INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF FALSE MATCHES AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE MATCHED KEYPOINTS ON THE PNP ALGORITHM

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ABSTRACT:

Perspective-n-Point (PnP) problem is the estimation of the pose (location and orientation) of a calibrated camera from 3D-2D point correspondences, that is, three-dimensional coordinates of objects in a world coordinate system and corresponding pixels in twodimensional images. PnP algorithms are used in computer vision, augmented reality, robotics, photogrammetry etc. Distribution of the points in the image and the accuracy of the 3D information are important on the accuracy of the estimated pose of the camera. In this paper, keypoints with previously known coordinates and keypoints detected in images taken from a drone are matched. Then, the robustness of PnP algorithms is investigated by adding mismatched keypoints into the true matches. In addition, the effect of the distribution of the points in the image is investigated. The entire study was carried out using high-resolution orthophotos. Direct Linear Transformation (DLT), Efficient PnP (EPnP), LHM and Robust PnP (RPnP) were tested as pose estimation algorithms. As a result, it is observed that the RPnP and LHM algorithms performed better than the other pose estimation algorithms when mismatched keypoints are added. It is also observed that RPnP and LHM give accurate results when the distance error (between the true match and the false match) is increased. RPnP has an advantage over LHM in terms of computational cost. In the case of homogeneous distribution of keypoints, it is observed that PnP algorithms estimate more accurate position and orientation than in the case of nonhomogeneous distribution.

1. INTRODUCTION

PnP algorithm is the estimation of pose (position and orientation) of a calibrated camera using points from the camera images (i.e. the moving image points) and the matched 3D world coordinates (position, altitude) of these points (i.e. the fixed image (3D) points). which can be acquired from readily available maps, orthophotos, rectified aerial images etc. along with the elevation model of the acquired region (Hartley & Zisserman, 2003) "Moving points" represent keypoints detected from the image. "Fixed points" are previously detected features from reference images, so their coordinates are known. Pose estimation has a wide range of usage in robotics (Taylor & Kleeman, 2001), computer vision (Forsyth & Ponce, 2012), photogrammetry (McGlone, 2004), augmented reality etc.

This paper is dedicated to investigation of some well-known PnP algorithms by experimenting on both real and synthetic The effects of number of mismatches, effects of distribution of ground control points over the moving image and effects of distance error (Figure 5) between true matches and false matches on state of art PnP algorithms were investigated in this paper.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The background of PnP algorithms and the necessary steps for accurate positioning before applying PnP algorithms are reviewed in Section 2 along with the details of the investigated algorithms. In Section 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3, Steps to be followed before PnP algorithms are mentioned. Due to lack of precise operation at these steps, PnP algorithm should be robust to inaccurate results of these steps. The experimental results using both synthetic data and real data are given in Section 3 and are evaluated in Section 4.

data. The entire study was carried out using high-resolution orthophotos.

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2. BACKGROUND

Perspective n Point problem (PnP) was introduced by Fischler & Bolles (Fischler, Bolles, 1981). PnP is the estimation of camera pose using correspondence between 3D fixed points and their 2D projection. (Li, Xu, & Xie, 2012) PnP can be defined based on distances or transformations (Hu, 2002). The distance-Based Approach (Fischler et al., 1981) is the computation of the distances between control points and the optical center of the camera. Position estimation from *n* corresponding points and derivation of rotation and translation parameters from image plane and camera plane corresponds to Transformation-Based Approach (Horaud, Conio, Leboulleux, & Lacolle, 1989).

P3P is minimal form of PnP problem. It is solved by three points correspondence. (Grunert, 1841)

The Direct Linear Transformation was developed by (Abdel-Aziz & Karara, 1971) as a solution to the PnP problem. DLT gives accurate results with large data set.

EPnP (Lepetit, Moreno-Noguer, & Fua, 2009), one of the noniterative methods, gives accurate solution for $n \ge 3$.

LHM is one of the iterative methods, introduced by (Lu, Hager, & Mjolsness, 2000).

RPnP is introduced by Li and Chi (Li et al., 2012), which is one of the noniterative method.

In order to find the pose of a camera, the image taken from it (which will be called as "the moving image") and a reference image (which will be called as "the fixed image") whose world coordinates (position and altitude) are available (e.g.an orthophoto) are required. Some pose estimation algorithms (Moreno-Noguer, Lepetit, & Fua, 2008) do not need a correspondence between the moving and fixed images. This type of algorithms calculates both the pose and the correspondences simultaneously. In the scope of this study, only pose estimation algorithms are investigated. Correspondence is provided by image matching algorithms.

The most important issue for position and orientation estimation applications is robustness. Robustness refers to an ability to give correct results against drawbacks of algorithms related to image matching algorithms, outlier rejection algorithms and other related methods in the processing pipeline. One of the major drawbacks of the image matching algorithms is mismatching of detected keypoints. (Figure 4) Keypoints detected and described from two corresponding images might have similar feature vectors even if matched control points do not belong to the same location in the world. This type of matched features is named as "outliers". PnP algorithms are influenced adversely by outliers (Ferraz, Binefa, & Moreno-Noguer, 2014). The computed location and orientation information will be inaccurate if PnP algorithm uses incorrectly matched keypoints. Therefore, outlier elimination methods are critical to get rid of incorrect matches. Distance-Based Approach is an outlier elimination method (Fischler et al., 1981). Despite using outlier rejection methods, corresponding points might include some wrong matches. Therefore, PnP algorithm also must be robust for additional wrong matches.

Furthermore, homogeneous distribution of the corresponding points in the covered image area is another crucial issue (Zhu, Wu, & Xu, 2006). In the case of homogeneous distribution of corresponding points, PnP algorithms estimate accurate position and orientation.

2.1. Internal Camera Calibration

The internal camera calibration is performed to estimate major parameters like the focal length and the parameters necessary to eliminate distortions in the image. The distortions are common problems encountered in image processing applications. Especially in vision-based navigation systems, radial distortion in the images should be corrected in order to get accurate results in the position and orientation estimation with the images taken from the cameras (Kukelova, Bujnak, & Pajdla, 2013).

The most common of these distortions are radial distortions. Radial distortions can be examined under two main headings in terms of Barrel and Pincushion Distortion.



Figure 1. a) No Distortion, b) Barrel Distortion, c) Pincushion Distortion





Figure 2. a) Image taken by drone (distorted image) b) Undistorted Image with radial distortion coefficients

2.2. Outlier Elimination

Feature matching using descriptors computed from detected keypoints have become popular. However, local descriptor matching can produce outliers. RANSAC (Fischler et al., 1981) can robustly fit a model to data in the presence of false matches.

RANSAC is a well-known estimation method used to robustly fit a model to data in presence of outliers. (Bhattacharya & Gavrilova, 2012) Iteratively, RANSAC picks a random subset of matches from the putative match list and fits a model to them. For fitting a model, a minimum of four keypoints are required. Then, the model is compared to all other correspondences in the putative match list. (Bhattacharya & Gavrilova, 2012)

Next, keypoints which are not appropriate to the fitted model are eliminated. As we see Figure 4, features described in the moving image (left) can be matched with wrong features in the fixed image (right). After outlier rejection method, outliers can be eliminated with respect to geometric



Figure 3. a) Putative data set b) Fitted line with RANSAC

transformation and fitted model by RANSAC. Despite using outlier rejection methods, corresponding points might include some wrong matches. So PnP algorithm must be robust for additional false matches.



a)



b)

Figure 4. a) Matched points before outlier rejection b) Matched points after outlier rejection



Figure 5. Distance error representation

In Figure 5, Distance error between the true match and the false match is represented as "d". (Eq 1)

$$d = \sqrt{(a_0 - a_1)^2 + (b_0 - b_1)^2}$$
(1)

2.3. Homogeneity

Distribution of the keypoints and accurate position estimation are directly related (Zhu et al., 2006). In the images, due to geographical characteristics of the terrain, height differences may occur from pixel to pixel. Under these circumstances, moving points should be distributed on the whole image for accurate image registration and photogrammetry.

Distribution of the keypoints is calculated using a special metric which was proposed by Yahyanejad & Rinner (Yahyanejad & Rinner, 2015). Based on this metric, in this paper, synthetic data was generated with distribution coefficient (Figure 6).

Coordinates of the keypoints are randomly generated between (-i) and (i) (Eq. 2). Totally 10 keypoints were generated.

$$P_{3D}: x = random[-i i]; (2)$$

$$y = random[-i i];$$

$$z = random[a b];$$

where, i : distribution coefficient

a, b : constant integer number $\in Z$



Figure 6. The changes of the distribution of the keypoints with respect to coefficient "i"

3. RESULTS

3.1. Experiments with Synthetic data



Table 1. Effects of Number of outliers and Distance error on PNP algorithms for synthetic data

To investigate the effects of number of false mathes on the PnP algorithms, firstly synthetic data is created. Firstly, 3D fixed points were randomly generated. Then, synthetic moving points were by projection (Eq. 3). In the experiments which were performed with synthetic data, we did not take intrinsic camera parameters, radial distortions, tangential distortions, geographical factors and other issues into account. That means pinhole camera properties are used in synthetic data and experiments. Therefore, only the effects of the false matches and the effects of distance error (Figure 5) between original points and projected points were investigated.

$$X_{2D} = \left[\frac{X_{3D}(1,:)}{X_{3D}(3,:)}; \frac{X_{3D}(2,:)}{X_{3D}(3,:)} \right] \times f \quad (3)$$

where;

f: focal length (in pixel) X3D: randomly generated 3D points (3 × 1 matrix) X2D: projected 2D moving points (2 × 1 matrix)

After generation of the 2D points, false matches were added to inlier points one by one. While outlier points were generated, different pixel errors were inserted. The number of outliers is 1 through 5 and, pixel error differs from 0.5 to 180.5 (Table 1).

In the first experiment (Figure 7), pixel errors were kept constant and only the number of outlier points has been increased from 1 to 5. The pixel error was fixed to 100 pixels. In total, 10 matched points were generated randomly. Number of outliers was increased one by one. Therefore, total number of matched points were constant while adding outliers.

For Figure 6	Initial	Step	Step	Step	Step	Step		
	Condition	1	2	3	4	5		
Total	10	10	10	10	10	10		
Number								
Number of	0	1	2	3	4	5		
Outlier								

Table 2. Steps for adding outliers to inlier points.

In the second experiment (Figure 8), the number of outliers was kept constant and only the pixel error of outliers has been increased from 0.5 to 180.5. Number of outliers was fixed to 1 in Figure 8. There were totally 10 matched points. In this situation, 9 inliers and 1 outlier were given to PnP algorithms.

For Figure 7	Initial	Step	Step	Step	Step	Step		
	Condition	1	2	3	4	5		
Total	10	10	10	10	10	10		
Number								
Number of	0	1	1	1	1	1		
Outlier								

Table 3. Steps for adding outliers to inlier points



Figure 7. Effect of number of outliers on PnP algorithms



Figure 8. Effects of the pixel error on PnP algorithms



Figure 9. The effect of the distribution of the keypoints on PnP algorithms

	DUT			Num	ber of Out	liers		EDND		Number of Outliers						шм	Number of Outliers					DOND		Number of Outliers				
	L		1	2	3	4	5	CH	TMP 1	1	2	3	4	5	1 4	H M	1	2	3	4	5	19	-INF-	1	2	3	4	5
0		0.5	68.191	71.017	68.51	70.715	67.017		0.5	59.539	59.565	59.592	59.516	59.549		0.5	59.385	59.389	59.401	59.398	59.418		0.5	59.252	59.261	59.242	59.283	59.215
e e		20.5	99.813	137.1	149.99	81.186	192.41		20.5	59.298	61.128	65.262	60.928	69.1		20.5	61.081	59.866	63.262	60.902	63.235		20.5	59.629	60.611	66.624	63.571	59.286
E	8	40.5	121.48	445.29	346.77	211.54	248.93	8	40.5	59.51	61.425	68.576	61.21	79.661	8	40.5	60.663	59.617	59.667	61.376	62.516	8	40.5	64.63	60.938	61.207	60.72	62.496
8	Ê	60.5	342.45	848.91	55.973	250.7	371.85	Ê	60.5	59.748	66.398	159.7	85.635	135.22	ê	60.5	61.698	59.594	62.158	59.909	66.997	Ê	60.5	58.958	77.331	61.664	61.758	70.934
8	E .	80.5	341.32	488.62	623.92	148.02	161.62	e e	80.5	68.318	85.757	170.1	57.255	115.34	E .	80.5	72.376	64.226	74.782	62.659	65.36	E .	80.5	60.493	65.097	80.847	93.614	70.337
Ē	툭	100.5	632.21	668.25	6801.7	136.2	422.67		100.5	62.939	84.505	161.8	83.436	122.2	독	100.5	59.816	79.421	77.629	62.72	59.608	ŧ	100.5	66.269	110.09	67.807	130.26	83.327
10		120.5	278.34	284.3	1402.7	1065.7	800.18	8	120.5	62.554	84.386	210.39	76.488	121.92	8	120.5	61.052	87.397	67.629	63.413	111.49	2	120.5	69.407	104.93	96.534	159.08	133.86
-	ā	140.5	54.037	405.11	440.12	773.13	2653.7	ā	140.5	69.95	114.69	260.36	105.62	211.99	ā	140.5	81.2	69.475	75.826	59.88	100.16	ā	140.5	101.79	74.202	141.56	107.65	97.796
		160.5	5325.6	1458.5	927.34	2693.4	1056.3		160.5	63.789	186.63	433.57	180.99	279.96		160.5	101.72	69.468	131.78	65.839	100.79		160.5	138.18	129.95	148.98	67.146	156.34
		180.5	3690.5	729.46	464.54	332.84	824.51		180.5	62.987	71.372	178.4	63.05	103.25		180.5	122.82	114.69	133.81	80.522	146.2		180.5	91.445	125.72	69.375	197.46	81.354
	пт		Number of Outliers					FF	NP	Number of Outliers				1	нм	Number of Outliers					P6	NP	Number of Outliers					
			1	2	3	4	5			1	2	3	4	5			1	2	3	4	5			1	2	3	4	5
8		0.5	17.913	21.203	18.084	20.956	16.612		0.5	12.638	12.609	12.772	12.607	12.706		0.5	14.051	14.039	14.019	14	14.034		0.5	14.142	14.12	14.101	14.124	14.077
te -		20.5	51.441	137.09	149.38	42.798	191.96		20.5	13.705	20.185	20.486	15.996	32.291		20.5	5 15.308	16.025	24.159	18.504	22.83		20.5	10.606	17.744	29.113	24.822	16.463
5	S S	40.5	80.497	379.38	328.67	171.01	245.8	S S	40.5	17.057	22.754	41.014	16.775	50.151	80	40.5	14.678	15.078	15.107	19.881	25.096	80	40.5	34.924	13.032	18.809	18.442	22.985
5	E E	60.5	332.05	803.05	34.486	200.16	306.59	Ĕ	60.5	17.875	33.988	140.75	57.056	110	Ĕ	60.5	5 16.281	14.462	21.128	15.645	29.36	Ĕ	60.5	14.2	47.717	20.483	23.81	36.01
8	Ę.	80.5	284.56	418.78	592.98	89.896	155.9	į.	80.5	26.684	61.609	148.68	7.7412	89.471	Ę.	80.5	49.97	27.258	43.934	22.274	31.263	į.	80.5	15.191	28.08	51.926	67.379	35.927
Ē	5	100.5	593.69	581.87	6168.1	99.351	419.91	5	100.5	23,183	60.029	144.49	53.572	96.902	1	100.5	24.699	50.507	48.375	22.014	11.885	- F	100.5	25.906	84.201	25.665	106.35	55.139
8		120.5	225.78	277.02	1369.9	1045.4	768.74	2	120.5	13.362	39.691	197.48	48.04	100.81	, e	120.5	22.213	61,508	31.888	20.771	84.466	2	120.5	30.68	77.106	71,119	135.23	113.53
	۹.	140.5	16.837	306.37	425.29	739.54	2419.3	۹.	140.5	22.459	97.676	228.52	79.471	182.8	۹.	140.5	44.332	37.324	46.476	14.333	78.585	•	140.5	67.576	40.408	110.39	81.212	70.617
		160.5	4899.2	1408.4	639.01	2539.1	952.14		160.5	29.502	124.76	326.05	171.74	249.67		160.5	88.451	35.461	108.64	27.783	77.907		160.5	125.98	108.78	125.26	30.355	134.57
		180.5	3439	623.12	368.4	332.79	211.98		180.5	8.4112	41.021	165.71	33.908	71.183		180.5	89.018	89.183	108.75	50.88	126.37		180.5	72.628	97.396	33.314	167.91	41.743

3.2. Experiments with Real data

Table 4. Effects of Number of outliers vs Distance error on PnP algorithms for real data

To investigate effects of number of false mathes on the PnP algorithms using real data, corresponding ground control points are picked manually as keypoints. For every image pair, 10 handpicked points were chosen. Real data consist of 2D and 3D data set which are selected from images taken from an aerial vehicle and orthophotos available for the flight region. In the experiments with real data, intrinsic camera parameters, radial distortions, tangential distortions, geographical factors, and other issues were taken into account. To remove radial distortion and tangential distortion, moving points were undistorted by *MATLAB Camera Calibration Toolbox*. After undistorting the 2D

points, false matches were added to inlier points one by one. While outlier points were generated, different pixel errors were inserted. The number of outliers is 1 through 5 and, pixel error differs from 0.5 to 180.5 (Table 4). In Figure 11, Pixel errors were kept constant and only the number of outlier points has been increased from 1 to 5. The pixel error was fixed to 100 pixels in Figure 11. Number of outlier was increased one by one. Therefore total number of matched points were constant while adding outlier. In Figure 10, number of outlier was kept constant and only the distance error between true match and outlier has been increased from 0.5 to 500.



Figure 10. Effects of the pixel error on PnP algorithms



Figure 11. Effect of number of outliers on PnP algorithms



Figure 12. Some examples of the Image data set along with the handpicked keypoints



Figure 13. Computational cost comparison (Li et al., 2012)

According to synthetic experimental results, LHM and RPnP are robust methods to increasing number of outliers. The performance of PnP algorithms is affected adversely by increasing distance error (between true match and outlier) (Figure 5). RPnP and LHM also are robust to distance error. In the case of homogeneous distribution, the performance of all PnP algorithms is enhanced. Results obtained from synthetic experiments are satisfied by experiments on real data.

4. CONCLUSION

In this paper, well-known PnP algorithms were investigated and compared with synthetic and real data in terms of effects of false matches, effect of distribution of the matched keypoints, and the effects of distance error between original points and projected points. Experiments with synthetic and real data show that RPnP and LHM can effectively cope with data sets which include drawbacks investigated in this paper. Although LHM generally works better than RPnP under some drawbacks, the computational time is considerably longer for use in real-time applications. (Figure 13) Therefore, it can cause problems in real-time applications. So RPnP is a very efficient and robust method for photogrammetry and computer vision applications especially real-time applications.

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