# A new method for solving 6D Image-Based Visual Servoing with Virtual Composite camera model 

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#### Abstract

This paper presents a new formulation to the open problem of 6D Image-Based Visual Servoing (IBVS). The main goal is to control the pose of an object using visual information from stereo cameras. In this article we introduce a novel image feature representation based on virtual orthogonal cameras to map 6D Cartesian poses to 6D visual poses defined in a Virtual Visual space (Image space). This new model is used to compute a full-rank Image Jacobian matrix ( $J_{\text {img }}$ ), which overcomes several common problems exhibited by the classical image Jacobians, e.g., Image space singularities and local minima. This Jacobian is a fundamental key for a Image-Based control design, where a stereo camera system can be used to drive a robot manipulator. The properties of the proposed visual model are validated analytically, in simulation and in a real robot.


## I. Introduction

Visual Servoing Control (VSC) is an approach to control the motion of a robot manipulator using visual feedback from a vision system. This has been one of the most active topics in robotics since the early 1990s [1]. The vision system can be mounted directly on a robot end-effector (eye-in-hand configuration) or fixed in the work space (fixed-camera configuration). Additionally, visual servoing approaches differ in the way in which error functions are defined. In ImageBased Visual Servoing (IBVS) the error function is defined directly in terms of image features. In Position-Based Visual Servoing (PBVS) the error function, which is specified in the Task space (e.g. Cartesian coordinates), is obtained from the visual information [2]. The conclusion drawn in many of the previous works, e.g., [1], is that IBVS is more favorable than the PBVS method, since it has low sensitivity to camera calibration errors.

This work is based on the concepts of image-based visual servoing and attempt to address some of the most common problems affecting conventional approaches by introducing a new visual feature mapping based on the composite camera model [3]. As pointed out in [1], convergence and stability problems may sometimes occur in IBVS. Local minima in the trajectories and singularities in the Image Jacobian (also known as Interaction Matrix) can severely affect the visual servoing task. In image-based control approach, the ideal case is to find a particular visual feature where the interaction matrix has neither local minima nor singularities, and where the exponential decrease of the corresponding error function implies a smooth 3D trajectory for the controlled object (e.g. the robot end-effector). During the last decade, several authors have worked on solving these problems. We will

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Fig. 1. A classical problem of visual servoing is to generate a full-rank mapping between the visual feature space $s \in \mathbb{R}^{2 m \times 1}$ and the joint velocity space $\dot{q} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ to design dynamic controls for robots $\tau \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}[\mathrm{Nm}]$.
describe some relevant approaches used in IBVS and discuss their properties.

## A. Related work

An IBVS usually employs the image Jacobian matrix ( $J_{\text {img }}$ ) to relate velocities of an object or a camera in the Task space $(v)$ to the feature parameter velocities in the feature (image) space $\dot{s}$. A full and comprehensive survey on Visual Servoing and image Jacobian definitions can be found in [1], [2], [4] and more recently in [5]. In general, the classical image Jacobian is defined using a set of image feature measurements, usually denoted by $s$, and it describes how image features change when the object or camera pose changes, i.e. $\dot{s}=J_{i m g} v$. This is connected with Dynamic Visual Servoing where the main goal is to control the required robot's dynamical behavior to achieve some desired value of image feature parameters. This implies estimating the image Jacobian to map the image feature velocities $\dot{s}$ into a meaningful state variable required for the control law, usually the generalized joint velocities $\dot{q}$, see Fig. 1

In general, the image Jacobian can be computed using direct depth information (depth-dependent Jacobian) [6], [7], or by approximation via on-line estimation of depth of the features (depth-estimation Jacobian) [2], [5], [8], or using depth-independent image Jacobian matrix [9], [10]. Additionally, many papers directly estimate on-line the complete image Jacobian in different ways, [11],[12]. However, all these methods use redundant image point coordinates to define (as a general rule) a non-square image Jacobian, which is a differentiable mapping from $S E(3)$ to $s \in \mathbb{R}^{2 m}$ (with $m$ as the number of feature points). Then, a generalized inverse of the image Jacobian needs to be computed, which leads to well-known problems such as the Image space singularities
and local minima. In order to obtain a full-rank Image Jacobian, [13] proposed an approach where the definition of the features is based on a combination of both IBVS and PBVS approaches, attempting to incorporate the advantages of each method. This method requires the knowledge of the 3D model of the object and its performance is guaranteed in the absence of high calibration or model errors. In our case, the structure of the proposed Jacobian do not require information of the object's model and it can be used to design adaptive controllers capable to handle uncertainties in the camera parameters, similar to [14]. The work presented in [15] introduces in a similar fashion a stereo camera model based on a virtual composite camera system. However, that approach is limited to control only 3D positions, and the image Jacobian is only suitable for 3 DOF robots.

In this paper, we extend the visual features to control 6D visual poses in a Virtual Visual space (a 3D space defined in pixels), see Fig. 1. This visual pose is composed of 3D visual linear motions and 3D visual angular motions. Therefore, this work proposes a general solution to control the position and orientation of a robot end-effector using visual information from stereo cameras. The key contributions of this paper can be summarized into three aspects: i) We specify a new Virtual Visual space (pixel), where a 6D visual pose vector can be defined and used for IBVS. ii) We obtain a new fullrank image Jacobian which maps velocities from the Task space to the 3D Virtual Visual space. iii) In order to evaluate the proposed visual Jacobian models, experiments have been conducted in simulation using real camera parameters and in a real robot, where our approach is compared with a standard IBVS method.

## B. Organization

This paper is organized as follows, in Section $\Pi$ we highlight the problems in classical image-base visual servoing approaches and state the core issues which we tackle with this work. In Section III we introduce a new 3D Camera Model and describe how it is used to construct a Virtual Visual space. This model is used to define a full-rank $6 D$ Visual Jacobian, which will be used in the Section V to design a robust dynamic control for robot manipulators. In Section IV we present a comparative analysis in simulation between our method and the standard IBVS. Finally, Section VI draws the conclusions and future work.

## II. Problem Formulation

Visual servoing schemes rely on the relationship [2]: $\dot{s}=L_{s} v_{o}$, in which $s$ is a set of geometrical features whose time derivative $\dot{s}$ is linearly related to the spatial velocity $v_{o}$ of an object through the interaction matrix $L_{s}$. Using this relationship, control schemes are designed to minimize the error $e$ between the current value of the visual feature $s$ and its desired value $s_{d}: e=s-s_{d}$.

## A. Classical Image-Based Visual Servoing

Traditional image-based control schemes use the imageplane coordinates of a set of points to define the set $s$
[2]. More precisely, if we have a set of points $p_{0_{i}}=$ $\left[x_{0_{i}}, y_{0_{i}}, z_{0_{i}}\right]^{T}$, for $i=1,2, \ldots, m$, rigidly attached to an object whose pose is represented by the vector $W_{0}=\left[X_{0}, \theta_{0}\right]^{T}=$ $\left[x_{0}, y_{0}, z_{0}, \alpha_{x_{0}}, \beta_{y_{0}}, \gamma_{z_{0}}\right]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 1}$, then the visual feature measurements of all $p_{0_{i}}(m>3)$ are represented as $s=$ $\left[x_{1}, y_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}, y_{m}\right]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 m \times 1}$. The relation between $\dot{s}$ and $\dot{W}_{0}$ is given by $\dot{s}=J_{x} \dot{W}_{0}$, where $J_{x}=\left[L_{x_{1}}, \ldots, L_{x_{m}}\right]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 m \times 6}$ is known as the image Jacobian, and $L_{x_{i}}$ is given by ${ }^{1}$

$$
L_{x_{i}}=\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}
\frac{1}{z_{0_{i}}} & 0 & -\frac{x_{i}}{z_{0_{i}}} & -x_{i} y_{i} & \left(1+x_{i}^{2}\right) & -x_{i}  \tag{1}\\
0 & \frac{1}{z_{0}} & -\frac{y_{i}}{z_{0}} & \left(1+y_{i}^{2}\right) & x_{i} y_{i} & y_{i}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Where $X_{i}=\left[x_{i}, y_{i}\right]^{T}=\left[\frac{x_{0_{i}}}{z 0_{i}}, \frac{y_{0_{i}}}{z_{0_{i}}}\right]^{T}=\left[\frac{u_{i}-c_{x_{i}}}{f_{x_{i}}}, \frac{v_{i}-c_{y_{i}}}{f_{y_{i}}}\right]^{T}$, with $C_{i}=$ $\left[c_{x_{i}}, c_{y_{i}}\right]^{T}$ and $F_{i}=\left[f_{x_{i}}, f_{y_{i}}\right]^{T}$ as the principal point and the scaling factors, respectively.

## B. The problem of Classical IBVS

If we consider $\Delta W_{0}$ as the control variable, then we need to compute the inverse mapping of $\dot{s}$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta W_{0}=J_{x}^{+} \Delta s \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Delta *$ is an error function defined in the space $*, J_{x}^{+} \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{6 \times 2 m}$ is chosen as the Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse of $J_{x}$, which leads to the two characteristic problems of the IBVS method: the feature (image) space singularities and local minima. For most IBVS approaches we have $2 m>6$. In this case, the image Jacobian is singular when $\operatorname{rank}\left(J_{x}\right)<6$, while the visual feature local minima is defined as the set of image locations $\Omega_{s}=\left\{s \mid \Delta s \neq 0, \Delta W_{0}=0, \forall s \in \mathbb{R}^{2 m \times 1}\right\}$ when using redundant image features, i.e. $\Delta s \in N\left(J_{x}^{+}\right)$. Examples of the problems generated by the local minima conditions are illustrated in [2] and [16]. Another drawback of these approaches is the highly-coupled system presented by (2), where the linear velocities and angular velocities can not be controlled independently from each other, leading to complex issues which need to be addressed during control design.

## C. Contribution of this Work

In this work, we get a step further towards a general solution for the problem of the IBVS, by introducing a mapping from the classical image features $s$ to a new visual representation defined as $W_{s}=\left[X_{s}, \theta_{s}\right]^{T}=\left[x_{s}, y_{s}, z_{s}, \alpha_{s}, \beta_{s}, \gamma_{s}\right]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 1}$. In this case, $W_{s}$ is a 6 D visual pose vector defined in a 3 D Image space (we call this space the Virtual Visual space). This visual pose is measured in pixels and is composed of 3D visual positions and 3D visual orientations.

The visual representation $W_{s}$ is related with the feature points vector $s$ as $W_{s}=M(s)$, where $M$ is, in general, a nonlinear mar $\left.{ }^{2}\right] M: \mathbb{R}^{2 p \times 1} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 1}$. In our case, $W_{s}$ is a minimization of the space $s$ without the need to compute an on-line LSM of the system $\left|J_{x} \dot{W}_{0}-\dot{s}\right|$ as discussed in [17].

[^1]The above definition yields a new mapping in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{W}_{s}=\underbrace{\frac{\partial M(s)}{\partial s}}_{J_{i}} \dot{s}=\underbrace{J_{i} J_{x}}_{J_{i m g}} \dot{W}_{0} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The advantage of this intermediate mapping is that a fullrank image Jacobian matrix ( $J_{\text {img }} \in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 6}$ ) can be obtained, i.e., if some specific conditions are met, then the Image space singularities and local minima issues can be avoided. In the following section, we will specify these conditions.

Moreover, the aim of all vision-based control schemes is to minimize an error $e(t)$, which is typically defined by $e(t)=$ $s-s_{d}$. In our case, the error function $\left(\Delta W_{s}\right)$ is defined in the Virtual Visual space generated from two stereo images.

This is the core design of our approach, and all that remains is to fill in the details. For example, how should $W_{s}$ be chosen to construct the Virtual Visual space? What is the form of $J_{i m g}$ ? How the properties of $J_{\text {img }}$ impact in the performance of the control approach? These questions are addressed in the remainder of the article.

## III. Virtual Visual Space

This section shows how we construct the Virtual Visual space using a stereo vision system. It also explains in detail how to obtain a full-rank image Jacobian matrix ( $J_{\text {img }} \in$ $\left.\mathbb{R}^{6 \times 6}\right)$. In the remainder of this paper, we will use the notation $C_{j}^{i}$ to represent a mapping from frame $i$ to frame $j$ and $p_{h_{k}}$ to define a point $k$ in the coordinate frame $h$. The key idea of the 3D visual camera model is to combine the stereo camera model with a virtual composite camera model. Figure 2 a) depicts our new visual camera model and the corresponding image projections.

## A. Image Jacobian for $3 D$ visual linear velocities

We first generate a full-rank matrix ( $J_{\text {img }_{v}} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ ), which maps 3D linear velocities $\dot{X}_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 1}(\mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s})$ to 3 D visual linear velocities $\dot{X}_{s} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 1}($ pixel $/ s)$, see Figure 2 .

This new 3D visual model can be computed in 2 main steps. First, given a standard stereo system $\left(C_{0}^{l}-C_{l}^{r}\right)$, compute the Homography between the right camera $C_{0}^{r}$ and a virtual right camera $C_{0}^{r_{v}}$. This virtual camera must be oriented such as its image plane is orthogonal to the left camera, see Figure 2 From these two cameras, visual information of a rigid object can be obtained $x_{l_{i}}$ and $x_{r_{v_{i}}}$, for $i=1,2, \ldots, m$. Second, use this visual information as a projection to form a Composite Camera Model. This projection is a crucial step, since it modifies the dimension of the mapping from two 2D-visual feature measurements of all $m$ points, $s=$ $\left[u_{l_{1}}, v_{l_{1}}, u_{r_{v_{1}}}, v_{r_{v_{1}}}, \ldots, u_{l_{m}}, v_{l_{m}}, u_{r_{v_{m}}}, v_{r_{v_{m}}}\right]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{4 m \times 1}$, to a single 3D visual vector $X_{s} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 1}$ defined in a Virtual Visual space. Since $s$ represents the position $t_{0}^{4} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 1}$ of the rigid object in the image feature space (see Fig. 22), the maximum number of independent elements of $s$ is 3 . Therefore, if $s \in \mathbb{R}^{4 m \times 1}$ (as is commonly defined in the classical methods for the stereo arrangements) there will be $(4 m-3)$ linearly dependent elements in $s$. In this work, we propose to use the homography between the cameras $\left(C_{0}^{l}-C_{l}^{r}\right)$ to define
a virtual projection that reduces the dimension of $s$ and generates 3 linearly independent elements to compute a fullrank image Jacobian $\left(J_{i m g_{v}}\right)$. The following sub-sections are devoted to explain each of these steps in detail.

1) Stereo Vision Model: The stereo vision system is composed of two cameras (left $C_{0}^{l}$ and right $C_{0}^{r}$ ) which are rigidly attached to a common frame $0_{w}$ (Fig. 2). This reference frame is defined by the user in any fashion, however, it is assumed that the position of $0_{w}$ is in the intersection of the optical-axes of left camera $z_{0}^{l}$ and virtual right camera $z_{0}^{r_{v}}$, and its orientation is exactly the same as $C_{0}^{l}$ on the beads to simplify further steps. Using this position and orientation, we define the Projection Matrices $P_{l}^{0}$ and $P_{r_{v}}^{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 4}$ for the left camera and the virtual right camera as $P_{l}^{0}=K_{l}\left[\begin{array}{cc}I_{3 \times 3} & t_{l}^{0}\end{array}\right]$ and $P_{r_{v}}^{0}=K_{r}\left[\begin{array}{ll}R_{r_{v}}^{0} & t_{r_{v}}^{0}\end{array}\right] . K_{l}$ and $K_{r}$ are the intrinsic camera matrices of the left camera and virtual right camer ${ }^{3}$, respectively. Furthermore, by design $t_{l}^{0}=\left[0,0, z_{l}\right]^{T}, t_{r_{v}}^{0}=\left[0,0, z_{r_{v}}\right]^{T}$ and $R_{r_{v}}^{0}=\left(R_{l}^{r_{v}}\right)^{T}\left(R_{0}^{l}\right)^{T}=R_{r_{v}}^{l}$. These Projection Matrices can be used to define the virtual composite camera model, but first we need to project the real visual features of the right camera $x_{r_{i}}$ to a visual features on the virtual right camera $x_{r_{v_{i}}}$. This is achieved exploiting the homography property, similar to stereo rectification, but in this case we will generate an orthogonal arrangement.
a) Homography between $C_{0}^{r}$ and $C_{0}^{r_{v}}$ : A homography $H$ is a projection of world points between two image planes. This mapping is only valid when the world points are constrained to a common plane or when the two cameras share the same camera center, which is our case. Under these conditions, $H_{r_{v}}^{r}$ can be computed as $H_{r_{v}}^{r}=K_{l} R_{r_{v}}^{r} K_{r}^{-1}$. In this case we need to rotate the right camera such as its image plane is orthogonal to $C_{0}^{l}$. Therefore, the relative orientation of $C_{0}^{r}$ with respect $C_{0}^{l}$ must be considered. Therefore, $R_{r_{v}}^{r}=R_{y_{l}}(\pi / 2) R_{l}^{r}$, where, $R_{y_{l}}(*)$ represents a rotation matrix around $y_{0}^{l}$-axis. Then, the visual points in $C_{0}^{r_{v}}$ are obtained as $x_{h v_{v_{i}}}=H_{r_{v_{i}}}^{r} x_{h r_{i}}$, where $x_{h *_{i}}$ represents the homogeneous vector of the image point $x_{*_{i}}=\left[u_{*_{i}}, v_{*_{i}}\right]^{T}$.
2) Virtual Composite Camera Model: In this work we propose a Composite Camera Model as a geometrical minimization method for the feature space $s$. The advantage of the Orthogonal Cameras configuration is that it presents the image position as 3 orthogonal signals. These features can be used in the visual servoing instead of the classical features extracted from the stereo cameras to generate a fullrank image Jacobian. However, this configuration is limited, compared with the stereo camera configuration, because it requires a complex and accurate arrangement between the cameras. In this work we propose to combine the benefits of the two configurations by mapping the projections of the standard stereo configuration into a virtual composite camera arrangement. The measurements obtained in this virtual sensors will generate a 3D visual position vector.
a) Virtual Composite Camera Model Generation: The matrix $P_{l}^{0}$ projects a point $p_{0_{i}}=\left[x_{0_{i}}, y_{0_{i}}, z_{0_{i}}\right]^{T}$ into the left

[^2]

Fig. 2. Image Projections: a) The figure depicts the coordinate frames used to obtain a general 3D Virtual Visual model. It shows two physical cameras (Left and Right) and their coordinate frames ( $C_{0}^{l}$ and $C_{0}^{r}$, respectively). These two cameras are rigidly linked to a reference frame $0_{w}$, which is defined with respect to a world coordinate frame $W$. It is also illustrated a Virtual Camera denoted by $C_{0}^{r_{v}}$, which shares the same position as $C_{0}^{r}$ but it is orthogonal to the left camera $C_{0}^{l}$. The pose of a rigid object is defined by the coordinate frame $\overline{p_{w_{1}} p_{w_{2}} p_{w_{3}} p_{w_{4}}}$. Each object point $p_{w_{i}}$ is referenced to $0_{w}$ as $p_{0_{i}}$ and these new points are projected to the left and right cameras as $x_{l_{i}}=\left[u_{l_{i}}, v_{l_{i}}\right]^{T}$ and $x_{r_{i}}=\left[u_{r_{i}}, v_{r_{i}}\right]^{T}$, without lost of generality, we assume that $p_{0_{4}}$ represents the position of the object in $0_{w}$ and $\overline{p_{0_{1}} p_{0_{2}} p_{0_{3}}}$ represents its orientation. The projection of these object points in the virtual camera $C_{0}^{r_{v}}$ is obtained with a homography with $C_{0}^{r}$, i.e. $x_{h v_{v_{i}}}=H_{r_{v_{i}}}^{r} x_{h r_{i}}$. In b) it is shown the same arrangement from a top view. Here it is possible to observe that the relation between $C_{0}^{r}$ and $C_{0}^{r_{v}}$ is given by the rotation matrix $R_{r_{v}}^{r}$. This rotation must be computed based on the relative orientation of $C_{0}^{r}$ with respect to $C_{0}^{l}$. The Virtual Composite camera system is highlighted with the light-gray area and is composed of the left camera and the virtual right camera, $C_{0}^{l}$ and $C_{0}^{r_{v}}$ respectively.
camera image plane as

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{l_{i}}=\left[u_{l_{i}}, v_{l_{i}}\right]^{T}=\left[\frac{f_{x_{l}} x_{0_{i}}}{\left(z_{0_{i}}+z_{l}\right)}, \frac{f_{y_{l}} x_{0_{i}}}{\left(z_{0_{i}}+z_{l}\right)}\right]^{T}+\left[c_{x_{l}}, c_{y_{l}}\right]^{T} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the same form $P_{r_{v}}^{0}$ generates the image projection of $p_{0_{i}}$ in the virtual right camera
$x_{r_{v_{i}}}=\left[u_{r_{v_{i}}}, v_{r_{v_{i}}}\right]^{T}=\left[\frac{f_{x_{r_{v}}} z_{0_{i}}}{\left(-x_{0_{i}}+z_{r_{v}}\right)}, \frac{f_{y_{r_{v}}} y_{0_{i}}}{\left(-x_{0_{i}}+z_{r_{v}}\right)}\right]^{T}+\left[c_{x_{r_{v}}}, c_{y_{r_{v}}}\right]^{T}$
These two models can be fused to generate a Composite Camera Model which will represent the 3D visual space. This is possible because by design the component $u_{r_{v_{i}}}$ measures a quasi-orthogonal signal to the ones captured by $x_{l_{i}}$. Then, grouping these terms, we can define the Virtual Composite Camera Model as

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{s_{i}}=\left[x_{s_{i}}, y_{s_{i}}, z_{s_{i}}\right]^{T}=\left[u_{l_{i}}, v_{l_{i}}, u_{r_{v_{i}}}\right]^{T}=F X_{n_{i}}+C \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $F=\operatorname{diag}\left(f_{x_{l}}, f_{y_{l}}, f_{x_{r}}\right), C=\left[c_{x_{l}}, c_{y_{l}}, c_{x_{r}}\right]^{T}$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{n_{i}}=\left[\frac{x_{0_{i}}}{\left(z_{0_{i}}+z_{l}\right)}, \frac{y_{0_{i}}}{\left(z_{0_{i}}+z_{l}\right)}, \frac{z_{0_{i}}}{\left(-x_{0_{i}}+z_{r}\right)}\right]^{T} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

A velocity relationship can be obtained with the time derivative of (6) as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{X}_{s_{i}}=\overbrace{F J_{v_{i}}}^{J_{i m g_{v}}^{0}} \dot{X}_{0_{i}}=J_{i m g_{v}}^{0} \dot{X}_{0_{i}} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the Jacobian matrix $J_{v_{i}} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ is defined as

$$
J_{v_{i}}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{1}{\left(z_{0_{i}}+z_{l}\right)} & 0 & -\frac{x_{0_{i}}}{\left(z_{0_{i}}+z_{l}\right)^{2}}  \tag{9}\\
0 & \frac{1}{\left(z_{0_{i}}+z_{l}^{0}\right)} & -\frac{y_{0_{i}}}{\left(z_{0_{i}}+z_{l}\right)^{2}} \\
\frac{z_{0_{i}}}{\left(x_{0_{i}}-z_{r}\right)^{2}} & 0 & -\frac{1}{\left(x_{0_{i}}-z_{r}\right)}
\end{array}\right]
$$

This composite image Jacobian $J_{\text {img }_{v}}^{0}$ represents the mapping from linear velocities defined in the reference frame $0_{w}$ to velocities (pixels/s) in the 3D visual space.

## B. Image Jacobian for $3 D$ visual angular velocities

This Jacobian provides a mapping between angular velocities in the task space (e.g. $0_{w}$ ) and angular velocities in the virtual visual space. Specifically, we need to analyze the effects of a velocity $\omega_{0}$ in the visual space, i.e. $\omega_{s}$. To this aim, we can describe each of these angular velocities as the induced linear velocity on a point not centered at the axis of rotation in each of the two spaces, e.g. $p_{0_{i}}, i=1,2,3$. This can be done using the canonical basis of the Cartesian space, namely $e_{x_{0}}=[1,0,0]^{T}, e_{y_{0}}=[0,1,0]^{T}, e_{z_{0}}=[0,0,1]^{T}$ and its origin $e_{o_{0}}=[0,0,0]^{T}$. If we project each of this vectors to the virtual visual space we obtain (see (6)), $e_{x_{s}}=\left[p_{x_{l}}+f_{x_{l}} / z_{l}, p_{y_{l}}, p_{x_{r}}\right]^{T}, e_{y_{s}}=\left[p_{x_{l}}, p_{y_{l}}+f_{y_{l}} / z_{l}, p_{x_{r}}\right]^{T}$, $e_{z_{s}}=\left[p_{x_{l}}, p_{y_{l}}, p_{x_{r}}+f_{x_{r}} / z_{r}\right]^{T}$ and $e_{o_{s}}=\left[p_{x_{l}}, p_{y_{l}}, p_{x_{r}}\right]^{T}$. We are interested in angular velocities at the origin of each coordinate frame, therefore, we must compute the radius of rotation for each vector. The radius is obtained as $\bar{e}_{*}=$ $e_{*}-e_{o}$ for each axis. Then, for the Cartesian space we have, $\bar{e}_{x_{0}}=e_{x_{0}}, \bar{e}_{y_{0}}=e_{y_{0}}, \bar{e}_{z_{0}}=e_{z_{0}}$. For the visual space we have $\bar{e}_{x_{s}}=\left[f_{x_{l}} / z_{l}, 0,0\right]^{T}, \bar{e}_{y_{s}}=\left[0, f_{y_{l} /} / z_{l}, 0\right]^{T}, \bar{e}_{z_{s}}=\left[0,0, f_{x_{r}} / z_{r}\right]^{T}$.

The linear velocity generated by a general angular velocity is obtained with: $v=w \times r=S(w) r$, where $S(*)$ represents the skew-symmetric matrix of the vector $\left(^{*}\right.$ ). From (8) we can generate a relation between each linear velocity represented in $0_{w}$ and its corresponding velocity in the visual space as ${ }^{4}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{\{x, y, z\}_{s}}=\left.F J_{v}\right|_{\bar{e}_{\{x, y, z\}_{0}}} V_{\{x, y, z\}_{0}} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^3]Substituting the linear velocity in each space in (10), we obtain a correlation between angular velocities $\omega_{0}$ and $\omega_{s}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
S\left(\bar{e}_{\{x, y, z\}_{s}}\right)^{T} \omega_{s}=\left.F J_{v}\right|_{\bar{e}_{\{x, y, z\}_{0}}} S\left(\bar{e}_{\{x, y, z\}_{0}}\right)^{T} \omega_{0} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

The expression in (11) generates a set of three equations that need to be solved to define the angular velocity mapping. It is clear that the solution will not be unique, however, a solution that fits the real system constraints can be defined. In this case, a system constraint will be that real physical cameras only produce positive values for the visual position $x_{l, r}^{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 1}$. Therefore, we can define the following relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega_{s}=F_{s}^{-1} F_{0} \omega_{0}=J_{\text {img }}^{0} \omega_{0} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where, $\quad F_{0}=\operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{f_{x_{r}}}{z_{r}}, \frac{f_{x_{r}}}{z_{r}}, \frac{f_{y_{l}}}{z_{l}}\right) \quad$ and $\quad F_{s}=$ $\operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{f_{y_{l}}}{\left(z_{l}+1\right)}, \frac{f_{x_{l}}}{\left(z_{l}+1\right)}, \frac{f_{x_{l}}}{z_{l}}\right)$.

The geometrical meaning of (12) is that the angular velocities exhibit the same direction in both spaces, but they are scaled by a non-homogeneous factor. This result can be used to design control approaches, because, despite the nonhomogeneous scaling, this mapping is continuous.

## C. Visual Jacobian

In the previous sections, we have defined the mappings for the 3D visual velocities (linear and angular) separately as linear velocity image Jacobian $J_{i m g}$ vand angular velocity image Jacobian $J_{i^{i m g}{ }_{\omega}}$. Combining equation (8) and $\sqrt{12}$ we have the full expression that can be used for control design.

$$
\dot{W}_{s}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\dot{X}_{s}  \tag{13}\\
\omega_{s}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
J_{i m g_{v}}^{0} & 0 \\
0 & J_{i m g_{\omega}}^{0}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
\dot{X}_{0} \\
\omega_{0}
\end{array}\right]=J_{i m g}^{0} \dot{W}_{0}
$$

where the Jacobian $J_{\text {img }}^{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 6}$ is defined as the Visual Jacobian. It is important to notice that the linear and angular motions are decoupled, and this is precisely the behaviour of the system that we want to model. If we observe Fig. 2 we can notice that the position (Cartesian and visual) of point $p_{0_{4}}$ is not modified if we rotate the points $p_{0_{i}}, i=1,2,3$ around $p_{0_{4}}$. We can say that equation $\sqrt{13}$ represents the pose of an object whose position is defined by $p_{0_{4}}$ and orientation defined by the unit vectors $x_{0}=\left|p_{0_{1}}-p_{0_{2}}\right|, y_{0}=$ $\left|p_{0_{3}}-p_{0_{2}}\right|, z_{0}=x_{0} \times y_{0}$. This decoupling between linear and angular velocities is an important feature of our model.

Remark 1: Singularity-free $J_{\text {img }}$. From (13), we can see that $\operatorname{det}\left(J_{i m g}\right)=\operatorname{det}\left(J_{i m g_{v}}\right) \operatorname{det}\left(J_{i m g_{\omega}}\right)$, therefore the set of singular configurations of $J_{\text {img }}$ is given by the equations $\operatorname{det}\left(J_{i m g_{v}}\right)=0$ and $\operatorname{det}\left(J_{i m g_{\omega}}\right)=0$. From (8), we can observe that singularities of $J_{i m g_{v}}$ are defined by $\operatorname{det}\left(J_{v_{i}}\right)=0$. This equation is satisfied when i) $z_{0_{i}}=-z_{l}$, ii) $z_{r_{v}}=0$, iii) $x_{0_{i}}=z_{0_{i}}+z_{l}$ and vi) $x_{0_{i}}=z_{r_{v}}$. The geometric meaning of each equation can be used to demonstrate the singularityfree visual Jacobian: i) the tracked object is located at the center of the left camera, ii) the center of the virtual right camera is located at the left camera's optical-axis, iii) the object is at the stereo system base line and finally, iv) the object position lies at the virtual right camera plane. The last constraint implies that the usable work space of the right
camera can be reduced, depending on the configuration of the stereo arrangement. This singularity can be avoided if the stereo system is located such as the workspace is mainly covered by the left camera. On the other hand, from (12) the singularities are i) $z_{l}=0$, ii) $z_{r_{v}}=0$, iii) $z_{l}=-1$ and iv) $z_{r_{v}}=-1$. In the same form, any of these situations are feasible in a real physical scenario, i) and ii) by design $0_{w}$ is located neither at $C_{0}^{l}$ nor at $C_{0}^{r_{v}}$, iii) and iv) mean that $0_{w}$ is either behind $C_{0}^{l}$ or $C_{0}^{r}$, which is not possible. In Figure 2 p ) is shown the singularity area of $J_{\text {img }}$ (light-blue area).

## IV. Validation on Simulation

## A. Convergence without local minima

In order to numerically validate the properties of the Visual Jacobian we simulate a simple kinematic control of an object using a) standard IBVS approach [2] and b) the new approach presented in this work. The task is to drive a square from a initial pose $\left(\right.$ position $_{w}=$ $[0.2,0.5,1.0]^{T}[\mathrm{~m}]$, euler Angles $\left.=[0,0,0]^{T}[\mathrm{deg}]\right]^{5}$ to a desired pose $\left(\right.$ position $_{w}=[0.6,0.7,1.5]^{T}[\mathrm{~m}]$, euler Angles $=$ $\left.[-140,-30,-20]^{T}[\mathrm{deg}]\right)$. The 4 corners were used as a visual feature for both approaches, i.e. $p_{0_{1}}, p_{0_{2}}, p_{0_{3}}, p_{0_{4}}$. Where $p_{0_{4}}$ (center) was used as the object's position. The projection of these points produce two sets of data $s=$ $\left[u_{l_{1}}, v_{l_{1}}, u_{r_{1}}, v_{r_{1}}, \ldots, v_{r_{4}}\right]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{16 \times 1}$ used in the standard approach, and $W_{s}=\left[X_{S}, \omega_{s}\right] \in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 1}$, used in our approach.

1) Standard IBVS: A kinematic P-control can be implemented as $u=-\lambda \widehat{L_{e}^{+}} \Delta s$ [2], where $\lambda_{+}=\lambda_{+}^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 6}$, $\Delta s=s-s d \in \mathbb{R}^{16 \times 1}$ and $\widehat{L_{e}^{+}}=\frac{L_{x}+L_{x_{d}}}{2} \in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 16}$ (see $\sqrt{1}$ ).
2) Virtual Composite Cameras IBVS: In this case we implement also a simple kinematic P-control based on 13), i.e. $u=-\lambda\left(J_{\text {img }}^{0}\right)^{-1} \Delta W_{s}$, with $\Delta W_{s}=B\left[\Delta X_{s}, \Delta \alpha_{s}\right]^{T}$. $B$ is the ZYZ-Euler Angle Transformation and is defined as
$B=\left[\begin{array}{cc}I & 0 \\ 0 & B(s)\end{array}\right], B(s)=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}\cos \left(\varphi_{s}\right) \sin \left(\theta_{s}\right) & -\sin \left(\varphi_{s}\right) & 0 \\ \sin \left(\varphi_{s}\right) \sin \left(\theta_{s}\right) & \cos \left(\varphi_{s}\right) & 0 \\ \cos \left(\theta_{s}\right) & 0 & 1\end{array}\right]$
a) Visual Position Errors: The position error is defined as $\Delta X_{s}=X_{s_{4}}-X_{s_{d_{4}}}$, where $X_{s_{4}}$ and $X_{s_{d_{4}}}$ are computed using (6) for $p_{0_{4}}$ and $p_{0_{d}}$.
b) Visual Orientation Errors: The visual orientation is represented as visual Euler angles $\alpha_{s}$, which are computed in the following form:

Compute Visual Rotation: Using the projection $X_{s_{k}}$ of points $p_{0_{k}}$, with $k=1,2,3$, we compute a rotation matrix $R_{s}$ in the Virtual Visual space.

$$
\begin{gather*}
R_{s}=\left[\left\|\Delta X_{s_{1}}\right\|,-\left\|\Delta X_{s_{3}}\right\|,\left\|\Delta X_{s_{1}}\right\| \times\left(-\left\|\Delta X_{s_{3}}\right\|\right)\right]  \tag{15}\\
\Delta X_{s_{j}}=X_{s_{j}}-X_{s_{2}} \tag{16}
\end{gather*}
$$

Compute Visual Euler angles: The rotation matrix $R_{S}$ is represented as Euler angles to generate $\alpha_{s}$ and $\alpha_{s_{d}}$.

Figure 3 shows the results using the standard method (see IV-A.1), and Figure 4 illustrates the results obtained with our approach (see IV-A.2). From the results, it is clear that

[^4]

Fig. 3. This figure shows the behavior of a box controlled using the standard IBVS method. In a) it is shown the visual errors $\Delta s$ between the current visual position of the box and its desired visual position. It can be noticed that the visual errors converge to a local minima, in b) the control input $u=-\lambda \widehat{L_{e}^{+}} \Delta s$ is depicted and in c) the Cartesian pose errors are shown. It can be seen that in the time frame $t=[0.58,0.62] s$ (green-vertical lines) the box is attracted to a local minima, since $u \approx 0^{6 \times 1}(\mathbf{b})$, even when $\Delta s \neq 0^{16 \times 1}(\mathbf{c})$. This produces a steady state error in the Cartesian space, i.e. local-minima (f).


Fig. 4. The figure shows the behavior of the box using an IBVS based on our Virtual Composite Model. In: a) the visual errors $\Delta W_{s}$ b) the control input $u=-\lambda\left(J_{i m g}^{0}\right)^{-1} \Delta W_{s}$ and c) the Cartesian pose errors. In contrast with Figure 3 all the error and control signals converge to zero. In other words, the system reaches the desired state without local-minima.
the standard method suffers from local-minima, while our approach allows the convergence of errors in both spaces, virtual visual and Cartesian. This can be easily proved by analyzing the Null space for both methods.

## V. Experimental Results

In order to validate the image Jacobian presented in this work, we used our robot TOM (Tactile Omni-directional Mobile Manipulator) depicted in Fig. 5. The robot is composed of 2 industrial robot arms (UR-5) mounted on a Omni-directional platform developed at our institute. An AR marker has been mounted on the right arm of the robot. The markers are tracked using the AruCo library which is based on OpenCV. Every marker provides 2D image features for 4 corner points. This visual points are used to compute the Visual Jacobian presented in this work. Both the visual stereo-tracking, the virtual composite model and the control have been implemented in ROS. The task is to track the pose of a target marker which is controlled by a user. We have added to the desired position an offset of $[118,20,-100]$ (pixels), which represent an offset of $[0,0.17,0]^{T}(m)$ with respect to the robot base, to avoid occlusions. The target orientation is used without offsets. The control approach is an extension of [14] for the 6D case and is defined in the next section.

## A. Adaptive Image-based $6 D$ Visual Servoing

In this section, we describe the design of an adaptive image-based dynamic control (second order sliding mode
control). The proposed second order sliding mode control is chattering free. The control approach is defined as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau=-K_{d} S_{q}+Y_{r} \Theta, \dot{\Theta}=-\Gamma Y_{r}{ }^{T} S_{q} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Y_{r} \Theta$ is the on-line estimation of the robot regressor, $K_{d}=K_{d}{ }^{T} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{n \times n}$ and $\Gamma \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{m \times m}$ are constant matrices and $S_{q}$ is the Joint Error Velocity surface defined as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{q}=\dot{q}-\dot{q}_{r} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the Joint Velocity Nominal Reference $\dot{q}_{r}=J_{s}{ }^{-1} \dot{W}_{s_{r}}$ has been defined using (13) with respect to the robot base. This produces the new Jacobian $J_{s}=J_{i m g}^{0} R J(q)$, with $R=$ $\operatorname{diag}\left(\left[R_{0}^{b} ; R_{0}^{b}\right]\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{6 \times 6}$, where $R_{0}^{b}=R_{0}^{l} R_{l}^{b} \in S O(3)$ is the orientation of the robot base with respect to the frame $O_{w}$ and $J(q)$ is the robot Jacobian. It's easy to prove that the singularities of $J_{s}$ are the singularities of the visual Jacobian and the standard singularities of the robot. The 6D visual nominal reference $\dot{W}_{s_{r}}$ is given by

$$
\begin{gather*}
\dot{W}_{s_{r}}=\left(\dot{W}_{s_{d}}-K_{p} \Delta W_{s}+S_{s_{d}}-K_{1} \int_{t_{0}}^{t} S_{s_{\delta}}(\zeta) d \zeta-K_{2} \int_{t_{0}}^{t} \operatorname{sign}\left(S_{s_{\delta}}(\zeta)\right) d \zeta\right) \\
S_{s_{\delta}}=S_{s}-S_{s_{d}}, S_{s}=\left(\Delta \dot{W}_{s}+K_{p} \Delta W_{s}\right), S_{s_{d}}=S_{s}\left(t_{0}\right) e^{-\kappa t} \tag{20}
\end{gather*}
$$

where $\dot{W}_{s_{d}}$ is the desired visual velocity, $\Delta W_{s}=W_{s}-W_{s_{d}}$ is the visual position error, $\Delta \dot{W}_{s}$ is the visual velocity error, $K_{p}=K_{p}{ }^{T} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{6 \times 6}$ and $K_{j}=K_{j}{ }^{T} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{6 \times 6}$ (with $j=1,2$ ) and $S_{s \delta}$ is the virtual visual error surface. The visual position/velocity errors can be described as Euler angles in the same form as explained in Section IV-A. 2 This adaptive
on-line estimation together with the second order sliding mode in $S_{s_{\delta}}$ handle the uncertainties on the robot parameters. The passivity proof of this control can be found here [14]. The results obtained using the above control law with the robot depicted in Fig. 5 are shown in Figure 6, A video with more details about the experimental results can be found in: http://web.ics.ei.tum.de//eemmanuel/Dean/humanoids14.html


Fig. 5. This figure shows in a) the experimental setup used to validate our approach. It is composed of a dual-arm mobile manipulator, where 2 UR-5 robots are used as arms. The right arm is equipped with a AR marker mounted on its end-effector. The stereo-camera setup comprises two standard webcams logitech pro 9000 mounted on a tripod. The system has been calibrated with respect to the body of the robot. In b) is depicted a snapshot of the task, where the target marker is moved by the user. The goal is to visually track the pose of the target marker with the robot arm.

## VI. Conclusions

In this paper, we have proposed the composition of a new Virtual Visual space (measured in pixels) to define visual poses (positions and orientations). This composition converts the visual feature space to a minimum set of generalized variables $X_{s} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 1}$. Using this visual space, we design a novel full-rank image Jacobian, which avoids the wellknown problems in image-based Visual Servoing such as the Image space singularities, local minima and motion coupling. Analytic, simulation and experimental results show that this visual Jacobian surpass the standard visual Jacobians based on the classical interaction matrix. We also presented the design of a control approach using the image Jacobian and implemented it in a real robot. We are working on the implementation of this approach to validate its feasibility in dual-arm manipulation tasks.

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Fig. 6. This figure shows the visual tracking of the target using the robot end-effector. The visual position and the visual Euler angles of the target and the end-effector are shown. It can be noticed that the robot tracks the position of the target with a user-defined offset which has been added to avoid occlusions. The orientations are tracked without adding any offsets.
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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the case when the object is moving and the camera is fixed.
    ${ }^{2}$ This depends on the definition of the visual feature and its relationship with the task space.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ We assumed that the virtual right camera has the same intrinsic parameters as the right camera. These parameters can be computed off-line.

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ The expression $\left.J_{v}\right|_{\bar{e}_{\{x, y, z\}_{0}}}$ means $J_{v}$ evaluated at each vector $\bar{e}_{x_{0}}, \bar{e}_{y_{0}}, \bar{e}_{z_{0}}$.

[^4]:    ${ }^{5}$ We use the Euler Angles (ZYZ) to represent the orientation of the box.

