

3D Sensors



(Source: <https://www.google.com/selfdrivingcar/>)

Slide credit to Radu Horaud, <http://perception.inrialpes.fr>

3D Sensors

Overview

Basic principle: Measure depth based

1. on illuminating the scene with a controlled light source, *and*
2. then measuring the backscattered light.

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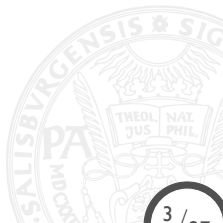
Two classes of sensors:

1. *Time of Flight (ToF) sensors:* Measure *depth* by estimating the time delay from light emission to light detection.
2. *Projected-light sensors:* Combine the projection of a light pattern with a standard 2D camera and measure depth via triangulation.

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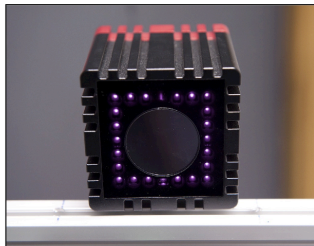
Examples – Types of ToF sensors

1. **Point-wise ToF sensors:** mounted on a two-dimensional pan-tilt scanning mechanism, also referred to as Light Detection and Ranging (LIDAR).
2. **Matricial ToF sensors:** estimate depth in a “single shot” using a matrix of ToF sensors (in practice, they use CMOS or CCD image sensors coupled with a lens system).



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Examples – Matricial ToF sensors

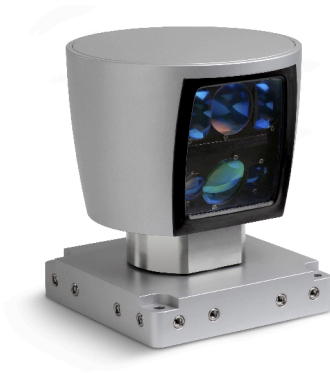


SR4000 (Swiss Ranger)

(Source: <http://www.hizook.com>, <http://www.mesa-imaging.ch>)

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Examples – Point-wise ToF sensors



Velodyne HDL-64E & HDL-32E

(Source: <http://velodynelidar.com/lidar/lidar.aspx>)

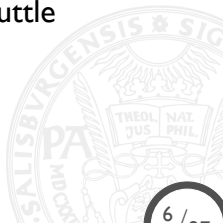


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Examples – Point-wise ToF sensors (Velodyne usage)



BAIDU self-driving car, NAVYA driverless shuttle
(Source: <http://velodynelidar.com>)



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Examples – 3D Flash LIDAR cameras (direct ToF)



TigerEye 3D

(Source: <http://www.advancedscientificconcepts.com/products/tigereye.html>)

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Examples – Projected light sensors



Microsoft Kinect

(Source: <https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kinect>)

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Examples – Projected light sensors

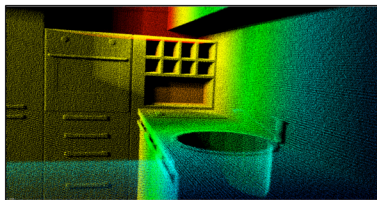


Asus Xtion Pro Live

(Source: <http://vr-zone.com>)



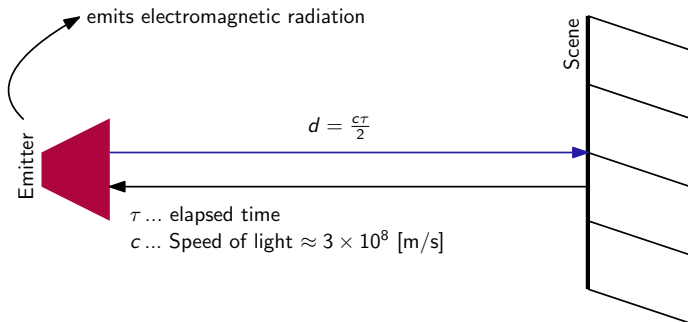
Time-of-Flight (ToF) Principles



Simulated ToF image, using “Blensor” <http://blensor.org>

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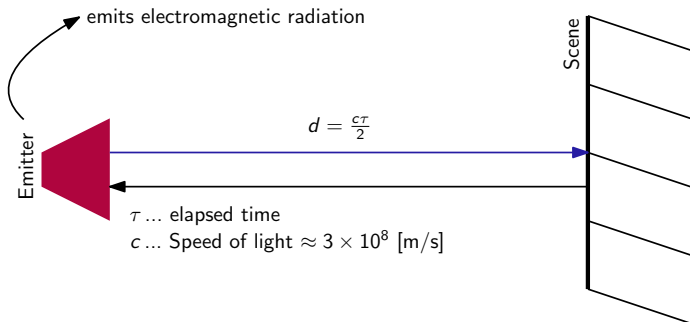
ToF principles



What is the challenge?

3D Sensors

ToF principles



What is the challenge?

It takes ≈ 3.3 [ps] to cover a 1 [mm] path. For such a resolution, we would need a clock, capable of measuring 3.3 [ps] time steps!

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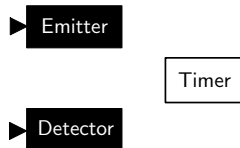
ToF principles

Working principle: measure the absolute time that a light pulse needs to travel from a target object to a detector.

Pulsed modulation: measure the ToF directly



Source: <http://graphics.stanford.edu>

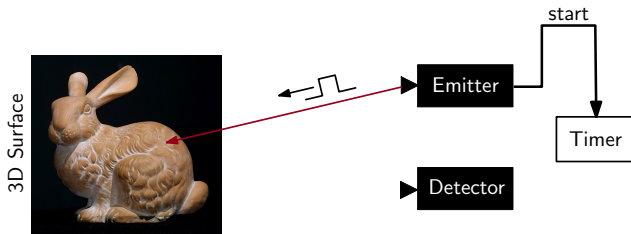


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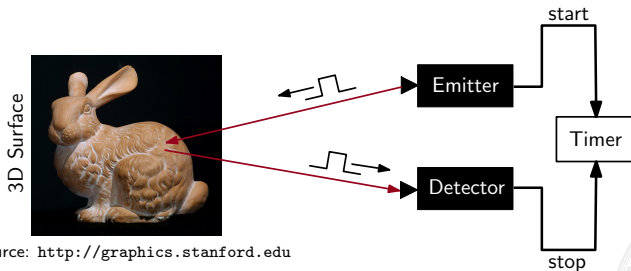
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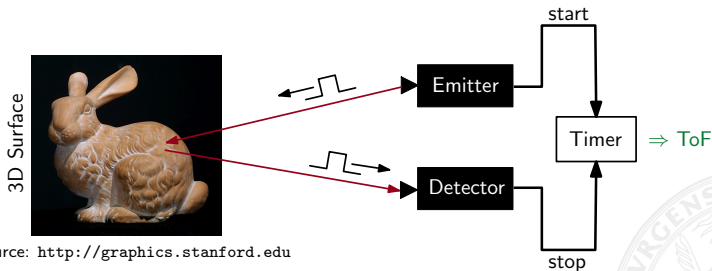
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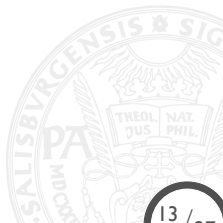
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ToF principles (Pulsed-modulation)

Advantages:

- High energy light pulses
⇒ less influence of background illumination
- Illumination and observation directions are collinear



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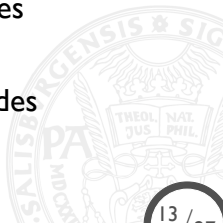
ToF principles (Pulsed-modulation)

Advantages:

- High energy light pulses
⇒ less influence of background illumination
- Illumination and observation directions are collinear

Disadvantages:

- Arrival time must be measured very precisely
- Needs very short light pulses with fast rise/fall times
- High optical power
- Typically, these ToF sensors use lasers or laser diodes



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ToF principles (CW-modulation)

Today, we focus on **continuous wave (CW) modulation**:

- uses continuous light waves
- detected wave after reflection has *shifted phase*
- *phase shift is proportional to distance* from reflected surface

3D Surface



e.g., 20 Mhz



Emitter



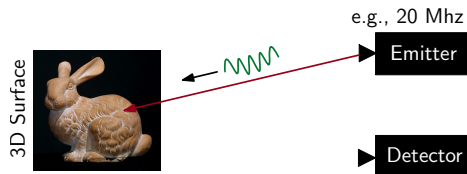
Detector

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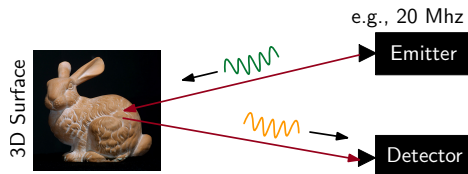


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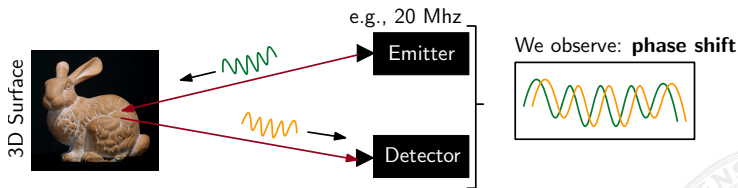


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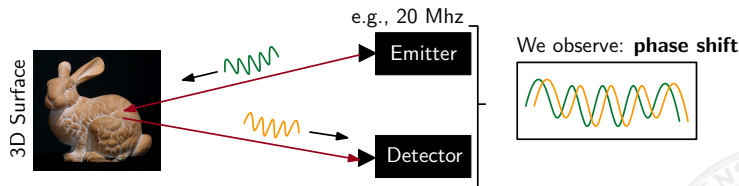


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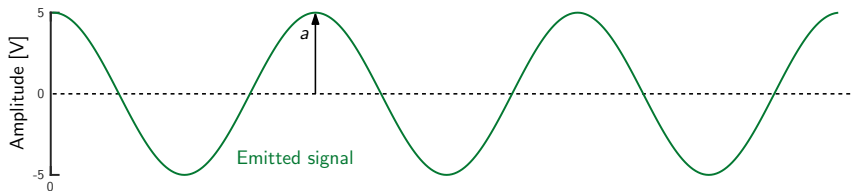
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A way to recover the phase shift is by cross-correlation between the emitted and received signal!

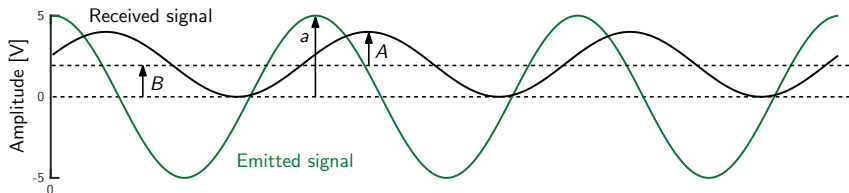
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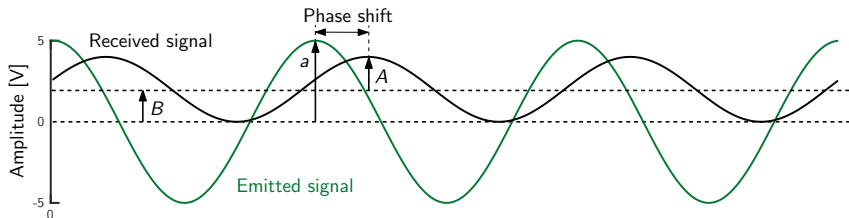
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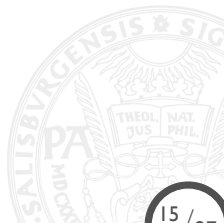


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ToF principles (CW-modulation)



In this illustration, $A = 2$, $a = 5$ and bias $B = 2$.



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ToF principles (CW-modulation)

Phase shift recovery through cross-correlation: We know that the relationship between distance d , light speed c and ToF τ is

$$d = \frac{1}{2}c\tau$$

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Assuming a constant bias B and a cosine signal with modulation frequency f and amplitude a , the emitted $s(t)$ and received $r(t)$ signals are given as

$$s(t) = a \cos(2\pi ft) \quad \text{and} \quad r(t) = A \cos(2\pi f(t - \tau)) + B$$

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B is an **offset**, due to ambient illumination!

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Using cross-correlation between the emitted and received signal, we can recover the phase.

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Let's look at the following integral first:

$$C(x) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} r(t)s(t+x)dt$$

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The solution to this integral is (the correlation function)

$$C(x) = \frac{aA}{2} \cos(\underbrace{2\pi f\tau}_{\phi} + 2\pi fx) + B$$

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ToF principles (4-bucket algorithm)

We can now evaluate $C(x)$ at four selected phases (aka **4-bucket algorithm**), i.e.,

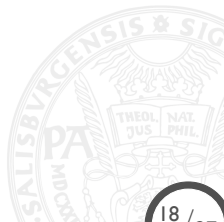
$$2\pi f x_0 = 0^\circ$$

$$2\pi f x_1 = 90^\circ$$

$$2\pi f x_2 = 180^\circ$$

$$2\pi f x_3 = 270^\circ$$

to recover the **three unknowns** A , B and τ .



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ToF principles

Using standard trigonometric relationships, we obtain

$$\phi = 2\pi f\tau = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{C(x_3) - C(x_1)}{C(x_0) - C(x_2)} \right)$$

$$A = \frac{1}{2a} \sqrt{(C(x_3) - C(x_1))^2 + (C(x_0) - C(x_2))^2}$$

$$B = 0.25 \sum_i C(x_i)$$



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ToF principles (phase wrapping)

Can you think of any problems related to that approach?



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We can easily compute the depth d from the recovered phase as

$$d = \frac{1}{2} \tau c = \frac{1}{2} c \frac{\phi}{2\pi f} = \frac{c}{2f} \frac{\phi}{2\pi}$$

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This *ambiguity* is referred to as **phase wrapping**!

$$d = \left(\frac{\phi}{2\pi} + n \right) d_{\max}, \quad \text{with } n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Here, n denotes the number of wrappings.

Example: for $f = 30$ [Mhz], the unambiguous range is 0-5 [m].

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ToF principles (phase wrapping)

The **CCD** sensor plays several roles:

1. The incoming photons are converted to electron charges
2. Clocking
3. Signal processing (i.e., demodulation)

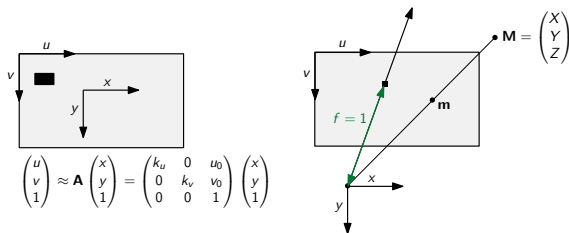
After the demodulation, the signal $C(\psi)$, i.e.,

$$C(\psi) = \frac{aA}{2} \cos(2\pi f\tau + \underbrace{2\pi fx}_{\psi}) + B$$

is integrated at four equally-spaced intervals within one modulation period.

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ToF principles – From depth to Euclidean coordinates

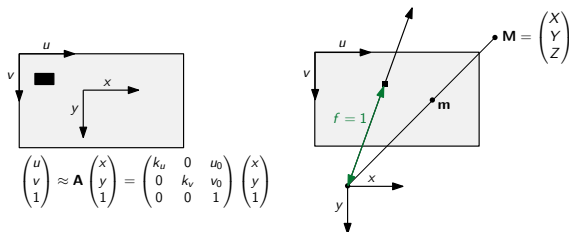


The ToF camera measures the depth d from the 3D point \mathbf{M} to the optical center, hence

$$d = \|\mathbf{M}\|$$

3D Sensors

ToF principles – From depth to Euclidean coordinates



The ToF camera measures the depth d from the 3D point \mathbf{M} to the optical center, hence

$$d = \|\mathbf{M}\|$$

We also know (from similar triangles) that

$$\begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \end{pmatrix} = Z \begin{pmatrix} X/Z \\ Y/Z \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = Z \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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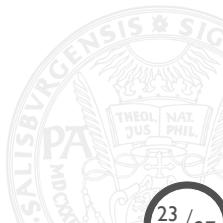
From depth to Euclidean coordinates

Now, the point \mathbf{m} has (u, v) -coordinates

$$\mathbf{p} = [u \ v \ 1]^\top$$

and (x, y) coordinates

$$\mathbf{m} = [x \ y \ 1]^\top \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{m} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{p} \ .$$



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Next, we have $Z = \|\mathbf{M}\| / \|\mathbf{m}\|$ and consequently

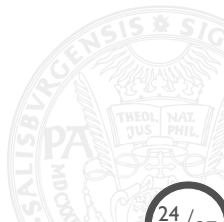
$$\begin{pmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \end{pmatrix} = Z \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\|\mathbf{M}\|}{\|\mathbf{m}\|} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{d}{\|\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{p}\|} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Distortions

We observe **distortions** due to ...

- Phase warping (already covered)
⇒ leads to ambiguities in distance measurements!

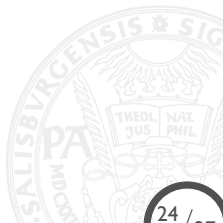


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We observe **distortions** due to ...

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- Non-ideal sinusoid generation & non-instantaneous sampling
⇒ leads to harmonic distortion in the estimated phase shift!

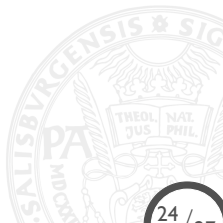


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- Photon-shot noise
⇒ affects the precision of distance measurements

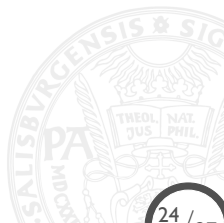


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- Non-ideal sinusoid generation & non-instantaneous sampling
 - ⇒ leads to harmonic distortion in the estimated phase shift!
- Photon-shot noise
 - ⇒ affects the precision of distance measurements
- Saturation & Motion blur



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Distortions – More details on photon-shot noise

Interestingly, the noise which affects the distance measurement can be approximated by a Gaussian with variance

$$\sigma_d = \frac{c}{4\pi f \sqrt{2}} \frac{\sqrt{B}}{A}$$

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Distortions – More details on photon-shot noise

Interestingly, the noise which affects the distance measurement can be approximated by a Gaussian with variance

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We observe

- As A gets larger, precision improves
- As B gets larger, precision gets worse
- B depends on background illumination and amplitude A
- An increase in B due to increase in A does not hurt (since \sqrt{B})
- Increase $f \Rightarrow$ better precision, but loss in max. measurable d

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Distortions – Other noise sources

Other noise sources are, e.g.:

- Thermal noise caused by the receiver signal amplifier
- Noise caused by quantization of the received signal

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A typical strategy to counteract noise effects is **signal averaging over several periods.**



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Distortions – Signal averaging

Typical averaging intervals are between 1 [ms] and 100 [ms]. In case of $f = 30$ [Mhz], e.g., we get a *period* T of

$$T = 33.3 \times 10^{-9} \approx 33 \text{ [ns]}$$

and consequently, for averaging over 1 [ms], we cover 3×10^4 periods, or, for 100 [ms], 3×10^6 periods.

The averaging interval length is called the **integration time**.