Learning Icosahedral Spherical Probability Map Based on Bingham Mixture Model for Vanishing Point Estimation (Supplementary Material)

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Overview

In this supplementary material, we provide additional contents that are not included in the main paper due to the space limit:

- Details of the encoder of our network (see Section 1).
- Additional information of datasets and evaluation criteria (see Section 2).
- Additional comparisons with state-of-the-art methods (see Section 3).
- Details of a baseline method using the equi-angular discretization on the sphere (see Section 4).
- Additional tests of loss function (see Section 5).

1. Encoder of Our Network

As introduced in Section 3.2 of the main paper, we follow DCGAN [7] to design the encoder of our network. As shown in Fig. 1, we present the details. Our encoder works on the image domain. The height and width of an input image are 480 and 640 pixels, respectively. We first use a series of convolutions to extract features. The stride of convolution is 2, and the size of convolution kernel is 5×5 . Each convolution is followed by bias adding, batch normalization, and leaky ReLU function. Then we reshape the feature map from 15×20 to 1×300 pixels. After that, we multiply this map by a 300×320 matrix, obtaining a 1×320 code. Note that the entries of this matrix are network parameters to optimize. Finally, we reshape the code from 1×320 to 20×4^2 pixels, and treat the result as the input spherical map of our decoder.



Figure 1. Our encoder works on the image domain. "S" and "C" denote the image size and the number of channels, respectively. We conduct matrix multiplication on each channel independently.



Figure 2. Representative images that satisfy (a) Manhattan world, (b) Atlanta world and (c) MMF, respectively.

Table 1. Structure models used to express the scenes of datasets.

| | Manhattan World [1] | Atlanta World [8] | MMF [10] |
|------------|---------------------|-------------------|--------------|
| YUD+ [2] | \checkmark | \checkmark | \checkmark |
| VSD [5] | - | \checkmark | - |
| NYU-VP [9] | \checkmark | \checkmark | \checkmark |
| SU3 [13] | \checkmark | - | \checkmark |

2. Dataset and Evaluation Criteria

Datasets. As shown in Fig. 2, three well-known structure models (i.e., Manhattan world [1], Atlanta world [8], and mixture of Manhattan frames (MMF) [10]) hold for various man-made environments. Table 1 summaries the models used to express the scenes of SU3 [13], YUD+ [2], VSD [5], and NYU-VP [9] datasets.

Precision, Recall, and F_1 **-score.** As shown in Fig. 3(a),

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Figure 3. (a) Illustration of true positive, false positive, and false negative to compute the precision and recall of image line clustering. (b) Illustration of consistency error.

we follow [5, 6] to define the true positive, false positive, and false negative of image line clustering. We compute the precision, recall, and F_1 -score by

$$precision = \frac{N(true \text{ positive})}{N(true \text{ positive}) + N(false \text{ positive})};$$

$$recall = \frac{N(true \text{ positive})}{N(true \text{ positive}) + N(false \text{ negative})};$$

$$F_1\text{-score} = 2 \cdot \frac{\text{precision} \cdot \text{recall}}{\text{precision} + \text{recall}},$$
(1)

where $N(\cdot)$ denotes the cardinality.

Consistency Error. As shown in Fig. 3(b), an estimated vanishing point and the midpoint of an image line l associated with this vanishing point define a virtual line v. Consistency error represents the distance from an endpoint of the line l to the virtual line v. Given a set of image lines, we follow [11, 12] compute the root mean square of consistency errors.

3. Comparisons with State-of-the-art Methods

As shown in Fig. 4, we present additional comparisons with state-of-the-art methods. Overall, these results are similar to the results reported in Fig. 7 and Table 1 of the main paper. Specifically, the generality of TR-L-3 is low since this method assumes Manhattan world. TR-L-auto leads to low efficiency due to high-dimensional search space and highly non-linear cost function. Moreover, it cannot handle sloping DDs, which results in unsatisfactory generality. DL-nL-3 provides low generality due to the assumption of three DDs. Moreover, it is efficient but inaccurate due to its coarse-to-fine sampling strategy on the sphere. The accuracy of DL-L-auto is unsatisfactory since the sampled image lines may be affected by noise. In contrast, our DL-nL-auto simultaneously achieves high generality, satisfactory

Table 2. Comparison between various combinations of MSE, AS, and L_0 losses on all the datasets. We report the mean.

| Coefficients | | Cons. Error | F_1 -score |
|--|---|-------------------|----------------|
| Fitting | Regularization | | |
| $\lambda_{\rm MSE} = 1$ | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.25, \lambda_1=0.05$ | 2.298 pix. | 87.01% |
| | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.25, \lambda_1=0.15$ | 2.243 pix. | 87.23% |
| | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.75, \lambda_1=0.05$ | 2.125 pix. | 87.36% |
| | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.75, \lambda_1=0.15$ | 2.084 pix. | 87.94% |
| $\lambda_{\rm MSE} = 2$ | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.25, \lambda_1=0.05$ | 1.793 pix. | 89.58% |
| | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.25, \lambda_1=0.15$ | 1.752 pix. | 89.67% |
| | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.75, \lambda_1=0.05$ | 1.683 pix. | 90.31% |
| | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.75, \lambda_1=0.15$ | 1.697 pix. | 90.18% |
| $\lambda_{\rm MSE} = 3$ | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.25, \lambda_1=0.05$ | 1.916 pix. | 88.54% |
| | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.25, \lambda_1=0.15$ | 1.895 pix. | 88.79% |
| | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.75, \lambda_1=0.05$ | 1.796 pix. | 89.33% |
| | $\lambda_{\rm AS}=0.75, \lambda_1=0.15$ | 1.801 pix. | 89.15% |
| $\lambda_{\rm MSE}=2, \lambda_{\rm AS}=0.5, \lambda_1=0.1~({\rm Our})$ | | 1.644 pix. | 90.75 % |

accuracy, and high efficiency. Therefore, it is more practical than the other methods.

4. Baseline Using Equi-angular Discretization

As introduced in Section 6.2 of the main paper, we design a baseline method using the equi-angular discretization on the sphere. As shown in Figs. 5(a) and 5(b), the input of baseline is the same as the input of our network. For the output spherical map based on equi-angular discretization of baseline, we set its resolution as $104 \times 208 = 21,632$ pixels¹. This resolution is similar to the resolution of icosahedral spherical representation, i.e., $20 \times 4^5 = 20,480$ pixels, which contributes to a fair comparison. The reason why the second dimension (i.e., 208) is two times the first dimension (i.e., 104) is that the range $[-\pi, \pi]$ of longitude is two times the range $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ of latitude. In the following, we present details.

As shown in Fig. 5(a), except for the image sizes in the last two layers, the encoder of baseline is the same as the encoder of our network. Recall that the encoder of our network outputs a code whose length is $20 \times 4^2 = 320$. In contrast, the encoder of baseline outputs a code whose length is $13 \times 26 = 338$. These lengths are of the same magnitude, which contributes to a fair comparison (similar to the aforementioned resolution of the spherical map).

As shown in Fig. 5(b), overall, the decoder of baseline is similar to the decoder of our network. We summarize only three differences as follows. First, image sizes in corresponding layers are slightly different. For example, $26 \times 52 = 1352$ pixels of baseline correspond to $20 \times 4^3 = 1280$ pixels of our network. Second, the decoder

¹The resolution $100 \times 200 = 20,000$ pixels mentioned in the main paper refers to the rough magnitude but not exact value.



Figure 4. Additional generality ("G"), accuracy ("A") and efficiency ("E") comparisons on four representative images. " \uparrow ", "-" and " \downarrow " represent high, middle and low, respectively. We use image lines to compute F_1 -score and consistency error, regardless of whether a method requires image lines for vanishing point (VP) estimation. In the 3-rd to 7-th columns, a dotted line in the image represents the connection between the midpoint of a clustered image line and an estimated VP. A triplet of numbers below an image represents F_1 -score, consistency error, and run time.

of baseline follows [4] to use traditional 2D image convolution for the equi-angular discretization on the sphere. The stride of convolution is 1, and the size of convolution kernel is 5×5 . In contrast, the decoder of our network uses the spherical convolution (see Fig. 3(b) of the main paper). Third, as shown in Fig. 5(c), the up-sampling used by baseline is different from the spherical up-sampling used by our network (see Fig. 3(c) of the main paper). Despite differences, both strategies pad *three* neighbors of a pixel with zero for a fair comparison.

5. Tests of Loss Function

As introduced in Section 3.3 of the main paper, we empirically set the coefficients of MSE, AS, and L_0 sub-losses as 2, 0.5, and 0.1, respectively. In the following, we conduct tests by varying these coefficients. As shown in Table 2, we vary the coefficient λ_{MSE} of MSE loss from 1 to 3. We vary the coefficient λ_{AS} of AS loss from 0.25 to 0.75. We vary the coefficient λ_1 of L_0 loss from 0.05 to 0.15. Since the coefficient combination { $\lambda_{\text{MSE}} = 2$, $\lambda_{\text{AS}} = 0.5$, $\lambda_1 = 0.1$ }

leads to the highest accuracy, we treat it as our fine-tuned combination.

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Figure 5. Baseline method using the equi-angular discretization on the sphere. (a) The encoder of baseline is analogous to the encoder of our network in Fig. 1. Their differences in image sizes are highlighted in yellow. (b) The decoder of baseline is analogous to the decoder of our network in Fig. 3(a) of the main paper. (c) The up-sampling of baseline is analogous to the up-sampling of our network in Fig.3(c) of the main paper. We transfer a pixel \mathbf{p} in the lower-resolution map to a pixel \mathbf{p}' in the higher-resolution map, and then pad three gray neighbors of \mathbf{p}' with 0.

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