,i}
        e_{43} - z_{12} z_{22} - e_{44} z_{32} - e_{41} e_{42} + z_{42}
```

 $J_{31.i}$ $=\begin{pmatrix} e_{13}-z_{13} & z_{23}-e_{14} & z_{33}-e_{11} & e_{12}+z_{43} \\ e_{14}+z_{23} & e_{13}+z_{13} & -e_{12}-z_{43} & z_{33}-e_{11} \\ z_{33}-e_{11} & z_{43}-e_{12} & z_{13}-e_{13} & -e_{14}-z_{23} \\ z_{43}-e_{12} & e_{11}-z_{33} & z_{23}-e_{14} & e_{13}+z_{13} \end{pmatrix}$ $J_{32,i}$ $e_{23} - z_{23} - e_{24} - z_{13} \quad z_{43} - e_{21} \quad e_{22} - z_{33}$ $J_{33,i}$ $e_{33} - z_{33} - e_{34} - z_{43} - e_{31} - z_{13} e_{32} + z_{23}$ $J_{34,i}$ $e_{43} - z_{43}$ $z_{33} - e_{44}$ $-e_{41} - z_{23}$ $e_{42} - z_{13}$ $J_{41,i}$ $e_{14} - z_{14} e_{13} + z_{24} z_{34} - e_{12} z_{44} - e_{11}$ $= \begin{pmatrix} z_{24} - e_{13} & e_{14} + z_{14} & e_{11} - z_{44} & z_{34} - e_{12} \\ e_{12} + z_{34} & z_{44} - e_{11} & e_{14} + z_{14} & -e_{13} - z_{24} \\ z_{44} - e_{11} & -e_{12} - z_{34} & z_{24} - e_{13} & z_{14} - e_{14} \end{pmatrix}$ $J_{42,i}$ $e_{24} - z_{24}$ $e_{23} - z_{14}$ $z_{44} - e_{22}$ $-e_{21} - z_{34}$ = $J_{43,i}$ $e_{34} - z_{34}$ $e_{33} - z_{44} - e_{32} - z_{14} - z_{24} - e_{31}$ $-e_{31} - z_{24} - e_{32} - z_{14} - z_{44} - e_{33} - e_{34} - z_{34}$ $J_{44,i}$ $e_{44} - z_{44}$ $e_{43} + z_{34}$ $-e_{42} - z_{24}$ $-e_{41} - z_{14}$ $-e_{41} - z_{14} \quad z_{24} - e_{42} \quad z_{34} - e_{43} \quad z_{44} - e_{44}$

where $e_{jk}, z_{jk}, j, k = 1, 2, 3, 4$ are the matrix entries of E_i and Z_i , respectively. Note that these computation procedures can also be found out at https://github.com/zarathustr/hand_eye_SO4.

B. Matrix Determinant Property

Given an arbitrary square matrix

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix}.$$

If D is invertible, then the determinant of M is

$$\det(M) = \det(D) \det(A - BD^{-1}C)$$

Inserting the above-mentioned result into

$$\det(\lambda_{W,\max}I - W) = \det\left[\begin{pmatrix}\lambda_{W,\max}I & -K\\-K^T & \lambda_{W,\max}I\end{pmatrix}\right]$$

gives (26).

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