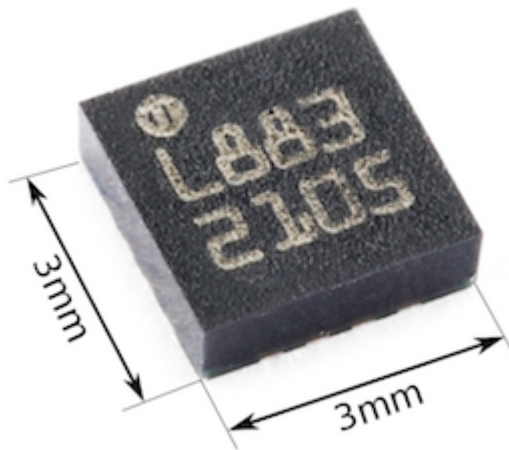


A way to calibrate a magnetometer

My first contact with a digital magnetometer dates back to the summer of 2009. At that time, as many *arduinoers*, I was more concerned about coding the I2C/SPI driver other than understanding the device itself. A few months later I got an iPhone 4 and realized that the compass application, which used the internal phone magnetometer, required calibration every time it had to be used. And so, I became interested on why was this step required and how can it be done. In this post I will try to explain, together with a practical example, a way to do it. It is in essence the method described [here](#), but with some more details and references.



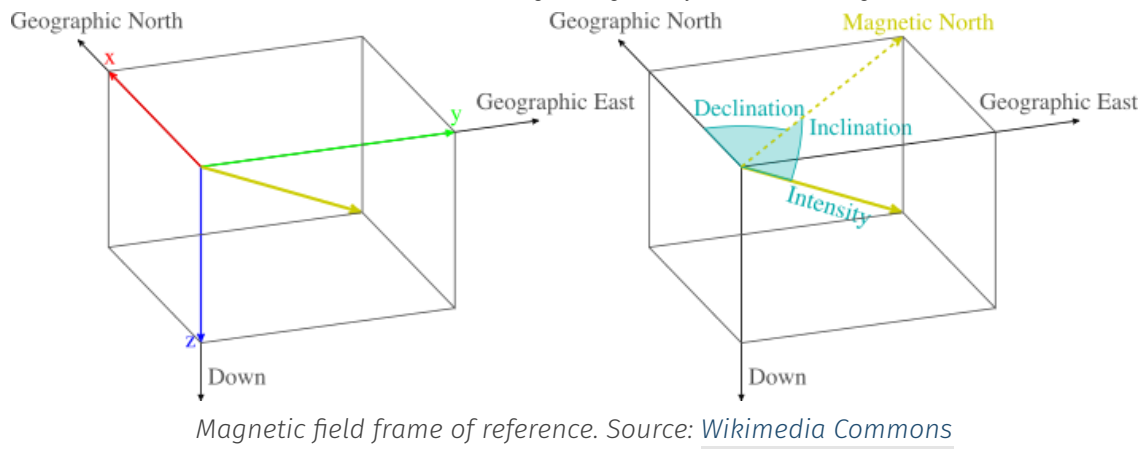
A digital triple-axis magnetometer sold nowadays. Source: [Sparkfun](#) (CC-BY-NC-SA)

Preliminary concepts

Before we start it is important to have a few concepts clear. It seems logical that we need to have a basic understanding of the Earth magnetic field, as it is what we want to measure. Furthermore, basic knowledge of quadrics (e.g. spheres or ellipsoids) will turn out to be important. It may seem awkward to talk about quadrics here, but it will quickly make sense.

The Earth magnetic field

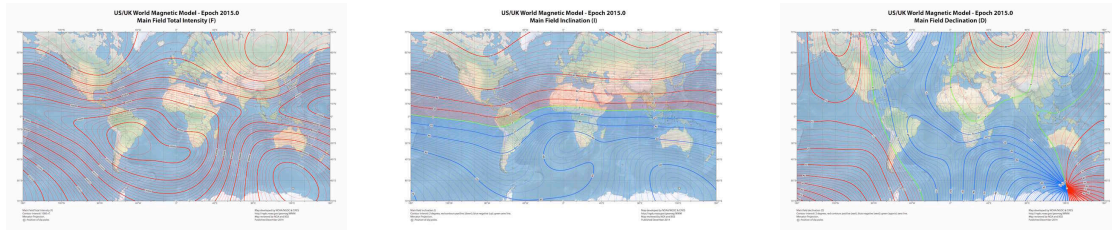
At any location on Earth, the magnetic field can be locally represented as a constant three dimensional vector (\mathbf{h}_0). This vector can be characterized by three properties. Firstly, the intensity or magnitude (\mathcal{F}), normally measured in nanoteslas (nT) with an approximate range of 25000 nT to 65000 nT. Secondly, the inclination (\mathcal{I}), with negative values (up to -90°) if pointing up and positive (up to 90°) if pointing down. Thirdly, the declination (\mathcal{D}) which measures the deviation of the field relative to the geographical north and is positive eastward.



Using the frame of reference in the figure shown above, the Earth magnetic field vector \mathbf{h}_0 can be written as:

$$\mathbf{h}_0 = \mathcal{F} \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\mathcal{I}) \cos(\mathcal{D}) \\ \cos(\mathcal{I}) \sin(\mathcal{D}) \\ \sin(\mathcal{I}) \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

Given a geographical point the [WMM model](#) can be used to obtain the expected values for \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{D} . The magnetic declination is specially useful in order to calculate the geographical north in a compass.



WMM 2015.0 intensity, inclination and declination maps. Source: NOAA/NGDC & CIRES

Quadrics

Quadrics are all surfaces that can be expressed as a second degree polynomial in x , y and z . They include popular surfaces such as spheres, ellipsoids, paraboloids, etc. The general implicit equation of a quadric surface \mathcal{S} is given by:

$$\mathcal{S}: ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + 2fyz + 2gxz + 2hxy + px + qy + rz + d = 0. \quad (2)$$

Eq. (2) can be written in a semi-matricial form, which will be particularly useful for our problem:

$$\mathcal{S}: \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{n} + d = 0 \quad (3)$$

where \mathbf{x} is:

$$\mathbf{x} = [x \quad y \quad z]^T$$

and \mathbf{M} , \mathbf{n} are, respectively:

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} a & h & g \\ h & b & f \\ g & f & c \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{n} = \begin{bmatrix} p \\ q \\ r \end{bmatrix}.$$

A sphere of radius 1 centered at origin would be defined by:

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{n} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } d = -1.$$

Eq. (2) can also be written purely in matrix form as:

$$S : \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{x} = 0$$

where \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{Q} are, respectively:

$$\mathbf{x} = [x \quad y \quad z \quad 1]^T, \quad \mathbf{Q} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{M} & \mathbf{n} \\ \hline \mathbf{n}^T & d \end{array} \right].$$

The type of quadric is determined by some properties of the matrices \mathbf{M} and \mathbf{Q} as detailed [here](#).

Measuring with a magnetometer

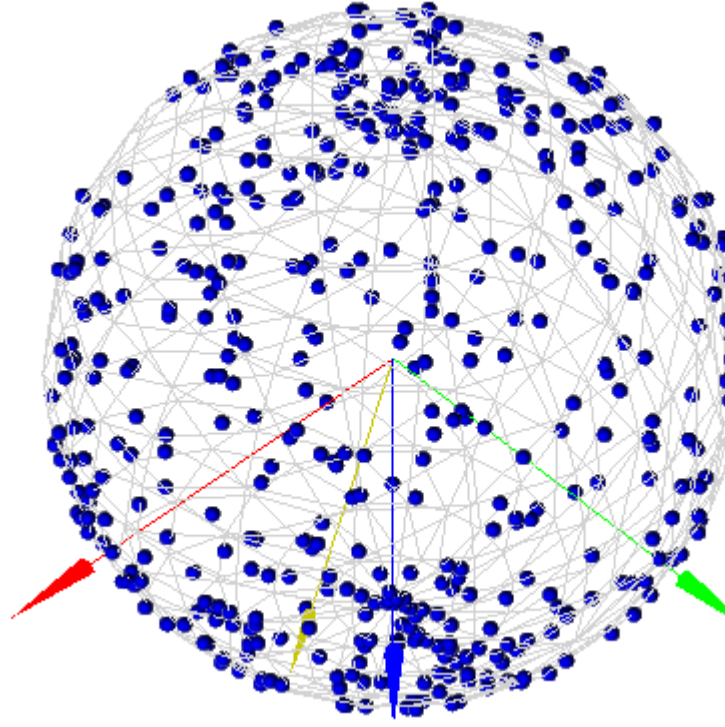
Initially, let's assume that we are in a magnetic disturbance free environment and that we have an ideal 3-axis magnetometer. Under these conditions, a magnetometer reading \mathbf{h} taken with an arbitrary orientation will be given by:

$$\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{R}_x(\phi) \mathbf{R}_y(\theta) \mathbf{R}_z(\varphi) \mathbf{h}_0, \quad (4)$$

where \mathbf{h}_0 is the local Earth magnetic field given in (1) and $\mathbf{R}_x(\phi)$, $\mathbf{R}_y(\theta)$, $\mathbf{R}_z(\varphi)$ are [rotation matrices](#) around the frame of reference x , y , z axis, respectively. Complementary sources of information would be needed to determine the orientation. It is easy to see that samples locus is a sphere of radius \mathcal{F} :

$$\mathbf{h}^T \mathbf{h} = \dots = \mathcal{F}^2. \quad (5)$$

This way way of looking at the magnetometer samples gives us a geometric perspective of the problem. A calculated example is shown in the interactive plot found below.



Expected samples of a 3-axis magnetometer around Irvine, CA by the date of writing

Distortion sources

In real life nothing is ideal neither the environment is disturbance free. As detailed in this [publication](#), there are two main categories of measurement distortion sources: instrumentation errors and magnetic interferences. In the next sections they will be briefly described, concluding with the measurement model.

Instrumentation errors

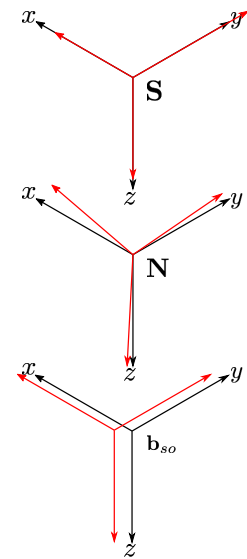
Instrumentation errors are unique and constant for each device. They can be modeled as a result of three components. Firstly, a scale factor, which can be modeled as a diagonal matrix:

$$\mathbf{S} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_z \end{bmatrix} \quad (6)$$

Secondly, the non-orthogonality of the sensor axis, which can be modeled as:

$$\mathbf{N} = [\mathbf{n}_x \quad \mathbf{n}_y \quad \mathbf{n}_z] \quad (7)$$

where each column represents a vector of size 3 corresponding to each sensor axis with respect to the sensor frame. Finally, a sensor offset which can be simply modeled as:



Schematic representation of each instrumentation error (-)

$$\mathbf{b}_{so} = [b_{so_x} \ b_{so_y} \ b_{so_z}]^T. \quad (8)$$

Magnetic interferences

The magnetic interferences are caused by ferromagnetic elements present in the surroundings of the sensor. It is composed by permanent (hard iron) and induced magnetism (soft iron). Note that we ignore any non-constant magnetic interference.

Hard iron results from permanent magnets and magnetic hysteresis (remance of magnetized iron). It is equivalent to a bias, which can be modeled as:

$$\mathbf{b}_{hi} = [b_{hi_x} \ b_{hi_y} \ b_{hi_z}]^T. \quad (9)$$

Soft iron is due by the interaction of an external magnetic field with ferromagnetic materials, causing a change in the intensity and direction of the sensed field. It can be modeled as:

$$\mathbf{A}_{si} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \quad (10)$$

You may find useful to read this [application note](#), where it is discussed which elements on a PCB can cause magnetic interference.

Measurement model

After detailing each distortion source, we can easily write down the measurement model. All the distortion sources described in (6) – (10) can be combined to express the measured magnetic field \mathbf{h}_m as:

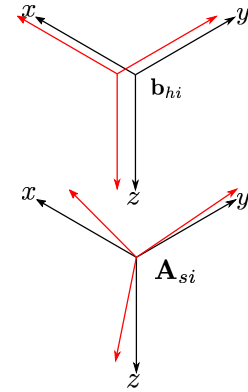
$$\mathbf{h}_m = \mathbf{SN}(\mathbf{A}_{si}\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}_{hi}) + \mathbf{b}_{so} \quad (11)$$

where \mathbf{h} is the true magnetic field given by (4). It is worth to note at this point that our measurement model does not include any stochastic noise. This is in some way unrealistic, however, it simplifies the solution approach at the cost of a slightly biased solution (assuming a small amplitude noise). You may use the method described in this [paper](#) to extend our solution by including noise.

Grouping terms (11) can be re-written as:

$$\mathbf{h}_m = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b} \quad (12)$$

where:



Schematic representation of each magnetic interference (-)

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{SNA}_{si}$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{SNb}_{hi} + \mathbf{b}_{so}.$$

\mathbf{A} is a matrix combining scale factors, misalignments and soft-iron effects, while \mathbf{b} is the combined bias vector. It can be proved that the linear transformation of \mathbf{h} in (12) makes the measurements \mathbf{h}_m to lie on an ellipsoid. Therefore, we will see in the next section that the calibration process reduces to an ellipsoid fitting problem.

Calibration

It becomes clear from (12) that we need to find an estimate of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{b} , which we will note as $\hat{\mathbf{A}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$. Then, any new measurement \mathbf{h}_n can be simply calibrated as:

$$\hat{\mathbf{h}}_n = \hat{\mathbf{A}}^{-1}(\mathbf{h}_n - \hat{\mathbf{b}}).$$

We first start expressing \mathbf{h} , using (12), as:

$$\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{h}_m - \mathbf{b})$$

which combined with (5) leads to:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{h}_m^T \mathbf{A}^{-T} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{h}_m - \\ & 2\mathbf{h}_m^T \mathbf{A}^{-T} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{b} + \\ & \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{A}^{-T} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{b} - \mathcal{F}^2 = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

Eq. (13) can be re-written in the familiar quadric form:

$$\mathbf{h}_m^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{h}_m + \mathbf{h}_m^T \mathbf{n} + d = 0 \quad (14)$$

where:

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{A}^{-T} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \quad (15a)$$

$$\mathbf{n} = -2\mathbf{A}^{-T} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{b} \quad (15b)$$

$$d = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{A}^{-T} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{b} - \mathcal{F}^2. \quad (15c)$$

As we noted in the previous section our quadric surface will be an ellipsoid. Thus, we need to use an ellipsoid fitting algorithm which provides us with estimates of the quadric surface parameters, $\hat{\mathbf{M}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ and \hat{d} . Multiple algorithms have been developed to fit a set of points to an ellipsoid surface. We will use the LS fitting method described in this [paper](#) by Q. Li et al. This method is easy to implement and there is also a MATLAB version readily [available](#). Even though presented as an iterative method, a single step fit is enough if the points describe well the ellipsoid (which will be our case). Furthermore, it is shown that it performs reasonably well for low noise levels.

Using (14) and (15a)-(15c) with the estimated values $\hat{\mathbf{M}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ and \hat{d} we can find $\hat{\mathbf{A}}$ (or $\hat{\mathbf{A}}^{-1}$) and $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$. As detailed in this [paper](#), you will need to find the proper scale of the

solution, which is found to be:

$$\hat{\mathbf{b}} = -\hat{\mathbf{M}}^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{n}} \quad (16)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{A}}^{-1} = \frac{\mathcal{F}}{\sqrt{\hat{\mathbf{n}}^T \hat{\mathbf{M}}^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{n}} - \hat{d}}} \hat{\mathbf{M}}^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (17)$$

As you can observe from (17), knowledge of \mathcal{F} is required in order to calculate $\hat{\mathbf{A}}^{-1}$. This will make the calibrated sphere to have radius \mathcal{F} . However, in many applications such as in attitude estimation, the magnitude is irrelevant. If that is your case, you can make it one or any other convenient value.

In order to conclude this section, the proposed code to perform the calibration is shown below. It uses [Numpy](#) and [SciPy](#) for numeric calculations as well as the sensor class detailed in the next section.

```
import sys
import numpy as np
from scipy import linalg

class Magnetometer(object):
    ''' Magnetometer class with calibration capabilities.

    Parameters
    -----
    sensor : str
        Sensor to use.
    bus : int
        Bus where the sensor is attached.
    F : float (optional)
        Expected earth magnetic field intensity, default=1.
    ...

    # available sensors
    _sensors = {'ak8975c': SensorAK8975C}

    def __init__(self, sensor, bus, F=1.):

        # sensor
        if sensor not in self._sensors:
            raise NotImplementedError('Sensor %s not available' % sensor)
        self.sensor = self._sensors[sensor](bus)

        # initialize values
        self.F = F
        self.b = np.zeros([3, 1])
        self.A_1 = np.eye(3)

    def read(self):
        ''' Get a sample.

        Returns
        -----
        s : list
            The sample in uT, [x,y,z] (corrected if performed calibration).
        ...

        s = np.array(self.sensor.read()).reshape(3, 1)
        s = np.dot(self.A_1, s - self.b)
```

```

return [s[0,0], s[1,0], s[2,0]]

def calibrate(self):
    ''' Performs calibration. '''

    print('Collecting samples (Ctrl-C to stop and perform calibration)')

    try:
        s = []
        n = 0
        while True:
            s.append(self.sensor.read())
            n += 1
            sys.stdout.write('\rTotal: %d' % n)
            sys.stdout.flush()
    except KeyboardInterrupt:
        pass

    # ellipsoid fit
    s = np.array(s).T
    M, n, d = self.__ellipsoid_fit(s)

    # calibration parameters
    # note: some implementations of sqrtm return complex type, taking real
    M_1 = linalg.inv(M)
    self.b = -np.dot(M_1, n)
    self.A_1 = np.real(self.F / np.sqrt(np.dot(n.T, np.dot(M_1, n)) - d) *
                      linalg.sqrtm(M))

def __ellipsoid_fit(self, s):
    ''' Estimate ellipsoid parameters from a set of points.

    Parameters
    -----
    s : array_like
        The samples (M,N) where M=3 (x,y,z) and N=number of samples.

    Returns
    -----
    M, n, d : array_like, array_like, float
        The ellipsoid parameters M, n, d.

    References
    -----
    .. [1] Qingde Li; Griffiths, J.G., "Least squares ellipsoid specific
        fitting," in Geometric Modeling and Processing, 2004.
        Proceedings, vol., no., pp.335-340, 2004
    ...

    # D (samples)
    D = np.array([s[0]**2., s[1]**2., s[2]**2.,
                  2.*s[1]*s[2], 2.*s[0]*s[2], 2.*s[0]*s[1],
                  2.*s[0], 2.*s[1], 2.*s[2], np.ones_like(s[0])])

    # S, S_11, S_12, S_21, S_22 (eq. 11)
    S = np.dot(D, D.T)
    S_11 = S[:6,:6]
    S_12 = S[:6,6:]
    S_21 = S[6,:6]
    S_22 = S[6,6:]

    # C (Eq. 8, k=4)
    C = np.array([[ -1,  1,  1,  0,  0,  0],
                  [  1, -1,  1,  0,  0,  0],

```



```

[ 1,  1, -1,  0,  0,  0],
[ 0,  0,  0, -4,  0,  0],
[ 0,  0,  0,  0, -4,  0],
[ 0,  0,  0,  0,  0, -4]])

# v_1 (eq. 15, solution)
E = np.dot(linalg.inv(C),
           S_11 - np.dot(S_12, np.dot(linalg.inv(S_22), S_21)))

E_w, E_v = np.linalg.eig(E)

v_1 = E_v[:, np.argmax(E_w)]
if v_1[0] < 0: v_1 = -v_1

# v_2 (eq. 13, solution)
v_2 = np.dot(np.dot(-np.linalg.inv(S_22), S_21), v_1)

# quadric-form parameters
M = np.array([[v_1[0], v_1[3], v_1[4]],
              [v_1[3], v_1[1], v_1[5]],
              [v_1[4], v_1[5], v_1[2]]])
n = np.array([v_2[0]],
              [v_2[1]],
              [v_2[2]])
d = v_2[3]

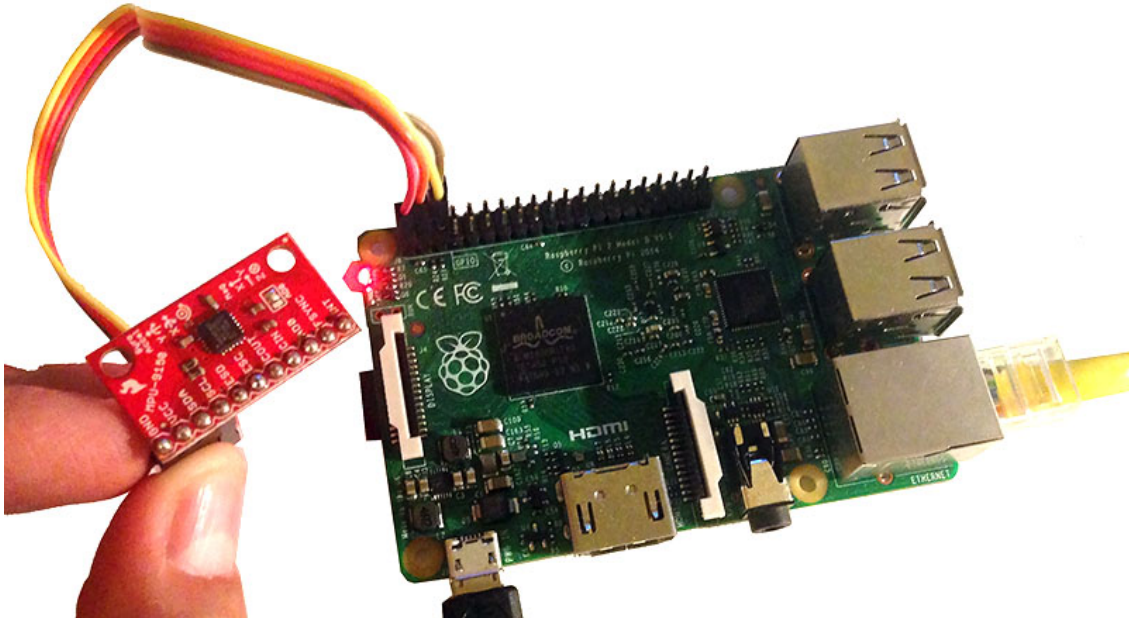
return M, n, d

```

Example

To conclude this post we will use samples from a real magnetometer, which will allow us to see if the proposed solution behaves as expected. It is important to note that we will not evaluate the accuracy of our solution, neither other things such as how the number of samples or their spatial distribution affects the calibration. These are topics that would require further study, out of the scope of this post.

The chosen magnetometer is the one found inside the [Invensense MPU-9150](#): AK8975C. It is a module that also contains an accelerometer and a gyroscope, not required for our purposes. A Raspberry Pi 2 will be used as a host platform, as shown below. This will allow us to quickly code a proof of concept by just using a few lines of Python. Note that you will need to activate the I2C driver and install `python-smbus` on the Raspberry Pi (details [here](#)).



The setup used for this example

The proposed code for the AK8975C drive is:

```
import smbus

# MPU9150 used registers
MPU9150_ADDR          = 0x68
MPU9150_PWR_MGMT_1    = 0x6B
MPU9150_INT_PIN_CFG   = 0x37
MPU9150_INT_PIN_CFG_I2C_BYPASS_EN = 0x02

# AK8975C used registers
AK8975C_ADDR          = 0x0C
AK8975C_ST1           = 0x02
AK8975C_ST1_DRDY      = 0x01
AK8975C_HXL           = 0x03
AK8975C_CNTL          = 0x0A
AK8975C_CNTL_SINGLE   = 0x01

# convert to s16 from two's complement
to_s16 = lambda n: n - 0x10000 if n > 0x7FFF else n

class SensorAK8975C(object):
    ''' AK8975C Simple Driver.

    Parameters
    -----
    bus : int
        I2C bus number (e.g. 1).
    '''

    # sensor sensitivity (uT/LSB)
    _sensitivity = 0.3

    def __init__(self, bus):
        self.bus = smbus.SMBus(bus)

        # wake up and set bypass for AK8975C
        self.bus.write_byte_data(MPU9150_ADDR, MPU9150_PWR_MGMT_1, 0)
        self.bus.write_byte_data(MPU9150_ADDR, MPU9150_INT_PIN_CFG,
                                  MPU9150_INT_PIN_CFG_I2C_BYPASS_EN)
```

```

def __del__(self):
    self.bus.close()

def read(self):
    ''' Get a sample.

    Returns
    -----
    s : list
        The sample in uT, [x, y, z].
    '''

    # request single shot
    self.bus.write_byte_data(AK8975C_ADDR, AK8975C_CNTL,
                             AK8975C_CNTL_SINGLE)

    # wait for data ready
    r = self.bus.read_byte_data(AK8975C_ADDR, AK8975C_ST1)
    while not (r & AK8975C_ST1_DRDY):
        r = self.bus.read_byte_data(AK8975C_ADDR, AK8975C_ST1)

    # read x, y, z
    data = self.bus.read_i2c_block_data(AK8975C_ADDR, AK8975C_HXL, 6)

    return [self._sensitivity * to_s16(data[0] | (data[1] << 8)),
            self._sensitivity * to_s16(data[2] | (data[3] << 8)),
            self._sensitivity * to_s16(data[4] | (data[5] << 8))]

```

Merging the sensor driver shown above with the code in the previous section will allow us to both sample and calibrate. We can also append the code shown below, which will allow us to store non-calibrated and calibrated samples to then visualize the results with any plotting library:

```

from time import sleep

def collect(fn, fs=10):
    ''' Collect magnetometer samples

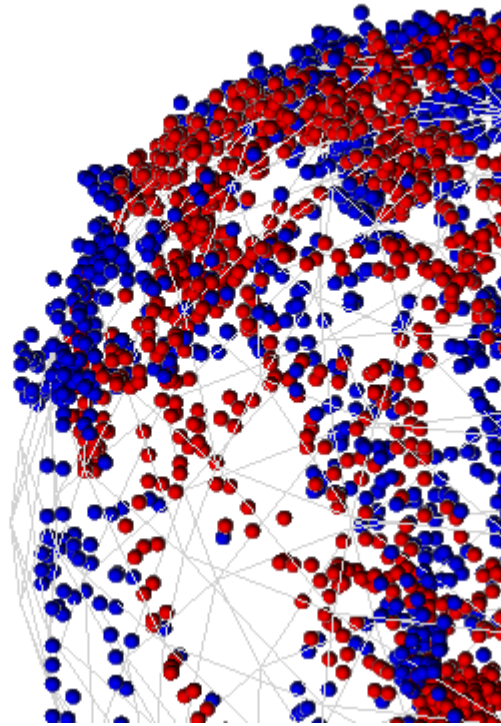
    Parameters
    -----
    fn : str
        Output file.
    fs : int (optional)
        Approximate sampling frequency (Hz), default 10 Hz.
    '''

    print('Collecting [%s]. Ctrl-C to finish' % fn)
    with open(fn, 'w') as f:
        f.write('x,y,z\n')
        try:
            while True:
                s = m.read()
                f.write('%0.1f,%0.1f,%0.1f\n' % (s[0], s[1], s[2]))
                sleep(1./fs)
        except KeyboardInterrupt: pass

m = Magnetometer('ak8975c', 1, 46.85)
collect('ncal.csv')
m.calibrate()
collect('cal.csv')

```

Real results are displayed in the following interactive plot:



Samples taken *before* and *after* calibration shown together with the reference sphere.



8 Comments

1 Login ▾

G

Join the discussion...

LOG IN WITH

OR SIGN UP WITH DISQUS ?

Name

♡ 3

Share

Best

Newest

Oldest

M

Michael

2 months ago

matrix M should be:

```
# quadric-form parameters
M = np.array([[v_1[0], v_1[5], v_1[4]],
[v_1[5], v_1[1], v_1[3]],
[v_1[4], v_1[3], v_1[2]]])
```

0 0 Reply ↗

C

ct Z

8 months ago

Hi, thanks for your excellent code. But I still have some questions for your code. In your first part of code, function '`__ellipsoid_fit(self, s)`', you use:

```
'v_1 = E_v[:, np.argmax(E_w)]
if v_1[0] < 0: v_1 = - v_1'
```

I can't understand why should we negate '`v_1`' when '`v_1[0]<0`'. In your theory, you don't mention the reason. So could you please explain it in detail? Really appreciate it.

0 0 Reply ↗

**Vic Mortelmans**

2 years ago

Would it be theoretically possible to calibrate a magnetometer using this method if samples can be obtained from only one quadrant of the sphere (not sure if 'quadrant' is the right word, I mean dividing the sphere in 8 parts by the planes defined by the x/y/z axes)?

0 0 Reply ↗

**Bruno**

4 years ago

I like your paper very much, however I get lost in your chapter on calibration. Could you please elaborate with a few more formula's how to come to result (17) from equations (14) and (15a)-(15c). The LS fitting results are clear.

0 0 Reply 

G

Gerard Marull Paretas

→ Bruno

— 

4 years ago

Hi Bruno, please refer to original [paper](#) for more details

0 0 Reply 



Bruno

→ Gerard Marull Paretas

— 

4 years ago

Thanks for your reply. The paper you are referring to in your reply is from Li, and about ellipsoid fitting, and does unfortunately not answer my question. The problem I'm referring to is after the LS has been completed and matrix M is known. My question is how you get from matrix M to matrix A^{*-1} , and in particular how you derive the constant factor in (17)?

In Literature there is a consensus that the solution to this problem is something like $A^{*-1} = \text{factor} * M^{*1/2}$. In papers like Freescale Application note AN4246, there is a full derivation of the problem under the assumption of a symmetric soft-iron matrix, resulting in a factor = 1. In the Calgary University paper "Complete Triaxis Magnetometer Calibration in the Magnetic Domain" there is suddenly a fuzzy factor "alpha" introduced as factor in the derivation. The above TesLabs paper states that the proper scaling factor is detailed in ref. "Calibration of a magnetometer in combination with inertial sensors". My question is still how do you derive this factor in (17)?

0 0 Reply 

R

Robert R

— 

5 years ago

I believe in your code example your M is incorrect. Based on your notation in your Quadric section you have $\begin{bmatrix} a & f & g \\ f & b & h \\ g & h & c \end{bmatrix}$ as your M matrix. A simple check here is that in the D matrix, your 5th element is your $2XY$ term. This term should go in the h positions as per $\begin{bmatrix} a & h & g \\ h & b & f \\ g & f & c \end{bmatrix}$, instead you have the XY term assigned in the f positions.

The overall result is that your A_{-1} matrix will have "mirrored" column 1 and row 1.

Interestingly enough, this flip doesn't seem to impact the calibration significantly.

0 0 Reply 

© 2024 Teslabs Engineering S.L. All rights reserved.