

CREATING TACTILE PHOTOS THAT PEOPLE WITH VISUAL IMPAIRMENTS CAN ENJOY USING GENERATIVE AI AND 3D PRINTERS

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1 Introduction

In an increasingly visually driven world, individuals with visual impairments often encounter significant barriers in accessing visual information. Traditional means of communication and artistic expression, such as photographs and visual artwork, are predominantly designed for sighted individuals, leaving those with visual impairments at a disadvantage. According to the World Health Organisation [WHO], more than 2.2 billion people live some kind of visual impairment, making them struggle in their daily life activities. This number can seem excessive, but in reality, these visual impairments include not only blind people but also people with less severe or renowned conditions. Non exhaustively, these include partial or full vision loss, or visual acuity [NM]. This discrepancy underscores a critical need for innovative solutions that can bridge the sensory divide and offer meaningful and engaging experiences to all individuals, regardless of their visual capabilities.

The smartphone has widely become an essential tool over the past decade. With its initial design, the smartphone was undeniably made for people without visual impairment, with the screen covering more than 90% of its main face. But the tactile property of the screen makes it a useful tool in assisting people with visual impairments, along with its integrated speaker. In this context, current smartphone applications aim to guide and assist people with visual impairments, and some of them have paved the way to more inclusive smartphone usage and the spread of more comprehensive accessibility tools, such as "Seeing AI [SeeAI]" which is an assistive application that provides an audio description of the user's surrounding objects by analyzing them after taking a photo. Some other researches aim to help people with visual impairments be safe, for example by detecting fire in their habitation [MBC22] [?]. This research relies not only on smartphones but also on security cameras to detect hazardous fire or ignition.

Recent advancements in technology, particularly in the fields of artificial intelligence (AI) and 3D printing, present new opportunities to address the "sensory gap" previously mentioned, which is the unbalanced access to information due to sensory differences which is vision in this case. Generative AI, which leverages complex algorithms to create content based on input data, and 3D printing, which allows

for the creation of tangible objects from digital models, offer promising avenues for developing accessible and immersive experiences for people with visual impairments.

Current methods for conveying visual information to individuals with visual impairments are often limited in scope and effectiveness as well as accessibility. Traditional tactile representations, such as raised-line drawings or dot-diagrams, do not fully capture the richness and detail of visual content. Other methods such as full 3D printing is either time consuming or requires the expertise of a knowledgeable person, which does not render the process autonomous. Furthermore, the creation of these tactile images is typically labor-intensive and may lack the depth and nuance that could enhance the tactile experience.

This thesis explores the potential of integrating generative AI and 3D printing technologies to create tactile photos that can offer a more nuanced and engaging experience for individuals with visual impairments. By leveraging AI's ability to analyze and interpret visual data and 3D printing's capability to produce detailed and customized tactile models, this research aims to develop a novel approach to creating tactile photos that are both accessible and enjoyable. The significance of this study lies in its potential to revolutionize the way visual information is presented to individuals with visual impairments. By combining generative AI and 3D printing, this research aims to offer a more immersive and detailed tactile experience, enriching the accessibility and enjoyment of visual content. This could lead to broader implications for *educational materials*, artistic expression, and everyday information, ultimately fostering a more inclusive and equitable society.

This thesis proposes a pipeline in which the user inputs a photo which is in the end printed using a 3D printer. A few points need to be followed for it to be complete:

1. Be an automated process and easy to use so that a person with visual impairment can use right away without any prior knowledge
2. Be suited for educational purposes

The second point here mainly involves printing the object in dimensions suitable for teaching. Traditional educational materials are given in A4 format. For storage

purposes, we have also thought making the printed objects' thickness 5 centimeters at most. Ultimately, a durable plastic material is to be used to ensure robustness of the object.

Most current 3D reconstruction methods involve reconstructing the object entirely by teaching the generative AI model priors, to "guess" the shape of the unseen part of the object. Following the constraints mentioned above, this is not what we are aiming at.

Instead we want only to print the visible part of the object, and give it depth and topography, so that people with visual impairment can understand what the composition of the printed object is, understand the shapes of the contained object by touching and feeling it.

To complete such task, our method proposes a novel method that involves the usage of depth maps. Indeed, the method uses state-of-the-art depth estimation networks that can generate accurate depth maps from an input 2D image. The depth map generated is then converted into detailed 3D models suitable for tactile printing.

This study mainly focuses on the following points : explore the current state of technology in generative AI and 3D printing as they relate to the creation of tactile content, design and implement a method for generating tactile photos using AI and 3D printing that accurately reflects the depth and detail of the original visual content, and finally to assess the effectiveness and usability of the generated tactile photos through user testing and feedback from individuals with visual impairments.

In summary, this research aims to provide insights on how people with visual impairments can interpret and perceive objects at a reduced scale, as they are in a photo, which people without visual impairment can distinguish and recognize as they contain cues that we've learned prior to looking at the said photo. While the method could not be tested on users, it is interesting to try to understand how people with visual impairment would translate knowledge they've learned by touch to a different scale.

2 Literature review

In this chapter, we will oversee some existing research and applications that showcase what methods have led to what is currently available in assisting people with visual impairment, and the current state generative AI that can be applied to the task of 3D modeling. It will explore the existing body of work across the following key domains: tactile graphics, generative AI for image interpretation and 3D printing for accessibility. The literature review aims to contextualize the development of tactile photos within these fields and identify the technological advancements and challenges associated with this endeavor.

2.1 Tactile graphics for Visual Impairments

For a long time, tactile graphics have been used to convey visual information to individuals who are blind or have low vision. Traditional methods involve creating raised-line drawings, texture, symbols or embossed images that can be felt and interpreted by touch, for instance Braille being the most prominent reading method for individuals who are blind or have diminished vision capabilities. Early research by Kennedy (1993) [Ken93] highlights the importance of simplifying visual content to be suitable for tactile interpretation, emphasizing the need for clear, unambiguous lines and shapes. Seiichi Miyake, in a quest to help individuals with visual impairments navigate in the streets, first introduced *tactile paving* in 1967 in the city of Okayama. The striped pavings would indicate the user that they are on a sidewalk and should move forward, while dotted pavings indicate them to stop, at a crossing for instance. Jiangyan Lu et al. [LWX08] have compared the different tactile paving design standards across several countries. Focusing on the factors of type, form and colour in constituting the standards of tactile paving, this paper tries to identify the problems of tactile paving in China, and then gives some suggestions and insights for consideration and further investigation.

Some old studies have shown that tactile graphics can significantly enhance the learning and comprehension abilities of visually impaired individuals, and thus for a long time (Edman in 1992). Tactile graphics are used in various fields, including education, navigation, and art appreciation. The primary challenge in creating

tactile graphics is ensuring that they are both detailed enough to convey necessary information and simple enough to be easily interpreted through touch (Heller in 2000 [Hel00]). Continuously, some have focused on enhancing the complexity and depth of tactile graphics. Lahav & Mioduser (2008) [LM08] explored the use of tactile maps for navigation, demonstrating how tactile graphics can be effectively used to communicate spatial information. However, traditional methods often fall short in conveying detailed and nuanced visual content, such as photographs, which limits their applicability in certain contexts.

As mentioned previously, though Braille is common in areas where the user requires information, for instance an elevator where the user must read the buttons to know which floor to go up to, or in the city when touching a map to find their direction, the Braille method shows its limitation in terms of range. As an individual without severe visual impairment such as blindness or low vision can understand their surroundings and scenes very far from them thanks to their vision, it is difficult for a visually impaired individual to understand the environment other than what's very close to them.

2.2 Generative AI for Image Interpretation and Depth Estimation

The advent of generative AI has significantly expanded the possibilities for creating tactile graphics. AI algorithms, particularly those based on deep learning, have shown remarkable capabilities in interpreting and generating images. Goodfellow et al. (2014) [GPM14] introduced Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs), which have since become a foundational tool in generating realistic images from various input data. Variational Autoencoders have also shown remarkable capabilities in interpreting and generating images. Complex patterns can be learnt by these models and they can generate new images with the learned characteristics.

In the context of visual impairments, researchers have explored the use of AI to create more meaningful and accessible content. Geirhos et al. (2018) [GRM18] discussed the robustness of deep learning models in image recognition and generation, highlighting their potential for accessibility applications. They have provided evidence

that recognition models rely on textures rather than shapes which is counterintuitive per say. They aim to move towards more realistic models of human visual object recognition.

Depth estimation, which can be deemed a critical component in generating tactile models from images, has also seen significant progress. However it has been a challenging issue in computer vision. Early models use Convolutional Neural Networks to extract features from image and predict depth values for each pixel.[EPF14] Ranftl et al. (2020) [RLH20] developed MiDaS, a state-of-the-art monocular depth estimation model that generates detailed depth maps from 2D images. This work states that the massive amount of datasets are the cause of the success of deep networks, however they are still insufficient for monocular depth estimation (meaning depth estimation from a single image). It proposes a generalization method to combine data from different sources and evaluates on datasets that have not been browsed during training, and proves to be effective. This technology is crucial in converting flat images into 3D models suitable for tactile exploration, as it allows for the accurate representation of spatial relationships within a scene, which can be translated into tactile graphics.

2.3 3D Printing for Accessibility

3D printing technology has revolutionized the production of tactile graphics by enabling the creation of highly detailed and customized tactile models. The ability to translate digital 3D models into tangible objects provides a unique opportunity to enhance the tactile experience for individuals with visual impairments.

Early work by Buehler et al. (2014) [BHK14]demonstrated the potential of 3D printing in creating accessible educational materials, such as tactile maps and models. These initial studies focused on the practicality and feasibility of using 3D printing in accessibility contexts, showing promising results. This study was targeted not only at populations with visual impairments but also with cognitive and motor impairments. It found out three main functions for 3D design and printing in special education: developing these skills encourage science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) engagement, it can support the creation of educational

aids for providing accessible curriculum content, finally, it can be used to create custom adaptive devices.

More recent advancements have expanded the scope of 3D printing applications. Giurice & Palani (2018) [GP18] explored the use of 3D printed models for STEM education, highlighting how tactile models can convey complex scientific concepts in an accessible way. The paper focus on the role of touchscreen-based devices such as smartphones and tablets, which the author believed justly to be a promising solution, thanks to their portability, availability and capabilities. They state that these multimodal touchscreen interfaces are a model for universally designed consumer technologies, but also remarkably effective assistive technologies, set to close the accessibility and sensory gap.

In another scope, Puerta et al. (2024) [PCS24] have studied how the orientation of 3D printed Braille affects the readability and comfort of the users. Essentially, *FusedDepositionModeling* (FDM) is a 3D printing method that consists in stacking layers of printed plastic horizontally, which has the benefit of being low-cost. This method is widely used to produce tactile graphics for people with visual impairments such as braille or text. The study explore different printing angles, since prior to the paper’s publication, only the horizontal and vertical printing had been studied. They tested different angles to test the usability of FDM 3D printed braille, and found out that braille printed at the angles of 60° , 75° and 90° introduced faster reading times by the user, and angles of 75° and 90° felt the most comfortable to them. Though there is no clear disadvantage compared to paper braille, users would prefer using paper braille if given the choice.

2.4 Integration of AI and 3D Printing for Tactile Graphics

The integration of AI and 3D printing technologies has begun to attract attention in the field of accessibility and holds great promise for the creation of tactile graphics. In 2012, Reichinger et al. [RNR12] had already discussed the potential for the design and production of tactile models using computer vision. The paper discussed various kinds of objects, including *2.1D*, *2.5D*, or *3D*. However, for all types of objects given at the time, verbal description was most important to understand the context,

background information and get guidance while touching. The research also pointed out that the printed object’s material (which would compose the whole object) being different from the original object was not a problem, as the true material could be imagine with a description, or in the case of the experiments, by feeling the reachable parts of the original object. The association of both AI and 3D printing can revolutionize the creation of tactile rgaphics and provide individuals with visual impairments an access to a wider range of visual information in a tactile format.

In summary, the creation of tactile photos using generative AI and 3D printing represents a promising advancement in accessibility technology. By building on existing research in tactile graphics, AI-driven image generation, and 3D printing, this approach has the potential to provide individuals with visual impairments with a richer and more engaging way to experience visual content. Continued research and development in this area are essential to overcoming current challenges and realizing the full potential of this innovative technology.

3 Proposed Method

In this chapter, we present our proposed method to help visually impaired people print in 3D photos they have taken themselves or feed to the model. Our method uses state-of-the-art *depth estimation models* that generate accurate depth map that are then interpreted and used to print the topography of the photo. The main goal is to create a process that helps people with visual impairments understand and enjoy photos just like a person without visual impairment would by taking advantage of their sense of touch.

3.1 Overview of the proposed method

As mentioned previously, the work proposes a method that, from a single input 2D RGB image, generates and prints a 3D object representing the topography of the said image. The method’s framework involves using 2D depth map generation models that generate a depth map from the image, which is then used and interpreted to generate a 3D model by being fed into a 3D model generation framework. All that is left after that is for the object to be 3D printed using a 3D printer. Figure 1 presents a simple yet complete pipeline of the project. All parts will be detailed in the following subsections.

3.2 Depth estimation network

To create tactile photos that people with visual impairments can enjoy, the first critical step is generating accurate depth maps from 2D images. This involves using state-of-the-art depth estimation models that can predict the depth information of each pixel in an image. One of the most advanced models in this area is "Marigold," released in 2024, which represents the latest advancements in depth estimation.

3.2.1 Marigold Depth Estimation Model

The Marigold model leverages diffusion models, specifically Stable Diffusion to achieve high accuracy in depth estimation. It considers the problem of monocular depth estimation as a conditional denoising diffusion problem. The Marigold model learns to predict depth maps from single RGB images by modeling the conditional

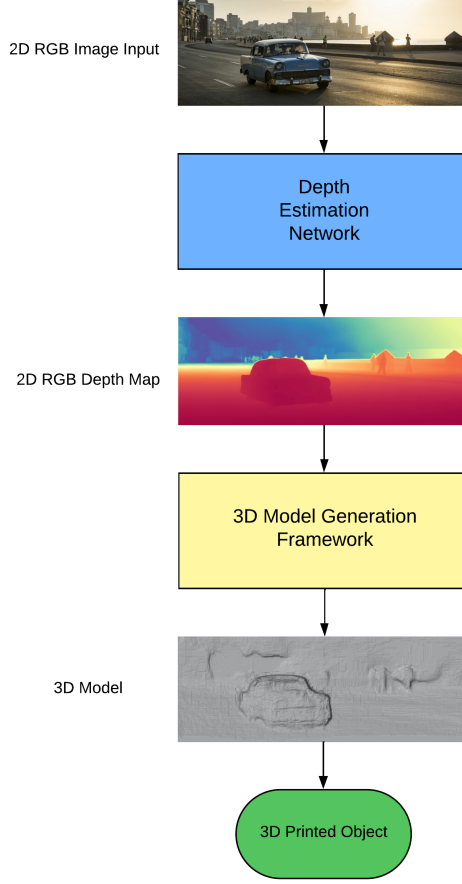


Figure 1: Simple pipeline of the proposed method

distribution $D(d|x)$ over depth $d \in \mathbb{R}^{W \times X}$ given the conditional RGB image $x \in \mathbb{R}^{W \times X \times 3}$ with W and H the width and height of the image. The process involves two main phases: the forward and reverse processes.

1. Forward process: Gaussian noise is incrementally added to the depth map to obtain noisy samples, starting from the clean depth map conditioned on the RGB image.
2. Reverse process: The learned denoising model gradually removes noise to obtain a less noisy sample at each iteration. At inference time, the original depth

map is reconstructed by iteratively applying the learned denoiser.

The architecture of the model involves a Variational AutoEncoder (VAE) and a denoising U-Net. The VAE is used to encode the image and its corresponding depth map simultaneously into a latent space for training the conditional denoiser. The denoising U-Net is conditioned on the input image and its conditioned depth map by concatenating the image and depth latent codes into a single input.

Fine-tuning For training, the ground truth depth maps have been normalized in the value range $[-1, 1]$, first because it is the standard for working with Stable Diffusion VAE, and the second purpose is to bound the near and far planes with extreme depth values in the image.

$$\tilde{d} = \left(\frac{d - d_2}{d_{98} - d_2} \right) \times 2 \quad (1)$$

where d_2 and d_{98} are the 2% and 98% percentiles of individual depth maps.

Moreover, synthetic datasets because they are complete, allowing every pixel having valid ground truth depth values to be fed into the VAE. Indeed, VAE cannot handle data with invalid pixels, which real depth datasets are full of. The reason for those missing pixels in real depth datasets is due to the physical constraints of the capture device. Reflective surfaces are a source of ground truth noise and missing pixels. For the inference, the input image is encoded into the latent space, the depth latent is initialized as standard Gaussian noise and is progressively denoised. Figure 2 shows achievable results of accurate depth maps using Marigold.

3.2.2 Self-Reference Distillation

Before adopting the Marigold model, we experimented with the Self Reference Distillation (SRD) method as described in the paper "Efficient Self-Supervised Vision Transformers for Representation Learning" (Li et al., 2023)[LLS23]. SRD is a self-supervised learning technique that aims to improve depth estimation by distilling knowledge from the model itself during training.

The architecture of the SRD model is as follows: the model takes a single RGB image



Figure 2: Example of depth map generated by Marigold

as input and passes through an encoder-decoder network, of which the backbone is a CNN and extracts features from the input image, ResNet is a network that can be used to extract hierarchical features. After that, the input image is augmented using various transformation, for instance scaling or rotation. The augmented images are then passed through the backbone and decoder to generate pseudo-depth labels at different scales.

The multiscale output from the encoder is directly input into the decoder, progressively upsampling and convolving the feature maps to increase the resolution. They are then merged with skip-connected encoding features and passed through layers. A disparity offset is calculated between 2 adjacent scales, from top to bottom. After the disparity of the original scale is refined, the decoder outputs disparity and converts it to depth.

Even though it seemed satisfying at first, despite its promising approach, the results obtained with SRD were not stable. Figure 3 shows achievable and satisfying



Figure 3: Satisfying depth map generated using SRD

results using SRD. Additionally, compared to the Marigold model, we see that the SRD model struggles in identifying the shapes of each individual object and tends to smooth or spread an object’s depth around and outside its boundaries. The method involved training a vision transformer to predict depth maps, but the generated depth maps exhibited significant variability, affecting the consistency of the 3D models produced. Figure 4 shows some unusable depth map generated by SRD. This instability led us to explore more robust alternatives, culminating in the adoption of the Marigold model.

3.3 3D reconstruction framework

Once a reliable depth map is obtained using the Marigold model, the next step is to generate a 3D model. This process involves interpreting each pixel in the depth map as a distance from the viewer, thereby constructing a 3D representation of the scene.



Figure 4: Depth maps generated by SRD for the same input image, which are unusable for the incoming tasks

The depth map is essentially either an RGB or a grayscale image where each pixel value represents the distance to the corresponding point in the scene. The colors produced in the case of an RGB image depend on the colormap used to generate the depth map. These colormaps include *spectral* or *magma* for example. To convert this into a 3D model:

Depth Map Interpretation Interpreting a depth map that uses a colormap involves understanding how the colormap maps each depth value to specific colors. The

first approach we used was taking the RGB depth map as it is, and for each pixel, merging the three RGB values into a single one by calculating the mean. This way we would have single depth values ranging from 0 to 255. Figure 5 shows results of this approach. Note: this first approach was experimented on using the *SRD* model.

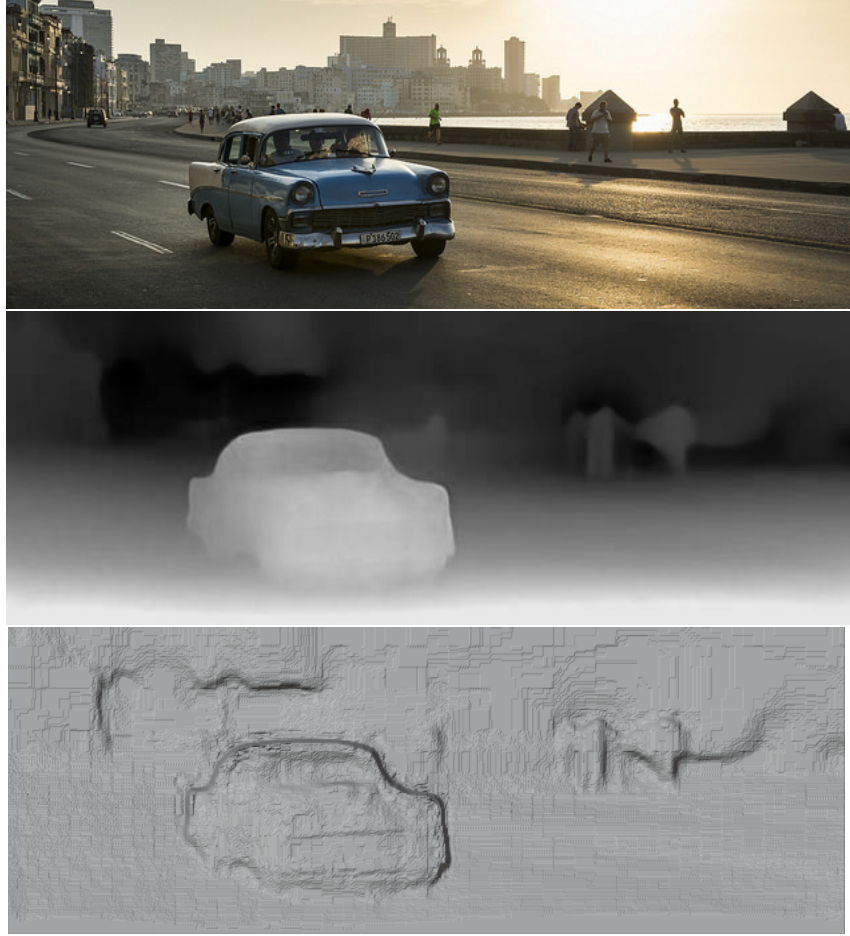


Figure 5: Interpretation of the values of the depth map by the mean method

In the second and more promising approach, each pixel's RGB value in the depth map is read and is mapped to the values of the colormap. Figure 6 shows the mapping. As shown on figure 2, the pixels are "the closest" to the camera are red and the ones in the far plane are blue. This way, all the color values that are extracted

from the depth map correspond to a value in the normalized value range $[0, 1]$, with the closest pixels to the camera having the lowest values.



Figure 6: Interpretation of the values of the depth map

In clear, we convert the RGB values to a range of $[0, 1]$. We then calculate the Euclidean distance between the given RGB color and all the colors in the colormap that is used, and we find the index of the closest color. This index is then converted to a normalized depth value by dividing it by the total number of colors in the colormap.

Point Cloud Generation By combining the x, y, and z coordinates, a point cloud is created, representing the 3D structure of the scene. We go from a $W \times X \times 3$ array to a $W \times X$ array that represents the 3D object. This point cloud serves as the basis for the subsequent steps. Since we want the 3D model to represent the topography of the image, meaning putting the closest pixel in the image at the highest point in the 3D model when laid down, we need to invert the normalized values. If the values are not inverted, we still get a realistic topography, but the reproduced 3D model would be a *mirrored* version of the image.

We explored emphasizing the closer values and diminishing the far values without erasing them completely. This way, we could focus more on the targeted object in the photo without changing The composition of the photo in the generated 3D model. In that way, we use some kind of modified *sigmoid* function. We have also explored flattening objects that were below a certain threshold, but that removes too much information, as shown in figure ??.

In the end, the emphasis method mentioned previously doesn't change anything much, as shown in figure ??. The changes are minor and do not fundamentally change the topology overall.

Algorithm 1 Point cloud generation algorithm

```
spectralmap  $\leftarrow$  RGBdepthmap
colormap  $\leftarrow$  colormap_of_depthmap
unique_colors  $\leftarrow$  unique_color_of_spectralmap
for pixel in spectralmap do
    diff  $\leftarrow$  sampled_colors - pixel  $\triangleright$  is an array
    closest_color_index  $\leftarrow$  minimum(diff)
    depth[pixel]  $\leftarrow$  closest_color_index / unique_colors
    depth[pixel]  $\leftarrow$  depth[pixel] / (1 +  $e^{0.5-5*\textit{depth}[\textit{pixel}]}$ )  $\triangleright$  Experiment, not in final
    algorithm
    depth[pixel]  $\leftarrow$  1 - depth[pixel]
    if depth smaller than threshold then  $\triangleright$  Experiment, not in final algorithm
        depth[pixel]  $\leftarrow$  0
    end if
end for
return depth
```

Mesh Construction The point cloud is then converted into a mesh, a collection of vertices, edges, and faces that define the shape of the 3D model. As mentioned previously, we want the 3D model to be usable in the educational field. At the same time, we want it not to be too thick so that it is storable. In that way, we decided to give it an *A4* format, that is to say $21\text{cm} \times 29,7\text{cm} \times 5\text{cm}$ dimensions.

To do so, we use specific libraries available in *Python*, such as *PILLOW* and *numpy-stl*. In the latter library, we can use the *mesh* function to construct the 3D object. It takes an array of faces to create the vectors that compose the 3D object. To construct those faces which are actually trigons, if we consider *i* and *j* respectively a row and column index, we iteratively take the (i,j) -th, $(i+1,j)$ -th and $(i, j+1)$ -th vertices on one hand, $(i+1,j)$ -th, $(i,j+1)$ -th and $(i+1, j+1)$ -th on another and link them to create 2 distinct but trigons. Additionally, the vertices are not represented as a 2-dimensional array that stores the depth values, but rather a $(W * H) \times 3$ array, with each cell of the array being stored as $[x, y, d]$. We detail the algorithm here 2

Moreover, as mentioned previously, we want the resulting 3D model to have specific dimensions, that is to say $21\text{cm} \times 29,7\text{cm} \times 5\text{cm}$. Initially, after passing through the

Algorithm 2 3D mesh generation

```
image  $\leftarrow$  RGBdepthmap
x, y  $\leftarrow$  dimensions(image)
for i in x do
  for j in y do
    vertices[(i * y + j)]  $\leftarrow$  [i, j, img[i, j]]
  end for
end for
for i in x-1 do
  for j in y-1 do
    faces.append([j + i * y, j + 1 + i * y, j + (i + 1) * y])
    faces.append([j + 1 + i * y, j + (i + 1) * y, j + 1 + (i + 1) * y])
  end for
end for
for i, f in enumerate(faces) do
  for j in range 1 to 3 do
    mesh3d.vectors[i][j]  $\leftarrow$  vertices[f][j, :] ▷ Specific numpy-stl function
  end for
end for
```

2 algorithm, the scale of the 3D model is in meters, so we need to multiply the values of the 3D model by a *scaling factor*. In terms of length by width ratio, the desired dimensions ($21cm \times 29.7cm \times 5cm$) represents around 1.414 . However, the input image does not necessarily respect this ratio, but we want it to fit within these dimensions. To do that, we need to identify whether the image is in portrait or landscape orientation (if it is in portrait orientation, then there are more rows than columns in the input image, and vice versa). Then we check if $x/210$ is smaller than $y/297$. If that is the case, then it means that we need to set the model size so that its longest portion's length is equal to $29.7cm$, if not, we do it so that its shortest portion's length is equal to $21.0cm$. In sum, we ensure that at least one of the 3D printed object's side matches either the $21.0cm$ or $29.7cm$ length. Figure 7 illustrates how the scaled image would fit within the desired dimensions.

3D Printing Preparation The final mesh is then prepared for 3D printing. This involves optimizing the model to ensure it can be printed accurately, considering

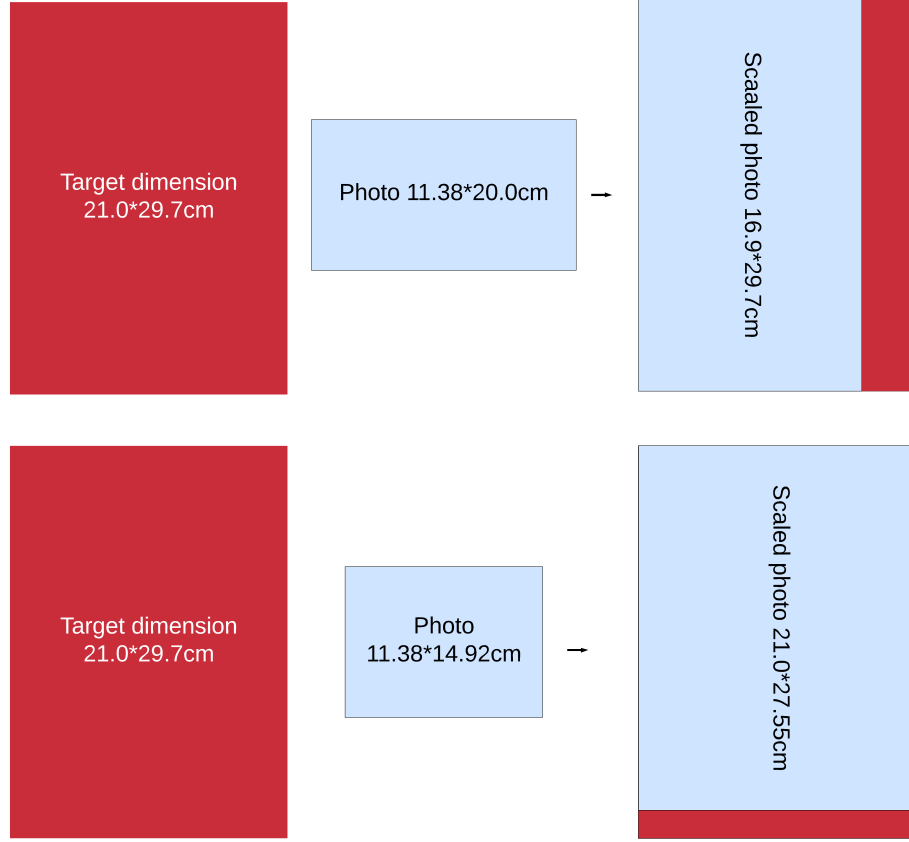


Figure 7: Scaling the 3D model so that it fits within an A4 paper ($21\text{cm} \times 29,7\text{cm} \times 5\text{cm}$). In this example, we show how 2 photos of different ratios (one above 1.414 and one below) would fit within the desired dimensions. As we see in the two examples, the rescaled 3D model would leave a bit of unused space, maintaining the original ratio of the image.

factors like the resolution and capabilities of the 3D printer. By following these steps, we can generate highly detailed and accurate 3D models from depth maps, which can be transformed into tactile photos. These tactile photos enable individuals with visual impairments to perceive and enjoy visual content through touch, significantly enhancing their accessibility to visual information.

3.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have presented a comprehensive method for enabling visually impaired individuals to create tactile 3D representations of photos they have taken or provided as input. By leveraging state-of-the-art depth estimation models, such as the Marigold model, our approach effectively translates 2D images into depth maps that accurately capture the topography of the scene. These depth maps are then interpreted and converted into 3D models suitable for printing using a 3D printer.

The process begins with the Marigold model, which uses advanced diffusion techniques to generate depth maps from single RGB images, ensuring high accuracy and consistency. This model was chosen after evaluating alternatives like the Self-Reference Distillation (SRD) method, which, while promising, did not provide the reliability needed for our application. The depth maps generated are then interpreted to create point clouds, which form the basis of the 3D models. Special attention is given to accurately mapping depth values and ensuring that the tactile models convey the intended topographical features.

Through this method, we have developed a pipeline that not only allows for the creation of 3D tactile photos but also ensures that these models are meaningful and accessible to visually impaired users. The final 3D models are supposed to maintain the integrity of the original images' composition while emphasizing the depth features necessary for tactile exploration. This work lays the groundwork for future advancements in making visual content more accessible through touch, providing a valuable tool for enhancing the sensory experiences of visually impaired individuals.

4 Results

5 Discussion and continuation

6 Conclusion

7 Bibliography

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Appendix