

000 Disambiguating Monocular Depth Estimation 001 with a Single Transient

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010 Monocular depth estimation algorithms successfully predict
011 the relative depth order of objects in a scene. However, because of the
012 fundamental scale ambiguity associated with monocular images, these
013 algorithms fail at correctly predicting true metric depth. In this work,
014 we demonstrate how a depth histogram of the scene, which can be readily
015 captured using a [single-pixel time-resolved detector](#), can be fused with
016 the output of existing monocular depth estimation algorithms to resolve
017 the depth ambiguity problem. We validate this novel sensor fusion tech-
018 nique experimentally and in extensive simulation. We show that it signif-
019 icantly improves the performance of several state-of-the-art monocular
020 depth estimation algorithms.

021 **Keywords:** depth estimation, time-of-flight imaging
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1 Introduction

024 Estimating dense 3D geometry from 2D images is an important problem with
025 applications to robotics, autonomous driving, and medical imaging. Depth maps
026 are a common representation of scene geometry and are useful precursors to
027 higher-level scene understanding tasks such as pose estimation and object detec-
028 tion. Additionally, many computer vision tasks rely on depth sensing, including
029 navigation [9], semantic segmentation [14, 37, 43], 3D object detection [15, 25, 42,
030 44, 45], and 3D object classification [27, 35, 51].

031 Traditional depth sensing techniques include those based on stereo or mul-
032 tiview, active illumination, camera motion, or focus cues [48]. However, each
033 of these techniques has aspects that may make their deployment challenging [in](#)
034 [certain scenarios](#). For example, stereo or multiview techniques require multiple
035 cameras, active illumination techniques may have limited resolution or require
036 time-consuming scanning procedures, and other techniques require camera mo-
037 tion or multiple exposures at different focus distances.

038 One of the most promising approaches to overcoming these challenges is
039 monocular depth estimation (MDE), which requires only a single RGB image
040 from a conventional camera to recover a dense depth map [1, 6, 7, 21, 39]. Re-
041 cent approaches to MDE employ neural networks that learn to predict depth
042 by exploiting [pictorial depth](#) cues such as perspective, occlusion, shading, and
043 relative object size. While such models have significantly improved over recent
044 years, MDE approaches to date are incapable of reliably estimating absolute

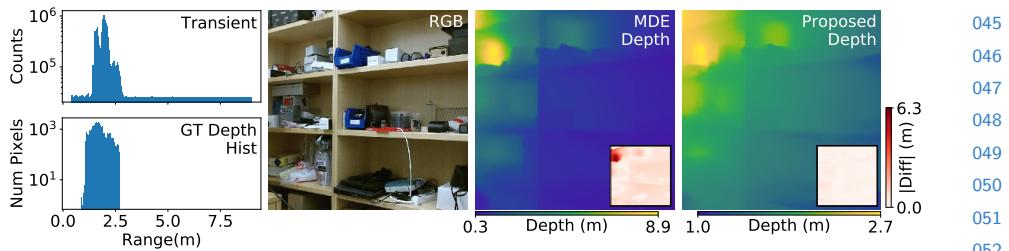


Fig. 1: Monocular depth estimation predicts a depth map (second from right) from a single RGB image (second from left). The ill-posedness of the problem prevents reliable absolute depth estimation, resulting in large errors (inset images). The proposed method uses a **single transient measurement aggregating the time-of-flight information of the entire scene (leftmost)** to correct the output of the depth estimation and optimize the quality of the estimated absolute depth (rightmost).

distances in a scene due to the inherent scale ambiguities of monocular image cues. Instead, these models excel in predicting ordinal depth, or the relative ordering of objects in a scene [6, 7]. Interestingly, Alhashim and Wonka [1] recently showed that if the median ground truth depth of the scene is known, the initial output of a MDE network can be corrected to produce accurate absolute depth.

Although access to the median ground truth depth is impossible in a realistic scenario, low-cost sensors capable of capturing aggregated depth information from a scene are readily available. For example, the proximity sensor on recent generation Apple iPhones uses a low-power pulsed light source and a single-pixel **time-resolved detector** to sense distance to an object directly in front of the phone. Time-resolved detectors, such as avalanche photon diodes (APDs) or single-photon avalanche diodes (SPADs), measure the full waveform of time-resolved incident radiance at each pixel (Fig. 1). These detectors form the backbone of modern LiDAR systems [20, 24, 34]. However, single-photon sensor arrays have not yet been used for 3D imaging on consumer electronics, primarily because the requirement for ultra-fast timing electronics makes it difficult to produce high-resolution arrays at low cost and because the scanning requirement for single-pixel systems introduces a point of mechanical failure and complicates high-resolution, high-framerate imaging.

Here, we propose to use a single-pixel **time-resolved detector** and pulsed light source in an unconventional way: rather than optically focusing them to record the distance to a single scene point, we diffuse the emitted light and **aggregate the reflected light over the entire scene with the detector**. The resulting transient measurement resembles a histogram of the scene depth and we demonstrate that this can be used to achieve accurate absolute depth when combined with the estimate of any monocular depth estimator in a post-processing step (Fig. 1).

To this end, we develop a sensor fusion strategy that processes the ordinal depth computed by a monocular depth estimator to be consistent with the measurements captured by the **aggregated time-resolved** detector. We demonstrate

in extensive simulations that our approach achieves substantial improvements in the quality of the estimated depth maps, regardless of which specific depth estimator is used. Moreover, we build an camera prototype that combines an RGB camera and a single-pixel time-resolved detector. With this work, we present a practical way to disambiguate depth estimation with RGB images using minimal additional sensing hardware. Specifically, we make the following contributions:

- We propose augmenting an RGB camera with a global depth histogram aggregated by a time-resolved detector to address scale ambiguity error in monocular depth estimators.
- We analyze this approach on indoor scenes using the NYU Depth v2 dataset and demonstrate that our approach is able to resolve scale ambiguity while being fast and easy to implement.
- We build a prototype camera and evaluate its efficacy on captured data, assessing both the quality and the ability of our method to help generalization of monocular depth estimators across scene types.

Overview of Limitations: our prototype camera uses a scanned SPAD and digitally aggregates the captured transients to emulate a single optically diffused measurement. The benefit of this approach is access to ground truth depth, allowing us to evaluate the efficacy of our method with measured data. However, when operating SPADs in certain conditions, they may observe a nonlinear aggregation effect known as pileup. In these conditions, the aggregated measurements may differ from a single optically diffused measurement. Yet, we experimentally verify that digitally and optically aggregated measurements captured with our system are very similar and pileup could also be computationally corrected [17, 36], although we did not attempt this.

2 Related Work

Monocular Depth Estimation Estimating a depth map from a single RGB image has been approached using Markov Random Fields [39], geometric approaches [18], and non-parametric, SIFT-based methods [19]. More recently, deep neural networks have been applied to this problem, for example using a multi-scale neural network to predict depth maps [6], using an unsupervised approach that trains a network using stereo pairs [10], and using a logarithmic depth discretization scheme combined with an ordinal regression loss function [7]. Various experiments using different types of encoder networks (*e.g.*, ResNet, DenseNet) [1, 21] have also been employed with some success, as have approaches mixing deep learning with conditional random fields [53], and attention-based approaches [16, 54]. Recently, Lasinger et al. [23] improved the robustness of monocular depth estimation using cross-dataset transfer.

Despite achieving remarkable success on estimating ordinal depth from a single image, none of these methods is able to resolve inherent scale ambiguity in a principled manner. We introduce a new approach that leverages existing monocular depth estimation networks and disambiguates the output using

depth histogram-like measurements obtained from a single **time-resolved detector**. Other approaches to disambiguating monocular depth estimation use optimized freeform lenses [5, 50] or dual-pixel sensors [8], but these approaches require custom lenses or sensors and specialized image reconstruction methods. In contrast, our approach adds minimal additional hardware to a single RGB camera, and may leverage sensors currently deployed in consumer electronics.

Depth Imaging and Sensor Fusion with Time-resolved Detectors Emerging LiDAR systems use avalanche photon diodes (APDs) or single-photon avalanche diodes (SPADs) to record the time of flight of individual photons. These time-resolved detectors can be fabricated using standard CMOS processes, but the required time-stamping electronics are challenging to miniaturize and fabricate at low cost. For this reason, many **LiDAR systems**, especially those using SPADs, use a single **or a few detectors** combined with a scanning mechanism [20, 22, 24, 34, 13]. Unfortunately, this makes it challenging to scan dynamic scenes at high resolution and scanners can also be expensive, difficult to calibrate, and prone to mechanical failure. To reduce the scanning complexity to one dimension, **1D detector arrays** have been developed [2, 3, 33], and 2D SPAD arrays are also an active area of research [30, 46, 49, 55]. Yet, single-pixel **time-resolved detectors** remain the only viable option for low-cost consumer devices today.

The proposed method uses a single-pixel **APD or SPAD** and pulsed light source that are diffused across the entire scene instead of aimed at a single point, as with proximity sensors. This unique configuration captures a measurement that closely resembles the depth histogram of the scene. Our sensor fusion algorithm achieves reliable absolute depth estimation by combining the **transient** measurement with the output of a monocular depth estimator using a histogram matching technique. While other recent work also explored RGB-SPAD sensor fusion [26], the RGB image was primarily used to guide the denoising and up-sampling of measurements from a SPAD array.

Histogram Matching and Global Hints Histogram matching is a well-known image processing technique for adjusting an image so that its histogram matches some pre-specified histogram (often derived from another image) [11, 12]. Nikolova et al. [31] use optimization to recover a strict ordering of the image pixels, yielding an exact histogram match. Morovic et al. [29] provide an efficient and precise method for fast histogram matching which supports weighted pixel values. In the image reconstruction space, Swoboda and Schnörr [47] use a histogram to form an image prior based on the Wasserstein distance for image denoising and inpainting. Rother et al. [38] use a histogram prior to create an energy function that penalizes foreground segmentations with dissimilar histograms. Caramazza et al. [4] use a single non-line-of-sight transient to recover the identity of a person hidden from view. In a slightly different application area, Zhang et al. [56] train a neural network to produce realistically colorized images given only a black-and-white image and a histogram of global color information.

In our procedure, the **transient measurements** closely resemble a histogram of the depth map where the histogram values are weighted by spatially varying

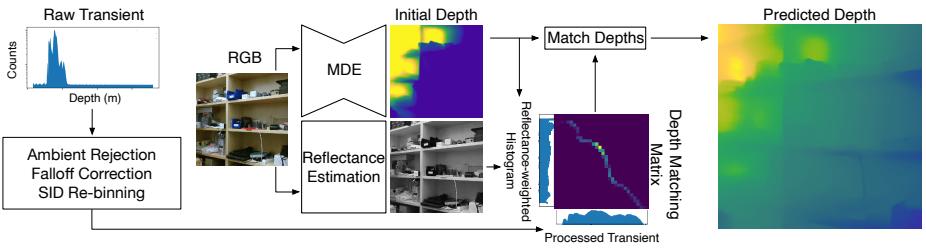


Fig. 2: Overview of processing pipeline. The processing pipeline uses the input **transient measurement** and an RGB image to produce an accurate depth map. The **transient** is preprocessed to adjust for ambient photon detections, radiometric falloff factors, and to calibrate the bin widths. From the RGB image, an MDE estimates an initial depth map and the scene reflectance is estimated. A reflectance-weighted depth histogram is compared to the processed **transient** to calculate a histogram matching matrix which is used to output the corrected depth.

scene reflectances and inverse-square falloff effects. We therefore adapt the algorithm in Morovic et al. [29] in order to accommodate general per-pixel weights during histogram matching.

3 Method

In this section, we describe the image formation of a diffused pulsed laser and time-resolved detector. **Although our model is derived for the specific case of imaging with a single-photon avalanche diode (SPAD), the resulting image formation model equally applies to other time-resolved detectors.** We also describe an approach for correcting a depth map generated with a monocular depth estimator to match the global scene information captured by the **transient**.

3.1 Image Formation Model of a Diffused SPAD

Consider a diffused laser that emits a pulse at time $t = 0$ with time-varying intensity $g(t)$ illuminating some 3D scene. We parameterize the geometry of the scene as a distance map $z(x, y)$, where each of the 3D points has also some unknown reflectivity α at the wavelength of the laser. Ignoring interreflections of the emitted light within the scene, a single-pixel diffused SPAD integrates light scattered back from the scene onto the detector as

$$s(t) = \int_{\Omega_x} \int_{\Omega_y} \frac{\alpha(x, y)}{z(x, y)^2} \cdot g\left(t - \frac{2z(x, y)}{c}\right) dx dy, \quad (1)$$

where c is the speed of light, $\Omega_{x,y}$ is the spatial extent of the diffused light, and we assume that the light is diffused uniformly over the scene points. Each time such a light pulse is emitted into the scene and scattered back to the detector, the single-pixel SPAD time-stamps up to one of the returning photons with

some probability. The process is repeated millions of times per second with the specific number of emitted pulses being controlled by the repetition rate of the laser. As derived in previous work, the resulting measurement can be modeled as an inhomogeneous Poisson process \mathcal{P} [20, 40, 41]. Each detected photon arrival event is discretized into a histogram h of the form

$$h[n] \sim \mathcal{P} \left(\eta \int_{n\Delta t}^{(n+1)\Delta t} (f * s)(t) dt + b \right), \quad (2)$$

where $[n\Delta t, (n+1)\Delta t]$ models the n^{th} time interval or bin of the temporal histogram, η is the photon detection probability of the SPAD, f is a function that models the temporal uncertainty in the detector, and b represents background detections from ambient light and false positive detections known as *dark count*. Like previous work, we neglect scene interreflections and confine ourselves to the low-flux condition (where the number of photon detections is controlled to be much smaller than the number of emitted pulses) to avoid pileup [41]. Finally, we adopt the term *transient* for the histogram $h[n]$ [52].

3.2 Ambient Rejection and Falloff Correction

Before performing histogram matching, we apply three preprocessing steps to (1) remove background counts from the transient, (2) compensate for distance falloff effects, and (3) re-bin the transient to improve relative accuracy with increasing distance. An overview of the processing pipeline, including these preprocessing steps and the histogram matching procedure is depicted in Figure 2.

Background Subtraction. In the first step, we remove the background counts from the transient by initially estimating the average amount of background counts in each time bin. For nearly all natural scenes, the closest objects to the camera are a finite distance away, and so the first bins of the SPAD measurement contain only background counts without any backscattered signal. We can therefore estimate the average number of background and noise counts \hat{b} as

$$\hat{b} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^N h[n]. \quad (3)$$

where we choose the number of bins N to correspond to time values before the backscattered signal arrives.

While simply subtracting \hat{b} from the measurements would remove many of the background counts, a large number of bins containing only background counts would still have non-zero values, resulting in a skewed estimate after applying histogram matching. Instead, we estimate the temporal support of transient bins containing signal photons (*i.e.*, the range of depths in the scene) and only subtract \hat{b} from these bins (clipping negative bin values to 0). We assume that other transient bins contain only background counts that can be discarded.

Specifically, we identify the first and last bins that record backscattered signal photons by locating discontinuities in the recorded counts [52]. An initial spike in the measurements at bin n_{first} results from the onset of backscattered signal from the closest object, and a steep dropoff occurs after bin n_{last} after backscattered photons from the furthest object are recorded. We estimate n_{first} and n_{last} by calculating first order differences of the transient $d[n] = |h[n] - h[n+1]|$. For a moderate number of background counts, each background bin $h[n]$ can be approximated as a Gaussian with mean and variance b , and thus $h[n] - h[n+1]$ can be approximated as a Gaussian with mean 0 and variance $2b$. We identify candidate discontinuities \mathcal{E} with a threshold on the measured differences:

$$\mathcal{E} = \left\{ n : d[n] > \beta \sqrt{2b} \right\}. \quad (4)$$

We find that $\beta = 5$ yields good results across both simulated and captured data.

Initial estimates n'_{first} and n'_{last} are set to the minimum value in \mathcal{E} and the maximum value, incremented by one bin. Then, we refine these estimates by selecting the closest bins that remain above a threshold τ such that

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{n}_{\text{first}} &= \min\{n : h[n] > \tau, h[n+1] > \tau, \dots, h[n'_{\text{first}}] > \tau\} \\ \hat{n}_{\text{last}} &= \max\{n : h[n'_{\text{last}}] > \tau, \dots, h[n-1] > \tau, h[n] > \tau\}. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

The remaining ambient counts are discarded by setting the recorded counts to zero for all bins where $n < n_{\text{first}}$ and $n > n_{\text{last}}$. We use $\tau = \hat{b} + \sqrt{\hat{b}}$ in all of our experiments.

Falloff Compensation. In the second step, we compensate for distance falloff effects by multiplying the transient by the distance-dependent scaling factor,

$$h'[n] = h[n] \cdot z_n^2. \quad (6)$$

Here, $z_n = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \left(\frac{c\Delta t}{2} \right)$ is the distance corresponding to bin n , and this radiometric falloff model is consistent with measurements captured with our prototype.

Transient Re-binning. Last, we re-bin the transient so that the bin widths increase for increasingly distant objects. We select the Spacing-Increasing Discretization (SID) method of [7], which changes the bin widths according to an exponential function, allocating more bins to closer distances and fewer bins to farther distances for a fixed number of bins. The bin edges t_i are given by the following equation, parameterized by the number of bins K and the range of distances $[\ell, u]$:

$$t_i = e^{\log(\ell) + \frac{\log(u/\ell) \cdot i}{K}} \quad \text{for} \quad i = 0, \dots, K. \quad (7)$$

This rebinning procedure allows us to use a reduced number of bins in the histogram matching procedure, reducing computation time while maintaining accuracy. For the simulated results we use $K = 140$ bins with (ℓ, u) corresponding to the depth values of bins \hat{n}_{first} and \hat{n}_{last} respectively. The output of the rebinning procedure is the target histogram h_{target} which we use for histogram matching.

315 3.3 Histogram Matching

316 Histogram matching is a procedure that adjusts pixel values from an input image
 317 so that the image histogram matches a target histogram. We apply this proce-
 318 dure to match the histogram of an input depth map, obtained from a monocular
 319 depth estimator, to the post-processed target histogram h_{target} from the SPAD.
 320 This initialize-then-refine approach allows us to swap out the monocular depth
 321 estimator to deal with different scene types without requiring end-to-end retrain-
 322 ing.

323 The input depth map cannot be directly histogram-matched to the target
 324 histogram because the target histogram incorporates the spatially varying re-
 325 flectance of the scene. To account for reflectance in the histogram matching
 326 procedure, we use the normalized image color channel closest to the laser wave-
 327 length as an estimate of the reflectance and compute a reflectance-weighted
 328 depth histogram h_{source} ; instead of incrementing a bin in the depth histogram
 329 by one for every pixel in the MDE at the corresponding depth, we add the es-
 330 timated reflectance value of the pixel to the histogram bin. **We also re-bin this**
 331 **histogram, following Fu et al. and using $K = 140$ with $(\ell, u) = (0.657, 9.972)$ [7].**

332 We match the re-binned histogram h_{source} to h_{target} using the method of
 333 Morovic et al. [29]. The method involves computing a pixel movement matrix T
 334 such that $T[m, n]$ is the fraction of $h_{\text{source}}[m]$ that should be moved to $h_{\text{target}}[n]$.
 335 **We refer the reader to the supplement for pseudocode.** Intuitively, the procedure
 336 starts from the first bin of the source histogram and distributes its contents
 337 to the first bins of the target histogram, with successive source histogram bins
 338 being shifted to successive target bins in sequence.

339 Finally, we use the movement matrix T to shift the pixels of the input depth
 340 map to match the global depth of the target histogram. For a depth map pixel
 341 with depth bin k , we select the corrected bin by sampling from the distribution
 342 $T[k, :] / \sum_{n=1}^N T[k, n]$. This sampling procedure handles the case where a single
 343 input depth bin of the MDE is mapped to multiple output bins [29].

344 **Pseudo-code for this procedure is included in the supplement; we will make**
 345 **source code and data available.**

347 4 Evaluation and Assessment

350 4.1 Implementation Details

351 We use the NYU Depth v2 dataset to evaluate our method. This dataset consists
 352 of 249 training and 215 testing scenes with RGB-D images captured using a
 353 Microsoft Kinect.

354 To simulate a **transient**, we take the provided depth map and calculate a
 355 weighted depth histogram by weighting the pixel contributions to each depth bin
 356 by the luminance of each pixel. To model radiometric falloff, we multiply each
 357 bin by $1/z^2$, and convolve with a modeled system temporal response, which we
 358 approximate as a Gaussian with a full-width at half-maximum of 70 ps. We scale
 359 the histogram by the total number of observed signal photon counts (set to 10^6)

		$\delta^1 \uparrow$	$\delta^2 \uparrow$	$\delta^3 \uparrow$	$rel \downarrow$	$rmse \downarrow$	$log10 \downarrow$
360	DORN	0.846	0.954	0.983	0.120	0.501	0.053
361	DORN + median rescaling	0.871	0.964	0.988	0.111	0.473	0.048
362	DORN + GT histogram matching	<u>0.906</u>	0.972	0.990	0.095	0.419	<u>0.040</u>
363	Proposed (SBR=5)	0.902	0.970	<u>0.989</u>	0.092	0.423	<u>0.040</u>
364	Proposed (SBR=10)	0.905	<u>0.971</u>	0.990	<u>0.090</u>	0.413	0.039
365	Proposed (SBR=50)	0.906	<u>0.971</u>	0.990	0.089	0.408	0.039
366	Proposed (SBR=100)	0.907	<u>0.971</u>	0.990	<u>0.089</u>	0.408	<u>0.039</u>
367	DenseDepth	0.847	0.973	<u>0.994</u>	0.123	0.461	0.053
368	DenseDepth + median rescaling	0.888	0.978	0.995	0.106	0.409	0.045
369	DenseDepth + GT histogram matching	0.930	0.984	0.995	0.079	0.338	0.034
370	Proposed (SBR=5)	0.922	0.981	<u>0.994</u>	0.083	0.361	0.036
371	Proposed (SBR=10)	0.924	0.982	0.995	0.082	0.352	<u>0.035</u>
372	Proposed (SBR=50)	0.925	<u>0.983</u>	0.995	<u>0.081</u>	0.347	<u>0.035</u>
373	Proposed (SBR=100)	0.926	0.983	0.995	<u>0.081</u>	0.346	<u>0.035</u>
374	MiDaS + GT histogram matching	0.801	0.943	0.982	0.149	0.558	0.062
375	Proposed (SBR=5)	0.792	0.937	0.978	0.153	0.579	0.064
376	Proposed (SBR=10)	0.793	0.937	<u>0.979</u>	0.152	0.572	0.064
377	Proposed (SBR=50)	<u>0.794</u>	0.938	0.979	<u>0.151</u>	0.570	<u>0.063</u>
378	Proposed (SBR=100)	<u>0.794</u>	0.938	<u>0.979</u>	<u>0.151</u>	0.570	0.064

Table 1: Quantitative evaluation using NYU Depth v2. Bold indicates best performance for that metric, while underline indicates second best. The proposed scheme outperforms DenseDepth and DORN on all metrics, and it closely matches or even outperforms the median rescaling scheme and histogram matching with the exact depth map histogram, even though those methods have access to ground truth.

and add a fixed number of background photons $b \in \{2 \times 10^5, 10^5, 2 \times 10^4, 10^4\}$. The background counts are evenly distributed across all bins to simulate the ambient and dark count detections, and the different background levels correspond to signal-to-background ratios (SBR) of 5, 10, 50 and 100 respectively. Finally, each bin is Poisson sampled to produce the final simulated transient.

4.2 Simulated Results

We show an extensive quantitative evaluation in Table 1. Here, we evaluate three recent monocular depth estimation CNNs: DORN [7], DenseDepth [1], and MiDaS [23]. To evaluate the quality of DORN and DenseDepth, we report various standard error metrics [6]. Moreover, we show a simple post-processing step that rescales their outputs to match the median ground truth depth [1]. We also show the results of histogram matching the output of the CNNs with the ground truth depth map histogram. Note that we do not report the quality of the direct output of MiDaS as this algorithm does not output metric depth. However, we do show its output histogram matched with the ground truth depth map histogram. In all cases, post-processing the estimated depth maps either with the median depth or depth histogram significantly improves the absolute depth estimation, often by a large margin compared to the raw output of the CNNs. Unfortunately, ground truth depth is typically not accessible so neither of these two post-processing methods are viable in practical application scenarios.

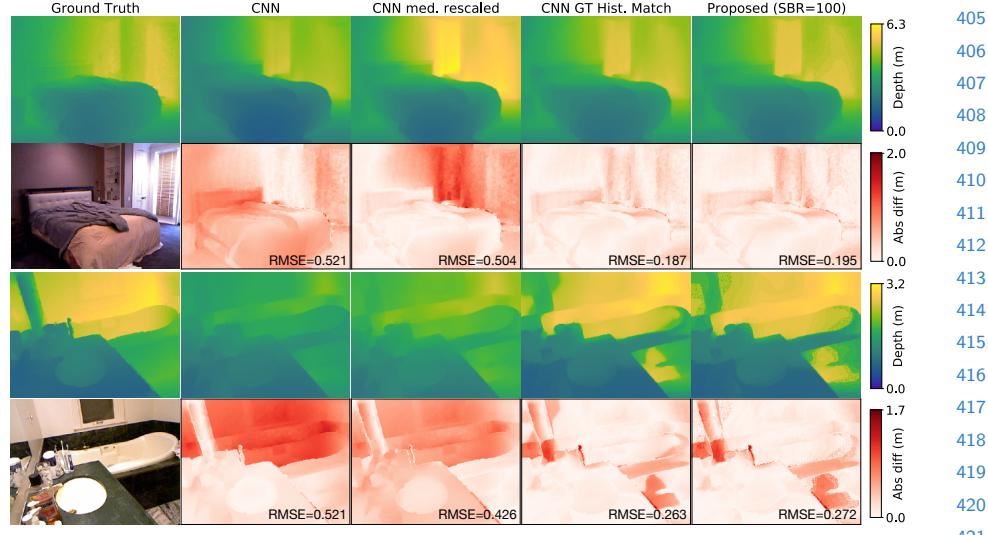


Fig. 3: Simulated results from NYU v2 computed with the DenseDepth CNN [1]. The depth maps estimated by the CNN are reasonable, but contain systematic error. Oracle access to the ground truth depth maps, either through the median depth or the depth histogram, can remove this error and correct the depth maps. **The proposed method uses a single transient measurement** and does not rely on ground truth depth, but it achieves a quality that closely matches the best-performing oracle.

Instead, our method uses the simulated measurements from a single **aggregated transient** to correct the depth map. In Table 1, results are shown for several different signal-to-background ratios (SBRs). We see that the proposed method achieves high-quality results for correcting the raw depth map estimated by the respective CNNs for all cases. The quality of the resulting depth maps is almost as good as that achieved with the oracle ground truth histogram, which can be interpreted as an approximate upper bound on the performance, despite a relatively high amount of noise and background signal. These results demonstrate that the proposed method is agnostic to the specific depth estimation CNN applied to get the initial depth map and that it generally achieves significant improvements in the estimated depth maps, clearly surpassing the variation in performance between depth estimation CNNs.

In Figure 3, we also show qualitative results of our simulations. For each of these scenes, we show the RGB reference image, the ground truth depth map, the raw output of the DenseDepth CNN, the result of rescaling the CNN output with the median ground truth depth, the result of histogram-matching the CNN output by the ground truth depth map histogram, and the result achieved by the proposed method for an SBR of 100. Error maps for all the depth estimation methods are shown. As expected, the CNN outputs depth maps that look reasonable but that have an average root mean squared error (RMSE) of about 50–60 cm. Rescaling this depth map to match the median ground

truth depth value slightly improves the quality and histogram-matching with the ground truth depth histogram shows a large amount of improvement. The quality of the proposed method is close to using the oracle histogram, despite relying on noisy *transient* measurements. Additional simulations using DenseDepth and other depth estimation CNNs for a variety of scenes are shown in the supplement.

5 Experimental Demonstration

5.1 Prototype RGB-SPAD Camera Hardware

As shown in Figure 4, our prototype comprises a color camera (Microsoft Kinect v2), a single-pixel SPAD (Micro Photon Devices 100 μm PDM series, free-running), a laser (ALPHALAS PICOPOWER-LD-450-50), and a two-axis galvanometer mirror system (Thorlabs GVS012). The laser operates at 670 nm with a pulse repetition rate of 10 MHz with a peak power of 450 mW and average power of 0.5 mW.

The monocular depth estimate is calculated using the RGB image captured by the Kinect v2. The SPAD records temporal histograms with 4096 bins, each corresponding to a time window of 16 ps. The SPAD and laser are co-axially aligned using a beam splitter (Thorlabs PBS251). The full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the combined laser pulse width and SPAD jitter is about 70 ps, allowing the system to record depth maps with an accuracy of about 1 cm. A National Instruments data acquisition device (NI-DAQ USB-6343) provides synchronization signals for the galvos, SPAD, and laser. The ground truth depth map is raster-scanned at a resolution of 512×512 pixels, and the single-pixel, diffused SPAD measurement is generated by summing all of these measurements for a specific scene. This allows us to validate the accuracy of the proposed histogram matching algorithm, which only uses the integrated single histogram, by comparing it with the captured depth. To empirically assess the equivalence of diffused SPAD measurements and summed scanned measurements, we captured the following scene under both raster-scanned and diffuse mode conditions:

We determined camera intrinsics and extrinsics for the Kinect’s RGB camera and the scanning system using MATLAB’s camera calibration toolbox. The SPAD histogram and RGB image were captured from slightly different viewpoints; we account for this in the SPAD histogram by shifting the 1D transient according to the SPAD’s offset from the RGB camera. We re-bin the captured 1D transient for the indoor captured results using Equation 7 with $K = 600$ bins, and $(\ell, u) = (0.4, 9.)$. For the outdoor captured result, we use $K = 600$ and $(\ell, u) = (0.4, 11)$.

5.2 Experimental Results

Using the hardware prototype, we captured a number of scenes as shown in Figure 5 and in the supplement. We crop the RGB image to have dimensions that are multiples of 32. For DORN only, we further downsample the image

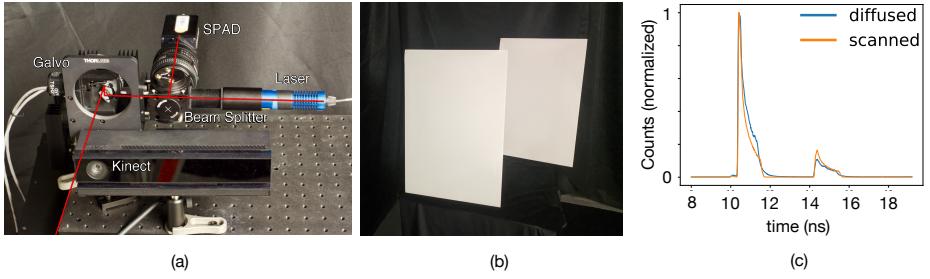


Fig. 4: (a) Prototype scanning setup. The pulsed light from the laser travels through a beam splitter before being guided by the galvo to the scene. Returning light is measured by the single-pixel SPAD. The Kinect v2 RGB camera is used to capture the image used to generate the monocular depth estimate (the depth bccamera is not used). (b) Scene and (c) measurements for diffused and summed scanned mode. The observed counts in the diffuse mode match closely with the sum of the raster-scanned measurements.

to a resolution of 353×257 . We then feed this RGB image into the monocular depth estimation algorithm. In Figure 5 we show a subset of the scenes we captured and processed with MiDAS [23], which achieved the best results among the depth estimators we tested. Additional scenes, also processed with other MDE approaches, including DenseDepth [1] and DORN [7], are included in the supplement. The ground truth depth is captured with the scanned SPAD, as described above, and regions with low signal-to-noise ratio are masked out (shown in black).

In the first two examples, the ‘‘Hallway’’ and ‘‘Conference Room’’ scenes, we see that the monocular depth CNN estimates the ordinal depth of the scene reasonably well. However, the root mean squared error (RMSE) for these two scenes is relatively high ranging from 2.6–3.2 m (see red/white error maps in Fig. 5). The proposed method using a single diffused SPAD measurement corrects this systematic depth estimation error and brings the RMSE down to 0.6–0.9 m. The ‘‘Poster’’ scene is meant to confuse the CNN—it shows a flat poster with a printed scene. As expected, the CNN predicts that the statue is closer than the arches in the background, which is incorrect in this case. The proposed method uses the SPAD histogram to correctly flatten the estimated depth map.

6 Discussion

In summary, we demonstrate a method to greatly improve depth estimates from monocular depth estimators by correcting the scale ambiguity errors inherent with such techniques. Our approach produces depth maps with accurate absolute depth, and helps the generalization of neural networks for MDE across scene types, including on data captured with our hardware prototype. Moreover, we require only minimal additional sensing hardware; we show that a single measurement histogram from a diffused SPAD sensor contains enough information about global scene geometry to correct errors in monocular depth estimates.

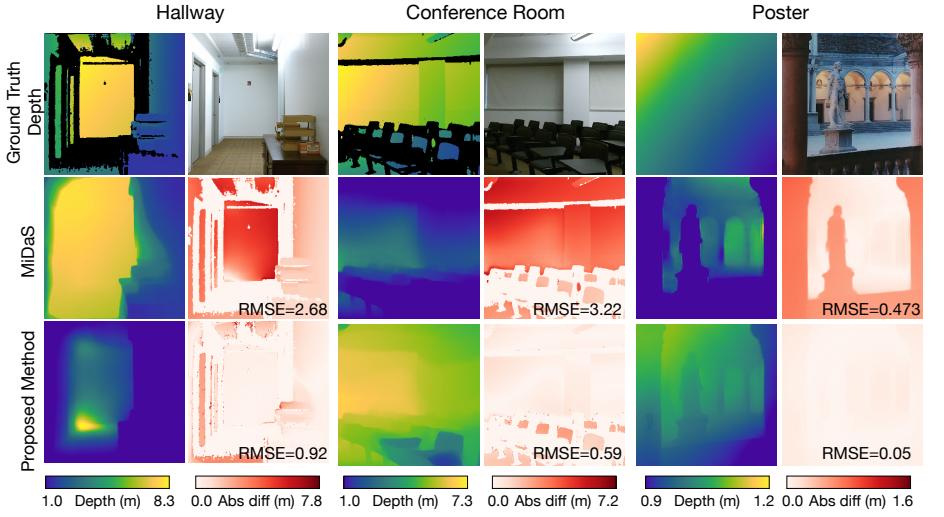


Fig. 5: Experimental results. For each scene, we record a ground truth depth map that is raster-scanned with the SPAD (upper left subimages), and an RGB image (lower left). A monocular depth CNN predicts an initial depth map (top middle), which is corrected with the diffused SPAD histogram using the proposed method (top right), as shown by the error maps and root mean squared error (RMSE) for each example (lower center, right). The CNN is confused when we show it a photograph of a poster (bottom scene); it incorrectly predicts the depth of the scene depicted on the flat print. Our method is able to correct this error.

The performance of our method is highly dependent on the accuracy of the initial depth map of the MDE algorithm. Our results demonstrate that when the MDE technique produces a depth map with good ordinal accuracy, where the ordering of object depths is roughly correct, the depth estimate can be corrected to produce accurate absolute depth. However, if the ordering of the initial depths is not correct, these errors will not be corrected by our histogram matching procedure and may propagate to the final output depth map.

In the diffuse setting, the laser power is spread out over the entire scene. Accordingly, for distant scene points very little light will return to the SPAD and it may be difficult to accurately capture distant scene geometry in the histogram. Thus our method is best suited to short to medium-range scenes. Nevertheless, assuming an indoor scene with fluorescent bulbs and an ambient spectral irradiance of $I_A = 2 \text{ mW/m}^2$ (across the 1 nm pass band of a spectral filter matched to the laser), we find that the laser power required to achieve a minimum SBR of 5 for a diffuse scene at $r = 2 \text{ m}$ and a field of view of $\theta = 40^\circ$ can be calculated as

$$P_{\min} = I_A \cdot 4r^2 \tan^2(\theta/2) \cdot SBR_{\min}, \quad (8)$$

giving $P_{\min} = 21 \text{ mW}$, less than the 60 mW of the Kinect.

585 Under these scene parameters, we can compute the total incident flux on the
 586 SPAD per second (derived in [28]) as
 587

$$P_R = P_T \cdot \rho \cdot \frac{A_{rec}}{\pi R^2} \cdot \eta \quad (9)$$

590 where P_T is the illumination power in the visible region, ρ is its albedo, A_{rec}
 591 is the area of the detector region, R is the distance to the object, and η is
 592 the quantum efficiency of the detector. For nominal values of these quantities,
 593 and a laser pulse repetition rate of 10 MHz, we find that the number of photon
 594 detections is well above the threshold required to assume the low-flux condition
 595 (roughly 1–5% of the number of illuminations per second [32]). Given this high
 596 incident photon count, we would envision using an optical element such as an
 597 aperture or neutral density filter to return to the low-flux regime, or use a pile-up
 598 correction technique [17].
 599

600 Lastly, Figure 4(b)–(c) empirically shows that in the low-flux regime, collecting
 601 and summing scanned measurements is nearly identical to capturing diffused
 602 measurements. ?!We show empirical comparisons between the two modes on a
 603 more complex scene in the supplement?!
 604

605 *Future Work* While our hardware prototype is large, future work could miniaturize
 606 this system. Our algorithm or similar sensor fusion algorithms could also
 607 be integrated into electronics that already contain the required hardware compo-
 608 nents, for example, existing cell phones with single-pixel SPAD proximity sensors
 609 and RGB cameras.
 610

611 Other methods for extracting scene information from the SPAD histogram
 612 could be employed, including learning-based methods to combine the MDE esti-
 613 mates and histogram. One might even consider sensing regimes where the num-
 614 ber of returning signal photons is low, such as when the SPAD and camera
 615 operate at high framerates. While most MDE techniques are tailored to clean
 616 RGB images, the SPAD histogram could be used to help MDE techniques gen-
 617 eralize to noisy scenes under low-light conditions.
 618

619 *Conclusions* Since their introduction, monocular depth estimation algorithms
 620 have improved tremendously. However, recent advances, which have generally
 621 relied on new network architectures or revised training procedures, have pro-
 622 duced only modest performance improvements. In this work we dramatically
 623 improve the performance of several monocular depth estimation algorithms by
 624 fusing their estimates with depth histogram measurements. Such histograms are
 625 easy to capture using SPADs and are poised to become an important component
 626 of future low-cost imaging systems.
 627

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