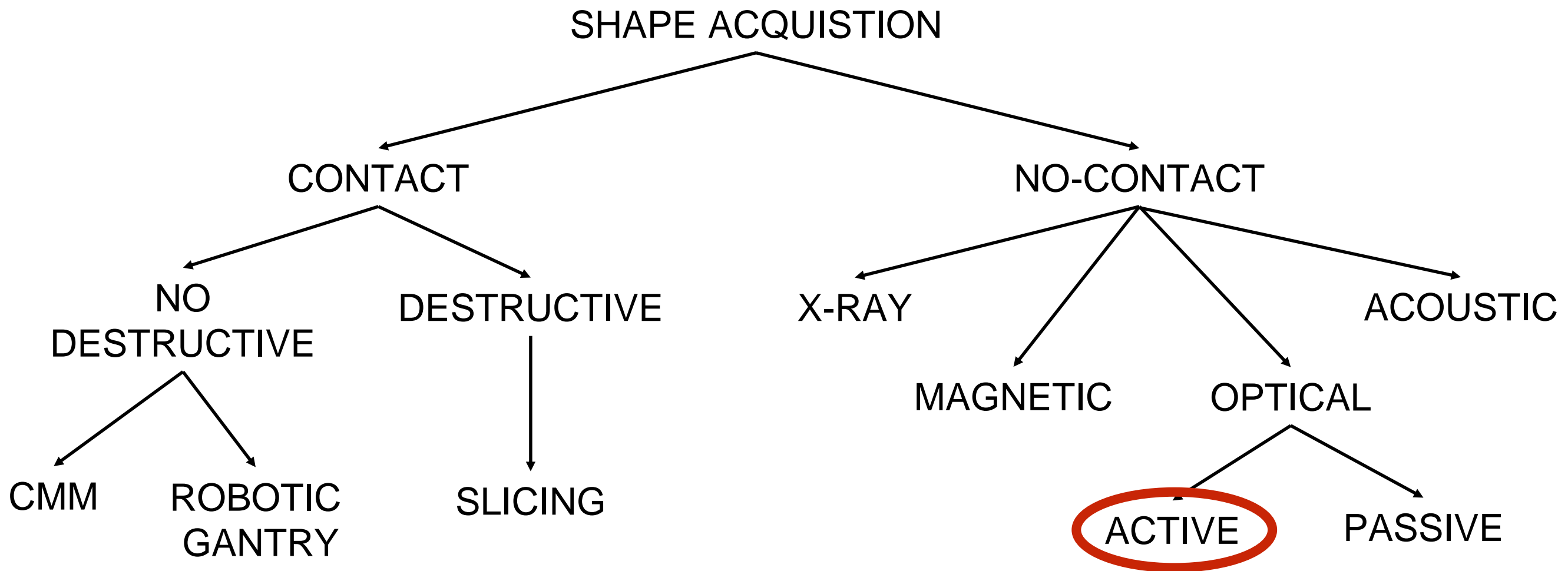


Optical Active 3D Scanning

Gianpaolo Palma

3D Scanning Taxonomy



Recap

Computational Tomography and Magnetic Resonance

- **Advantages**
 - A complete model is returned in a single shot, registration and merging not required
 - Output: volume data, much more than just an exterior surface
- **Disadvantages**
 - Limitation in the size of the scanned object
 - Cost of the device
 - Output: no data on surface attributes (e.g. color)

Recap

Multi-View Stereo Reconstruction

- **Advantages**
 - Cheap (no scanning device needed), fast tech evolution
 - Good flexibility (both small and huge model can be acquired)
 - Cameras are more easy to use than a scanner (lighter, no tripod, no power, multiple lenses ...)
 - Non-expert users can create 3D models
- **Disadvantages**
 - Accuracy (not so accurate, problems with regions with insufficient detail)
 - Slower than active techniques (many images to process and merge)
 - Not all the objects can be acquired

Active Optical Technology

- **Advantages**

- Using active lighting is much faster
- Safe - Scanning of soft or fragile objects which would be threatened by probing
- Set of different technologies that scale with the object size and the required accuracy

- **Disadvantages**

- Can only acquire visible portions of the surface
- Sensitivity to surface properties (transparency, shininess, darkness, subsurface scatter)
- Confused by interreflections

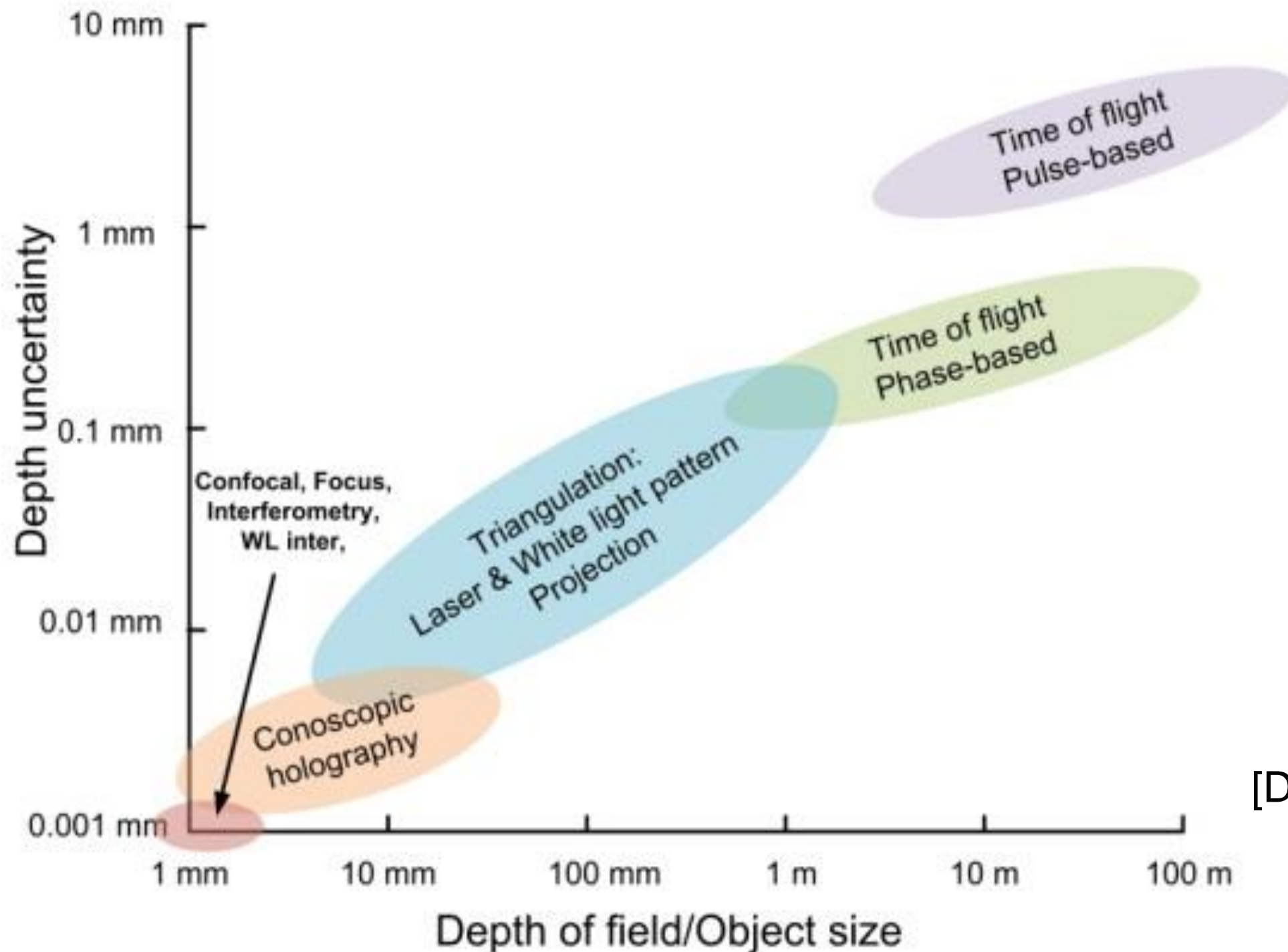
Active Optical Technology

- Active optical vs CT scanner
 - Cheaper, faster, scale well with object size
 - But no volume information and more processing
- Active optical vs Multi-view stereo
 - Faster and more accurate
 - But more expensive and more user expertise

Active Optical Technology

- Depth from Focus
 - Confocal microscopy
- Interferometry
- Triangulation
 - Laser triangulation and structured light
- Time-of-Flight
 - Pulse-based and Phase-based

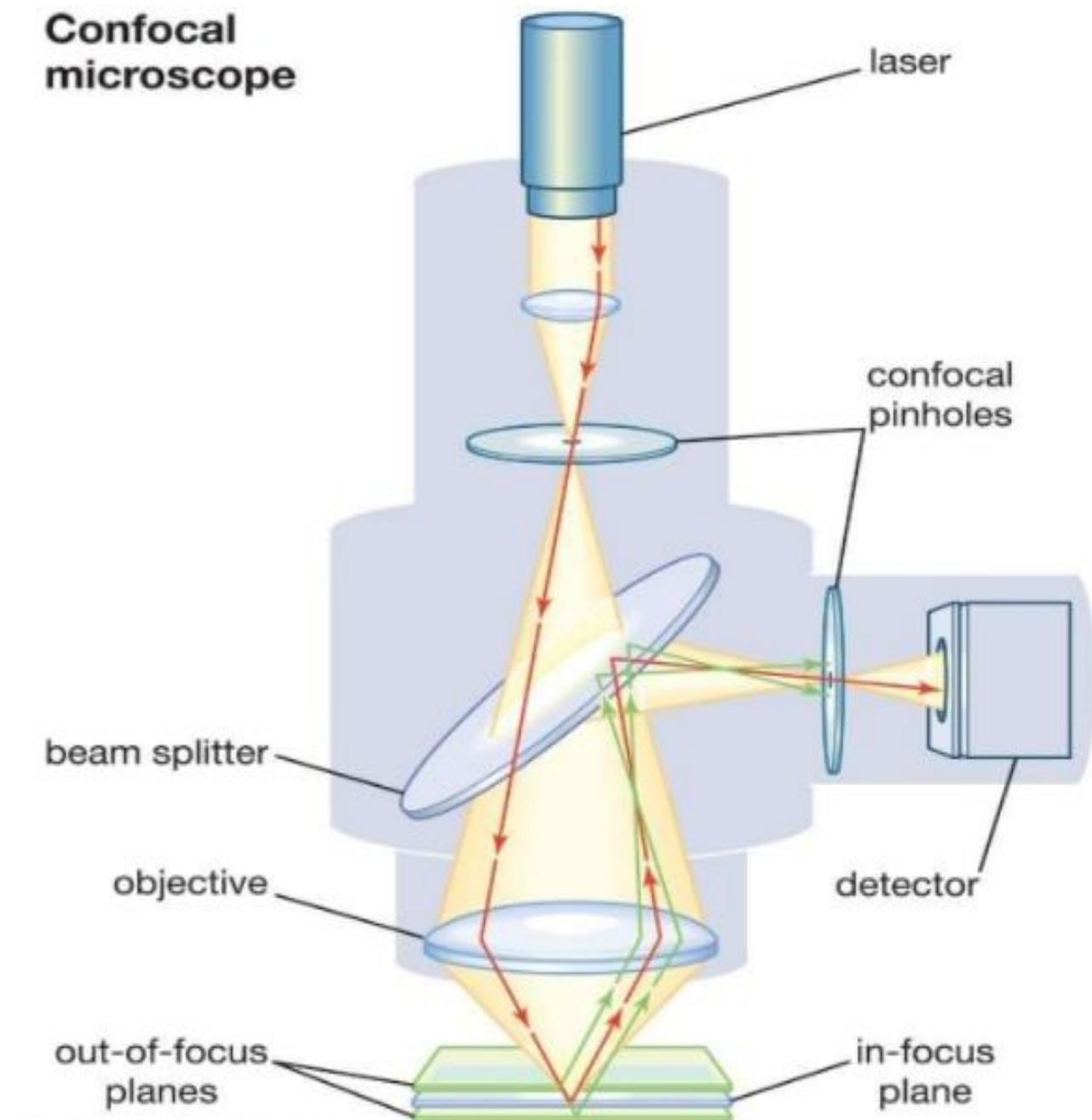
Why different active optical technology?



[Drouin et al., 2012]

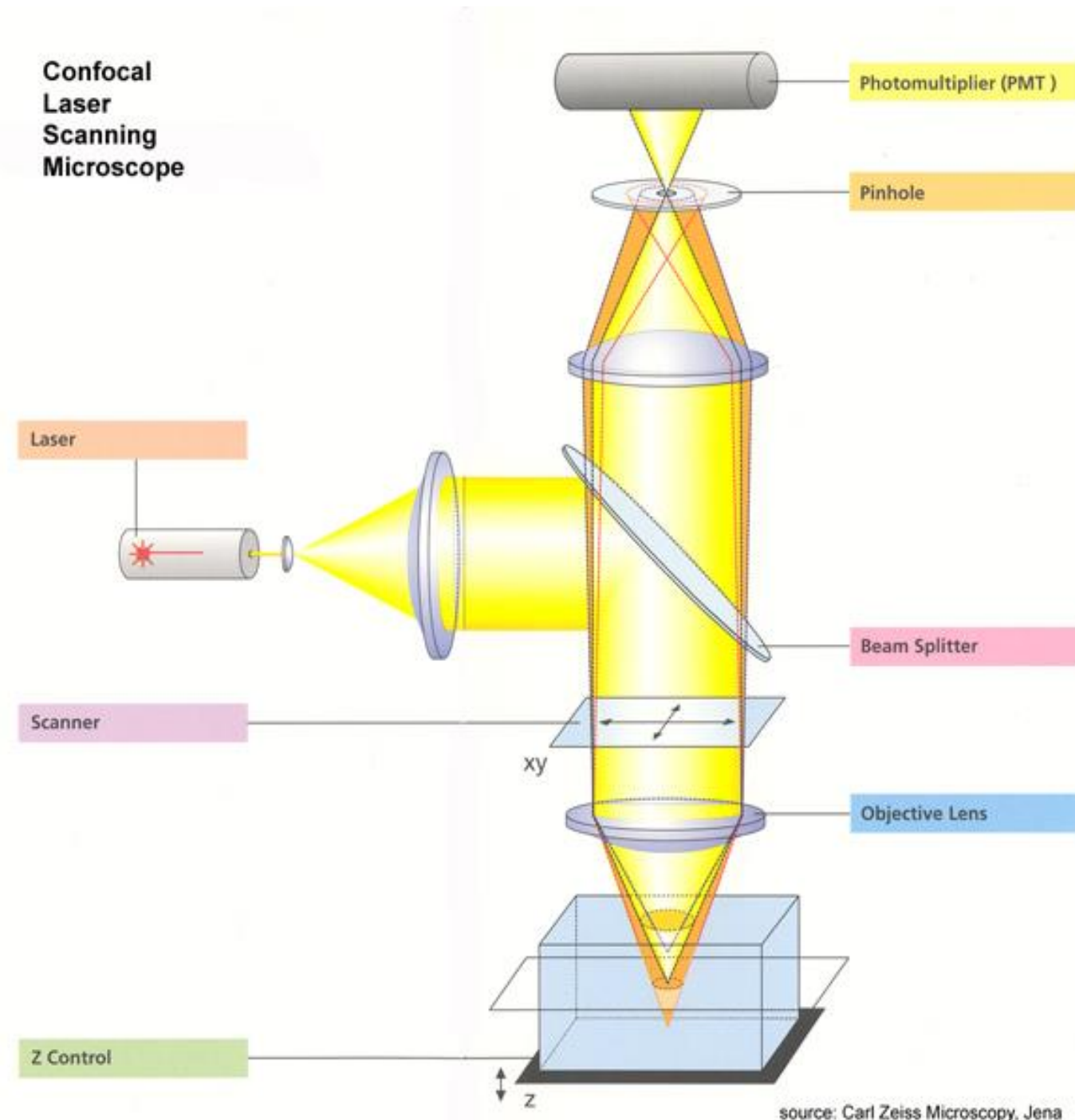
Confocal Microscopy

- Increase the optical resolution and contrast of microscope by placing a pinhole at the confocal plane of the lens to eliminate out-of-focus light
- Controlled and highly limited depth of focus.
- 3D reconstruction with images captured at different focal plane

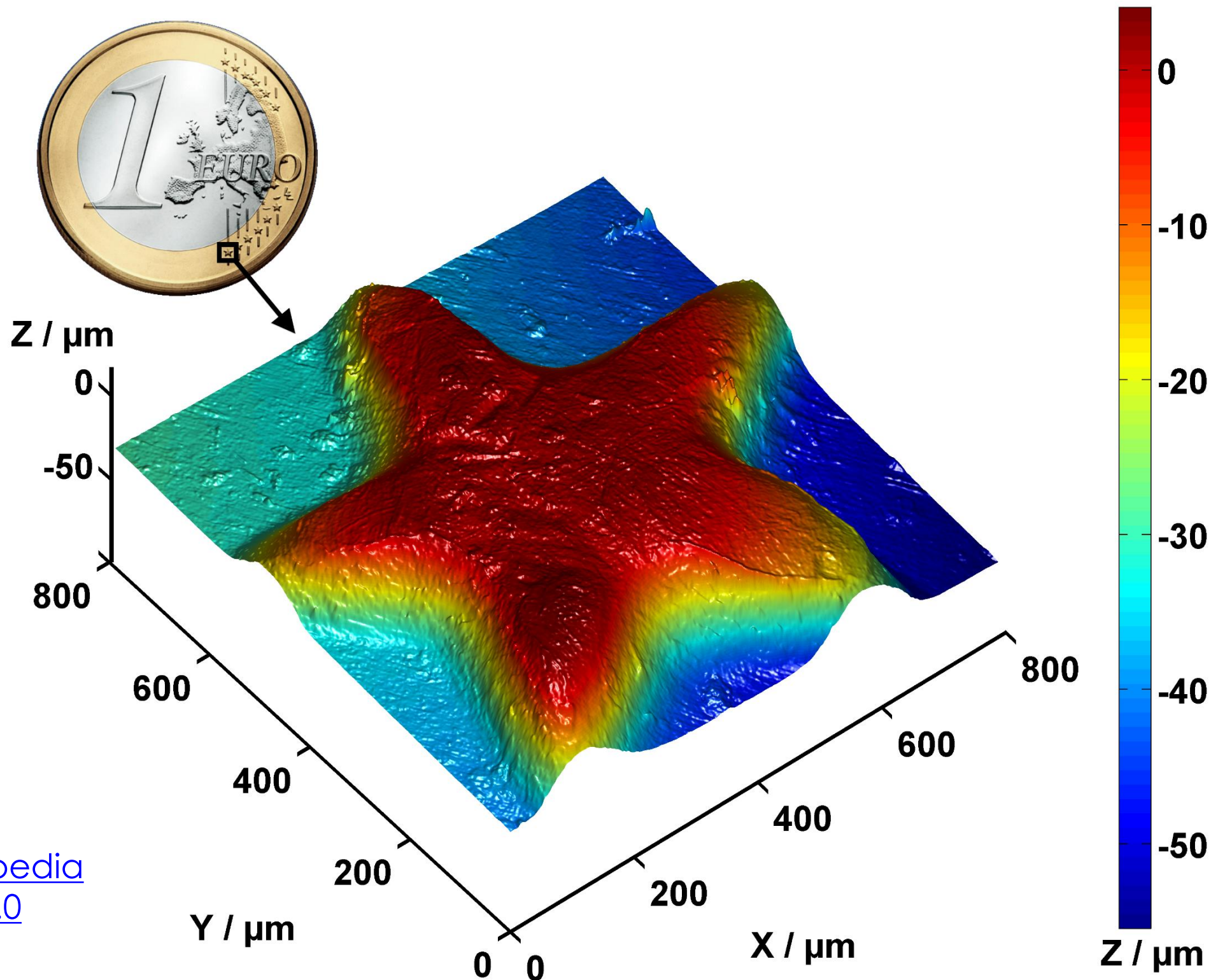


Confocal Microscopy

- Scanning mirrors that can move the laser beam very precisely and quickly (one mirror tilts the beam in the X direction, the other in the Y direction)
- Z-control focus on any focal plane within your sample allowing movement in the axial direction with high precision (>10 nm).



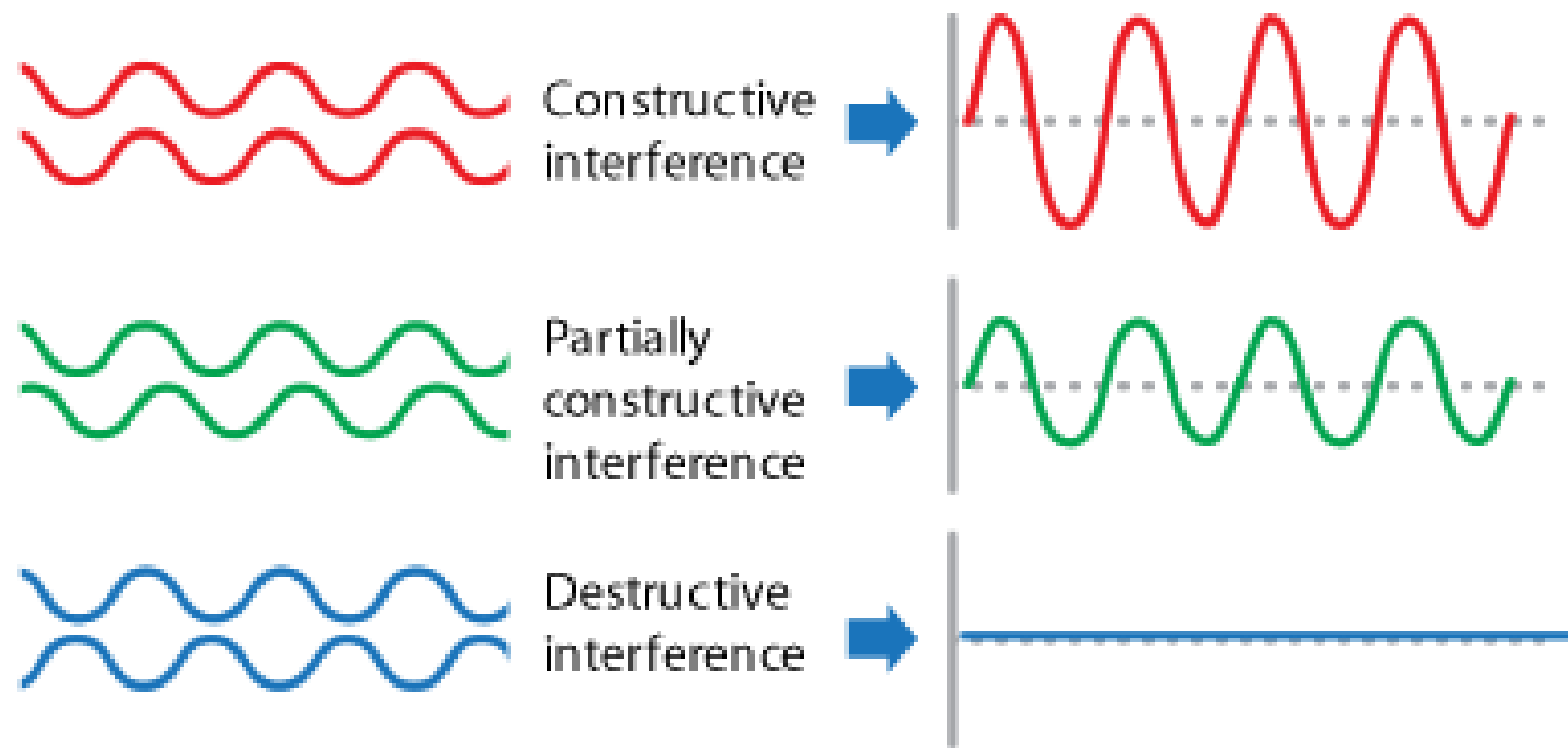
Confocal Microscopy



[Image by Wikipedia](#)
[CC BY-SA 3.0](#)

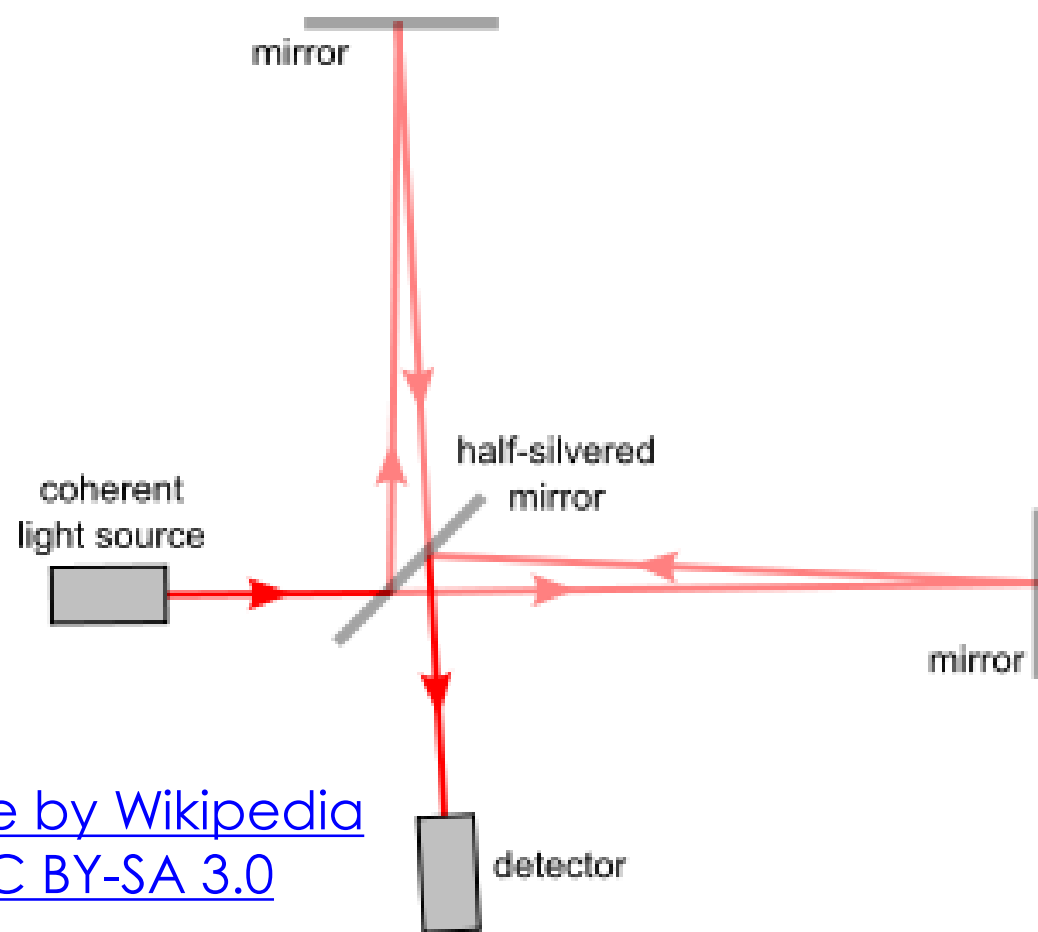
Interferometry

- **General Idea** - Superimposing waves causing the phenomenon of interference. To extract information from the resulting waves.

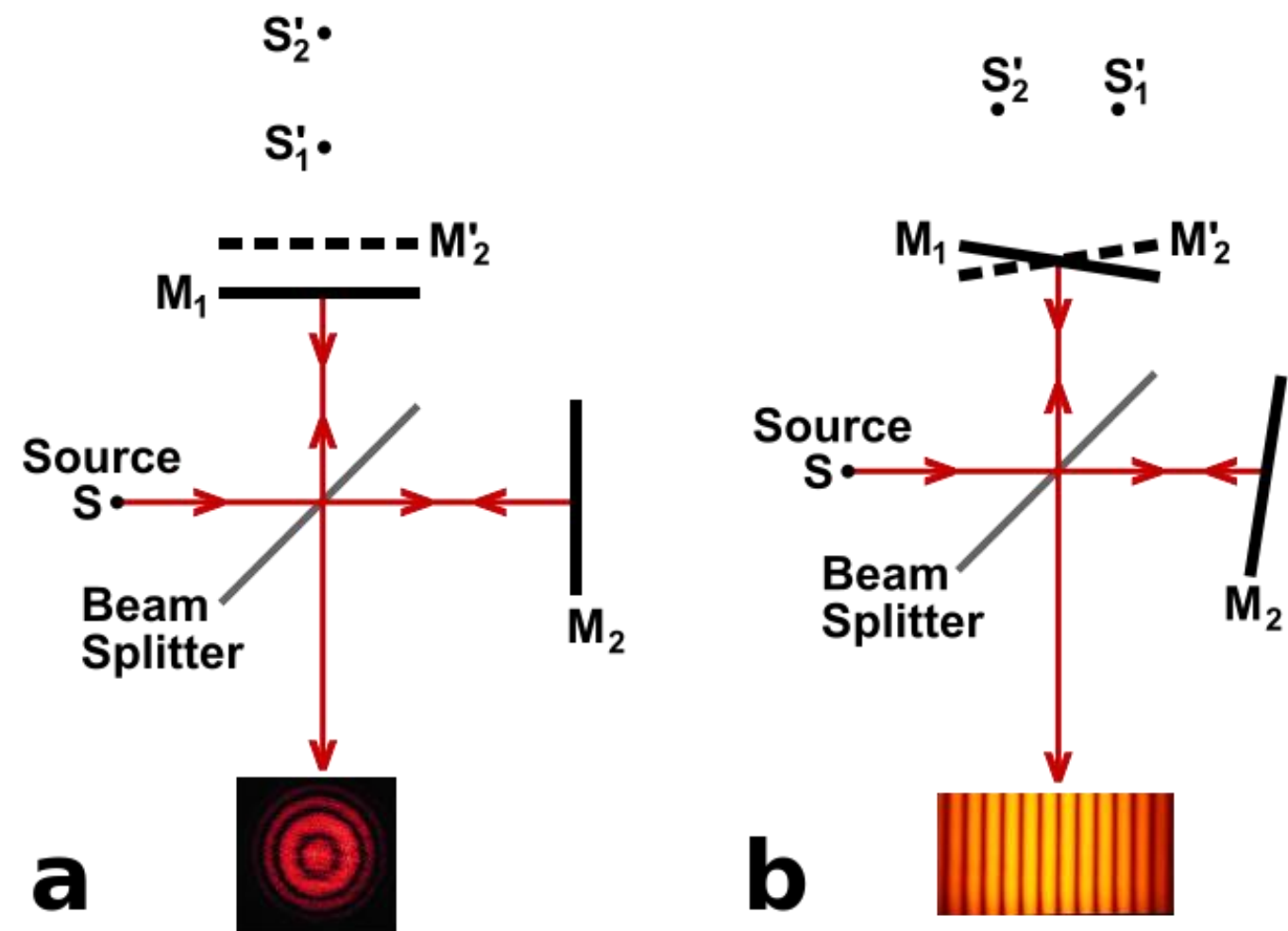


Michelson Interferometer

- Single source split into two beams that travel different path, then combined again to produce interference
- Information about the difference in the path by analyzing the interference fringes



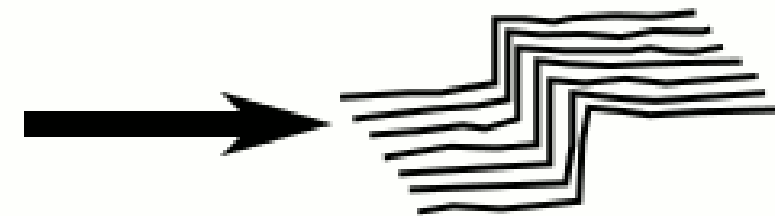
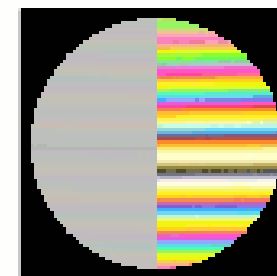
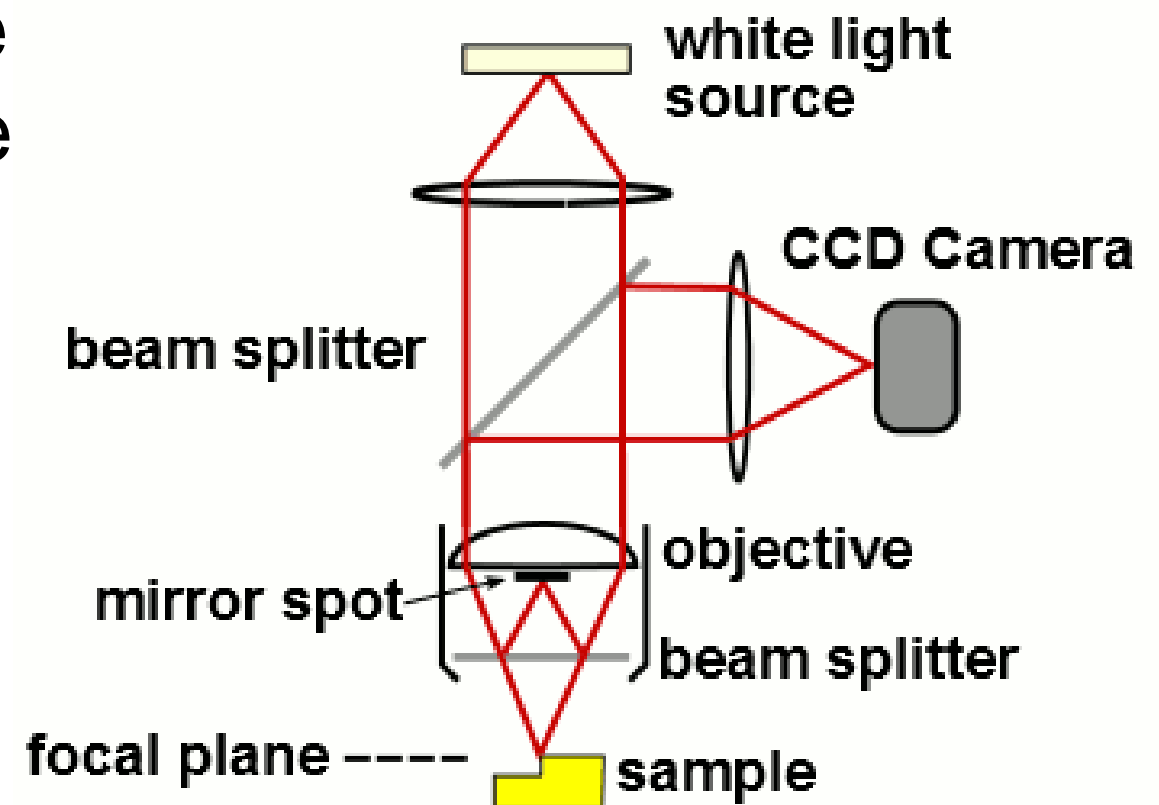
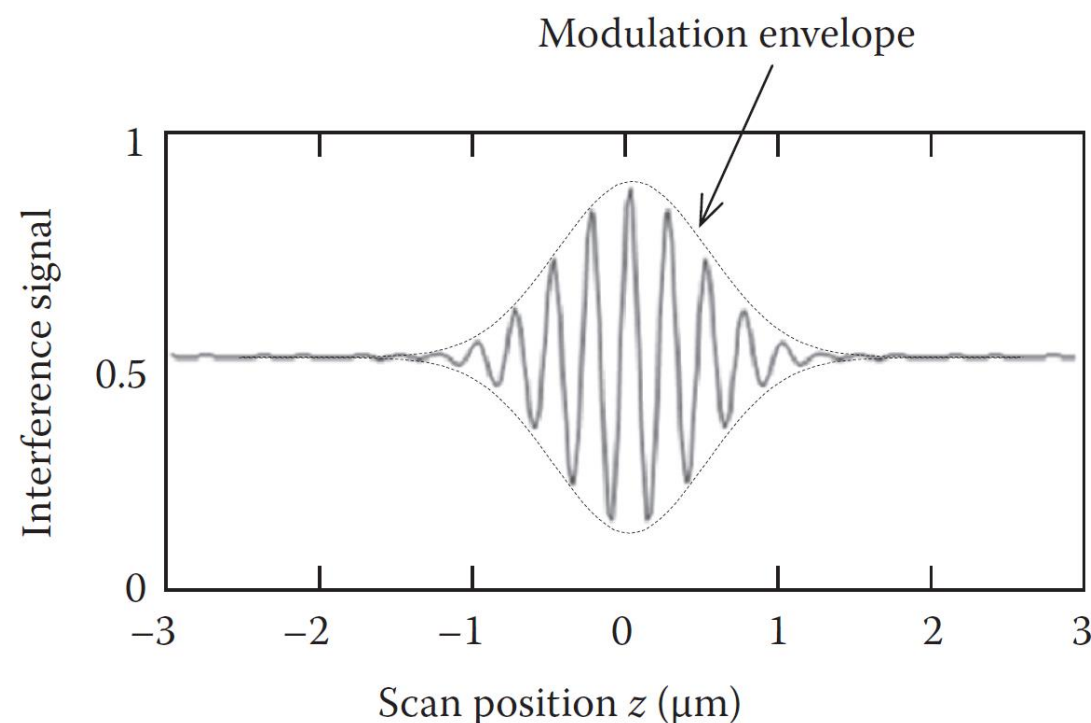
[Image by Wikipedia](#)
[CC BY-SA 3.0](#)



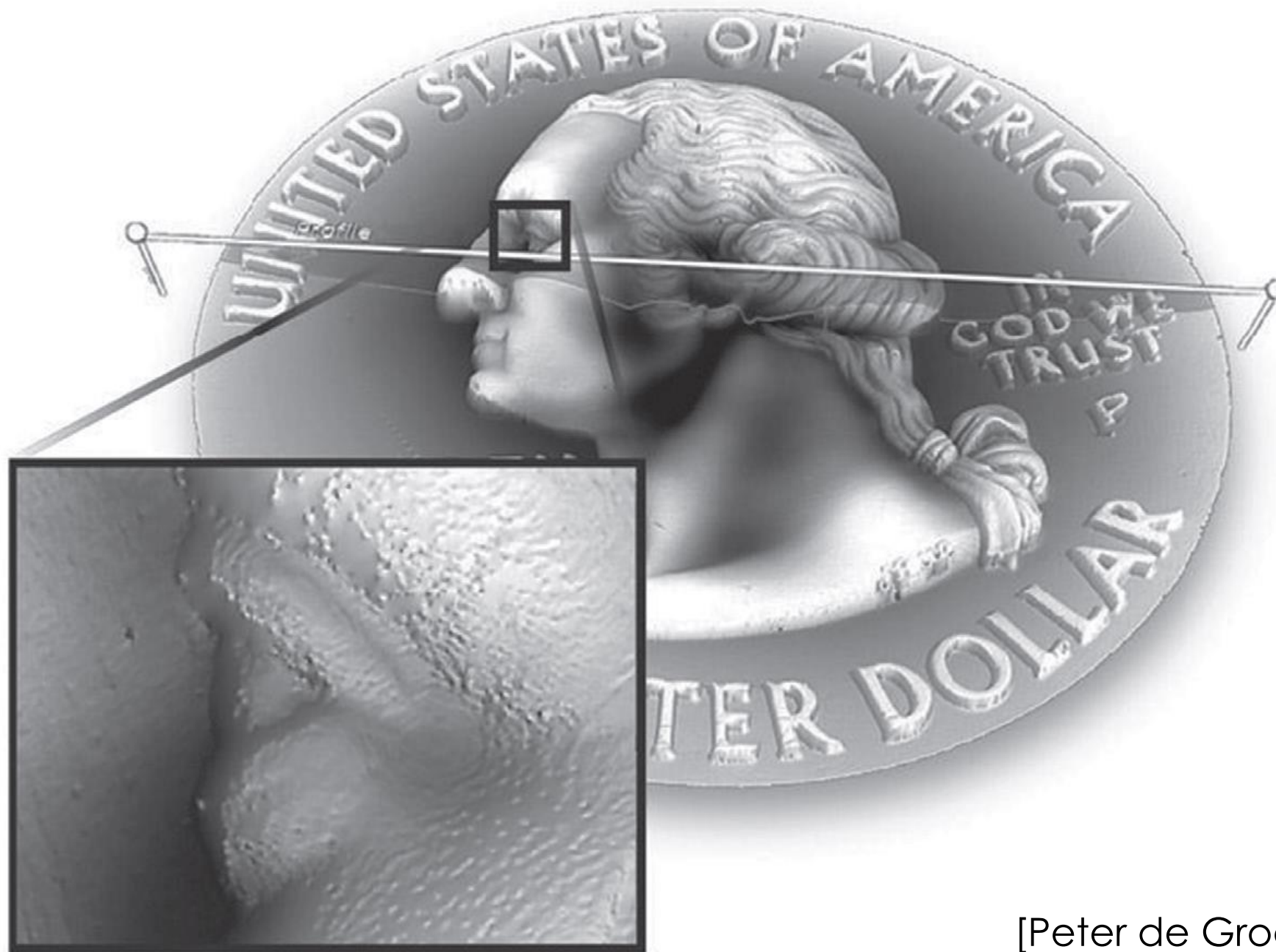
[Image by Wikipedia](#) [CC BY-SA 3.0](#)

White Light Interferometry

- Accurate movement of objective in the z axial direction to change length of beam path
- Find the maximum modulation of the interference signal for each pixel



White Light Interferometry

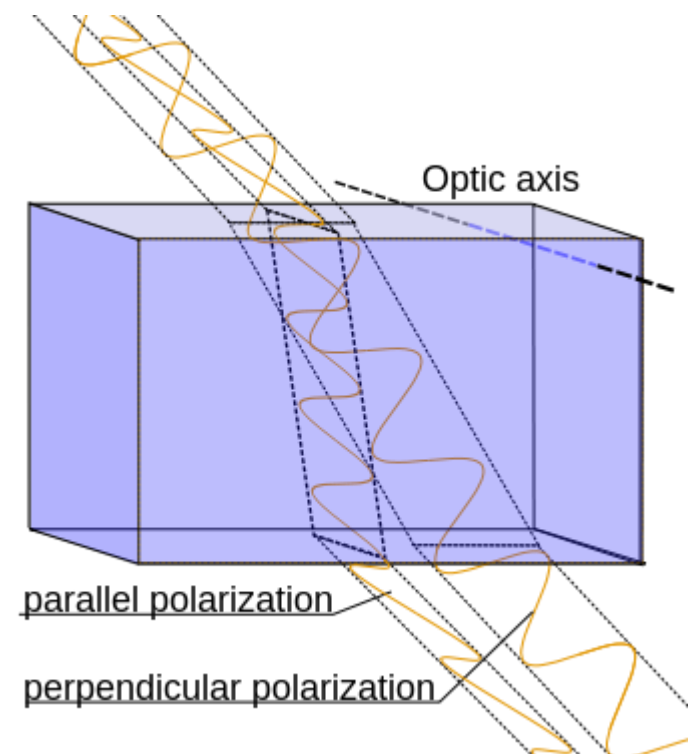


[Peter de Groot, 2015]

Conoscopic Holography

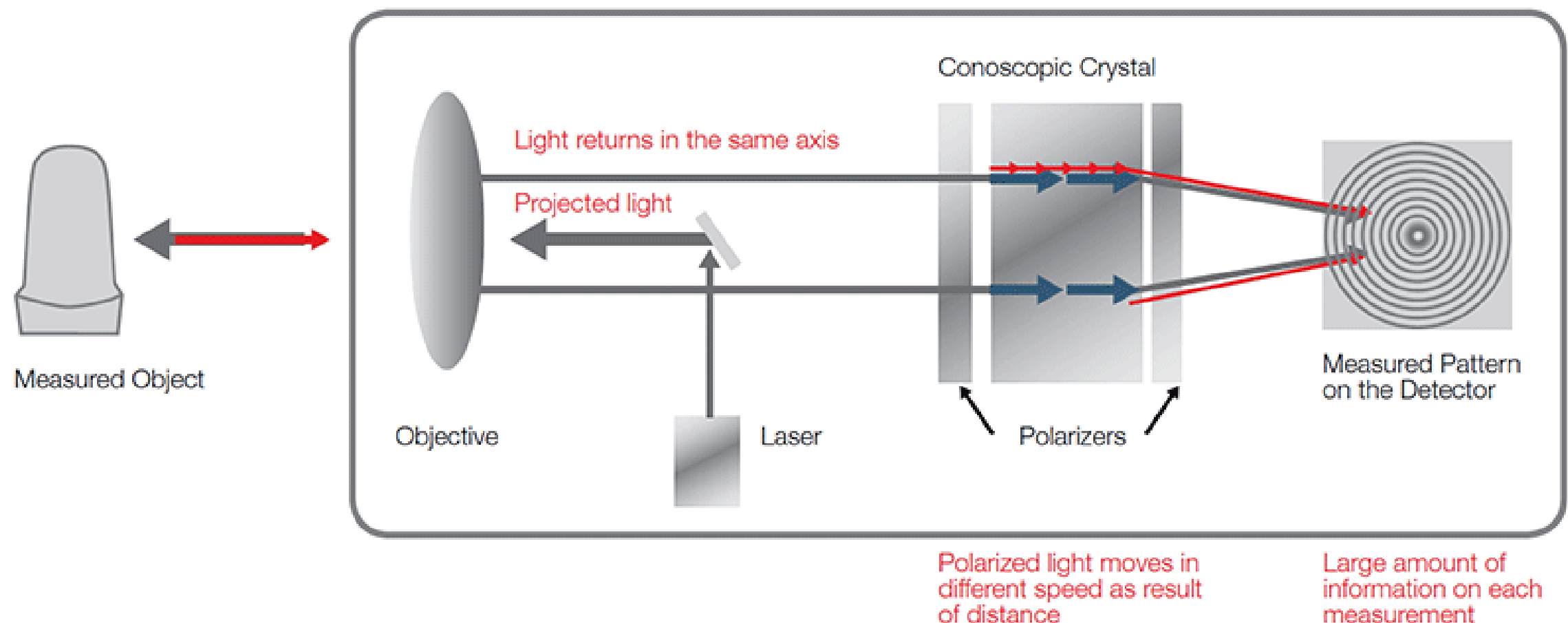
Birefringent crystal

- The refractive index depends on the polarization and propagation direction of light. The refractive index in one crystal axis (optical axis) is different from the other.
- Splitting of the incident ray in two ray with different path according polarization
 - Ordinary ray (a constant refractive index)
 - Extraordinary ray (the refractive index depends on the ray direction)

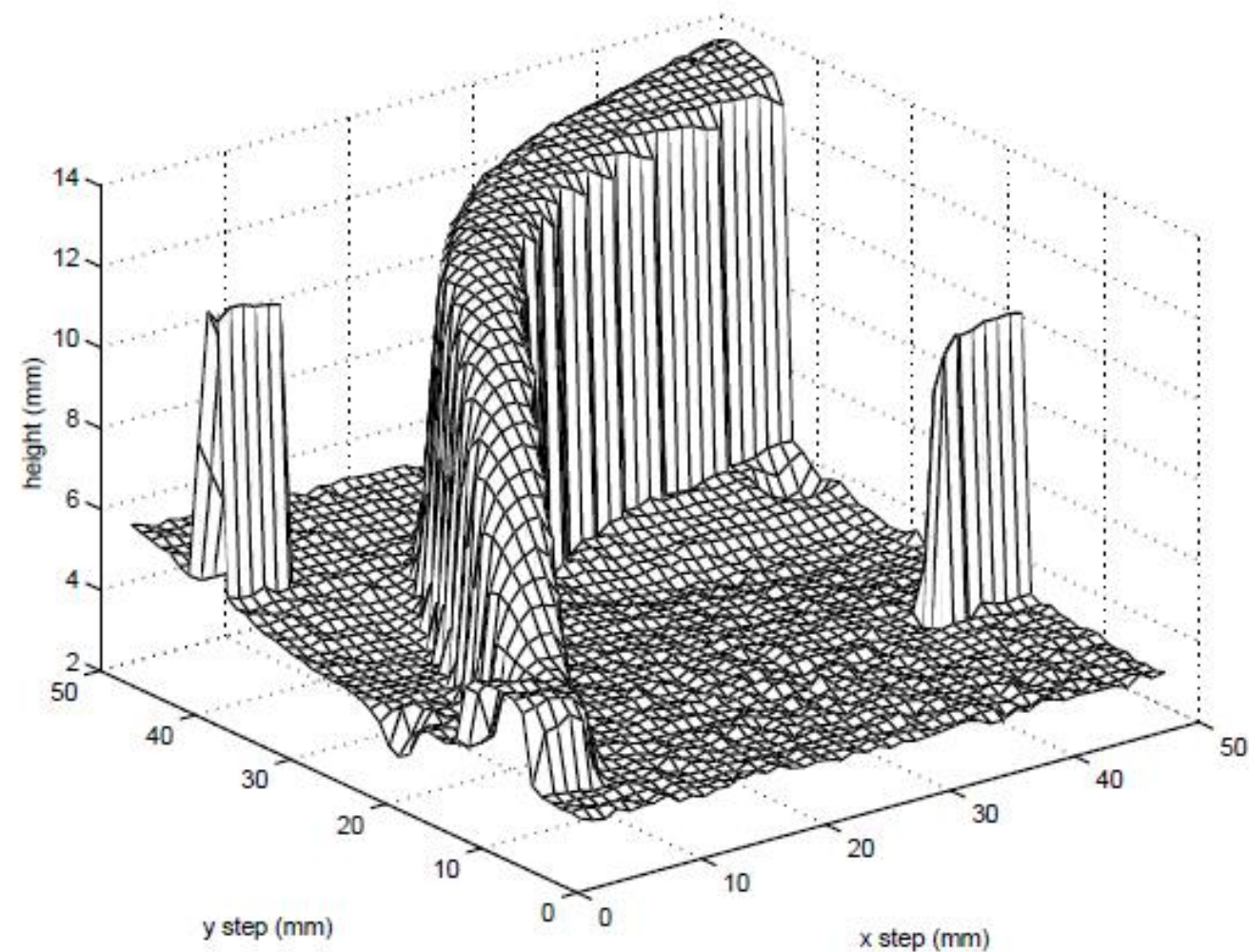
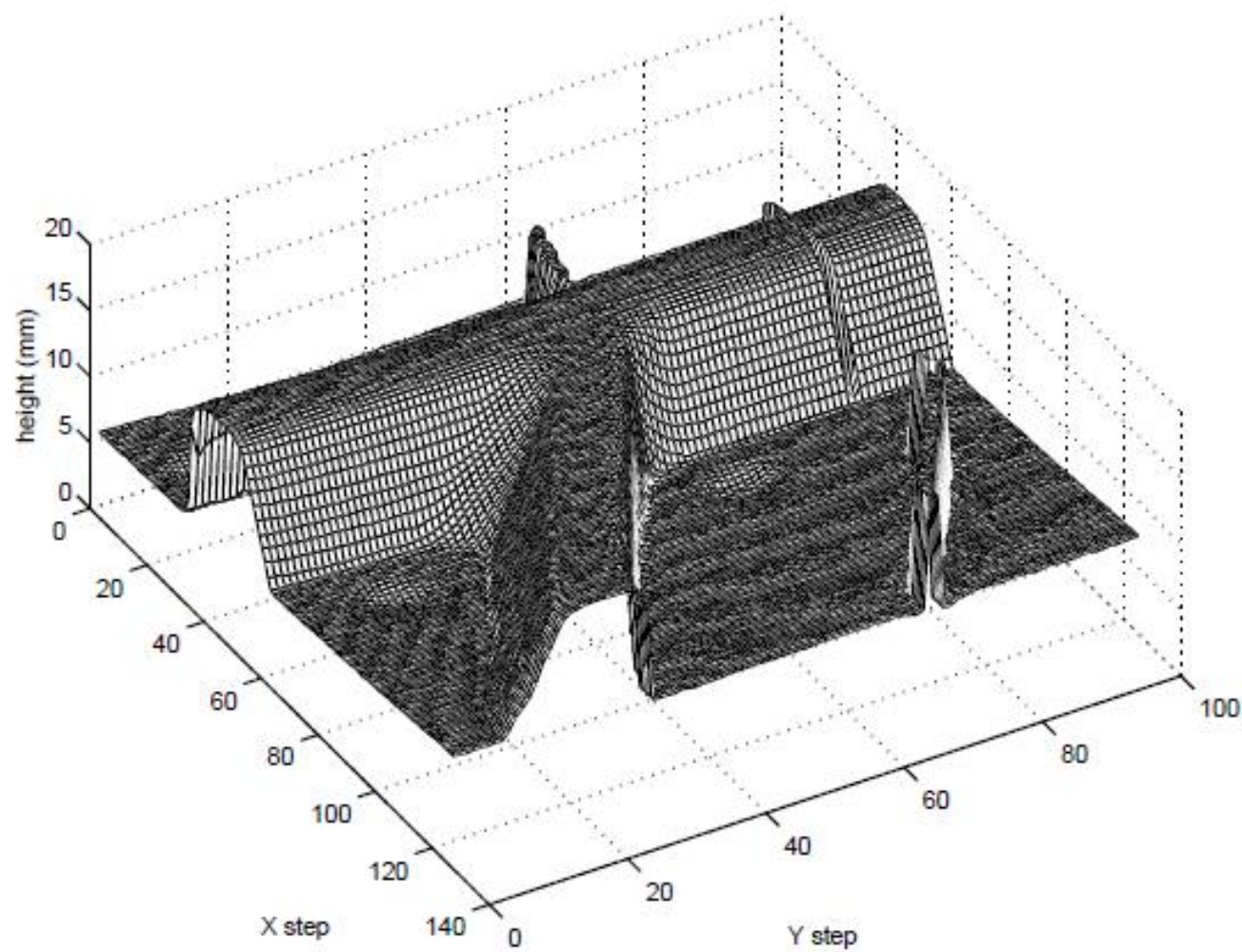


Conoscopic Holography

- Analyzing the interference pattern of ordinary and extraordinary waves of the beam reflect by the measured same

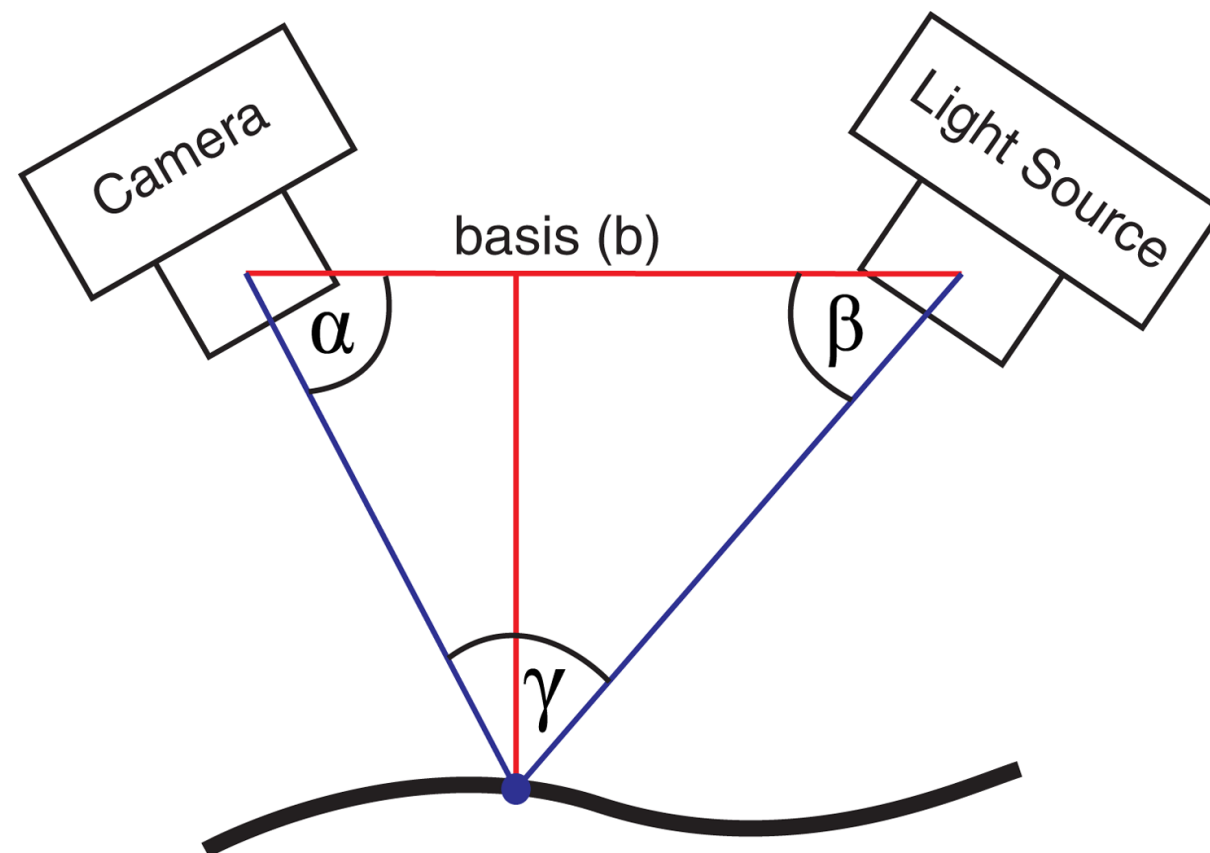


Conoscopic Holography



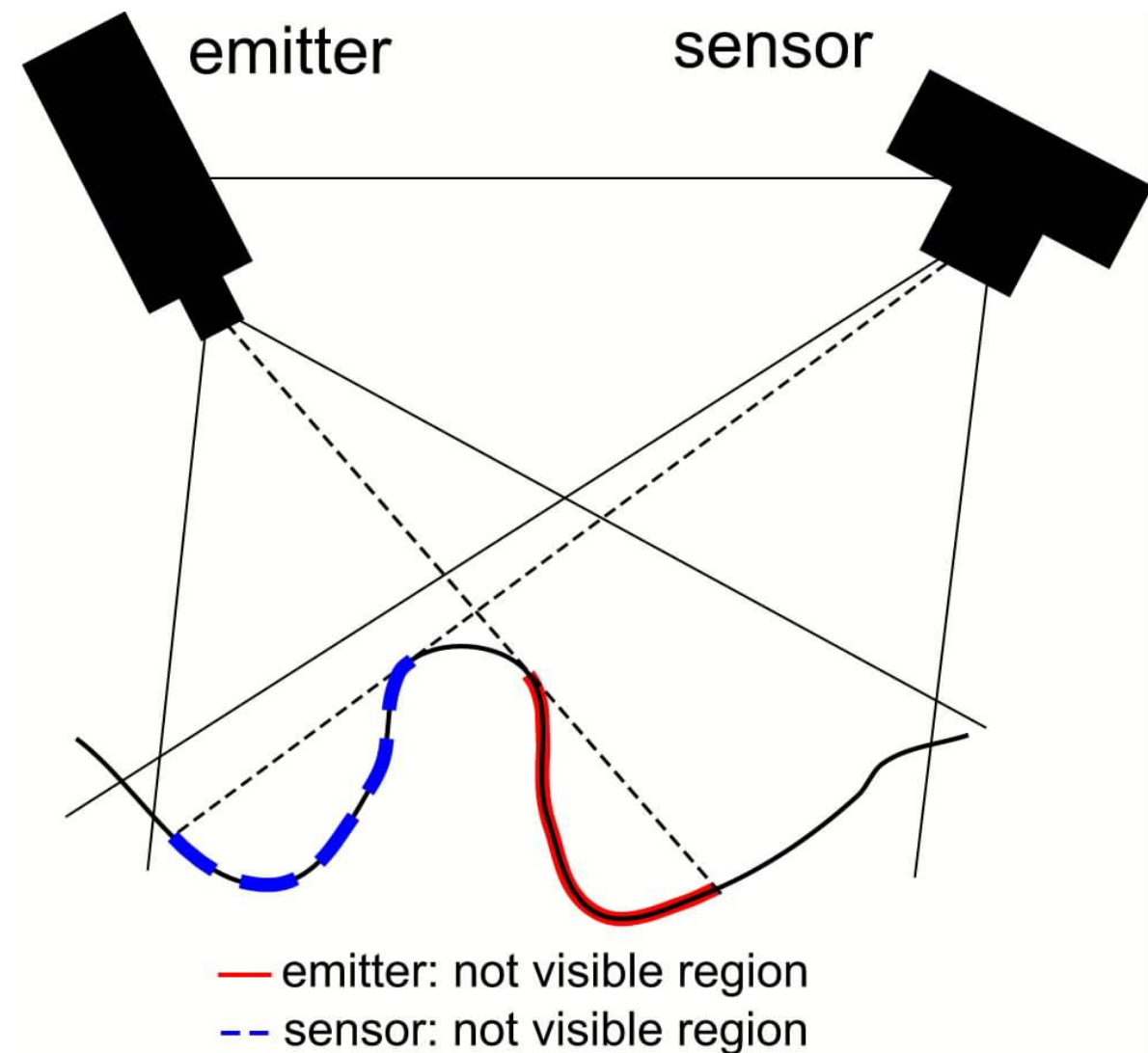
Triangulation based system

- Location of a point by triangulation knowing the distance between the sensors (camera and light emitter) and the angles between the rays and the base distance

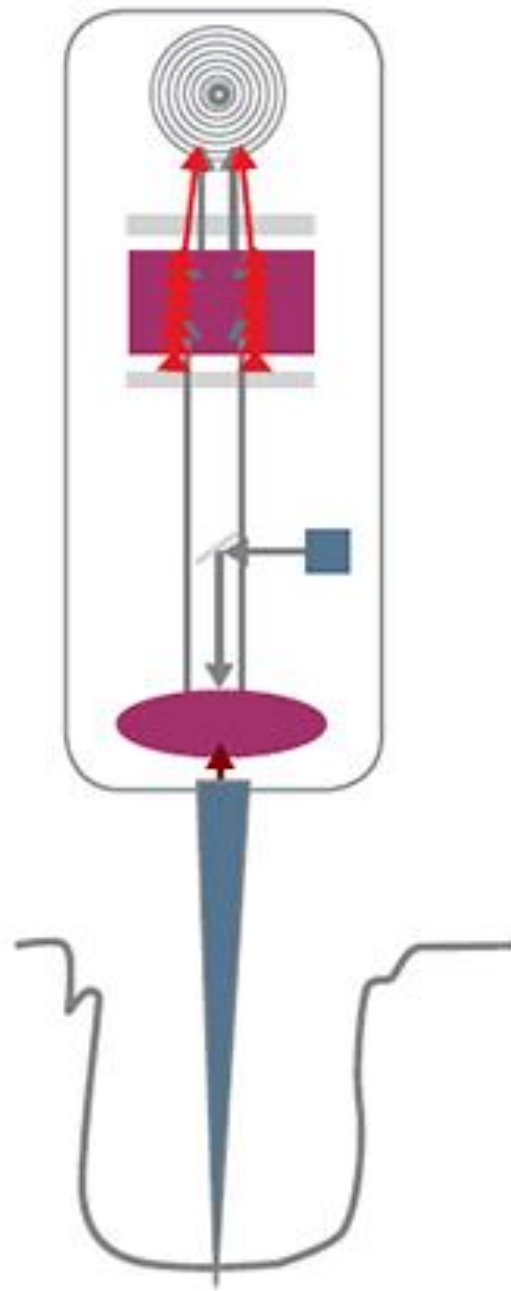


Triangulation based system

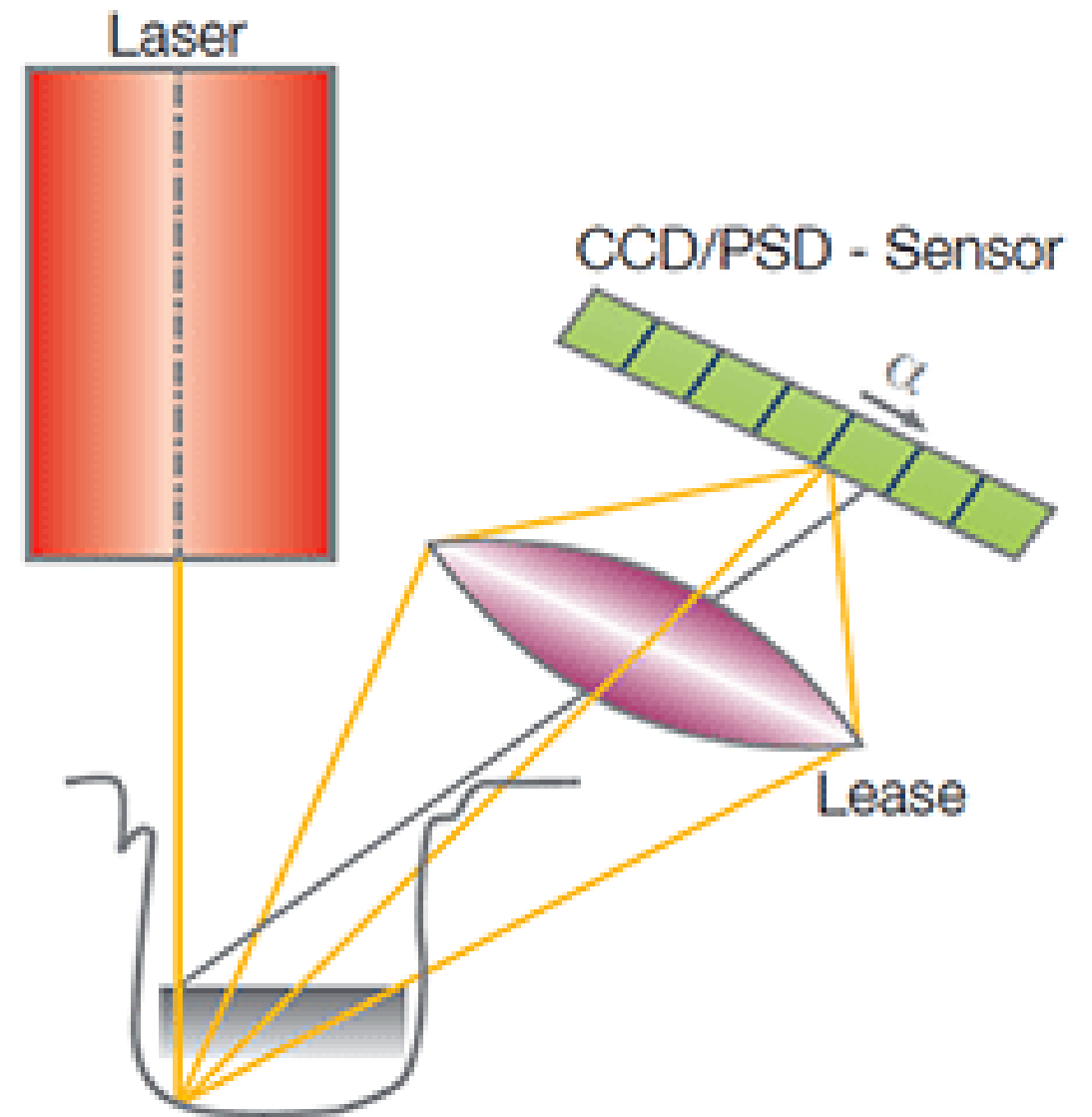
- An inherent limitation of the triangulation approach: non-visible regions
- Some surface regions can be visible to the emitter and not-visible to the receiver, and vice-versa
- In all these regions we miss sampled points
- Need integration of multiple scans



Conoscopic Holography vs Triangulation



CONOSCOPIC HOLOGRAPHY

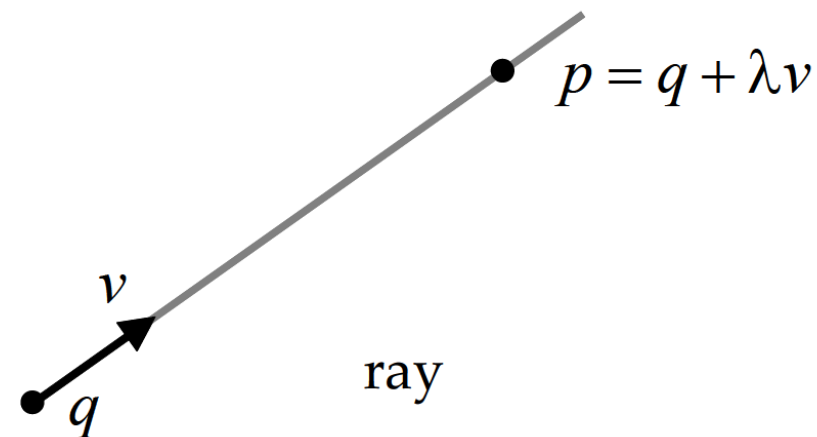
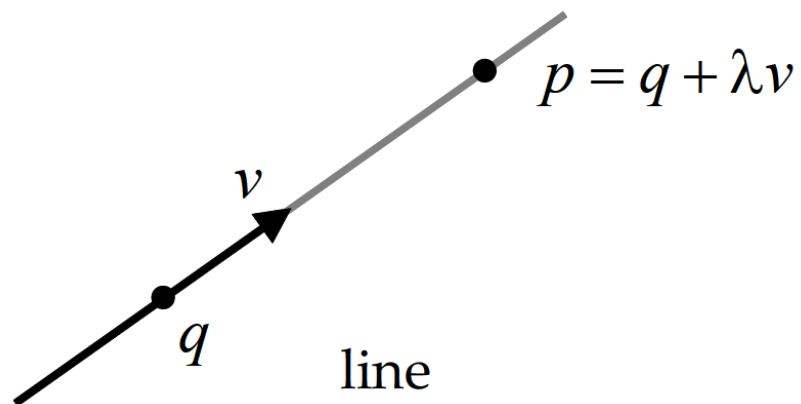


TRIANGULATION

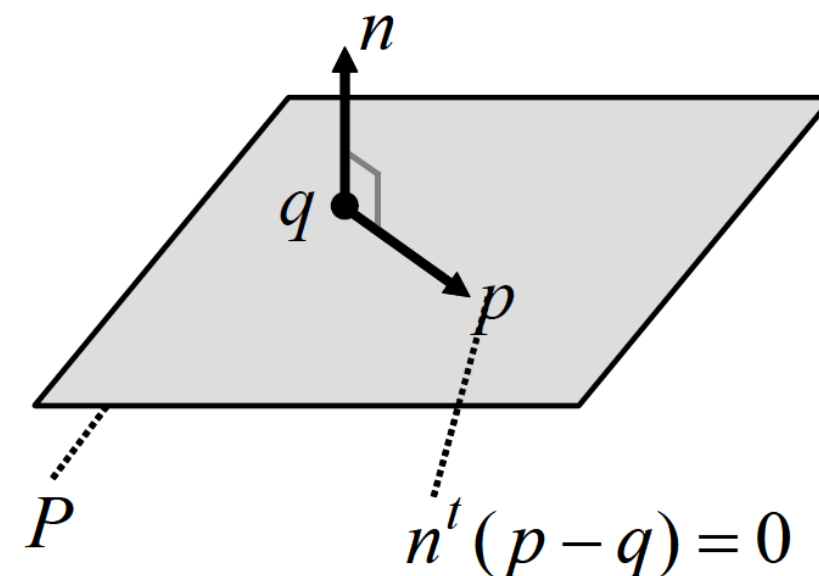
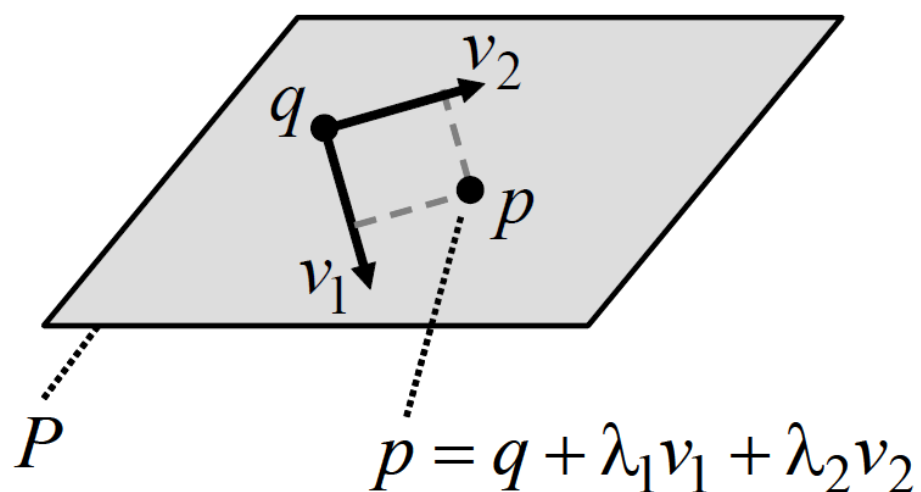
Mathematics of triangulation

[Douglas et al.,
SIGGRAPH 2009]

Parametric representation of lines and rays



Parametric and implicit representation of a plane



Mathematics of triangulation

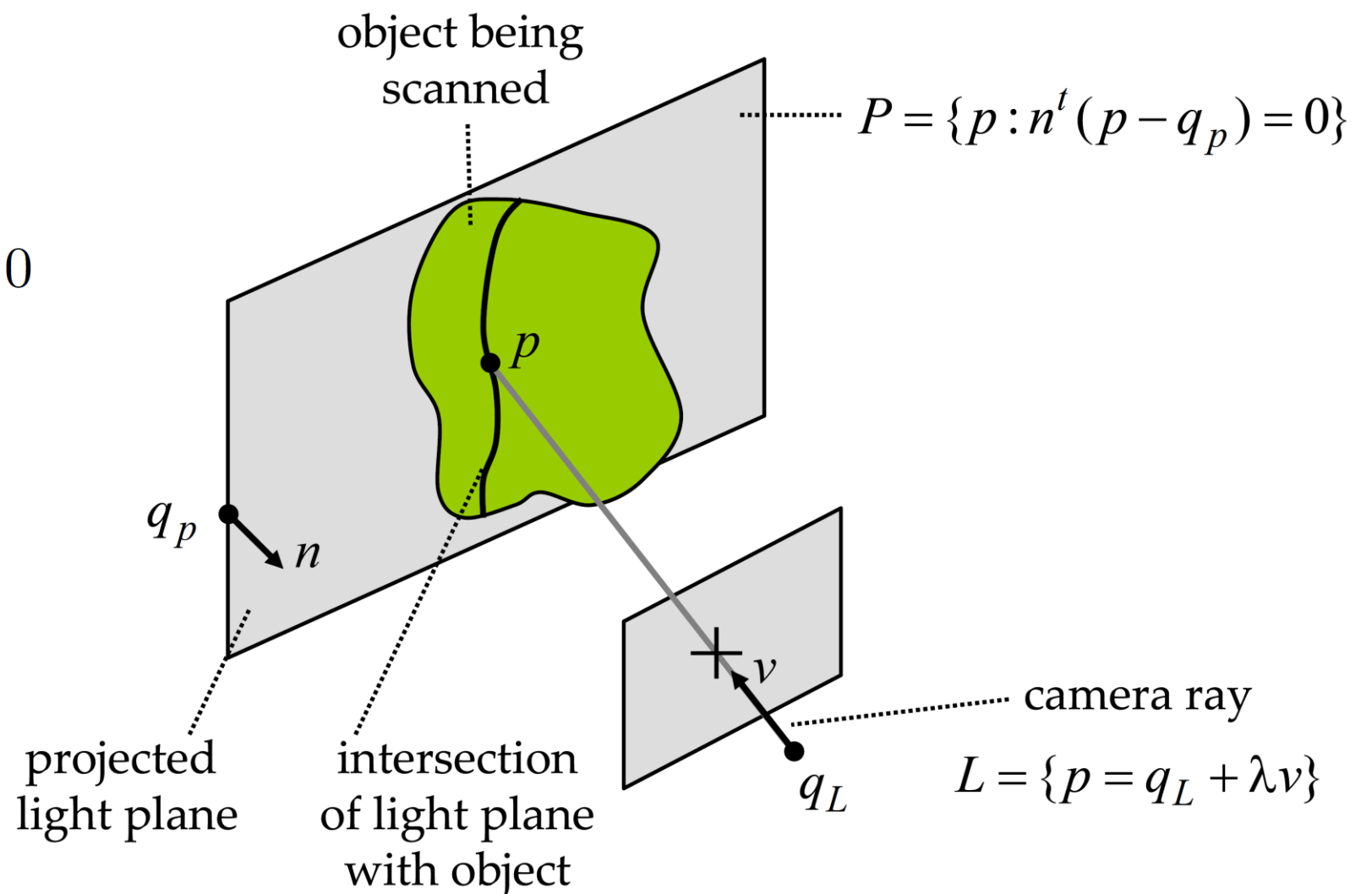
[Douglas et al.,
SIGGRAPH 2009]

Ray-plane intersection

$$n^t(p - q_p) = n^t(\lambda v + q_L - q_p) = 0$$



$$\lambda = \frac{n^t(q_p - q_L)}{n^t v}$$



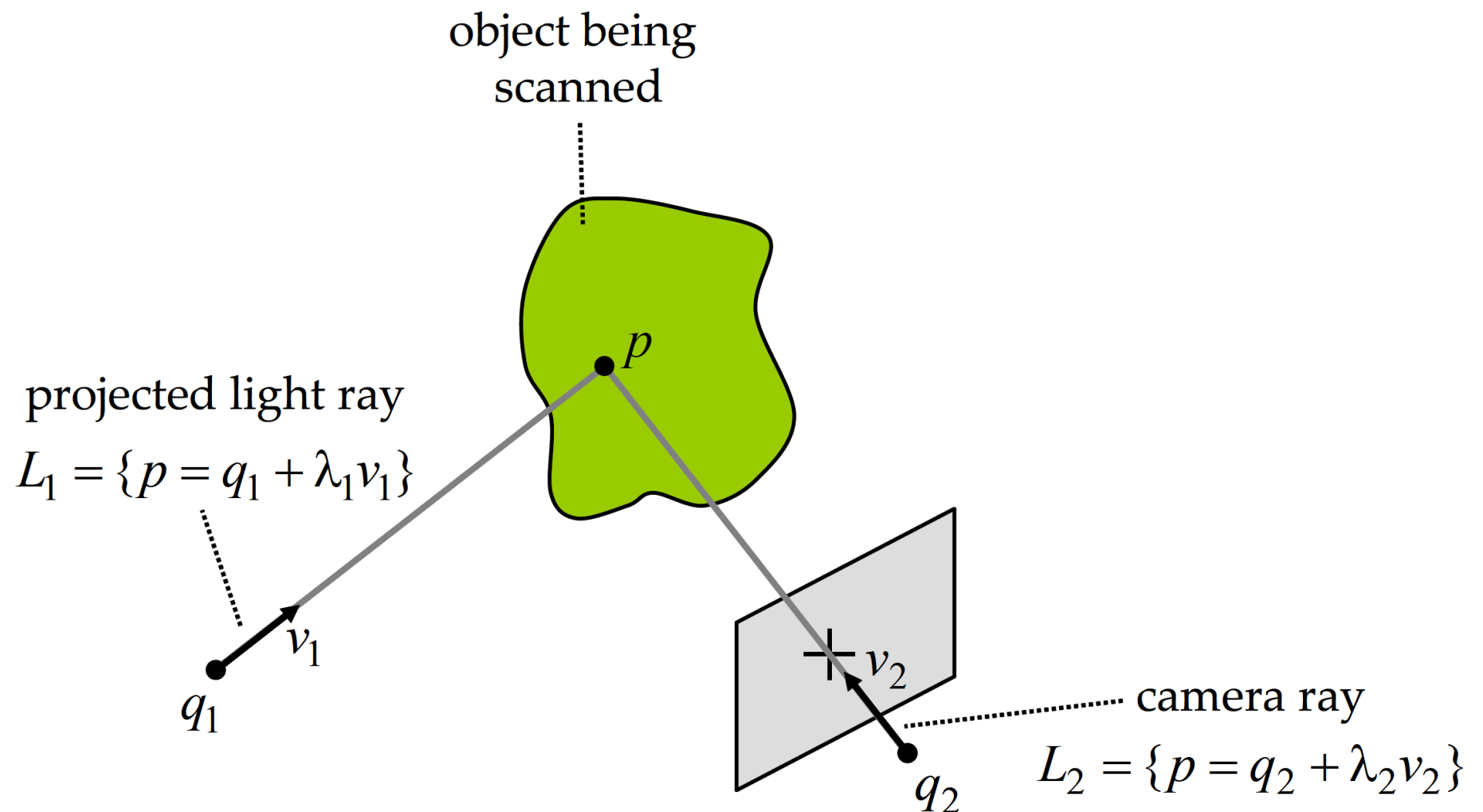
Mathematics of triangulation

[Douglas et al.,
SIGGRAPH 2009]

Ray-ray intersection

$$q_1 + \lambda_1 v_1 = q_2 + \lambda_2 v_2$$

Intersection that
minimizes the sum
of the squared
distance to both
the rays



$$\min_{\lambda_1, \lambda_2} \left\| (q_2 + \lambda_2 v_2)^2 - (q_1 + \lambda_1 v_1)^2 \right\|^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \|v_1\|^2 & -v_1^t v_2 \\ -v_2^t v_1 & \|v_2\|^2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} v_1^t (q_2 - q_1) \\ v_2^t (q_1 - q_2) \end{pmatrix}$$

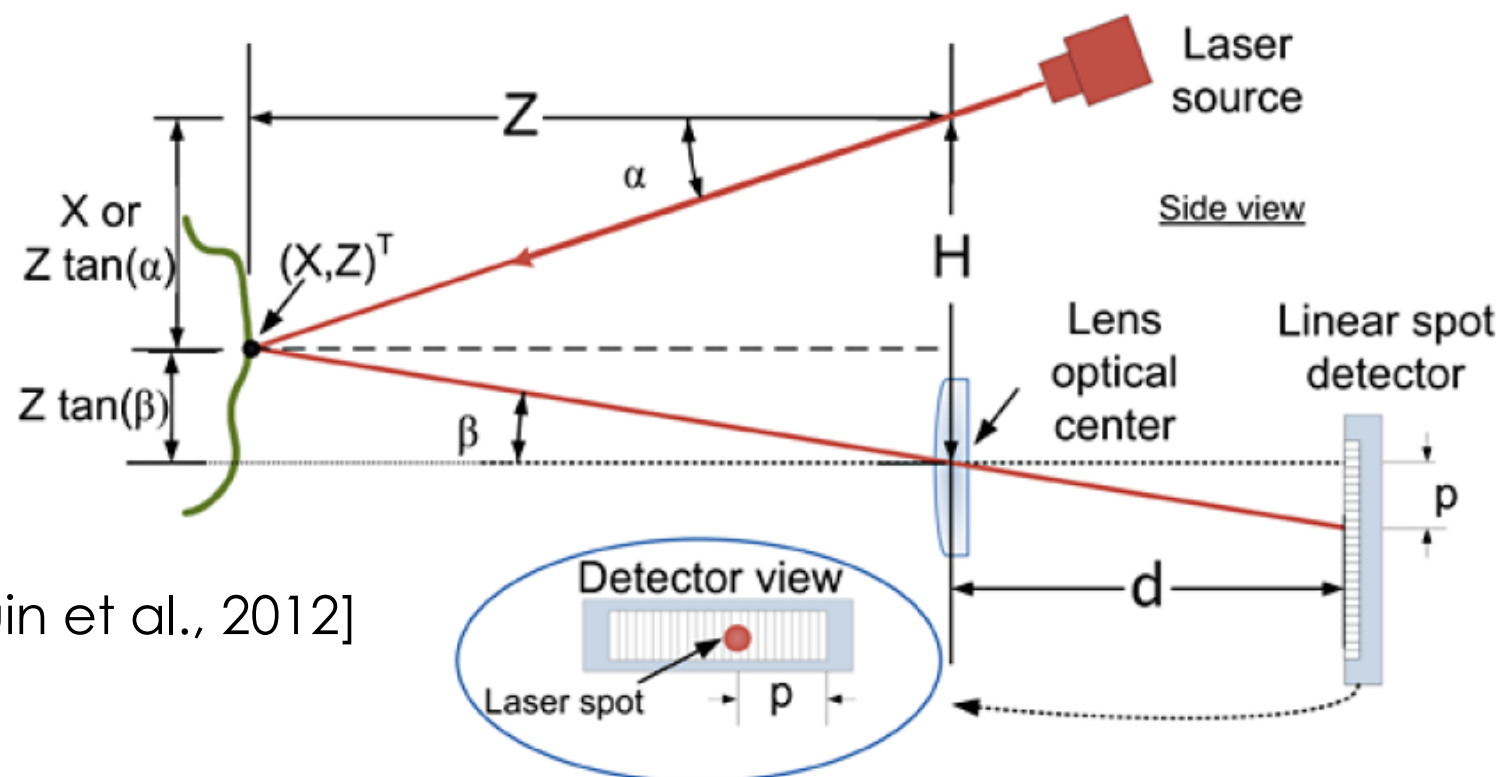
Spot Laser Triangulation

- Spot position location (find the most intensity pixel and compute the centroid using the neighbors)

$$p = i_M + \frac{\sum_{i=-N}^N I(i_M + i)i}{\sum_{i=-N}^N I(i_M + i)}.$$



- Triangulation using trigonometry



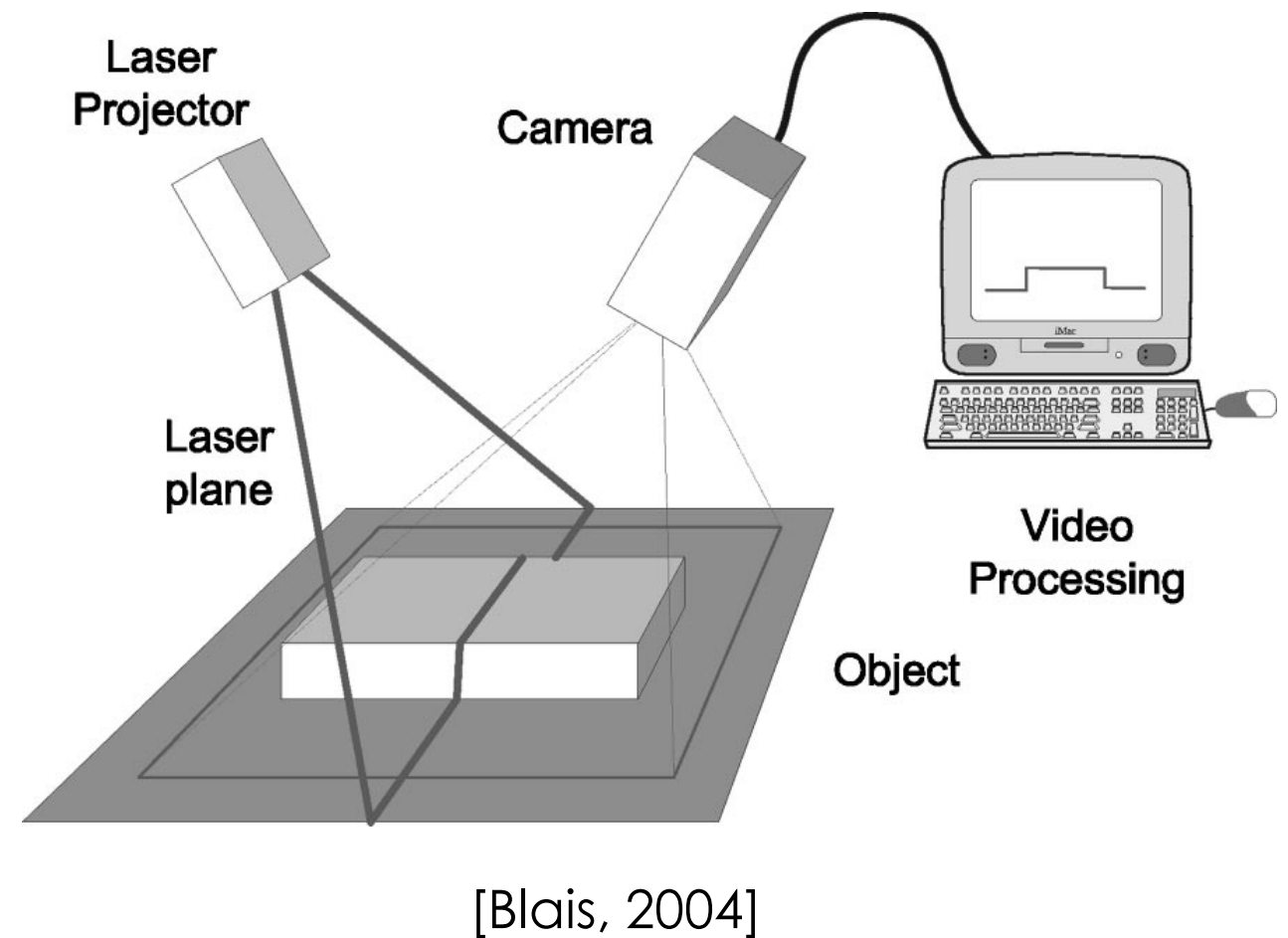
[Drouin et al., 2012]

$$Z = \frac{H}{\tan \alpha + \tan \beta}$$

$$X = Z \tan \alpha$$

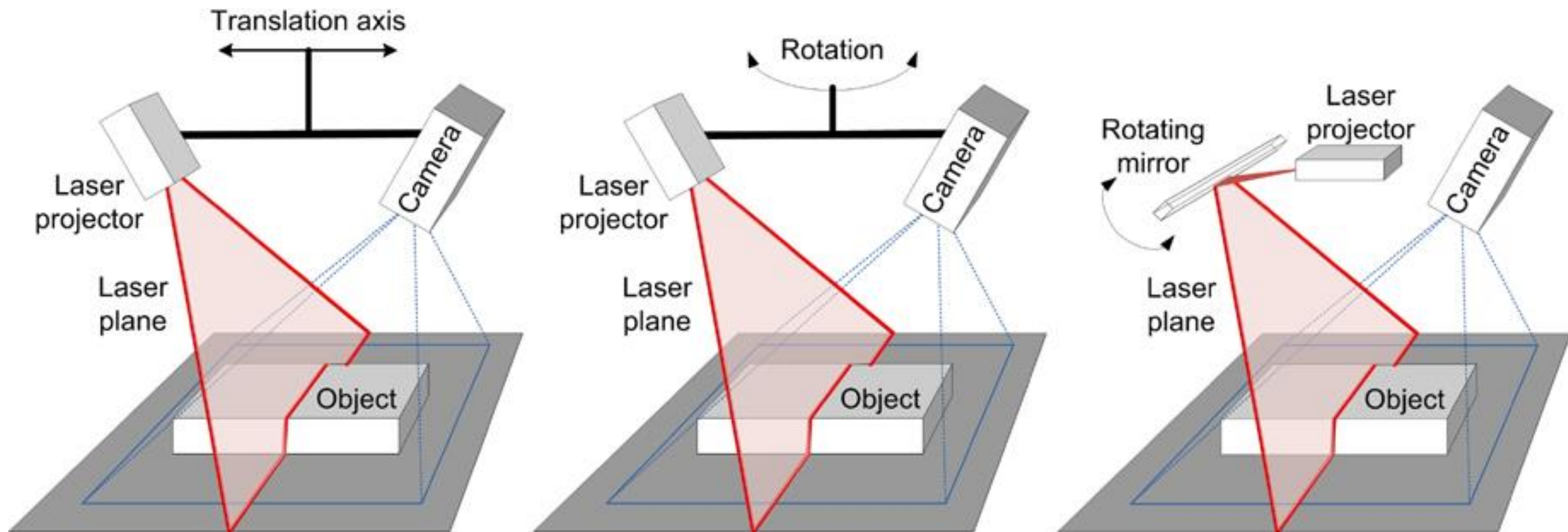
Laser Line Triangulation

- Laser projector and camera modelled as a pinhole camera
- Detection of the pixel in the laser line with computer vision algorithm (peak detection)
- Ray-plane triangulation



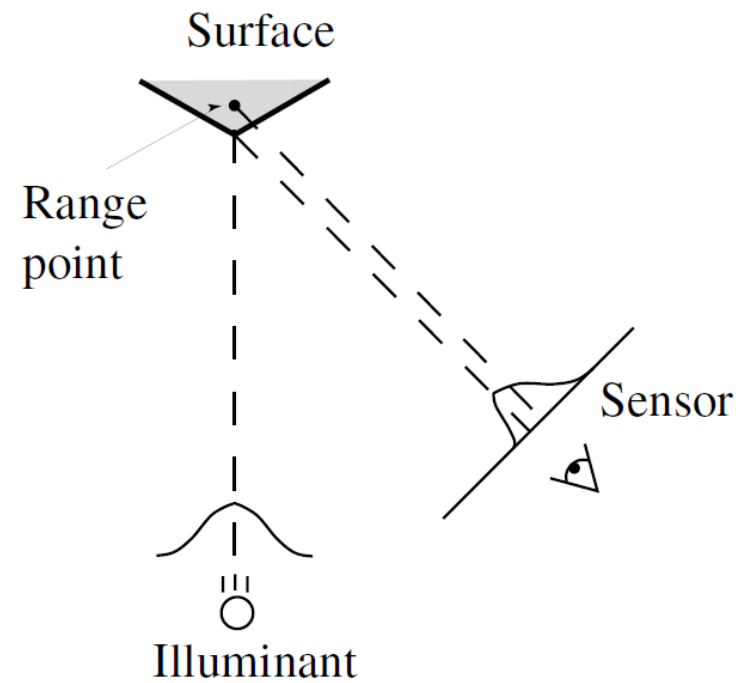
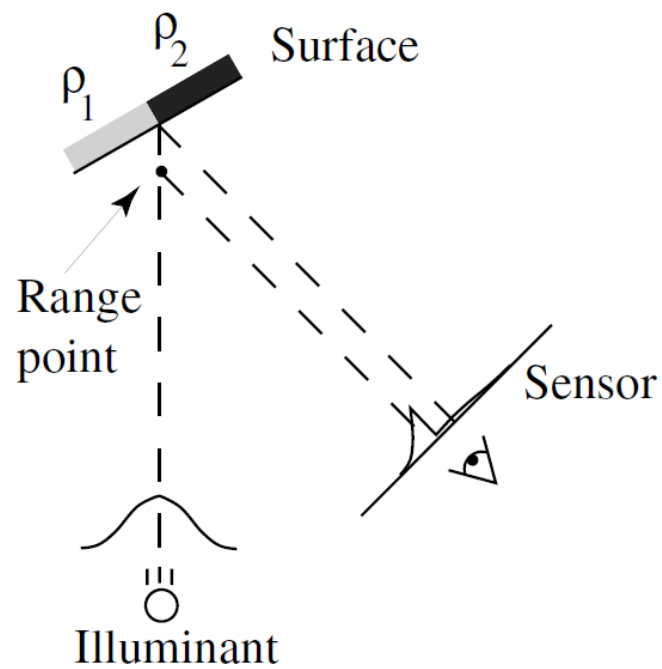
Laser Line Triangulation

- Rotate or translate the scanner or rotate the object using a turntable

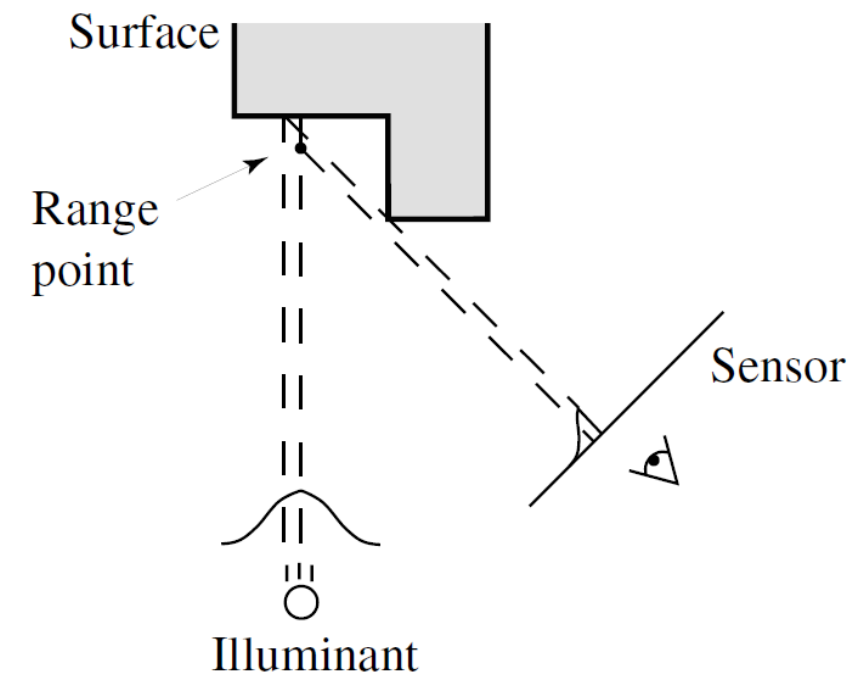
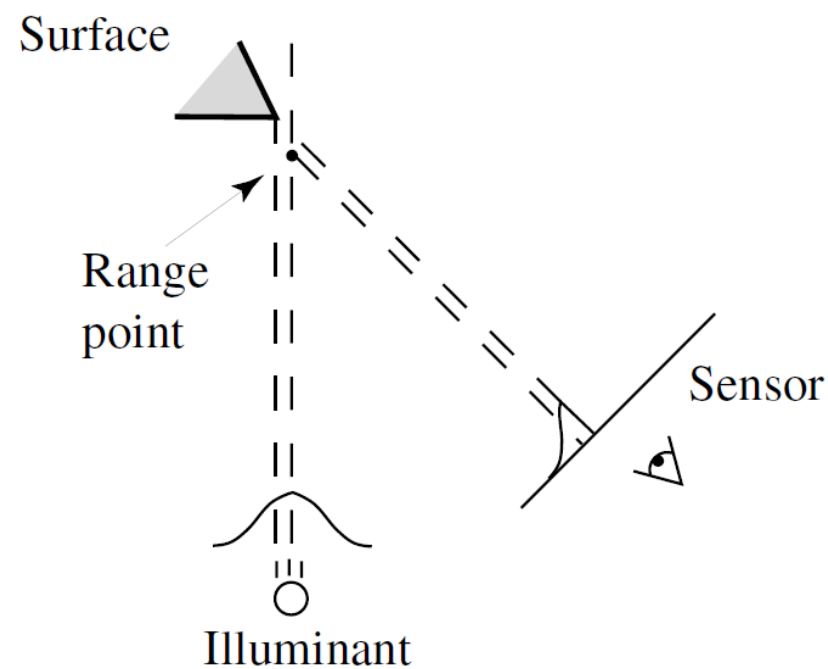


[Drouin et al., 2012]

Errors in Triangulation system

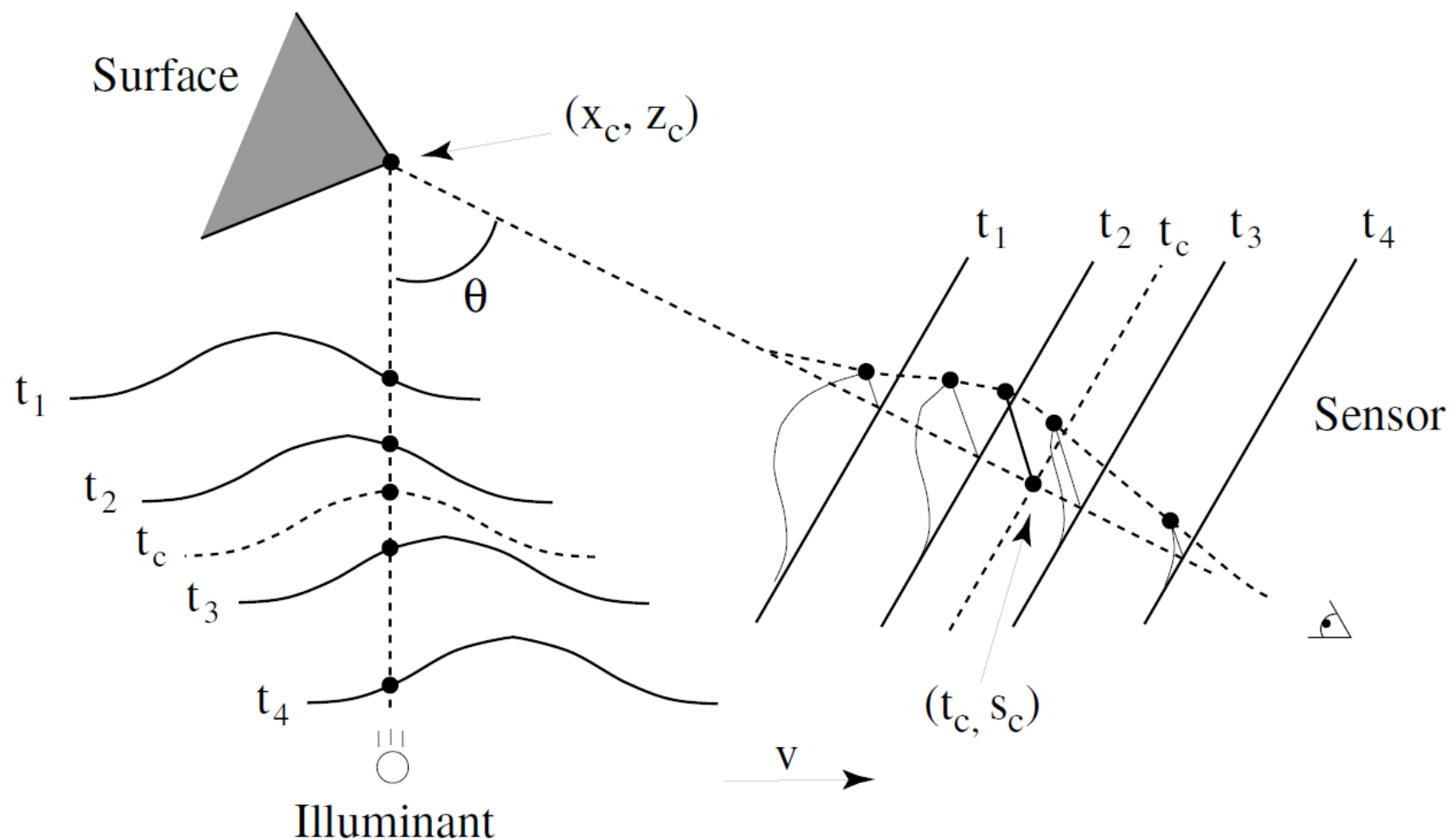


[Curless et al.,
ICCV 1995]



Errors in Triangulation system

- Solution: space-time analysis [Curless et al., ICCV 1995]



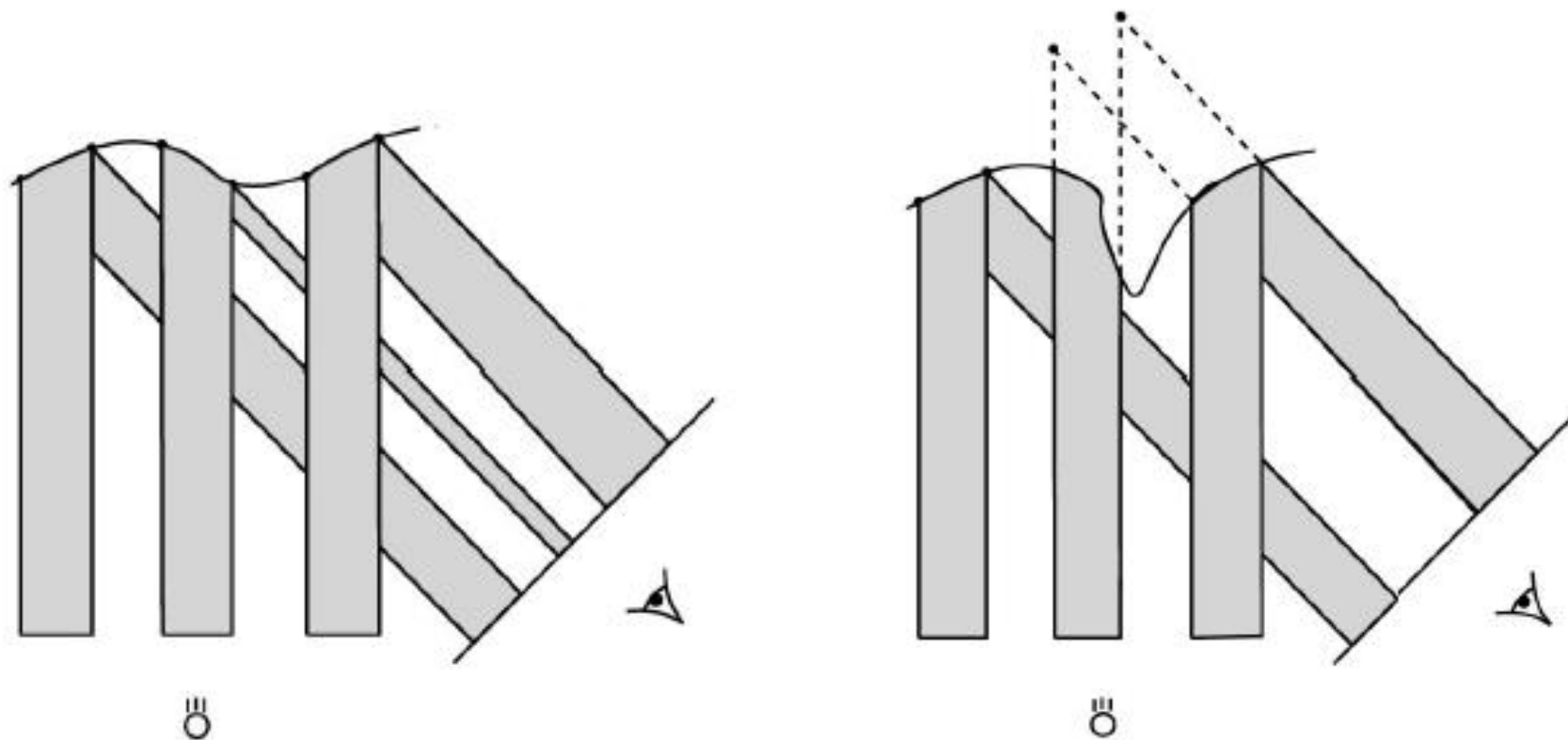
Structured light scanner

- Projection of light pattern using a digital projector and acquisition of its deformation with one or two cameras



Structured light scanner

- Simple design, no sweeping/translating devices needed
- Fast acquisition (a single image for each multi-stripe pattern)
- Ambiguity problem with a single pattern to identify which stripe light each pixel



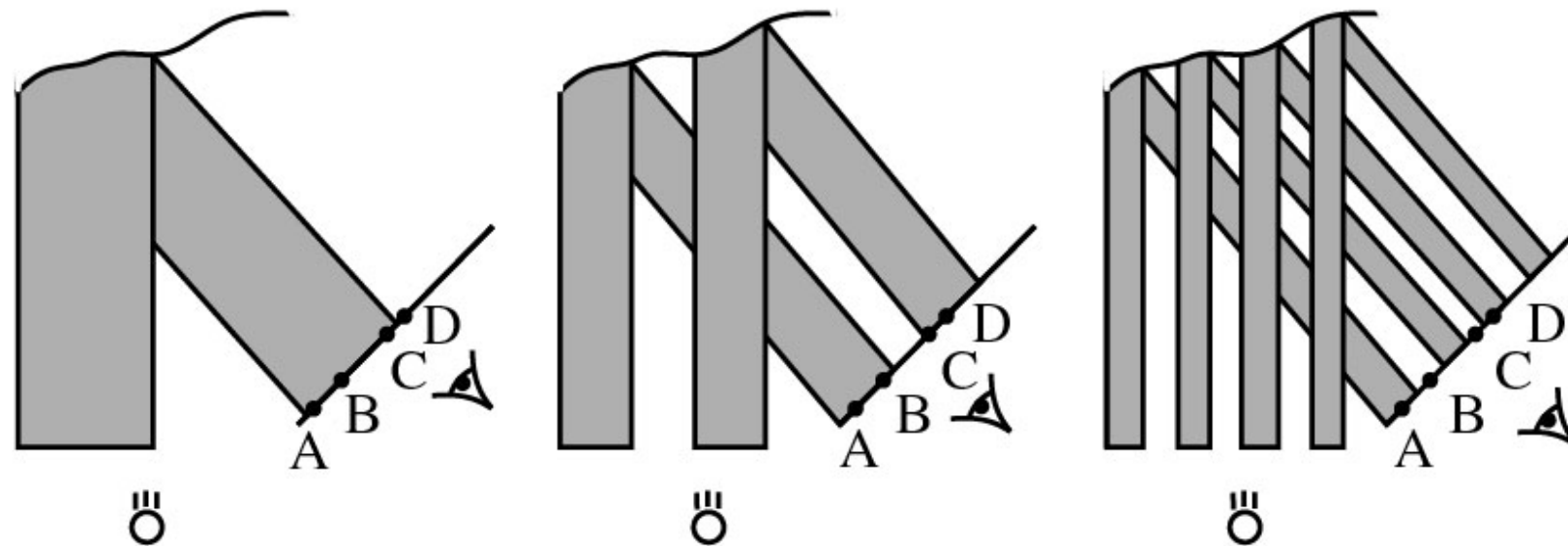
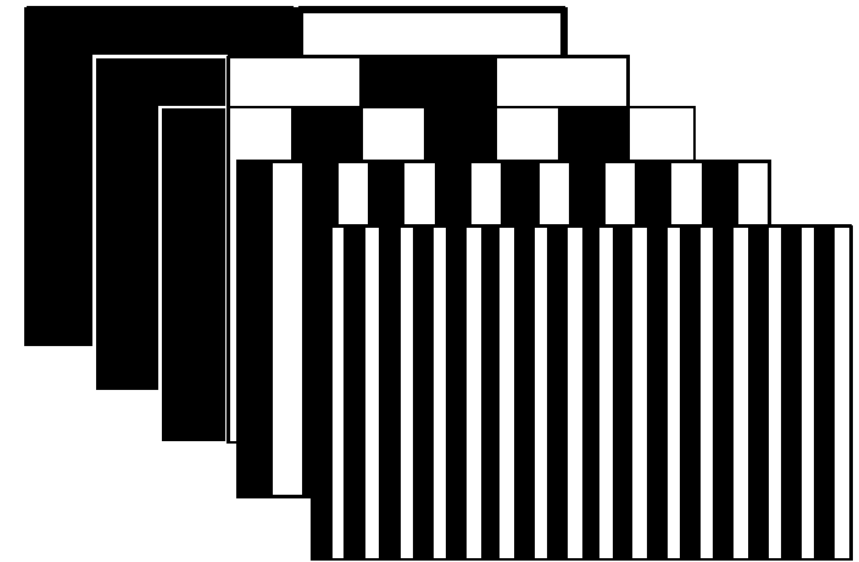
Structured light scanner

- How to solve the ambiguity?
- Many coding strategies that can be used to recover which camera pixel views the light from a given plane
 - Temporal coding – Multiple patterns in the time, matching using the time sequence of the image intensity, slower but more accurate
 - Spatial coding – A single pattern, the local neighborhood is used to perform the matching, more suitable for dynamic scene
 - Direct coding – A different code for every pixel

Temporal Coding

Binary Code

- Two illumination levels: 0 and 1
- Every point is identified by the sequence of intensities that it receives
- The resolution is limited to half the size of the finest pattern

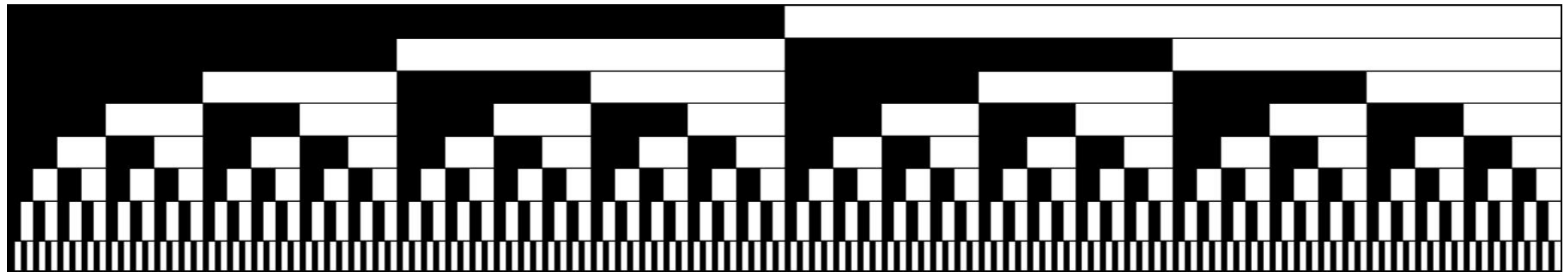


Binary codes:

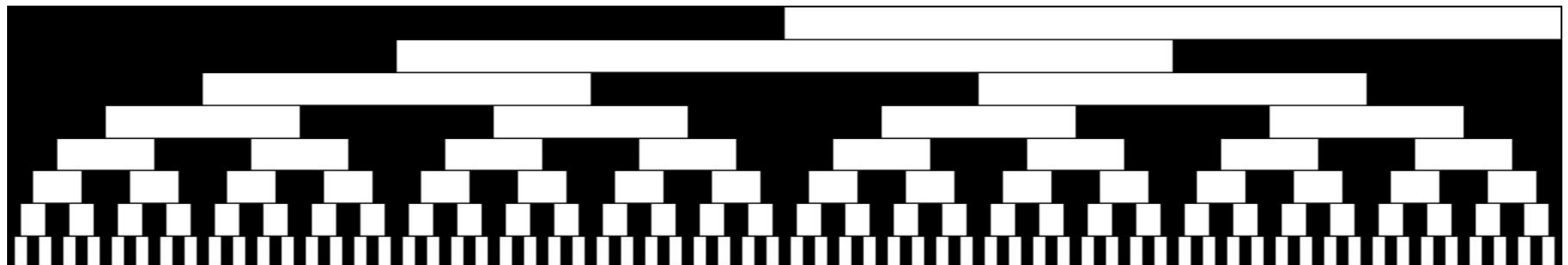
A = 1 1 1	C = 1 0 0
B = 1 1 0	D = 0 1 1

Temporal Coding

- Binary Code

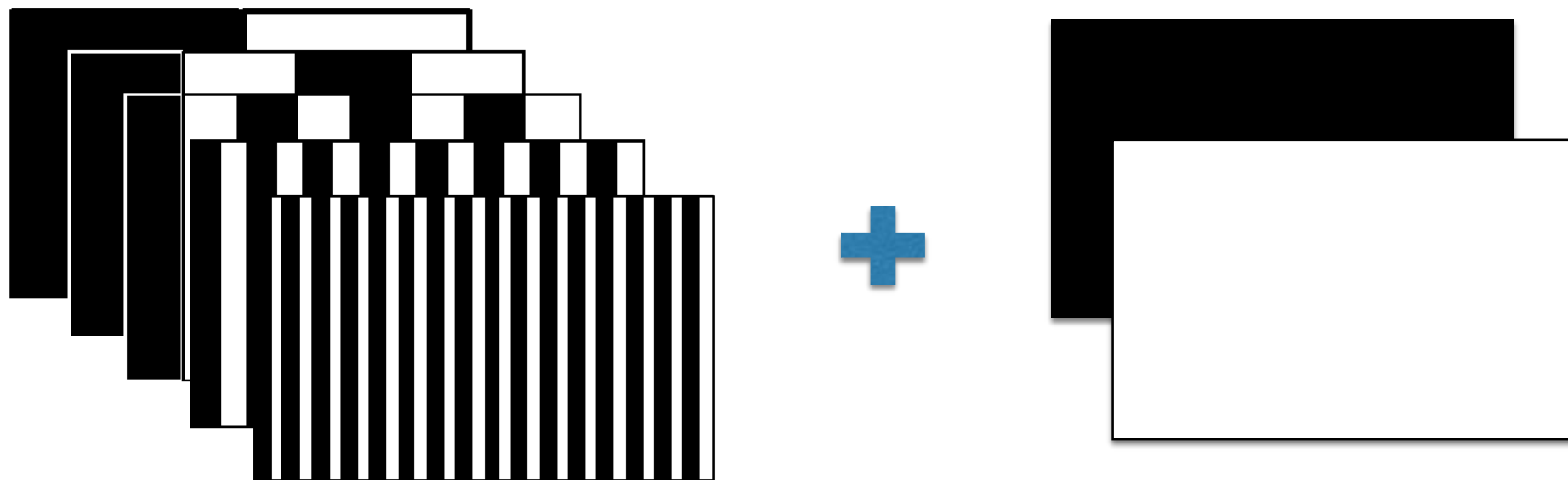


- Gray Code — Neighboring columns differ by one bit then more robust to decoding error



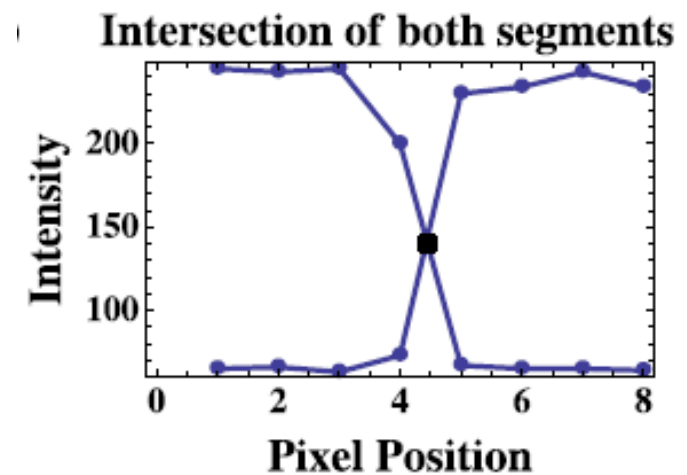
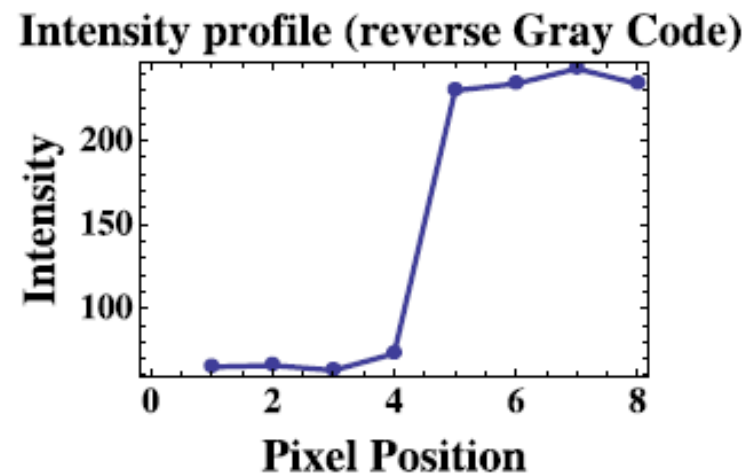
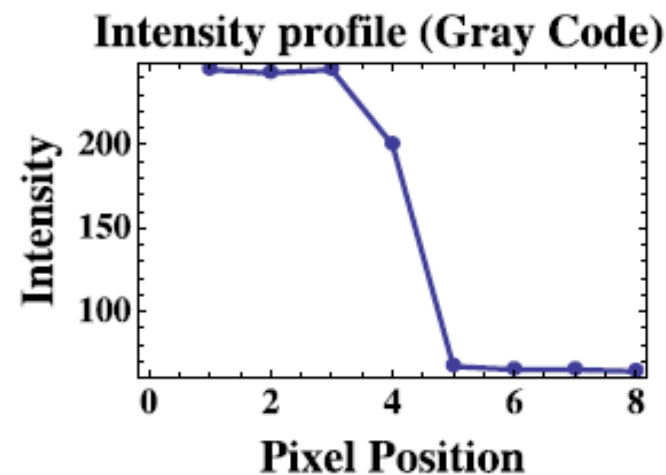
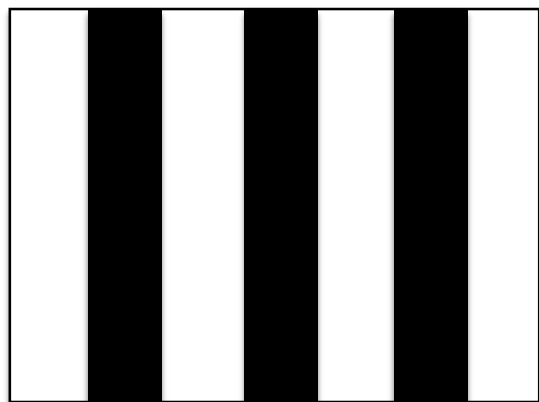
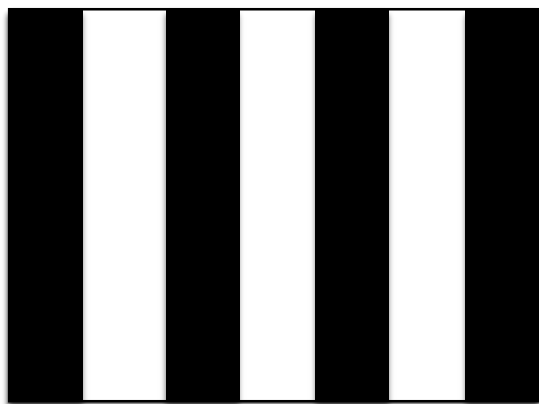
Temporal Coding

- Location of the stripes
 - Simple thresholding - Per-pixel threshold as average of two images acquired with all-white and all-black patterns
 - Pixel accuracy



Temporal Coding

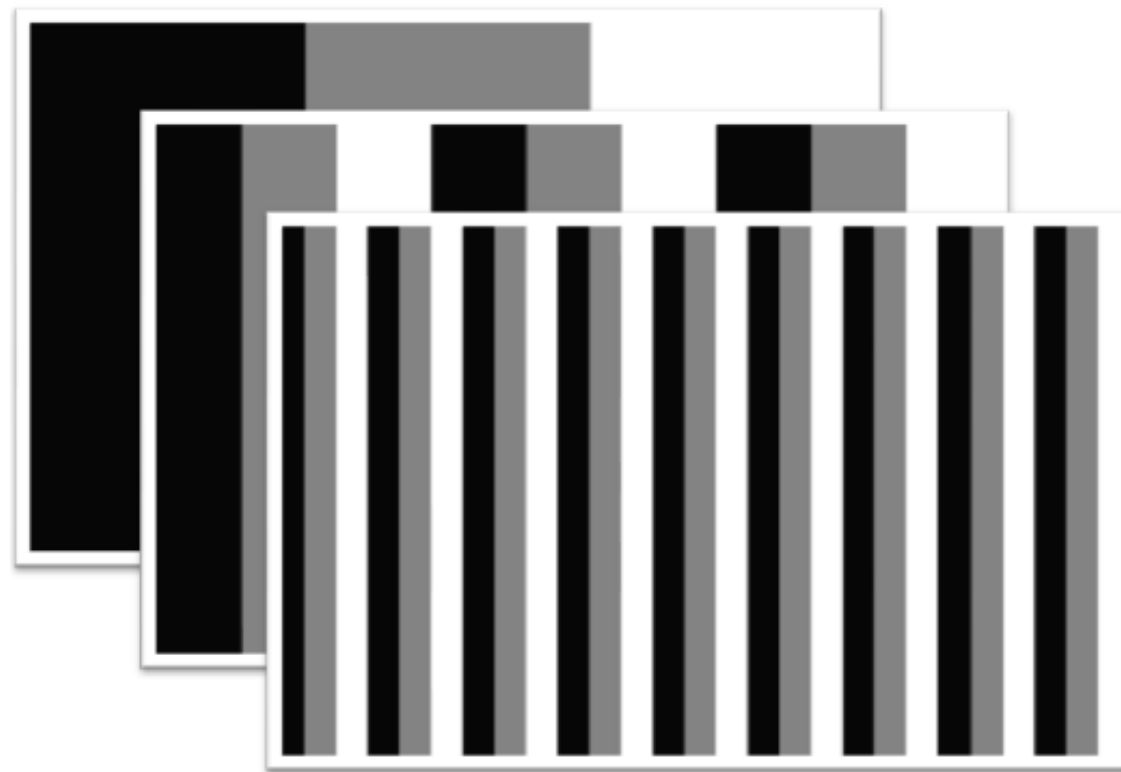
- Location of the stripes
 - Projection of Gray code and reserve Gray code and intersection of the relative intensity profile- Sub-pixel accuracy



[Drouin et al., 2012]

Temporal Coding

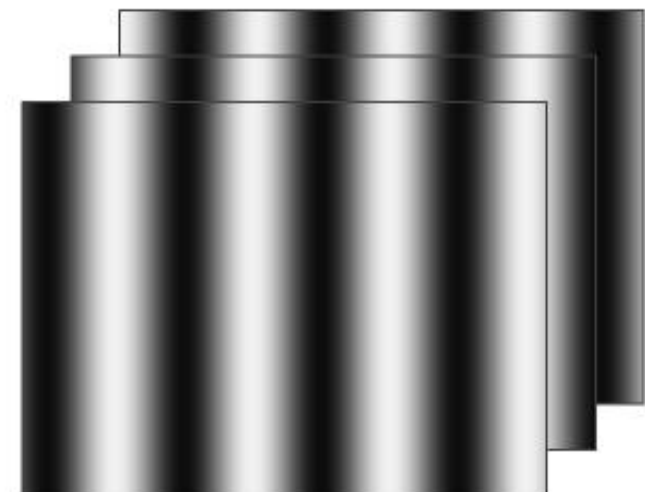
- N-ary code – Reduce the number of patterns by increasing the number of intensity levels used to encode the stripes.



Temporal Coding

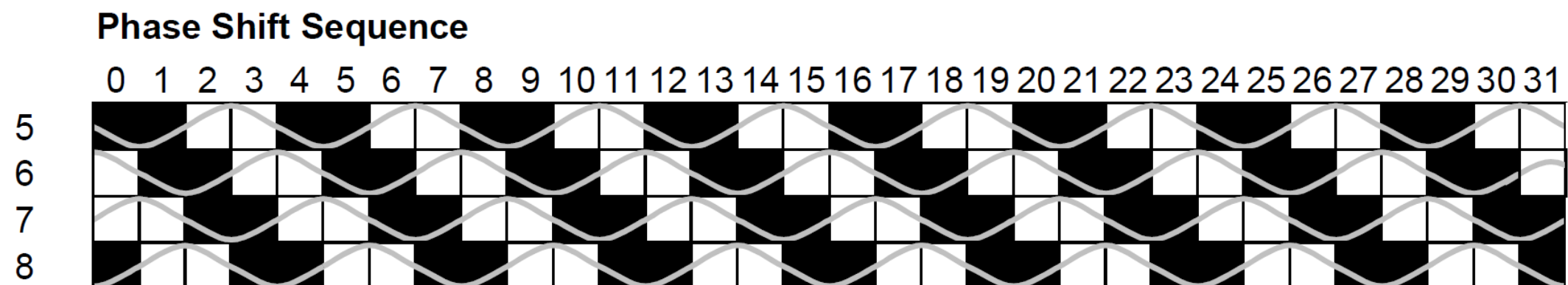
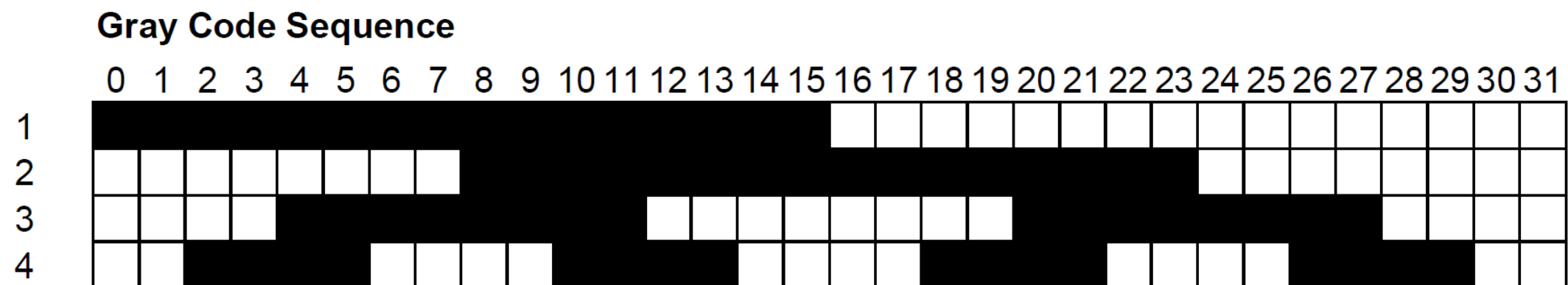
- Phase Shift
 - Projection of a set of sinusoidal pattern shifted of a constant angle
 - High resolution than Gray code
 - Ambiguity problem due the periodic nature of the pattern

$$I(x) = A + B \cos \left(\frac{2\pi}{\omega} (x \bmod \omega) - \theta \right)$$



Temporal Coding

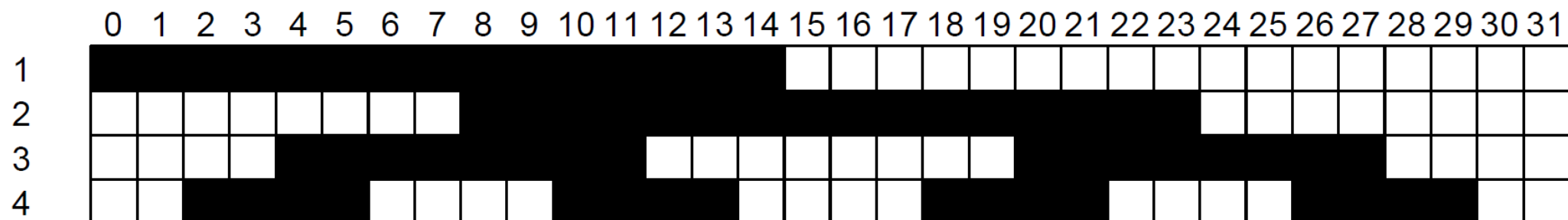
- Gray Code + Phase Shift [Gühring , 2000]
 - Corse correspondence projector-camera with Gray code to remove ambiguity
 - Refinement with phase shift
 - Problem with non-constant albedo surface



Temporal Coding

- Gray Code + Line Shift [Gühring , 2000]
- Substitution the sinusoidal pattern with a pattern of equally spaced vertical line

Gray Code Sequence



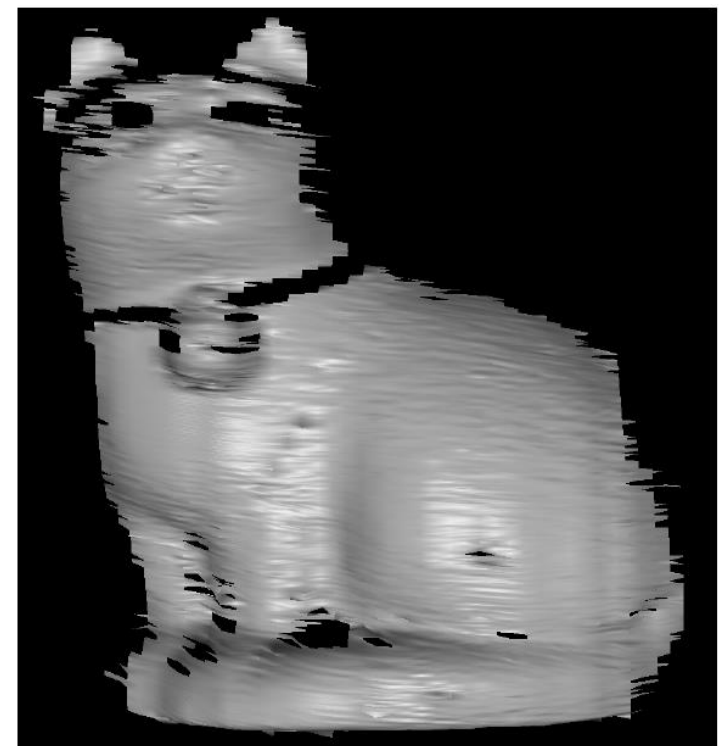
Line Shift Sequence (Pattern Length: 6 Lines)



Spatial Coding

- The label of a point of the pattern is obtained from a neighborhood around it.
- The decoding stage more difficult since the spatial neighborhood cannot always be recovered (fringe not visible from the camera due to occlusion)

[Zhang et al.,
3DPVT 2002]

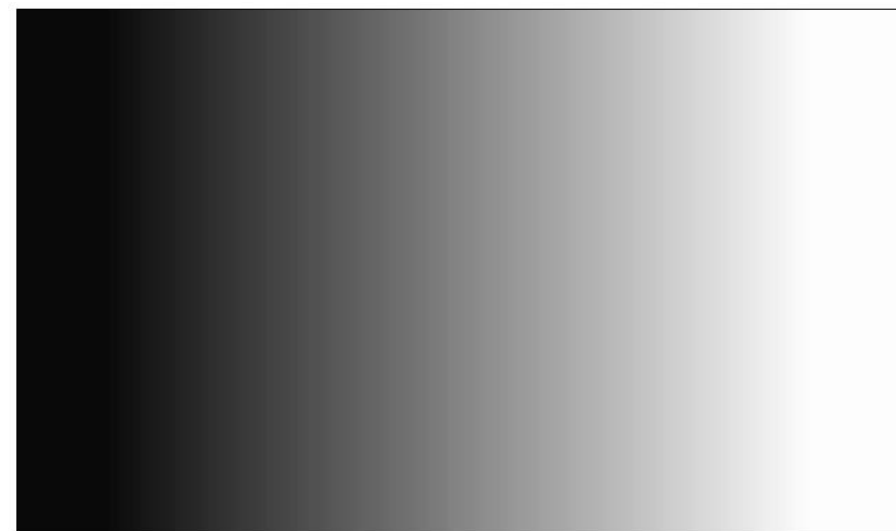


Direct Coding

- Every encoded pixel is identified by its own intensity/color
- The spectrum of intensities/colors used is very large
- Sensible to the reflective properties of the object, low accuracy, need accurate calibration



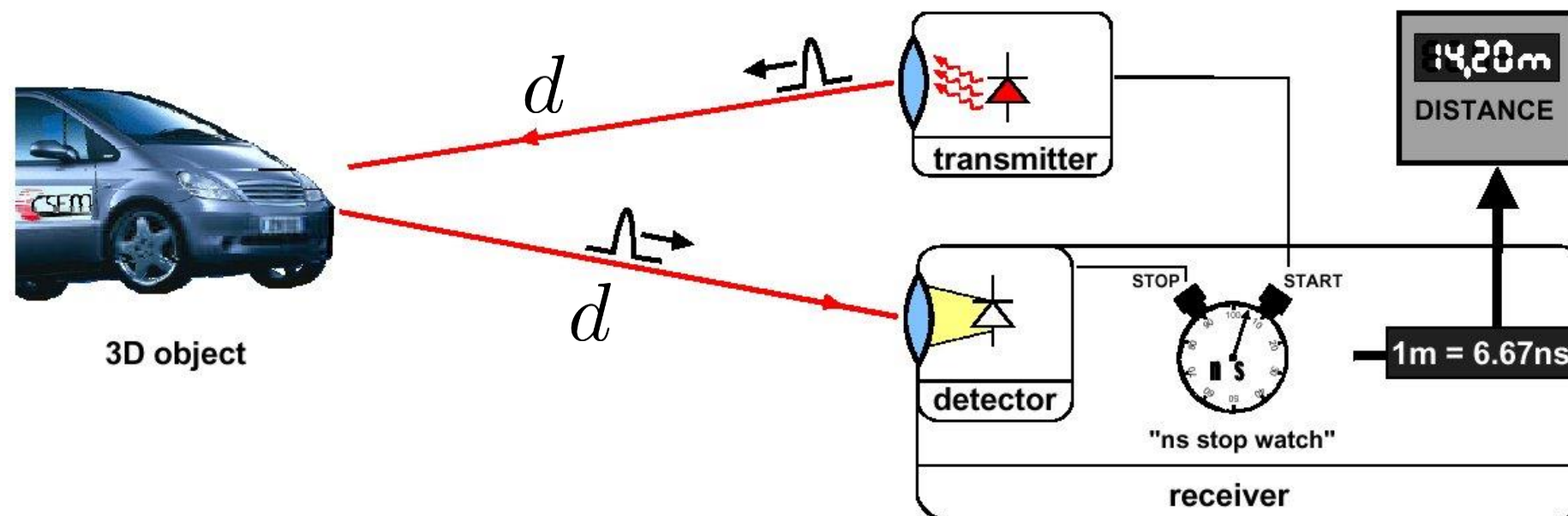
RAINBOW PATTERN



GREY LEVEL SCALE
PATTERN

Pulse-based Time of Flight Scanning

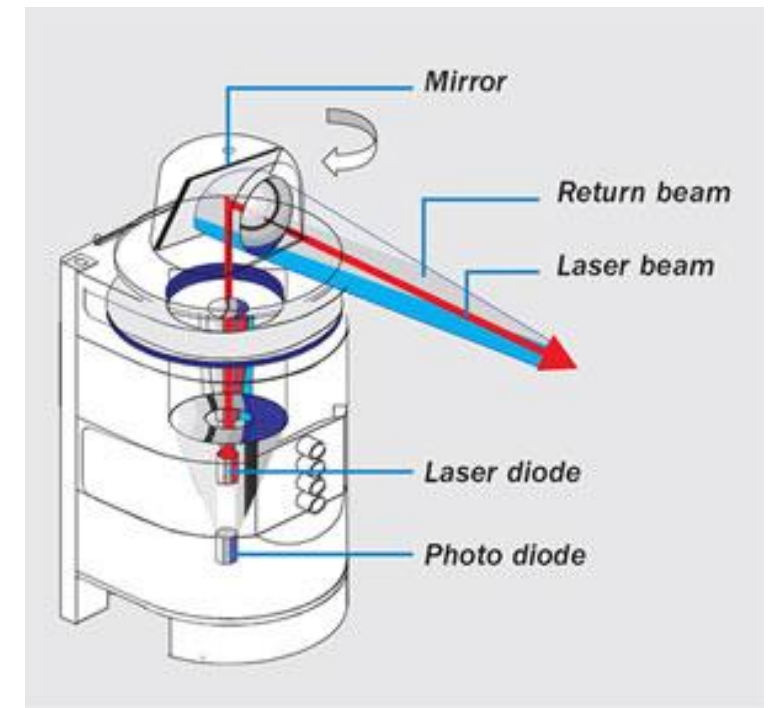
- Measure the time a light impulse needs to travel from emitter to target
 - Source: emits a light pulse and starts a nanosecond watch (1m = 6.67ns)
 - Sensor: detects the reflected light, stops the watch (roundtrip time)



$$d = c \frac{\Delta t}{2}$$

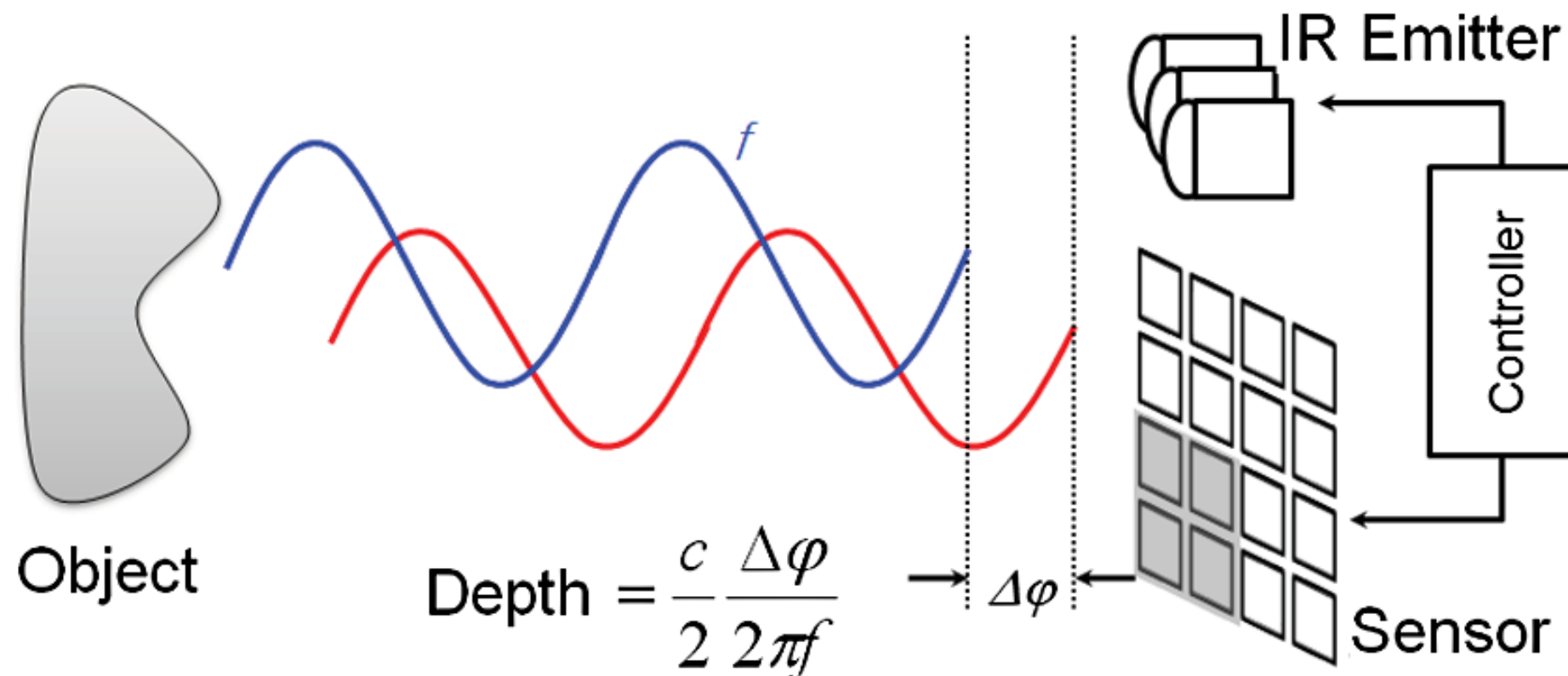
Pulse-based Time of Flight Scanning

- Scanning
 - Single spot measure
 - Range map obtained by rotating mirrors or motorized 2 DOF head
- Advantages
 - No triangulation, source and detector on the same axis (no shadow effect)



Phase-based Time of Flight Scanning

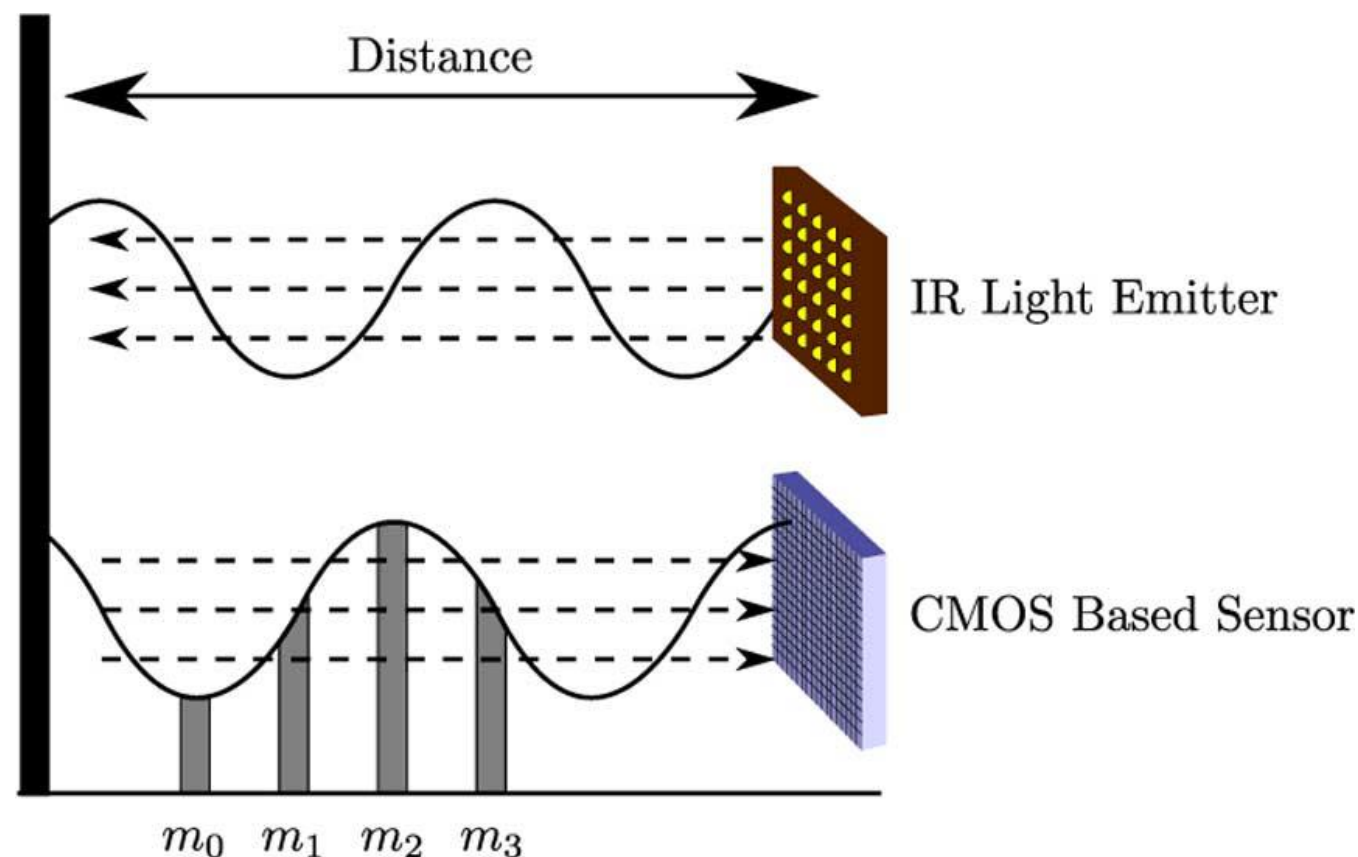
- A laser beam with sinusoidal modulated optical power is sent to a target. The phase of the reflected light is compared with that of the sent light



Phase-based Time of Flight Scanning

[Foix et al., 2011]

- Ambiguity of the phase shift. When $\Delta\phi = 2\pi$, the unambiguous distance measurement is limited to $c/(2f)$ (e.g. with frequency 16.66 MHz a maximum distance of 9m)



$$\Delta\phi = \arctan \frac{m_3 - m_1}{m_0 - m_2}$$

Time of Flight Scanning

In principle is an easy approach, but:

- maximum distance range limited by the amount of light received by the detector (power of the emitter, environment illumination)
- accuracy depends on : optical noise, thermal noise, ratio between reflected signal intensity and ambient light intensity
- Accurate and fast systems are still expensive (70K-100K Euro)
- Cost depends on mechanical components (high-quality rotation unit, to span the spherical space around the scanner)

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