Minimal Solvers for Rectifying from Radially-Distorted Conjugate Translations

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Abstract—This paper introduces minimal solvers that jointly solve for affine-rectification and radial lens undistortion from the image of translated and reflected coplanar features. The proposed solvers use the invariant that the affine-rectified image of the meet of the joins of radially-distorted conjugately-translated point correspondences is on the line at infinity. The hidden-variable trick from algebraic geometry is used to reformulate and simplify the constraints so that the generated solvers are stable, small and fast. Multiple solvers are proposed to accommodate various local feature types and sampling strategies, and, remarkably, three of the proposed solvers can recover rectification and lens undistortion from only one radially-distorted conjugately-translated affine-covariant region correspondence. Synthetic and real-image experiments confirm that the proposed solvers demonstrate superior robustness to noise compared to the state of the art. Accurate rectifications on imagery taken with narrow to fisheye field-of-view lenses demonstrate the wide applicability of the proposed method. The method is fully automatic.

Index Terms—rectification, radial distortion, minimal solvers, symmetry, repeated patterns, local features

1 Introduction

Scene-plane rectification is used in many classic computer-vision tasks, including symmetry detection and discovery of near-regular textures [1], [2]; inpainting [3]; single-view 3D reconstruction [4]; using repetitions to improve multi-label segmentation [5], [6], and single-view auto-calibration using the Manhattan scene assumption [7], [8], [9]. In particular, the affine rectification of a scene plane transforms the camera’s principal plane so that it is parallel to the scene plane. This restores the affine invariants of the imaged scene plane, which include parallelism of lines and translational symmetries [10], [11]. There is only an affine transformation between the affine-rectified imaged scene plane and its real-world counterpart. The removal of the effects of perspective imaging is helpful to understanding the geometry of the scene plane.

Wide-angle imagery that has significant lens distortion is common since consumer photography is now dominated by mobile-phone and GoPro-type cameras. High-accuracy rectification from wide-angle imagery is not possible with only pinhole camera models [8], [12]. Lens distortion can be estimated by performing a camera calibration apriori, but a fully automated method is desirable. Furthermore, in the case of Internet imagery, the camera and its metadata are often unavailable for use with off-line calibration techniques.

This paper proposes minimal solvers that jointly estimate affine rectification and lens undistortion from the correspondences of points or covariant regions extracted from radially-distorted conjugately-translated coplanar texture (e.g., see Figs. 1, 2 and 3).

In addition, the solvers estimate the vanishing point of the translation direction of the inputted point or region correspondences.

Each of the proposed minimal solvers exploits the following properties of radially-distorted conjugate translations: (i) The affine-rectified image of the meet of the joins of conjugately-translated point correspondences is on the line at infinity (see Sec. 4.1), and (ii) a conjugate translation is a homography with only four degrees of freedom (see Sec. 4.2).

The proposed minimal solvers are differentiated by the choice to eliminate either the unknown vanishing point or vanishing line from the polynomial systems that arise from constraints.
induced by radially-distorted conjugately translated local features. The group of Eliminated Vanishing Point (EVP) solvers provide flexible sampling in a RANSAC-based estimator: they can jointly recover undistortion and rectification from radially-distorted conjugate-translations in one or two directions, where some of the point correspondences can translate with arbitrary distance. In addition, there is an EVP variant that admits reflections. The one-direction variants require one affine-covariant region correspondences, while the two-direction variants require two similarity-covariant region correspondences.

The Eliminated Vanishing Line (EVL) solver jointly recovers undistortion and rectification from one radially-distorted conjugately-translated affine-covariant region correspondence. The geometry of this configuration enables the elimination of the vanishing line, which results in a solver that is very stable, fast and robust to feature noise.

With one or two-correspondence region sampling, an accurate undistortion and rectification is quickly recovered, even for difficult scenes (see Fig. 7). The proposed solvers are ideally suited for RANSAC, where the minimal sample size reduces the required trials, the fast time to solution ensures fast trials, and the noise robustness ensures an accurate rectification is recovered when inlying correspondences are sampled [14].

1.1 Previous Work

The problem of rectification is closely coupled with the detection of coplanar repeats in a classic chicken-and-egg scenario: rectification is easy if the repeats are grouped, and repeats are more easily grouped if the affine invariants of the rectified plane are available [11]. Most methods tentatively group repeats from their local texture, which is verified later by a hypothesized rectification. Several state-of-the-art methods can rectify from imaged coplanar repeated texture, but these methods assume the pinhole camera model [3], [16], [17], [18], [19], [20], [21]. In particular, the method of Schaffalitzky et al. [21] is the most similar to the solvers proposed in this paper since it also uses constraints induced by conjugate translations to recover the imaged scene-plane’s vanishing line. However, it does not solve for radial lens undistortion.

Pritts et al. [13], [15] introduced minimal solvers that can rectify from the image of rigidly-transformed coplanar repeats, but these solvers are over 2000 times slower than the fastest of the proposed solvers (see Table 4) and require three affine-covariant region correspondences for the most commonly used configuration. In contrast, the proposed solvers include three variants requiring only one region correspondence, which, in addition to the very fast time to solution of the proposed solvers, results in a massive speedups of the RANSAC-based estimator used in this paper (from [11]) compared to the solvers of [13], [15] (see Table 4). Furthermore, the solvers in Pritts et al. [13], [15] admit only region correspondences since those solvers place constraints on the rectified scales of corresponded coplanar regions, whereas the proposed solvers also admit radially-distorted conjugately-translated point correspondences.

An exhaustive list of minimal solvers that are capable of jointly estimating lens undistortion and affine-rectification with local-feature extracted from radially-distorted conjugately-translated textures is included in the survey of solvers listed in Table 3.

There are two methods that affinely rectify lens-distorted images by enforcing the constraint that scene lines are imaged as circles with the division model [8], [9]. The input to these solvers are circles fitted to contours extracted from the image. Sets of circles whose preimages are coplanar parallel lines are used to induce constraints on the division model parameter and vanishing points. These methods require two distinct sets of imaged parallel lines (5 total lines for [8] and 7 for [9]; see Table 1) to estimate rectification, which is a strong scene-content assumption. In addition, these methods must perform a multi-model estimation to label distinct vanishing points as pairwise consistent with a vanishing line. In contrast, the proposed solvers can undistort and rectify from just one radially-distorted conjugately-translated region correspondence (see Table 4 and Fig. 2).

In an earlier work, Pritts et al. [11] rectify images of scene planes with lens-distortion using a two-step approach: a rectifica-
tion that is estimated from a minimal sample using the pinhole assumption is refined by a nonlinear program that incorporates lens distortion. However, even with relaxed thresholds, a robust estimator like RANSAC [14] discards measurements around the boundary of the image since this region is the most affected by radial distortion and cannot be accurately modeled with a pinhole camera. Neglecting lens distortion during the labeling of good and bad measurements, as done during the verification step of RANSAC, can give fits that are biased to barrel distortion [12], which degrades rectification accuracy.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we provide a brief review of the parameterizations, methods, and notations that are used in the this paper.

2.1 Notation

Without loss of generality, coplanar scene points \( \{X_i\} \) are assumed to be on the scene plane \( z = 0 \). This permits the camera matrix \( P \) to be modeled as the homography that changes the basis from the scene-plane coordinate system to the camera’s image-plane coordinate system in the real-projective plane \( \mathbb{P}^2 \),

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
    p_1 & p_2 & p_3 & p_4
\end{pmatrix}_p \begin{bmatrix}
    X \\
    Y \\
    1
\end{bmatrix}_s = \begin{pmatrix}
    p_1 & p_2 & p_3 & p_4
\end{pmatrix}_p \begin{bmatrix}
    X \\
    Y \\
    1
\end{bmatrix}_1,
\]

(1)

where \( p_p = (p_{13}, p_{23}, p_{33})^\top \) encode the intrinsics and extrinsics of the camera matrix \( p \). The scene and image planes are denoted \( \Pi \) and \( \pi \), respectively. Imaged points are denoted \( x = (x, y, 1)^\top \), where \( x, y \) are the image coordinates.

The image of a scene plane’s vanishing line is denoted \( l = (l_1, l_2, l_3)^\top \) and the line at infinity is \( l_\infty = (0, 0, 1)^\top \). The phrase vanishing point of the translation direction is motivated by the fact that all imaged scene point correspondences translating in the same direction meet at a vanishing point. A vanishing point is denoted by either \( u \) or \( v \) and are the vanishing points of the translation directions \( U \) or \( V \) on the scene plane as imaged by \( P \), respectively. Matrices are in typewriter font; e.g., a homography is \( H \) and a conjugate translation (also a homography) with vanishing point \( u \) is denoted \( H_u \) (see Sec. 4).

In general, a point correspondence \( x \leftrightarrow x' \) is two points \( x \) and \( x' \) that are related by some geometric transformation. A covariant region detection (see Sec. 7.1) is a distorted function of some region from the pinhole image and is denoted \( \tilde{R} \). Likewise, a distorted point extracted from a region detection is denoted \( \tilde{x} = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, 1)^\top \). The affine-rectified images of homogeneous points and regions are denoted as \( \tilde{x} = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, 1)^\top \) and \( \tilde{R} \), respectively. Table 2 summarizes this notation.

| Term | Description |
|------|-------------|
| \( P \) | \( 3 \times 3 \) camera matrix viewing \( z = 0 \) (see (4)). |
| \( X \) | homogeneous scene point in \( \mathbb{P}^2 \). |
| \( x, \tilde{x} \) | homogeneous pinhole and distorted image point. |
| \( \chi \) | affine-rectified point (see (8)). |
| \( x \leftrightarrow x' \) | \( x, x' \) are in correspondence with some transformation. |
| \( U, V \) | translations in the scene plane. |
| \( u, v \) | vanishing points of the trans. \( U, V \) as imaged by \( P \). |
| \( m_k, m_k' \) | joint of undistorted point correspondence \( x_k \leftrightarrow x_k' \). |
| \( [i_k]\) | skew-symmetric operator for computing cross products. |
| \( T \) | homogeneous translation matrix. |
| \( I, I \) | image of vanishing line and distorted vanishing line. |
| \( l_\infty \) | the line at infinity. |
| \( H \) | affine-rectifying homography. |
| \( H_u \) | conjugate translation in the imaged trans. direction \( u \). |
| \( \lambda \) | division model parameter for undistortion (see Sec. 5.1). |
| \( \Pi, \pi \) | the scene and image plane (in \( \mathbb{P}^2 \)). |
| \( \tilde{R}, \tilde{r} \) | distorted, undistorted, and affine-rectified regions. |

2.2 The Hidden Variable Trick

Each of the proposed solvers uses the hidden variable trick to transform its polynomial constraint equations into a tractable form. The hidden variable trick is a resultant technique in algebraic geometry that is used to eliminate subsets of variables from multivariate polynomial systems of equations [23]. Suppose that a multivariate polynomial system of \( m \) equations in \( n \) unknowns is given. The hidden variable trick works by assuming that a set \( \xi; \) of \( k < n \) unknowns are parameters that are used to construct a coefficient matrix \( M(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_k) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times l} \), such that the system can be rewritten as

\[
M(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_k)y = 0,
\]

(2)

where \( y \in \mathbb{R}^l \) is a vector of \( l \) monomials in the remaining \( n - k \) unknowns (i.e., monomials of unknowns not appearing in \( M \)). A nontrivial solution to (2) exists only if \( M \) is rank-deficient. The problem has been simplified since the \( n - k \) unknowns in \( y \) are eliminated from solving \( \det M = 0 \). In the case where \( k > 1 \), the \( l \times l \) minors of \( M \) can be used to generate the necessary number of polynomial constraint equations (see Sec. 5.1) to solve for the unknowns \( \{\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_k\} \). Once \( \xi_1 \) are recovered, the original system of equations (2) can be solved for \( y \) by back substitution.

2.3 Solving Systems of Polynomial Equations

The polynomial systems of equations encoding the rectifying constraints for the Eliminated Vanishing Point Solvers (EVP) are solved using an algebraic method based on Gröbner bases. Automated solver generators using the Gröbner basis method [24].

### Table 1: Scene Assumptions

| Feature Type | Assumption | Rectification |
|--------------|------------|--------------|
| Wildenauer et al. [8] | set of 2 and 3 lines | multi-model |
| Antunes et al. [9] | set of 3 and 4 lines | multi-model |
| Pritts et al. [13], [15] | rigidly transformed | multi-model |
| Proposed | points, covariant regions | direct |

### Table 2: Common Denotations

| Term | Description |
|------|-------------|
| \( P \) | \( 3 \times 3 \) camera matrix viewing \( z = 0 \) (see (4)). |
| \( X \) | homogeneous scene point in \( \mathbb{P}^2 \). |
| \( x, \tilde{x} \) | homogeneous pinhole and distorted image point. |
| \( \chi \) | affine-rectified point (see (8)). |
| \( x \leftrightarrow x' \) | \( x, x' \) are in correspondence with some transformation. |
| \( U, V \) | translations in the scene plane. |
| \( u, v \) | vanishing points of the trans. \( U, V \) as imaged by \( P \). |
| \( m_k, m_k' \) | joint of undistorted point correspondence \( x_k \leftrightarrow x_k' \). |
| \( [i_k]\) | skew-symmetric operator for computing cross products. |
| \( T \) | homogeneous translation matrix. |
| \( I, I \) | image of vanishing line and distorted vanishing line. |
| \( l_\infty \) | the line at infinity. |
| \( H \) | affine-rectifying homography. |
| \( H_u \) | conjugate translation in the imaged trans. direction \( u \). |
| \( \lambda \) | division model parameter for undistortion (see Sec. 5.1). |
| \( \Pi, \pi \) | the scene and image plane (in \( \mathbb{P}^2 \)). |
| \( \tilde{R}, \tilde{r} \) | distorted, undistorted, and affine-rectified regions. |
25 have been used to generate solvers for several camera geometry estimation problems [12], [13], [15], [24], [25], [26], [27]. However, the straightforward application of automated solver generators to the proposed constraints resulted in unstable solvers (see Sec. 8 and Fig. 9a). Larsson et al. [26] introduced a method called ideal saturation for generating polynomial solvers for problems where unwanted solutions arise because of simplifications during modeling. The hidden variable trick with ideal saturation is used to eliminate unknowns from the polynomial system of equations arising in the formulations of the Eliminated Vanishing Point solvers (see Sec. 5.1), which results in significantly more numerically stable solvers (see Fig. 9a) than solvers generated from the original constraint equations.

### 3 Problem Formulation

An affine-rectifying homography \( H \) transforms the image of the scene plane’s vanishing line \( l = (l_1, l_2, l_3)^T \) to the line at infinity \( l_\infty = (0, 0, 1)^T \) [10]. Thus any homography \( H \) satisfying the constraint
\[
\eta l = H^T l_\infty = \begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ h_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \eta \neq 0,
\]
and where \( l \) is an imaged scene plane’s vanishing line, is an affine-rectifying homography. Constraint (3) implies that \( h_3 = l_3 \), and that the image of the line at infinity is independent of rows \( h_1 \) and \( h_2 \) of \( H \). Thus, assuming \( l_3 \neq 0 \) [10], the affine-rectification of image point \( x \) to the affine-rectified point \( \hat{x} \) can be defined as
\[
\alpha \hat{x} = (\alpha x_1, \alpha y, \alpha)^T = H(l)x
\]
\[
s.t. \quad H(l) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha \neq 0.
\]

#### 3.1 Radial Lens Undistortion

Affine rectification as given in (4) is valid only if \( x \) is imaged by a pinhole camera. Cameras always have some lens distortion, and the distortion can be significant for wide-angle lenses. For a lens distorted point, denoted \( \tilde{x} \), an undistortion function \( f \) is needed to transform \( \tilde{x} \) to the pinhole point \( x \). We use the
one-parameter division model to parameterize the radial lens undistortion function Sec. [3.1]

\[ \gamma X = f(\tilde{x}, \lambda) = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, 1 + \lambda(\tilde{x}^2 + \tilde{y}^2)) \top \] (5)

where \( \tilde{x} = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, 1) \top \) is a feature point with the distortion center subtracted.

The strengths of this model were shown by Fitzgibbon [28] for the joint estimation of two-view geometry and non-linear lens distortion. The division model is especially suited for minimal solvers since it is able to express a wide range of distortions (e.g., see second row of Fig. 3) with a single parameter (denoted \( \lambda \)), as well as yielding simpler equations compared to other distortion models.

For the remainder of the derivations, we assume that the image center and distortion center are coincident and that \( \tilde{x} \) is a distortion-center subtracted point. While this may seem like a strong assumption, Willson et al. [29] and Fitzgibbon [28] showed that the precise positioning of the distortion center does not strongly affect image correction. Furthermore, we will see in the experiments in Sec. 8 that the proposed method is robust to deviations in the distortion center. Importantly, no constraints are placed on the location of the principal point of the camera by these assumptions, which is an influential calibration parameter [29]. However, the choice to fix the distortion center at the image center does make it difficult to remove a modeling degeneracy at the image center (see Sec. 6.2).

Affine rectified points \( X \) can be expressed in terms of distorted points \( \tilde{X} \) by substituting (5) into (4), which gives

\[ \alpha \tilde{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \tilde{x} \\ \alpha \tilde{y} \\ \alpha \end{pmatrix} \top = H(1) f(\tilde{x}, \lambda) = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, l_1 \tilde{x} + l_2 \tilde{y} + l_3 (1 + \lambda(\tilde{x}^2 + \tilde{y}^2))) \top. \] (6)

Interestingly, the rectifying function \( H(1) f(\tilde{x}, \lambda) \) in (6) also acts radially about the distortion center, but unlike the division model in (5), it is not rotationally symmetric.

The distortion function of the lens as parameterized by the division model is denoted \( f^d(\cdot, \lambda) \). Under the division model, the radially-distorted image of the vanishing line is a circle and is denoted \( l \) [28], [30], [31], [32]. Figs. 5 and 7 render the distorted vanishing line in the source images, which affirm the accuracy of the rectifications by the proposed solvers.

3.2 Covariant Region Parameterization

Covariant region detections reduce the number of required correspondences to as few as one for the proposed solvers, but corners or combinations of corners and covariant regions can also be used as input. Since the proposed solvers are derived from constraints induced by point correspondences, points are extracted from the region correspondences as input to the proposed solvers. The geometry of an affine-covariant region \( R \) is given by a right-handed affine basis in the image coordinate system called a local affine frame (LAF). The affine frame is minimally parameterized by three points \( \{o, x, y\} \). For similarity-covariant regions, there is the additional constraint that \( x - o \perp y - o \) (see [33]). This construction is also referred to as an oriented circle, where \( o \) is the origin of the circle and \( x \) defines the circle’s orientation and radius. Similitude-covariant regions are minimally parameterized by two points. Examples of both frame constructions are shown in Figs. 3 and 6 and an example of affine frames constructed from the combined methods of [34], [35], [36] are shown in Fig. 8.

4 Conjugate Translations

Assume that the scene plane \( \Pi \) and a camera’s image plane \( \pi \) are related point-wise by the camera \( P \) (see (1)) so that \( \alpha x' = Px' = PTP^{-1}x = H_\alpha x \)

\[ \text{s.t. } T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & u_x \\ 0 & 1 & u_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \]

(7)

where the homography \( H_\alpha = PTP^{-1} \) is called a conjugate translation because of the form of its matrix decomposition, and points \( x \) and \( x' \) are in correspondence (denoted \( x \leftrightarrow x' \)) with respect to the conjugate translation \( H_\alpha \), [10], [21].

Decomposing \( H_\alpha \) into its projective components gives

\[ \alpha x' = H_\alpha x = \begin{bmatrix} I_3 & + \begin{pmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} P^{-1} & \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \top \]

(8)
where $I_3$ is the $3 \times 3$ identity matrix, and, also consulting Fig. 4 to relate the unknowns to the geometry,

- line $l$ is the imaged scene plane’s vanishing line,
- point $u$ is the vanishing point of the translation direction,
- and scalar $s^u$ is the magnitude of translation in the direction $u$ for the point correspondence $x \leftrightarrow \tilde{x}$ in (21).

### 4.1 Meets of Joins

Let $m_i$ be the join of the conjugately translated point correspondence $x_i \leftrightarrow x'_i$. Then $m_i$ can be expressed in terms of the camera $P$, joined scene point correspondences $X_i \leftrightarrow X'_i$, and scene translation direction $U$ as

$$\alpha m_i = \alpha (x_i \times x'_i) = (P X_i \times P X'_i)/|P| = (P X_i \times P (X_i + U))/|P| = P^{-1} (X_i + U),$$

where $\alpha \neq 0$ and $|P| = \det P$.

Using (9) to express the meet of joins $m_i$ and $m_j$ in terms of the camera $P$ and joined scene point correspondences $X_i \leftrightarrow X'_i$ and $X_j \leftrightarrow X'_j$ gives

$$\alpha_i m_i \times \alpha_j m_j = (P^{-1} (X_i + U)) \times (P^{-1} (X_j + U)) = P ((X_i + U) \times (X_j + U))/|P| = P \left( U^T X_i \times X_j \right) U/|P| = \beta PU = \eta u,$$

where $\beta = U^T (X_i \times X_j)/|P|$, $\eta$ is non-zero and $U^T (X_i \times X_j)$ is non-zero for non-degenerate point configurations (see Fig. 4). In general (10) shows that the image of all joined scene point correspondences translating in the same direction meet at the vanishing point of their translation direction, i.e. $\eta u_0 = \beta PU_0$.

Note that if correspondence $x_k \leftrightarrow x'_k$ from Fig. 4 were used in lieu of $x_i \leftrightarrow x'_i$ in (10), then $U^T (X_i \times X_k) = 0$, which implies that $\eta = 0$. This is a degenerate configuration of the solvers and is discussed in detail in Sec. 6.

Since $U$ is coincident with $1_x$ by construction (see Fig. 4) and point-line incidence is invariant under projection by $P$ (10), $u$ and $I$ are also coincident,

$$1^T u = 0.\quad (11)$$

The EVL solver introduced in Sec. 5.2 uses the relation between conjugately-translated points and vanishing points derived in (9) and (10) and the vanishing point-vanishing line incidence equation of (11) to place constraints on $I$.

### 4.2 Radially-Distorted Conjugate Translations

Conjugate translations as defined in (8) can be written in terms of radially-distorted conjugately-translated point correspondences undistorted by (5) as

$$\alpha f(\tilde{x}', \lambda) = H_\alpha f(\tilde{x}, \lambda) = [I_3 + s^u u_1^T] f(\tilde{x}, \lambda),\quad (12)$$

$x \leftrightarrow \tilde{x}'$ is a radially-distorted point correspondence that is consistent with the conjugate translation $H_\alpha$. We call $x \leftrightarrow \tilde{x}'$ a radially-distorted conjugately-translated point correspondence going forward.

Each of the EVP solvers introduced in Sec. 5.1 uses the relation defined in (12) and the vanishing point-vanishing line incidence equation of (11) to place constraints on $I$ and $\lambda$.

### 5 Solvers

This paper proposes five different minimal solvers for different geometric configurations of radially-distorted conjugate translations, which are distinguished by the number of directions and magnitudes of translations that the proposed solver variants admit. These variants are motivated by the types of covariant feature detectors used to extract point correspondences, which give the constraints needed to jointly solve for the division model parameter, vanishing line and the vanishing point of the translation direction(s) [33], [34], [37], [38], [39].

The proposed solvers can be differentiated by the choice to use the hidden variable trick (see Sec. 2.3 and [23]) to either eliminate the unknown parameters of the vanishing point of the imaged translation direction or the imaged scene plane’s vanishing line from the solver’s polynomial system of equations. The solvers are eponymously named after their eliminated unknowns: (i) the eliminated vanishing point (EVP) solvers (see Sec. 5.1) hide the lens undistortion parameter and vanishing line parameters and have the vanishing point eliminated, and (ii) the eliminated vanishing line (EVL) solver (see Sec. 5.2) hides the lens undistortion parameter and eliminates the vanishing line parameters (the vanishing points are recovered by construction). It is interesting to compare the significant differences in solver complexity, time to solution (see Table 3), stability (see Fig. 9) and noise sensitivity (see 10) that differs by the elimination choice. Secs. 5.1 and 5.2 detail how either the vanishing point of the translation direction or the vanishing line is eliminated to simplify the systems of polynomial equations that arise from constraints induced by radially-distorted conjugately-translated local features.

### Table 3: Proposed Solvers (shaded in grey) vs. State of the Art

| Reference | Rectifies | Undistorts | Motion | # Correspondences | Points | # Solutions | Size |
|-----------|-----------|------------|--------|-------------------|--------|-------------|------|
| $H_2I$    | ✓         |            | translation | 1 | 2 | 1 | closed form |
| $H_2\alpha$ | ✓         | ✓          | translation | 1 | 3 | 4 | closed form |
| $H_2\alpha\lambda$ | ✓         |            | translation | 1 | 3 | 4 | $14 \times 18$ |
| $H_2\alpha u_1 \lambda$ | ✓         | ✓          | translation | 2 | 2 | 4 | $24 \times 20$ |
| $H_2\alpha u_2 \lambda$ | ✓         | ✓          | translation | 2 | 3 | 4 | $34 \times 60$ |
| $H_2\alpha u_3 \lambda$ | ✓         | ✓          | translation | 2 | 3 | 4 | $76 \times 80$ |
| $H_2\alpha u_4 \lambda$ | ✓         | ✓          | rigid$^1$ | 2 | 5 | 18 | $18 \times 18$ |
| $H_2\alpha u_5 \lambda$ | ✓         | ✓          | rigid$^1$ | 2 | 5 | 5 | $16 \times 21$ |
| $H_2\alpha u_6 \lambda$ | ✓         | ✓          | rigid$^1$ | 3 | 9 | 54 | $133 \times 137$ |

$^1$ The preimages of both region correspondences must be related by the same rigid transform in the scene plane.
The EVP solvers introduced in Sec. 5.2 are grouped by whether they admit one or two directions of radially-distorted conjugate translations. The EVL solver introduced in Sec. 5.2 is a one-direction variant. While it doesn’t admit all the various configurations of the EVP solvers, it is the fastest and most robust of the proposed solvers.

5.1 The Eliminated Vanishing Point (EVP) Solvers

The model for radially-distorted conjugate translations in [12] defines the unknown geometric quantities: (i) division–model parameter \( \lambda \), (ii) imaged scene-plane vanishing line \( \mathbf{l} = (l_1, l_2, l_3)^T \), (iii) vanishing point of the translation direction \( \mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)^T \) (see Sec. 5.1.2 for the two-direction extensions), (iv) scale of translation \( s^u \) for correspondence \( \tilde{x} \leftrightarrow \tilde{x}' \), (v) and the homogeneous scale parameter \( \alpha \).

The solution for the vanishing line \( \mathbf{l} \) is constrained to the affine subspace \( I_3 = 1 \) of the real-projective plane, which makes it unique. This inhomogeneous choice of 1 is unable to represent the pencil of lines that pass through the image origin; however, the degeneracy remains even with a homogeneous representation of \( \mathbf{l} \). See Sec. 6 for a more detailed discussion of the degeneracies.

The vanishing direction \( \mathbf{u} \) must meet the vanishing line \( \mathbf{l} \), which defines a subspace of solutions for \( \mathbf{u} \). The magnitude of \( \mathbf{u} \) is set to the magnitude of conjugate translation \( \bar{s}^u \) of the first correspondence \( \tilde{x}_1 \leftrightarrow \tilde{x}'_1 \), which defines a unique solution

\[
\mathbf{I} \mathbf{u} = l_1 u_1 + l_2 u_2 + u_3 = 0 \quad \land \quad \|\mathbf{u}\| = s^u_1.
\]  

(13)

The relative scale of translation \( s^u \) for each correspondence \( \tilde{x}_i \leftrightarrow \tilde{x}'_i \) with respect to the magnitude of \( \|\mathbf{u}\| \) is defined so that \( s^u_i = s^u_1 / \|\mathbf{u}\| \). Note that \( s^u_1 = 1 \). The relationship between magnitude of translation in the scene plane and the magnitude of conjugate translation is derived in the Appendix A.

Two one-direction solvers are proposed, which require 3 radially-distorted conjugately-translated point correspondences. A radially-distorted conjugately-translated affine-covariant region correspondence provides the necessary 3 point correspondences (see Sec. 3.2). Solver \( H_{22}u \lambda \) assumes that all point correspondences have the same relative scales of translation, i.e. \( s^u_1 = s^u_2 = s^u_3 = 1 \). Solver \( H_{22}u s_1 \lambda \) relaxes the equal translation scale assumption of the \( H_{22}u \lambda \) solver. In particular, solver \( H_{22}u s_1 \lambda \) assumes that two of the point correspondences have the same magnitude of conjugate translation (i.e. \( s^u_1 = s^u_2 = 1 \)), and the third point correspondence has an unknown relative scale of the translation \( s^u_3 \). The \( H_{22}u s_1 \lambda \) admits combinations of similarity-covariant regions (defining 2 point correspondences) and corner detections for flexible sampling of complementary features.

In addition, two two-direction solvers are proposed that require 4 coplanar point correspondences, 2 of which have the vanishing point of translation direction \( \mathbf{u} \) and the remaining 2 a different vanishing point \( \mathbf{v} \). Two similarity-covariant region correspondences consistent with two radially-distorted conjugate translations provide 2 pairs of 2 point correspondences (see Sec. 3.2) provide the necessary 4 point correspondences.

Solver \( H_{22}u v \lambda \) requires four points and assumes equal relative scales of conjugate translation in both directions, namely \( s^u_1 = s^u_2 = 1 \) with respect to \( \|\mathbf{u}\| = s^u_1 \) and \( s^v_3 = s^v_4 = 1 \) with respect to \( \|\mathbf{v}\| = s^v_3 \).

Solver \( H_{22}u v s_1 \lambda \) requires four point correspondences (equivalently, two similarity covariant region correspondences—see Sec. 3.2) and relaxes the assumption of the \( H_{22}u v \lambda \) solver that both point correspondences in the \( \mathbf{v} \) direction have the same magnitudes of conjugate translation. In particular, \( H_{22}u v s_1 \lambda \) assumes that the first two point correspondences translate in the direction \( \mathbf{u} \) with the same relative scale of translation, i.e., \( s^u_1 = s^u_2 = 1 \). The remaining two point correspondences translate in the direction \( \mathbf{v} \) with arbitrary translation magnitudes, i.e., the relative scales of translations of these two correspondences with respect to \( \|\mathbf{v}\| = s^v_3 \) are \( s^v_3 = 1 \) and an unknown relative scale \( s^v_4 \). In the case that similarity-covariant regions are extracted from the image and its reflection, reflected covariant regions can be used for jointly solving for undistortion and rectification (see Fig. [5]).

In all of the proposed solvers the scalar values \( \alpha_i \) are eliminated from [12]. This is done by multiplying [12] by the skew-symmetric matrix \( \{f(\tilde{x}', \lambda)\}_x \). The fact that the join of a point \( x \) with itself \( |x| \times x \) is 0 gives,

\[
\begin{align*}
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & -\bar{w}_i' & \bar{y}_i' \\
-\bar{y}_i' & 0 & \bar{x}_i' \\
\bar{x}_i' & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\times
\begin{bmatrix}
1 + s^u_1 u_1 l_1 & s^u_1 u_1 l_2 & s^u_1 u_1 l_3 \\
\bar{s}^u_1 u_2 l_1 & 1 + s^u_2 u_2 l_2 & \bar{s}^u_2 u_2 l_3 \\
\bar{s}^u_1 u_3 l_1 & \bar{s}^u_2 u_3 l_2 & 1 + \bar{s}^u_1 u_3 l_3
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\tilde{x}_1 \\
\bar{y}_i' \\
\bar{w}_i'
\end{bmatrix}
= 0,
\end{align*}
\]  

(14)

where \( \bar{w}_i = 1 + \lambda (\bar{x}_i^2 + \bar{y}_i^2) \) and \( \bar{w}_i' = 1 + \lambda (\bar{x}_i'^2 + \bar{y}_i'^2) \). The matrix equation in (14) contains three polynomial equations from which only two are linearly independent since the skew-symmetric matrix \( \{f(\tilde{x}', \lambda)\}_x \) is rank two.

To solve the systems of polynomial equations resulting from the presented problems, we use the Gröbner basis method [23]. In particular, we used the automatic generators proposed in [24, 25]: however, for our problems the coefficients of the input equations are not fully independent. This means that using the default settings for the automatic generator [24, 25], which initialize the coefficients of equations by random values from \( \mathbb{Z}_p \), does not lead to correct solvers. Correct problems instances with values from \( \mathbb{Z}_p \) are needed to initialize the automatic generator to obtain working Gröbner basis solvers.

The straightforward application of the automatic generator [24, 25] to the needed constraints with correct coefficients from \( \mathbb{Z}_p \) resulted in large templates and unstable solvers, especially for the two-direction problems. The Gröbner basis solvers generated for the original constraints have template matrices with sizes \( 80 \times 84 \), \( 74 \times 76 \), \( 348 \times 354 \), and \( 730 \times 734 \) for the \( H_{22}u \lambda \), \( H_{22}u s_1 \lambda \), \( H_{22}u v \lambda \) and \( H_{22}u v s_1 \lambda \) problems, respectively. Therefore, we use the hidden-variable trick (see Sec. 2.2 and [23]) to eliminate the vanishing translation directions together with ideal saturation [26] to eliminate parasitic solutions. The reformulated constraints are simpler systems in only 3 or 4 unknowns, and the solvers generated by the Gröbner basis method are smaller and more stable. The reduced elimination template sizes for the simplified solvers are summarized in Table 3 and wall clock timings for the simplified solvers are reported in Sec. 8.2. Optimized C++ implementations for all the proposed solvers are provided.

Next, we describe the solvers based on the hidden-variable trick in more detail.
Fig. 5: Input Configurations. Each of the one-direction solvers—$H_2lu\lambda$ and $H_2lus_\lambda$—requires 3 points, which can be obtained from only 1 affine-covariant region correspondence. The $H_2lus_\lambda$ admits a point correspondence with a unique magnitude of conjugate translation, which provides flexibility when sampling complementary feature correspondences. The two-direction solvers—$H_2luv,H_2lvu$—require 4 points, which can be obtained from 2 similarity-covariant feature correspondences. Solver $H_2luv,s_\lambda$ admires reflections of similarity-covariant features since $s_\lambda$ allows a point correspondence to move along the line of the imaged translation going through the vanishing point.

5.1.1 One-Direction EVP Solvers

For the one-direction $H_2lu_s\lambda$ solver we have $s_1 = s_2 = 1$. Therefore the constraints (14) result in two pairs of linearly independent equations without the scale parameter $s_i$ for $i = 1, 2$, and two linearly independent equations with an unknown relative scale $s_3$ for the third point correspondence, i.e., $i = 3$. Additionally, we have the orthogonality constraint in (13). All together we have seven equations in seven unknowns $(l_1, l_2, u_1, u_2, u_3, s_3, \lambda)$.

Note, that these equations are linear with respect to the vanishing translation direction $u$. Therefore, we can rewrite the seven equations as

$$M(l_1, l_2, s_3^u, \lambda) \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} = 0, \quad (15)$$

where $M(l_1, l_2, s_3^u, \lambda)$ is a $7 \times 4$ matrix whose elements are polynomials in $(l_1, l_2, s_3^u, \lambda)$.

Since $M(l_1, l_2, s_3^u)$ has a null vector, it must be rank deficient. Therefore, all the 4 $\times$ 4 cofactors of $M(l_1, l_2, s_3^u, \lambda)$ must equal zero. This results in (15) = 35 polynomial equations which only involve four unknowns.

Unfortunately, the formulation (15) introduces a one-dimensional family of false solutions. These are not present in the original system and corresponds to solutions where the first three columns of $M$ become rank deficient. In this case there exist null vectors to $M$ such that the last element of the vector is zero, i.e., not on the same form as in (13).

These false solutions can be removed by saturating any of the $3 \times 3$ cofactors from the first three columns of $M$, the matrix $M$ has the following form,

$$M(l_1, l_2, s_3^u, \lambda) = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} & 0 & m_{14} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} & 0 & m_{24} \\ m_{31} & 0 & m_{33} & m_{34} \\ m_{41} & 0 & m_{43} & m_{44} \\ m_{51} & m_{52} & 0 & m_{54} \\ m_{61} & 0 & m_{63} & m_{64} \\ l_1 & l_2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (16)$$

where $m_{ij}$ are polynomials in $l_1, l_2, s_3^u$ and $\lambda$. We choose to saturate the $3 \times 3$ cofactor corresponding to the first, second and last row since it reduces to only the top-left $2 \times 2$ cofactor, i.e., $m_{11}m_{22} - m_{12}m_{21}$, which is only a quadratic polynomial in the unknowns. The other $3 \times 3$ determinants are more complicated and leads to larger polynomial solvers. Using the saturation technique from Larsson et al. [29], we were able to create a polynomial solver for this saturated ideal. The size of the elimination template is $24 \times 26$. Note that without using the hidden-variable trick the elimination template was $74 \times 76$. The number of solutions is two.

For the $H_2lu\lambda$ solver we can use the same hidden-variable trick. In this case $s_1^u = s_2^u = s_3^u = 1$; therefore, the matrix $M$ in (15) contains only three unknowns $l_1, l_2$ and $\lambda$. This problem is over-constrained, and one of the two constraints from a point correspondence goes unused. Thus, for this problem we can drop one of the equations from (14), e.g., for $i = 3$, and the matrix $M$ in (15) has size $6 \times 4$. In this case all $4 \times 4$ cofactors of $M$ result in 15 equations in 3 unknowns. Similar to the 3 point case, this introduces a one-dimensional family of false solutions. The matrix $M$ has a similar structure as in (16) and again it is sufficient to saturate the top-left $2 \times 2$ cofactor. For this formulation we were able to create a solver with template size $14 \times 18$ (compared with $80 \times 84$ without using hidden-variable-trick). The number of solutions is four.

5.1.2 Two-Direction EVP Solvers

In the case of the two-direction $H_2luv_s\lambda$ solver, the input equations for two vanishing translation directions $u = (u_1, u_2, u_3)^T$ and $v = (v_1, v_2, v_3)^T$ can be separated into two sets of equations, i.e., the equations containing $u$ and the equations containing $v$. Note that in this case we have two equations of the form (13), i.e., the equation for the direction $u$ and the equation for the direction $v$ and we have an unknown relative scale $s_3^u$. Therefore, the final system of 10 equations in 10 unknowns can be rewritten using two matrix equations as

$$M_1(l_1, l_2, \lambda) \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} = 0, \quad M_2(l_1, l_2, s_3^u, \lambda) \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = 0, \quad (17)$$

where $M_1$ and $M_2$ are $5 \times 4$ matrices such that the elements are polynomials in $(l_1, l_2, \lambda)$ and $(l_1, l_2, s_3^u, \lambda)$, respectively.

Again all $4 \times 4$ cofactors of $M_1$ and $M_2$ must concurrently equal zero. This results in $5 + 5 = 10$ polynomial equations in four unknowns $(l_1, l_2, s_3^u, \lambda)$. In this case, only 39 additional false solutions arise from the hidden-variable trick. The matrices $M_1$ and $M_2$ have a similar structure as in (16) and again it is sufficient to saturate the top-left $2 \times 2$ cofactors to remove the extra solutions. By saturating these determinants we were able to create a solver with template size $76 \times 80$ (previously $730 \times 734$). The number of solutions is four.

Finally, for the $H_2luv_\lambda$ two-direction solver, $s_1^u = s_2^u = 1$ and $s_3^u = s_4^u = 1$. This problem is over-constrained, so we can drop one of the equations from constraint (14), e.g., for $i = 4$.

Therefore, the matrix $M_2$ from (17) has size $4 \times 4$, and it contains only three unknowns $(l_1, l_2, \lambda)$. All $4 \times 4$ cofactors of $M_1$ and $M_2$ result in $5 + 1 = 6$ polynomial equations in three unknowns $(l_1, l_2, \lambda)$.

For this case we get 18 additional false solutions. Investigations in Macaulay2 [40] revealed that for this particular formulation, it is sufficient to only saturate the top-left $2 \times 2$ cofactor of $M_1$ and the top-left element of $M_2$. Generating the polynomial solver with saturation resulted in a template size of $54 \times 60$ (previously $348 \times 354$). The number of solutions is six.
The skew-symmetric operator, denoted $\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{y})$, is used to eliminate any non-zero scalars. Substituting radially-i $< j$ gate translations meeting at $\mathbf{v}_0$ Sec. 5.2.2). undistortion parameter six vanishing point constructions are necessary to solve for the that exactly one of any of the three meets of joins of conjugate translations $\{ \mathbf{x}_i \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}'_i \}_{i=1}^3$ where each of the four imaged translation directions induces four $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$ and $\mathbf{v}_4$ can be recovered from each meet of joins (see Sec. 5.2.1) of pairs of conjugate-translations that share the same translation direction in the scene plane, e.g.,

$$\gamma \mathbf{v}_1 = (\mathbf{x}_1 \times \mathbf{x}_4) \times (\mathbf{x}'_1 \times \mathbf{x}'_4).$$

(18)

There are six such pairs to choose from, one for each of $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ and $\mathbf{v}_3$ and three for $\mathbf{u}$, which is the vanishing point of the translation direction for the undistorted point correspondences $\{ \mathbf{x}_i \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}'_i \}_{i=1}^3$.

As proved in Sec. 4.1.4 each meet of joins puts a constraint on the vanishing line $\mathbf{l}$. It will be shown that only three of the six vanishing point constructions are necessary to solve for the undistortion parameter $\lambda$ and vanishing line $\mathbf{l}$. It will also be shown that exactly one of any of the three meets of joins of conjugate translations from $\{ \mathbf{x}_i \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}'_i \}_{i=1}^3$ can be used to constrain $\mathbf{l}$ (see Sec. 5.2.2).

Without loss of generality, we use the joins of pairs of conjugate translations meeting at $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$, and $\mathbf{v}_3$, which are substituted into the vanishing point-vanishing line incident constraint of (11)

$$\mathbf{v}_i^\top \mathbf{l} = (\mathbf{x}_i \times \mathbf{x}_j) \times (\mathbf{x}'_i \times \mathbf{x}'_j)^\top \mathbf{l} = 0,$$

(19)

where $i < j$ and $i, j \in \{ 1 \ldots 3 \}$. The homogeneity of (19) is used to eliminate any non-zero scalars. Substituting radially-distorted points for undistorted points in (19) using $\mathbf{v}$ gives

$$(f(\mathbf{x}_i, \lambda) \times f(\mathbf{x}_j, \lambda)) \times (f(\mathbf{x}'_i, \lambda) \times f(\mathbf{x}'_j, \lambda))^\top \mathbf{l} = 0.$$  

(20)

The skew-symmetric operator, denoted $[\mathbf{x}]_\times$, is used to transform (20) into the homogeneous matrix-vector equation

$$(\mathbf{1}^\top [f(\mathbf{x}_i, \lambda)]_\times f(\mathbf{x}_j, \lambda)) (\mathbf{1}^\top [f(\mathbf{x}'_i, \lambda)]_\times f(\mathbf{x}'_j, \lambda))^\top \mathbf{l} = 0.$$  

(21)

where where $i < j$ and $i, j \in \{ 1 \ldots 3 \}$. Independent scalar constraint equations of the form (21) can be stacked to add the necessary number of constraints for jointly estimating $\mathbf{l}$ and $\lambda$.

### 5.2.1 Creating the Solver

Each vanishing point $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ and $\mathbf{v}_3$ generates one scalar constraint on the vanishing line $\mathbf{l}$. There are four unknowns in constraint (21), namely $\mathbf{l} = (l_1, l_2, l_3)^\top$ and the division model parameter $\lambda$ (see Sec. 3.1). The vanishing line $\mathbf{l}$ is homogeneous, so it has only two degrees of freedom. Thus 3 scalar constraint equations of the form (21) generated by 3 vanishing points from the set $\{ \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3 \}$ are needed, which, as shown in (21), can be concisely encoded in the matrix $\mathbf{H}(\lambda) \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ as

$$\mathbf{H}(\lambda) \begin{bmatrix} l_1 \\ l_2 \\ l_3 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}.$$  

(22)

Note that only 1 of the 3 meets of joins of conjugately-translated point correspondences from $\{ \mathbf{x}_i \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}'_i \}_{i=1}^3$ can be used since there is no constraint included that enforces

$$(\mathbf{x}_i \times \mathbf{x}_j) \times (\mathbf{x}_j \times \mathbf{x}_k) \times (\mathbf{x}_i \times \mathbf{x}_k) = 0,$$

where $i, j, k \in \{ 1 \ldots 3 \}$ and $i \neq j$. Therefore, at least two of $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$, and $\mathbf{v}_3$ must be used, and the two chosen meets can be combined with exactly one of the meets the can be constructed from $\{ \mathbf{x}_i \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}'_i \}_{i=1}^3$. Including the case where each of $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$, and $\mathbf{v}_3$ is used gives $3 \choose 2 = 10$ possible combinations of meets. Selecting the optimal meets for the most accurate rectification is addressed in Sec. 5.2.2.

The division model parameter $\lambda$ is hidden in (22) using the hidden-variable trick (see Sec. 2.2 and [23]) in the entries of coefficient matrix $\mathbf{H}$, which are polynomials only in $\lambda$. Thus $\mathbf{H}$ has been eliminated, which motivates the EVL name.

Matrix $\mathbf{H}(\lambda)$ is rank deficient since it has a null vector, which implies that $\det \mathbf{H}(\lambda) = 0$. The determinant constraint defines a univariate quartic with unknown $\lambda$, which can be solved in closed form. After $\lambda$ has been recovered, the vanishing line $\mathbf{l}$ is obtained by solving for the null space of $\mathbf{H}$. The EVL solver is denoted $\mathbf{H}_2 \lambda$. 

---

**Fig. 6:** *The Geometry of the EVL Constraints.* The scene plane $\Pi$ contains the preimage of radially-distorted conjugately-translated affine-covariant regions, equivalently, 3 translated points in the direction $\mathbf{U}$. This configuration had 3 additional translation directions $\mathbf{V}_1, \mathbf{V}_2, \mathbf{V}_3$ that can be used to design a solver. In the image plane $\pi$, the joins of each of the images of the 3 pairs of parallel lines (colored red, green and blue) meet at the imaged scene plane’s vanishing line $\mathbf{I}$. Each incidence of a vanishing point $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ and $\mathbf{v}_3$ with $\mathbf{I}$ generates a scalar constraint equation. Two equations are needed to estimate $\mathbf{I}$ and three are necessary to jointly estimate $\mathbf{I}$ and $\lambda$. Note that $\mathbf{u}$ can be estimated from one of 3 meets of distinct joins of undistorted point correspondences, but only 1 such meet can be used as a Constraint to estimate the rectification (see Sec. 5.2.2 for details).
Fig. 7: EVL Solver Results on Fisheye Images. The distorted image of the vanishing line is rendered in green in the input images on the top row. Results were produced using the H₂Iλ with 1-correspondence sampling in a RANSAC framework. The H₂Iλ solver runs in 0.5 μs. Surprisingly, reasonable rectifications are possible using the 1-parameter division model for the extreme distortions of fisheye lenses. Focal lengths are reported as 35mm equivalent.

5.2.2 Best Minimal Solution Selection

The EVL geometry of Fig. 6 has 10 meets that can be used to generate scalar constraint equations in (21). However, only 3 meets are needed to jointly estimate I and λ. Since the time to solution for the H₂Iλ is only 0.5 μs, the solutions for all minimal subsets of meets can be verified against the unused constraints, e.g., if the meets of joins of the radially-distorted conjugately-translated correspondences associated with v₁, v₂, and v₃ are used, then the correspondences associated with u (cyan direction) can be used for verification. The minimal subset of meets is chosen that minimizes the sum of symmetric transfer errors

\[ \sum_i d(\tilde{x}_i, \tilde{y}_i) + d(hf(\tilde{x}_i, \lambda), \tilde{y}_i')^2, \]

where \( \tilde{x} \leftrightarrow \tilde{y}' \) are radially-distorted conjugately-translated point correspondences that are not included in a minimal configuration for estimating rectification. We call this approach best minimal solution selection.

Evaluating the quality of the minimal solution on (23) has several benefits: 1) Near degenerate correspondence configurations can be rejected (see Sec. 5.1.2). 2) Correspondences with geometric properties that are more robust to noise will be preferred, e.g., regions that are further apart, 3) and expensive RANSAC consensus set construction can be preempted, if there is no minimal solution that has sufficiently small symmetric transfer error as defined in (23).

Best minimal solution selection is evaluated in the sensitivity studies in Sec. 8. The solver incorporating best minimal solution selection is denoted in the standard way, H₂Iλ. For comparison we introduce a baseline solver, denoted H₂NDIλ, which randomly selects from the 10 possible constraint configurations associated with the EVL geometry (see Fig. 6). As expected, the H₂Iλ performs better than H₂NDIλ on all sensitivity measures. See Sec. 8.1.4 for the details.

5.2.3 Optimal Estimate of the Vanishing Point

Unlike the EVP solvers in Sec. 5.1, which jointly estimate the vanishing point u (shown in Fig. 6) using all constraints from the set of conjugate translations \( \{ x_i \leftrightarrow x_i' \}^3_{i=1} \) (see (14)), the H₂Iλ solver maximally uses only the cyan translation direction and possibly none if only the red, green and blue translation directions in Fig. 6 are selected as the best minimal solution.

The vanishing point u of the cyan translation direction can be recovered after the vanishing line I and division model parameter λ are estimated (e.g., by H₂Iλ) by solving a constrained least squares system that includes all constraints induced by \( \{ x_i \leftrightarrow x_i' \}^3_{i=1} \) (see Fig. 6). The incidence of u with I is explicitly enforced by including (11) into the constraints. Define \( h^i_u, h^2_u, \) and \( h^3_u \) to be the rows of a conjugate translation,

\[ \alpha x' = h^i_u x = \begin{bmatrix} h^1_u & h^2_u & h^3_u^T \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} I_3 + uI \end{bmatrix} x. \]

The homogeneous scale in (23) can be eliminated by substituting \( h^3_u x \) for \( \alpha \), and the system can be rearranged such that

\[ \begin{bmatrix} x^T h^1_u & x^T h^2_u \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x^T h^3_u \end{bmatrix} \]

Collecting the terms of vanishing point after expanding the dot products in (25) for each pair of \( \{ x_i \leftrightarrow x_i' \}^3_{i=1} \) along with an incidence constraint \( I^T u = 0 \) gives the constrained least squares problem
minimize $\|Mu - y\|^2$
subject to $\Gamma^T u = 0$,
where $M = \begin{bmatrix} -\Gamma x_i & 0 & x'(\Gamma x_i) \\ \Gamma x_i & y'(\Gamma x_i) & \end{bmatrix}$, $y = \begin{bmatrix} x_i - x' \\ y_i - y' \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$.

Since the matrix $[M^T \Gamma]^T$ has linearly independent columns, and $\Gamma$ is trivially row independent, $u$ is recovered by solving

$$
\begin{bmatrix} M^T M & I^T \\ I & 0 \\ \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} M^T y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix},
$$ (26)

where $z$ is a nuisance variable [41]. Surprisingly, a superior estimation of the vanishing point $u$ is given by using (26) after rectifying with the EVL $H_2\lambda$ solver than by jointly solving for the rectification, vanishing point, and division model parameter as done with the EVP group of solvers (see the transfer error sensitivity study Fig. 10a).

6 Degeneracies

We identified three important degeneracies for the solvers: Sec. 6.1 describes two geometric configurations of features such that there exists either a subspace of rectifications or no valid solution, and Sec. 6.2 details the modeling degeneracy introduced from using the representation of (4) for the affine-rectifying homography, which requires $\mathbf{I} = (l_1, l_2, l_3)$ such that $l_3 \neq 0$ [10]. The proposed solvers and the state-of-the-art solvers of Pritts et al. in [13], [15] all suffer from this modeling degeneracy. It is shown that addressing this degeneracy requires increasing the complexity of the solvers. There are likely additional degeneracies between the EVL and EVP solver, but an exhaustive analysis is a difficult theoretical problem.

6.1 Degenerate Feature Configurations

Suppose that (i) $H$ is a rectifying homography other than the identity matrix, (ii) that the image has no radial distortion, (iii) and that all corresponding points from repeated affine-covariant regions fall on a single circle centered at the image center. Applying the division model (see Sec. 5.1) uniformly scales the points about the image center. Given $\lambda \neq 0$, for a transformation by $f(\cdot, \lambda)$ defined in (5) of the points lying on the circle there is a scaling matrix $S(\lambda) = \text{diag}(1/\lambda, 1/\lambda, 1)$ that maps the points back to their original positions. Thus there is a 1D family of rectifying homographies given by $H \lambda$ for the corresponding set of undistorted images given by $f(\cdot, \lambda)$.

Secondly, suppose that the conjugately-translated point correspondences $x_i \leftrightarrow x'_i$ and $x_k \leftrightarrow x'_k$ are collinear as shown in Fig. 4. Let $m_i = x_i \times x'_i$ and $m_k = x_k \times x'_k$. Then $m_i \times m_k = 0$, which is not a point in the real-projective plane $\mathbb{RP}^2$, and cannot be used to place a constraint on $\mathbf{I}$. Unfortunately, this point configuration is common, e.g., consider a row of windows on a facade. It is possible that the feature extraction pipeline will establish collinear correspondences. However, affine frames constructed from covariant region detections are typically not in this degenerate configuration since the origin is defined by blob’s center of mass or peak response in scale space and one of the extents is constructed as a right angle to the first linear basis vector (see Fig. 8). Regardless, the degeneracy can be avoided by using different meets.

6.2 The Pencil of Vanishing Lines Through the Distortion Center

If the vanishing line passes through the image origin, i.e., $1 = (l_1, l_2, 0)^T$, then the radial term in the homogeneous coordinate of (6) is canceled. In this case, it is not possible to recover the division model parameter $\lambda$ from the systems of equations (16), (17) or (22) solved by any of the proposed solvers. However, the degeneracy does not arise from the problem formulation. An affine transform can be applied to the undistorted image such that the vanishing line $1$ in the affine-transformed space has $l_3 \neq 0$.

The division model requires the image origin to be the distortion center [28]. The derivations in this paper assume that image center, distortion center and image origin are coincident (see Sec. 5.1). The proposed solvers and the state-of-the-art solvers of Pritts et al. [13], [15] formulate joint undistortion and rectification in terms of (6), which leaves the distortion center stationary.

Directional cameras see only points in front of the camera [42], so the vanishing line cannot intersect the convex hull of measurements. Therefore, changing basis in the undistorted space such that any point in the convex hull of the undistorted feature points (i.e., affine covariant region detections) is the image origin guarantees that vanishing line will not pass through the origin. Furthermore, if a point is in the convex hull of measurements in the distorted space, then it is also in the convex hull of undistorted measurements. However, the change of basis (i.e., a translation) is a function of the undistorted point, and thus a function of the unknown division model parameter $\lambda$, so applying the coordinate transform increases the complexity of the solvers. Empirically we did not find this degeneracy to be a problem. E.g., Figs. 3c, 7c and 7e show good undistortions of images and rectifications of imaged scene planes that have vanishing lines passing close to the center of distortion, which suggest that in these near-degenerate cases the division-model parameter is sufficiently observable. Thus we choose to preserve the simplicity of the solvers (see Table 4). A new origin in the undistorted space can be defined by a distorted measurement in the convex hull of measurements, which will reduce the chance of encountering the degeneracy, but not eliminate it.

7 Robust Estimation

The solvers are used in a LO-RANSAC-based robust-estimation framework [11, 43]. Affine rectifications and undistortions are jointly hypothesized by one of the proposed solvers. A metric upgrade is attempted and models with maximal consensus sets are locally optimized by an extension of the method introduced in [11]. The metric-rectifications are presented in the results.

7.1 Local Features and Descriptors

Covariant region detectors are highly repeatable on the same imaged scene texture with respect to significant changes of viewpoint and illumination [39, 35]. Their proven robustness in the multi-view matching task makes them good candidates for representing the local geometry of repeated textures. In particular, we use the Maximally-Stable Extremal Region and Hessian-Affine detectors [34, 38]. The affine-covariant regions are given by an affine basis
Normalized Frame
(c) LAF representation

Fig. 8: (a) Center of gravity (white cross) and curvature extrema (orange circles) of a detected MSER (orange contour [34]). Patches are normalized to a square and oriented to define an affine frame as in [35]. (b) Bases are reflected for detecting axial symmetries. The RootSIFT transform embeds the local texture [37], [44]. (c) Affine keypoints are mapped back into image.

(see Sec. 3.2), equivalently three distinct points, in the image space [36]. The image patch local to the affine frame is embedded into a descriptor vector by the RootSIFT transform [37], [44]. See Fig. 8 for a visualization.

7.2 Detection, Description, and Clustering
Affine frames are tentatively labeled as repeated texture by their appearance. The appearance of an affine frame is given by the RootSIFT embedding of the image patch local to the affine frame [44]. Affine-covariant regions are also extracted and embedded in the reflected image, where the detections in are transformed into the original image space and have a left-handed representation.

The RootSIFT descriptors are agglomeratively clustered, which establishes pair-wise tentative correspondences amongst connected components. Since the proposed $H_{lu}^2$, $H_{lu}^2$, $H_{lu}^2$, and $H_{lu}^2$ solvers do not admit reflections, the appearance-clusters are partitioned based on the handedness of the affine frames associated with the clustered embedded regions. Reflection partitioning is not necessary for the $H_{lu}^2$ solver, which admits reflections of similarity-covariant regions. Each appearance cluster has some proportion of its indices corresponding to affine frames that represent the same coplanar repeated scene content, which are the inliers of that appearance cluster. The remaining affine frames are the outliers.

7.3 Sampling
Sample configurations for the proposed minimal solvers are illustrated in Figs. 1 and 6 as well as detailed in Secs. 5.1 and 5.2. For each RANSAC trial, appearance clusters are selected with the probability given by its relative cardinality to the other appearance clusters, and the required number of correspondences are drawn from the selected clusters.

7.4 Metric Upgrade and Local Optimization
The affine-covariant regions that are members of the minimal sample are affine rectified by each feasible model returned by the solver; typically there is only 1. Correspondences for the selected solver are sampled as detailed in Sec. 7.3. The affine rectification estimated by the minimal solver is used to build an affine-rectified scale consensus set. The scale consensus set is built by using the scale constraint of affine-rectified space: two instances of rigidly-transformed coplanar repeats occupy identical areas in the scene plane and in the affine rectified image of the scene plane [10], [13], [15], [18], [19]. Note that if clustered left and right-handed regions were partitioned for sampling with the $H_{lu}^2$, $H_{lu}^2$, $H_{lu}^2$, and $H_{lu}^2$ solvers, then they are merged so they are jointly verified for scale consistency. Absolute scales are calculated to account for handedness. The log-scale ratio of the each region in a cluster is computed with respect to the median affine-rectified scale. Note that covariant regions extracted from imaged rigidly-transformed coplanar texture can enter the scale consensus set since they will be equi-scalar after affine rectification, too. This admits the possibility of a full-metric upgrade. Regions with near 0 log-scale ratio with respect to the median scale of their cluster are considered tentatively inlying, and are used as inputs to the metric upgrade of Pritts et al. [11], which restores congruence.

The congruence consensus set is measured in the metric-rectified space by verifying the congruence of the linear basis vectors of the corresponded affine frames. Congruence is an invariant of metric rectified space and is a stronger constraint than, e.g., the equal-scale invariant of affine-rectified space that was used to derive the solvers proposed in [13], [15], [18]. The metric upgrade essentially comes for free by inputting the covariant regions that are members of the scale consensus set to the linear metric-upgrade solver proposed in [11]. By using the metric upgrade, the verification step of RANSAC can enforce the congruence of corresponding covariant region extents (equivalently, the lengths of the linear basis vectors) to estimate an accurate consensus set. A model with the maximal congruence consensus set at the current RANSAC iteration is locally optimized in a method similar to [11].

8 Experiments
The stabilities and noise sensitivities of the proposed solvers are evaluated on synthetic data. We compare the proposed solvers to a bench of the four state-of-the-art solvers (see Table 3). We apply the notations for the solvers introduced in Sec. 2.2 to all the solvers in the benchmark; e.g., a solver requiring two correspondences of two affine-covariant regions will be prefixed by $H_{lu}^2$.

Included is the state-of-the-art joint undistorting and rectifying solver $H_{lu}^2$ of Pritts et al. [13], [15], which requires 3 correspondences of affine-covariant regions extracted from the image of rigidly-transformed coplanar repeated scene textures. While 6 variants of undistorting and rectifying solvers are proposed in [11], [15], we test only the $H_{lu}^2$ solver since all variants are reported to have similar noise sensitivities.

The bench includes the $H_{lu}^2$ solver of Schaffalitzky et al. [21], which incorporates similar constraints from conjugate translations that are used to derive the proposed solvers. Also included are two full-homography and radial-undistortion solvers, the $H_{lu}^2$ solver of Fitzgibbon et al. [28] and the $H_{lu}^2$ solver of Kukelova et al. [12], which are used to assess the benefits of jointly solving for radially-distorted conjugate translations (and lens undistortion) from the minimal problem, as done with the proposed solvers, versus the over-parameterized problem as in [12], [28]. The bench of state-of-the-art solvers is summarized in Table 3.

The sensitivity studies evaluate the solvers on noisy measurements over 3 task-related performance metrics: 1) the transfer error (see Sec. 8.1.2 and Fig. 10a), which measures the accuracy of radially-distorted conjugate translation estimation 2) the warp error (see Fig. 9b) and Sec. 8.1.3, which measures rectification accuracy, and 3) the relative error Fig. 10b of the division-model
Fig. 9: (a) Hidden-variable trick solvers are solid; solvers generated without simplified constraints equations are dashed. The log_{10} RMS warp error $\Delta_{\text{RMS}}^{\text{warp}}$ is reported for noiseless scenes generated as described in Secs. 8.1.1 and 8.1.3. The hidden-variable trick increases stability. The EVL $H_2\lambda\lambda$ solver is the most stable since it does not require solving a complicated polynomial system of equations. (b) Reports the RMS error $\Delta_{\text{RMS}}^{\text{warp}}$ (see Sec. 8.1.1) after 25 iterations of a simple RANSAC for the bench of solvers with increasing levels of white noise added to the affine-covariant region correspondences, where the normalized division model parameter is set to -4 (see Sec. [5]), which is similar to the distortion of a GoPro Hero 4. Results are for radial-distorted conjugate translations. The proposed solvers demonstrate excellent robustness to noise, and the EVL solver $H_2\lambda\lambda$ is competitive with $H_{\text{DES}}^{222}\lambda\lambda$, which requires two more correspondences. The $H_2\lambda\lambda$ solver uses best minimal solution selection (see Sec. 5.2.2), which improves its performance compared to $H_2^{\text{RND}}\lambda\lambda$, which randomly selects a solution.

parameter estimate, which reports the accuracy of the lens undistortion estimate.

The stability study Fig. 9a evaluates the proposed solvers by the warp error on noiseless measurements. The study demonstrates the benefit of constraint simplification by the hidden-variable trick (see Sec. 2.2 and [23]), which is used to derive both the EVP solvers and EVL solver, and shows that it improves the stability of all solvers, and, in fact, it is sometimes necessary to generate usable solvers.

8.1 Synthetic Data

The performance of the proposed solvers on 1000 synthetic images of 3D scenes with known ground-truth parameters is evaluated. A camera with a random but realistic focal length is randomly placed with respect to a scene plane such that it is mostly in the camera’s field-of-view. The image resolution is set to 1000x1000 pixels. The noise sensitivities of the solvers are evaluated on conjugately-translated planar repeats (see Fig. 10a, 10b, and 10b). Affine frames (see Sec. 3.2) are generated on the scene plane such that their scale with respect to the scene plane is realistic. The modeling choice reflects the use of affine-covariant region detectors on real images. The image is distorted according to the division model. For the sensitivity experiments, isotropic white noise is added to the distorted affine frames at increasing levels.

8.1.1 Warp Error

Since the accuracy of scene-plane rectification is a primary concern, an extended version of the warp error for rectifying homographies proposed by Pritts et al. [5] that incorporates the division model for radial lens distortion of Fitzgibbon [28] is reported in the stability study of Fig. 9a and the sensitivity study of [6]. A scene plane is tessellated by a 10x10 square grid of points $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$ and imaged as $\{\tilde{x}_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$ by the lens-distorted ground-truth camera. The tessellation ensures that error is uniformly measured over the scene plane. A round trip between the image space and rectified space is made by affine-rectifying $\{\tilde{x}_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$ using the estimated division model parameter $\lambda$ and rectifying homography $H(\tilde{l})$ (see (4)) and then imaging the rectified plane by the ground-truth camera $P$. Ideally, the ground-truth camera $P$ images the rectified points $\{\tilde{x}_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$ onto the distorted points $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$. There is an affine ambiguity, denoted $\tilde{A}$, between $H(\tilde{l})$ and the ground-truth camera matrix $P$. The ambiguity is estimated during computation of the warp error,

$$
\Delta_{\text{warp}}^{\text{RMS}} = \min_{\lambda} \sum_i d^2(\tilde{x}_i, f^d(\tilde{A}H(\tilde{l})f(\tilde{x}_i), \hat{\lambda}), \hat{\lambda}),
$$

where $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the Euclidean distance, $f^d$ is the inverse of the division model (the inverse of (5)). The root mean square warp error for $\{\tilde{x}_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$ is reported and denoted as $\Delta_{\text{RMS}}^{\text{warp}}$.

Note that the $H_2\lambda\lambda$ solver of [28] and the $H_{22}\lambda_2\lambda_2$ solver of [12] are omitted from the warp error since the vanishing line is not directly estimated.

8.1.2 Transfer Error

The geometric transfer error of Fig. 10a measures the accuracy of the estimated radially-distorted conjugate translation (see Sec. 2.2). The scene plane is tessellated by a 10x10 square grid of points $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$. Let the translation on the scene plane induced by the noiseless preimages of the point correspondences used to estimate $\hat{R}_u$ and $\hat{\lambda}$ be $\hat{U}$. Then the grid points are translated by $U/\|U\| \text{ to } \{X'_i\}_{i=1}^{100}$. The grid and its translation are imaged by the ground-truth lens-distorted camera parameterized by matrix $P$ and division-model parameter $\lambda$. The imaged grid is given by $\tilde{x}_i = f^d(PX_i, \lambda)$ and the translated grid by $\tilde{x}'_i = f^d(PX'_i, \lambda)$,
where $d^d$ is the function that transforms from pinhole points to radially-distorted points. Then the geometric transfer error is defined as

$$\Delta^\text{xfer} = d(f^d((I_3 + \frac{1}{\|U\|}(\hat{b}_u - I_3))f(\hat{x}, \hat{\lambda}_1, \hat{\lambda}_2), \hat{x}'),$$  (28)

where $d(\cdot,\cdot)$ is the Euclidean distance. The derivation of (28) is provided in the Appendix.

All solvers except $H_{2\lambda_1\lambda_2}$ have the constraint that $\hat{\lambda}_1 = \hat{\lambda}_2$. The root mean square transfer error $\Delta_{\text{RMS}}^\text{xfer}$ for radially-distorted conjugately-translated correspondences $\hat{x}_j \leftrightarrow \hat{x}'_j$ is reported. For two-direction solvers, the transfer error in the second direction is included in $\Delta_{\text{RMS}}^\text{xfer}$. The transfer error is used in the sensitivity study, where the solvers are tested over varying noise levels with a fixed division model parameter.

### 8.1.3 Numerical Stability

The stability study Fig. 9a measures the RMS warp error $\Delta_{\text{RMS}}^\text{warp}$ of solvers (see Sec. 8.1.1) for noiseless radially-distorted conjugately-translated affine frame correspondences generated as described in the introduction to this section. The normalized ground-truth division-model parameter $\lambda$ is drawn uniformly at random from the interval $[\pm 6]$. For a reference, the division parameter of $H_{2\lambda_1\lambda_2}$ is set to $\lambda = -4$ (see Sec. 3.1), which is typical for GoPro-type imagery in normalized image coordinates.

For the proposed EVP solvers we evaluate a solver generated from constraints derived with (solid histogram) and without (dashed histogram) the hidden-variable trick (see Sec. 2.2). The hidden-variable trick significantly improves the stability of the proposed solvers. The increased stabilities of the hidden-variable solvers (see Fig. 9a) most likely result from the reduced size of the Gauss-Jordan elimination problems needed by these solvers.

The hidden-variable EVP solvers are used for the remainder of the experiments. The proposed EVL solver $H_{2\lambda_1\lambda}$ is derived with the hidden-variable trick as well, which results in a quartic. The superior stability of the $H_{2\lambda_1\lambda}$ solver (see Fig. 9a) demonstrates the benefits of the elementary formulation.

### 8.1.4 Noise Sensitivity

The proposed and state-of-the-art solvers are tested with increasing levels of white noise added to the points extracted (see Sec. 3.2) from the radially-distorted conjugately-translated affine frame correspondences (see Fig. 10). The amount of white noise is given by the standard deviation of a zero-mean isotropic Gaussian distribution, and the solvers are tested at noise levels of $\sigma \in \{0.1, 0.5, 1, 2\}$. The ground-truth normalized division model parameter is set to $\lambda = -4$, which is typical for GoPro-type imagery in normalized image coordinates.

For a reference, the division parameter of $H_{2\lambda_1\lambda_2}$ is set to $\lambda = -4$ (see Sec. 3.1), which is typical for GoPro-type imagery in normalized image coordinates.

The solvers are wrapped by a basic RANSAC estimator that minimizes either the RMS warp error $\Delta_{\text{RMS}}^\text{warp}$ (see Fig. 9b), the RMS transfer error (see Fig. 10a), $\Delta_{\text{RMS}}^\text{xfer}$, or the relative error of lens distortion (see Fig. 10b) over 25 minimal samples of affine frames. The RANSAC estimates are summarized in boxplots for 1000 synthetic scenes. The interquartile range is contained within the extents of a box, and the median is the horizontal line dividing the box.

The proposed solvers—$H_{2\lambda_1\lambda}$, $H_{2\lambda_1\lambda s}$, $H_{2\lambda_2\lambda}$, $H_{2\lambda_1\lambda}$, and $H_{2\lambda_1\lambda}$—demonstrate excellent robustness to noisy features across all three error measures. In particular, the $H_{2\lambda_1\lambda}$ solver is the least sensitive to noise of the proposed solvers and gives the best undistortion estimates of any solver in the bench (see Fig. 10b).

Fig. 10 shows that at the 2 pixel noise level, all the proposed solvers rectify with less than 5 pixel RMS warp error $\Delta_{\text{RMS}}^\text{warp}$ more than half the time. Fig. 10a shows that radially-distorted conjugate translations are estimated with less than 3 pixel RMS transfer error $\Delta_{\text{RMS}}^\text{xfer}$ error more than half the time. All proposed
solvers estimate the correct lens distortion parameter more than half the time (see Fig. 10b) with the $H_2\lambda$ performing the best of any solver in the bench on this study.

For both the warp error and transfer error studies, the $H_2\lambda$ solver of Schaffalitzky et al. [21] shows significant bias since it does not model lens distortion, making it essentially unusable as a minimal solver at GoPro-like levels of radial lens distortion. As expected, the overparameterized radial-distortion homography solvers of $H_{22}\lambda$ [22] and $H_{22}\lambda v\lambda$ [12] of Kukelova et al. have significantly higher transfer errors with respect to the proposed solvers, which suggests that the extraneous degrees of freedom are used to explain feature noise by incorrect geometry. In fact, at the two pixel noise level of the transfer error study in Fig. 10a, the performance of these solvers is worse than the $H_2\lambda$ solver, which does not model radial lens distortion.

The state-of-the art solver $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ of Pritts et al. [13], [15] shows slightly better noise robustness than the proposed solvers on the warp and transfer error sensitivity studies. However, the proposed solvers are competitive and require fewer correspondences. In particular, the $H_2\lambda\lambda$ reaches near parity with the $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ solver and requires only one region correspondence versus three required by the $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ solver. As is shown in Sec. 8.2, the proposed solvers are magnitudes faster in wall clock time. Given their competitive performance in the sensitivity studies and the fact that they require fewer correspondences and have faster times to solution, the proposed solver should be preferred to the $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ solver for images with radially-distorted conjugate translations.

Each of the $H_2\lambda\lambda$ and $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ solvers requires the ex-post estimation of vanishing point of the translation direction, which is accomplished by the method proposed in Sec. 5.2.2. Surprisingly, the sequential estimation used by the proposed $H_2\lambda\lambda$ and the $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ solver of [13], [15] achieve the best performances on the transfer error $\Delta_{RMS}^{\text{transfer}}$. This is explainable by the improved performance of the $H_2\lambda\lambda$ EVL solver with respect to the EVP solvers on all measures, and the fact that the $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ solver uses three correspondences, the most of any in the bench of solvers (see Table 5).

The benefit of best minimal solution selection as proposed in (5.2.2) can be seen by comparing the $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ and $H_2\lambda\lambda$ solvers in all sensitivity studies. To quickly recap, the $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ solver randomly selects a minimal solution from 10 possible solutions given by the EVL geometry shown in Fig. 6, while the $H_2\lambda\lambda$ chooses the solution that minimizes a geometric error on the unused constraints (see Sec. 5.2.2 for details). The sensitivity improvements using minimal solution selection are considerable: at the 2 pixel noise levels, the RMS warp error $\Delta_{RMS}^{\text{warp}}$ (Fig. 9b) and RMS transfer error (Fig. 10a) decreased by 26% and 28%, respectively, and the interquartile range of division model parameter estimates decreased by 61%. In fact, the incorporation of best minimal solution selection puts the performance of the $H_2\lambda\lambda$ solver on par with the $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ solver, which requires two more region correspondences.

| Solver        | Wall Clock | Relative Speed | Template Size |
|---------------|------------|----------------|---------------|
| $H_2\lambda$ | 0.5 µs     | 1.0 x           | N/A           |
| $H_2\lambda\lambda$ | 3.7 µs     | 7.4 x           | 14 x 18       |
| $H_{22}\lambda\lambda$ | 6.1 µs     | 12.2 x          | 24 x 26       |
| $H_{22}\lambda v\lambda$ | 34.6 µs    | 69.2 x          | 54 x 60       |
| $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ | 66.1 µs    | 132.2 x         | 76 x 80       |
| $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ [13], [15] | 1076.8 µs  | 2153.6 x        | 133 x 187     |

TABLE 4: Runtime Analysis Wall-clock times are reported for optimized C++ implementations of the proposed solvers versus $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ of [13], [15], which was the only competitive solver from the noise sensitivity experiments. The EVL solver is 2153.6× faster than $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$, and the other proposed variants are orders of magnitude faster.

8.2 Computational Complexity

Table 4 lists the wall-clock time to solution for the optimized C++ implementations of the proposed solvers and the $H_{222}\lambda\lambda$ solver [13], [15], which was the only competitive solver from the sensitivity experiments reported in Figs. 10a, 9b and 10b. Also reported for easy comparison are the relative speeds with respect to the
H2λ solver and the elimination template sizes, where applicable. The proposed EVL H2λ solver is an astounding 2153.6× faster than the H^DES2λ solver and significantly faster than all EVP solvers (H2luλ, H2luλsλ, H22luvλ, and H22luvsvλ), which require the Gröbner basis method to solve polynomial systems of equations. All of the proposed solvers are much faster than the H^DES2λ solver, making them more suitable for fast sampling in RANSAC for scenes containing translational symmetries.

8.3 Real Images

In the experiments on real images shown in Figs. 1 and 3, we tested the proposed solvers on GoPro Hero 4 images with increasing field-of-view settings—medium and wide, where the wider field-of-view setting generates more extreme radial distortion since the full extent of the lens is used. To span the gamut of lens distortions in the field-of-view study of Fig. 3, we included a Samyang 7.5mm fisheye lens. The consistency of the undistortion estimate at the same GoPro Hero4 field-of-view setting can be seen by comparing the undistortions between the medium GoPro Hero 4 images in Fig. 5a and the undistortions between the wide GoPro images in Figs. 7 and 8. Despite significantly different image content and sensor orientation, the undistortions are of comparable magnitude at the same setting. Rectification are accurate for all GoPro Hero 4 images, and the image of the distorted vanishing line is correctly positioned (rendered in green) in the original images. Despite using the 1-parameter division model for lens undistortion (see Sec. 3.1), an excellent rectification is achieved for the fisheye distorted image taken with the Samyang 7.5mm lens in Fig. 5c and the horizon line is perfectly estimated.

Fig. 12 shows results obtained with 1-correspondence sampling using the proposed H2luλ EVL solver on very challenging fisheye images. Images from five distinct fisheye lenses are evaluated with Figs. 7b, 7c, and 7e having highly oblique viewpoints of the dominant scene plane. Accurate rectifications and undistortions are achieved for all images, and the distorted image of the vanishing line (rendered in green) is correctly positioned. The limitations of the 1-parameter division model can be seen with extreme radial distortions, as, e.g., Figs. 7c and 7d exhibit some mustache distortion, which cannot be modeled with 1 parameter. However, the local optimizer of [11] could be modified to regress a higher-order distortion model using the results of Fig. 7 as an initial guess. We leave this for future work.

Figs. 8c, 16c and 17c contain imaged scene planes with vanishing lines that pass near the image origin (equivalently, center of distortion), which is a degeneracy of the solver (see Sec. 5). Still excellent results are achieved, which empirically demonstrates that even for vanishing lines passing very close to the image center, the lens distortion is sufficiently observable. In practice the degeneracy does not seem to be a problem.

The experiment shown in Fig. 11 compares the performance of two of the proposed solvers H2luλ and H22luvλ to the conjugate translation solver H2 of Schaffalitzky et al. [21] in the coplanar repeat detection and rectification framework of Pritts et al. [11] (see Sec. 7) with a GoPro Hero 4 image at the wide field-of-view setting. The two proposed solvers accurately estimate the division-model parameter. The rectification quality is also reflected by the number of inlying features found, which is nearly double for the proposed solvers with respect to the solver of [21]. The experiment demonstrates the non-convexity of the problem, and emphasizes the need for a good initial guess by the minimal solver for the local optimizer of [11].

The narrow field of view and diverse content experiment of Fig. 12 shows the performance of the proposed method on imagery typical from cell phone cameras and near rectilinear lenses. The left 3 columns of the study are challenging since the conjugate
translations and reflections are extracted a small strip of the image. Still the rectifications are accurate.

9 Conclusions

This paper proposes a suite of simple high-speed solvers for jointly undistorting and affine-rectifying images containing radially-distorted conjugate translations. The proposed solvers contain variants that relax the assumptions that the pre-images of radially-distorted conjugately-translated point correspondences are translated by the same magnitude in the scene plane, and that all point correspondences translate in the same direction. Furthermore, a variant is proposed that admits reflections of similarity-covariant region correspondences, which is helpful for searching for correspondences for semi-metric rectification. The code is published at https://github.com/prittjam/repeats.

The EVL H_2\lambda solver admits the same point configuration as the one-direction EVP solver H_2\lambda, but is much simpler (i.e., does not require the Gröbner bases method), more stable, and is 7.4× faster in terms of wall-clock time to solution. The improvement is given by the choice to eliminate the vanishing line instead of the vanishing point. The significant difference emphasizes the importance of care in solver design; in particular, the need to simplify the constraint equations. While Gröbner bases related methods are powerful and somewhat general, their blind application for solver generation can result in slow and unstable solvers. E.g., Pritts et al. in [13], [15] were unable to reduce the degree of their constraint equations used for the H_22\lambda solver, which resulted in slow solved (see Table 3). Furthermore, stability sampling was required to generate useful solvers [46].

Synthetic experiments show that the EVP and EVL solvers are significantly more robust to noise in terms of the accuracy of rectification and radially-distorted conjugate translation estimation than the radial-distortion homography solvers of Fitzgibbon and Kukelova et al. [12], [28]. The experiment verifies the importance of solving the minimal problem since the extraneous degrees of freedom of the radial-distortion homography solvers are free to explain the noise with incorrect geometry. Furthermore, the proposed solvers are competitive with the robustness of the state-of-the-art H_22\lambda solver of [13], [15] despite the fact that the H_2\lambda solver requires two more region correspondences as input (compared to H_2\lambda, H_2\lambda, and H_2\lambda). The advantage of the proposed solvers is more pronounced if the combinatorics of the robust RANSAC estimator are considered, where one correspondence sampling makes it possible to solve scenes with a very-low proportion of good correspondences.

Experiments on difficult images with large radial distortions confirm that the solvers give high-accuracy rectifications if used inside a robust estimator. By jointly estimating rectification and radial distortion, the proposed minimal solvers eliminate the need for sampling lens distortion parameters in RANSAC.

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APPENDIX

TRANSFER ERROR DETAILS

The scene plane is tessellated by a 10x10 grid of points with a 1 meter spacing between adjacent points. The tessellation ensures that the imaged scene plane is uniformly covered by features. In this way, the accuracy of the estimated radially-distorted conjugate translation can be measured across most of the image. Denote the tessellation as \( \{ X_i \}_{i=1}^{100} \). Suppose that \( x \leftrightarrow x' \) are conjugately-translated points consistent with \( H_u = [I_3 + ul^\top] \). Points \( \{ X_i \}_{i=1}^{100} \) are translated to \( \{ X'_i \}_{i=1}^{100} \) by 1 meter on the scene plane in the direction given by the translation direction \( U \). The conjugate translation \( H_u \) is not used directly because its translation magnitude may span the extent of the scene plane, so applying it to the tessellation would transform the grid out of the field of view.

The preimage of the translation direction is \( \beta U = P^{-1}u = (u_x, u_y, 0)^\top \). Then \( \| U \| \) is the magnitude of translation between the repeated scene elements in the scene-plane coordinate system. Define the homogeneous translation matrix defined by \( U \) to be

\[
T(U) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & u_x \\ 0 & 1 & u_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.
\]

(29)

The translation of the grid points by unit distance in the scene plane coordinate system is given by \( X' = T(U/\|U\|)X \). Recall from (7) that a conjugate translation has the form \( PT(\cdot)P^{-1} \). Using (3), the conjugate translation of unit distance in the direction of point correspondences \( x \leftrightarrow x' \) is

\[
H_u/\|U\| = PI_3P^{-1} + P \left( \begin{array}{c} u_x/\|U\| \\ u_y/\|U\| \\ 0 \end{array} \right) \left[ P^{-\top} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right] ^\top
\]

(30)

The unit conjugate translation \( H_u/\|U\| \) can be written in terms of the conjugate translation \( H_u \) induced by the undistorted point correspondence \( x \leftrightarrow x' \) as

\[
I_3 + \frac{u}{\|U\|}l^\top = I_3 + \frac{1}{\|U\|} [I_3 + ul^\top - I_3]
\]

(31)

The derivation of (31) gives the form of the conjugate translation used in the transfer error \( \Delta_{\text{RMS}} \) defined in Sec. 8.1.2.