Polka Lines: Learning Structured Illumination and Reconstruction for Active Stereo

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Abstract

Active stereo cameras that recover depth from structured light captures have become a cornerstone sensor modality for 3D scene reconstruction and understanding tasks across application domains. Existing active stereo cameras project a pseudo-random dot pattern on object surfaces to extract disparity independently of object texture. Such hand-crafted patterns are designed in isolation from the scene statistics, ambient illumination conditions, and the reconstruction method. In this work, we propose the first method to jointly learn structured illumination and reconstruction, parameterized by a diffractive optical element and a neural network, in an end-to-end fashion. To this end, we introduce a novel differentiable image formation model for active stereo, relying on both wave and geometric optics, and a novel trinocular reconstruction network. The jointly optimized pattern, which we dub “Polka Lines,” together with the reconstruction network, achieve state-of-the-art active-stereo depth estimates across imaging conditions. We validate the proposed method in simulation and on a hardware prototype, and show that our method outperforms existing active stereo systems.

1. Introduction

Active depth cameras have become essential for three-dimensional scene reconstruction and scene understanding, with established and emerging applications across disciplines, including robotics, autonomous drones, navigation, driver monitoring, human-computer interaction, virtual and mixed reality, and remote conferencing. When combined with RGB cameras, depth sensing methods that acquire wide range have made it possible to recover high-fidelity scene reconstructions \[23\]. Such RGB-D cameras also allowed researchers to collect large-scale RGB-D data sets that propelled work on fundamental computer vision problems, including scene understanding \[44\] \[21\] and action recognition \[35\]. However, while depth cameras under controlled conditions with low ambient light and little object motion are becoming reliable \[1\] \[42\], depth imaging in strong ambient light, at long ranges, and for fine detail and highly dynamic scenes remains an unsolved challenge.

A large body of work has explored active depth sensing approaches to tackle this challenge \[18\] \[27\] \[4\] \[41\], with structure light and time-of-flight cameras being the most successful methods. Pulsed time-of-flight sensors emit pulses of light into the scene and measure the travel time of the returned photons directly by employing sensitive silicon avalanche photo-diodes \[51\] or single-photon avalanche diodes \[5\]. Although these detectors are sensitive to single photons, their low fill factor restricts existing LiDAR sensors to point-by-point scanning with individual diodes, which prohibits the acquisition of dense depth maps. Correlation time-of-flight sensors \[18\] \[25\] \[27\] overcome this challenge by indirectly estimating round-trip time from the phase of temporally modulated illumination. Although these cameras provide accurate depth for indoor scenes, they suffer from strong ambient illumination and multi-path interference \[45\] \[29\], are limited to VGA resolution, and they require multiple captures, which makes dynamic scenes a challenge. Active stereo \[53\] \[1\] \[2\] has emerged as the only low-cost depth sensing modality that has the potential to overcome these limitations of existing methods for room-sized scenes. Active stereo cameras equip a stereo camera pair with an illumination module that projects a fixed pattern onto a scene so that, independently of surface texture, stereo correspondence can be reliably estimated. As such, active stereo methods allow for single-shot depth estimates at high resolutions using low-cost diffractive laser dot modules \[1\] and conventional CMOS sensor, deployed in mass-market products including Intel’s Depth Sensors \[1\] and the Google Pixel 4 Phones \[2\]. However, although active stereo has become a rapidly emerging depth-sensing technology, existing approaches struggle with extreme ambient illumination and complex scenes, prohibiting reliable depth estimates in uncontrolled in-the-wild scenarios.

These limitations are the direct results of the pipeline architecture of existing active stereo systems, which designs the illumination pattern and the reconstruction algorithms in isolation. Typically, the illumination pattern is designed in a first step using a diffraction optical element (DOE) placed in front of a laser diode. Existing dot patterns resulting from known diffractive gratings, such as the Dammann...
grating [10], are employed with the assumption that generating uniform texture ensures robust disparity estimation for an average scene. Given the fixed illumination pattern, the reconstruction algorithm is designed with the goal to estimate correspondence using cost-volume methods [7, 22] or learning-based methods [39, 12, 53, 38]. In this conventional design paradigm, the illumination pattern does not receive feedback from the reconstruction algorithm or the dataset of scenes, prohibiting learning optimal patterns tailored to scene contents, the reconstruction algorithm, and the capture configuration.

In this work, we propose a method that jointly learns an illumination pattern and a reconstruction method, parameterized by a DOE and a neural network, in an end-to-end manner. The resulting optimal illumination pattern, which we dub “Polka Lines”, together with the reconstruction network, allow for high-quality scene reconstructions outperforming state-of-the-art pseudo-random dot patterns. Moreover, our method allows us, for the first time, to learn scene-specific active stereo patterns. The proposed method hinges on a novel differentiable image formation model that relies on geometric and wave optics to make the illumination and capture simulation accurate and, at the same time, efficient enough for joint optimization. We then propose a trinocular active stereo network that estimates an accurate depth map from the sensor inputs. Unlike previous methods that only use binocular inputs from the stereo cameras, our network exploits the known illumination pattern, resulting in trinocular stereo setup which reduces reconstruction errors near occlusion boundaries. We train the fully differentiable illumination and reconstruction model in a supervised manner and finetune the reconstruction for an experimental prototype in a self-supervised manner. The proposed Polka Lines pattern, together with the reconstruction network, achieves state-of-the-art active stereo depth estimates independently of the imaging conditions, outperforming existing active stereo systems. Specifically, we make the following contributions.

- We introduce a novel differentiable image formation model for active stereo systems based on wave optics and geometric optics.
- We devise a novel trinocular active stereo network that uses the known illumination pattern in addition to the stereo inputs to improve the robustness against occlusion edges.
- We jointly learn “Polka Line” illumination patterns via differentiable end-to-end optimization.
- We validate the proposed method in simulation and with an experimental prototype, achieving robust depth acquisition on challenging scenes.

2. Related Work

Depth Imaging.

Depth cameras can be broadly categorized into two families, passive and active cameras. Passive methods exploit depth cues such as parallax [40, 13], defocus [28], and double refraction [6, 33] that do not require illumination control. Passive methods often fail on challenging scenes parts, such as textureless surfaces, where they can suffer from catastrophic depth errors. Active systems employ specially-designed illumination modules to tackle textureless surfaces. Major directions include pulsed and continuous-wave time-of-flight sensors [20, 19], gated imaging [15], structured-light sensor [16], and active stereo systems [53]. Among these, active stereo is particularly attractive as it promises robust single-shot capability and cost-effective manufacturing processes, and, as such, these systems have successfully been deployed in commercial products [1, 2]. However, existing active-stereo systems also struggle in challenging environments with strong ambient light and noisy inputs with varying scene reflectance. This failure mainly originates from the blind, compartmentalized design process of the illumination pattern, which does not take into account the reconstruction method, scene statistics, and noise levels. In this work, we close this gap by proposing the first joint optimization framework of illumination pattern and reconstruction method for active stereo.

Illumination Patterns for Active Stereo. Designing an illumination pattern is crucial for the accuracy of correspondence matching in active stereo systems. Existing methods commonly employ Dammann gratings [10] and Vertical Cavity Surface Emitting Laser that result in locally-distinct, but globally repetitive illumination patterns [30, 26, 1]. However, this heuristic design is blind to scene statistics, noise level, and the reconstruction method. Existing methods have attempted to improve depth estimation by employing hand-crafted DOE designs [11, 59, 54] that rely on golden-eye experts and heuristic metrics on the illumination pattern, not directly correspond to system depth accuracy. We depart from these heuristic designs and instead directly optimize the illumination pattern with the final depth reconstruction accuracy as a loss via end-to-end optimization.

Active Stereo Depth Estimation. Depth reconstruction for active-stereo systems aims to estimate accurate correspondence between stereo images with the aid of projected illumination patterns used as matching features. The large body of work can be categorized into method relying on classic patch-based correspondence matching [22, 22] and recent learning-based methods [39, 12, 53, 38]. Zhang et al. [53] proposed an active stereo network with self supervision, removing the cumbersome process of acquiring training data, and improving depth estimation accuracy. All of these ex-
existing reconstruction methods are limited by the fixed illumination pattern. As such, these methods have to adapt to a given pattern and cannot vary the pattern depending on the imaging condition. We jointly optimize the illumination and reconstruction module, allowing us to tailor the pattern to the reconstruction method and scene statistics. Moreover, different from previous methods, our trinocular reconstruction network exploits the knowledge of the pattern in addition to the wide-baseline pair of the stereo cameras.

**Differentiable Optics.** With the advent of autodifferentiation frameworks such as Tensorflow [3] and Pytorch [57], jointly optimizing imaging optics and reconstruction methods has radically improved system design of diverse vision systems [8, 50, 35, 47, 17, 52, 9, 43, 32, 46]. While existing methods have focused on the imaging optics and primarily assume near-field propagation, we optimize illumination optics, a DOE in front of a collimated laser, using far-field wave propagation from a laser to the scene using Fourier optics. At the same time, we rely on ray optics to simulate the geometric configuration of stereo imaging via epipolar geometry. This hybrid image formation, which exploits both wave and geometric optics, allows us to efficiently simulate light transport in active stereo systems, and as such, enables us to perform for end-to-end optimization of illumination optics and reconstruction.

### 3. Differentiable Hybrid Image Formation

To learn both the illumination pattern and the reconstruction method, we introduce a differentiable image formation model for active stereo systems. Active stereo systems consist of stereo cameras and an illumination module where a laser and a DOE are employed, as shown in Figure 1. The light transport of an active stereo system can be divided into two components: one from the laser to a scene where the output is the illumination pattern projected onto a scene, and the other from the scene to the stereo cameras resulting in stereo images. We rely on wave optics for the former part and geometric optics for the later part, which comprises the proposed hybrid image formation model.

#### 3.1. Simulation of Projected Illumination Pattern

Simulating light transport from an illumination module to a scene amounts to computing the illumination pattern projected onto the scene from the laser (Figure 1). Relying on wave optics, we represent the light emitted by the laser as amplitude $A$ and phase $\phi$ at each discrete spatial location $x, y$ sampled with the pitch $u$ and the $N \times N$ resolution.

**Phase Delay on the DOE.** The phase of the emitted light wave is modulated when it passes through the DOE by $\phi_{\text{delay}}$ as $\phi \leftarrow \phi + \phi_{\text{delay}}$. The phase delay $\phi_{\text{delay}}$ is related with the height of the DOE $h$, the wavelength of the light $\lambda$, and the refractive index of the DOE for that wavelength $\eta_\lambda$, that is

$$\phi_{\text{delay}} = \frac{2\pi(\eta_\lambda - 1)}{\lambda} h. \quad (1)$$

**Far-field Wave Propagation.** The modulated light wave by the DOE propagates into the scene. We use Fraunhofer far-field wave propagation\(^2\) as the travel distance is long enough to the size of the wave dimension \([14]\). We implement this by computing the Fourier transform $\mathcal{F}$ of the complex-valued light wave $U$ of amplitude $A$ and phase $\phi$

$$U' \leftarrow \mathcal{F}(U), \quad (2)$$

where $U'$ is the propagated complex light wave. Last, the illumination pattern $P$ at the scene is the intensity of the propagated light wave, a squared magnitude of $U'$: $P \leftarrow |U'|^2$. The resolution of the pattern $P$ remains the same as that of $U$, while the physical pixel pitch $v$ of the pattern $P$ changes accordingly as $v = \frac{\lambda}{wN}$ where $z$ is the propagation distance \([14]\). Refer to the Supplemental Document for the simulated illumination patterns of various DOE designs.

**Sampling the Illumination Pattern.** A pixel in the simulated illumination image $P$ has the physical width of $v = \frac{\lambda}{wN} z$ at a scene depth $z$. On the other hand, a camera pixel amounts to the width of $\frac{p}{f} z$ at the scene depth $z$ via perspective unprojection, where $f$ is the camera focal length and $p$ is the pixel pitch of the camera. We resample the illumination image $P$ to have the same pixel width with the camera pixel in order to make use of the illumination image for simulating the stereo images. We compute the scale

\(^1\) $u = 1 \text{ mm}$ and $N = 1000$ in our experiments.

\(^2\) We assume that scene depth ranges from 0.4 m to 3 m which is large enough than the pitch 1 mm for applying the far-field propagation.
factor as follows

\[
\frac{\text{illumination pattern pixel size}}{\text{camera pixel size}} = \frac{f \gamma}{\lambda u N z} = \frac{puN}{f \lambda}. \tag{3}
\]

The scale factor \(\frac{puN}{f \lambda}\) is applied to the illumination image \(P \leftarrow \text{resample}(P, \frac{puN}{f \lambda})\), where \(\text{resample}\) is the bicubic resampling operator.

Note that depth dependency on the pixel sizes on both illumination pattern and camera disappears in the scaling factor, meaning that the scale factor is independent of the propagation distance of the light. This indicates that the illumination pattern \(P\) can be applied to any scene regardless of its depth composition, which facilitates efficient simulation of the light transport.

### 3.2. Synthesis of Stereo Images

Once the illumination image \(P\) is computed, we simulate stereo images. While wave optics can describe this procedure using Wiener distribution functions and far-field wave propagation, it would be prohibitively expensive for the proposed end-to-end optimization procedure, which requires tens of thousand of iterations, each requiring multiple forward simulations. Instead, we use a geometric-optics model by representing light with intensity only, rather than using phase and amplitude as in wave optics.

**Light-matter Interaction and Measurement.** Given the illumination image \(P\) at the viewpoint of the illumination module, we next simulate the light-matter interaction and sensor measurement by the stereo cameras. We take disparity maps \(D^{L,R}\), reflectance maps \(I^{L,R}\), and occlusion masks \(O^{L,R}\) at the left and the right camera viewpoints as inputs. Note the occlusion masks \(O^{L,R}\) describe the visibility at the viewpoints of the left/right camera with respect to the illumination module.

We warp the illumination image \(P\) to the left and the right camera viewpoints using the disparity \(D^{L,R}\). We take the occlusion maps \(O^{L,R}\) into account with element-wise multiplication to the warped images resulting in the illumination images at the stereo camera viewpoints \((P^{L} and P^{R})\)

\[
P^{(L/R)} = O^{L/R} \odot \text{warp}(P, D^{L/R}), \tag{4}
\]

where \(\odot\) is the element-wise product and \(\text{warp}\) translates the illumination image \(P\) by the disparity \(D^{L,R}\). For the light-matter interaction and intensity measurement, we use a Lambertian reflectance model and implement imaging parameters including sensor clipping, signal-independent Gaussian noise, camera exposure, illumination power, and the amount of ambient light

\[
J^{(L/R)} = \sigma(\alpha + \beta \cos \theta P^{(L/R)} I^{(L/R)} + \eta), \tag{5}
\]

where \(J^{L/R}\) are the simulated captured images for the left and the right camera viewpoints. The term \(\cos \theta\) is the cosine term between the illumination vector and the surface normals, \(\gamma\) is the intensity scalar describing exposure and sensor’s spectral quantum efficiency, \(\alpha\) is the ambient light, \(\beta\) is the power of the laser illumination, \(\eta\) is Gaussian noise, and \(\sigma\) is the intensity-cropping function.

### 4. Trinocular Active Stereo Network

We depart from existing active stereo architectures that take stereo camera images as inputs [53] or a pair consisting of one camera image and one illumination image [38]. Instead, we exploit the fact that an active stereo system actually provides trinocular stereo inputs through stereo camera images and an illumination image. This allows us to form two different baselines: (1) a narrow-baseline setup with a camera image and an illumination image and (2) a wide-baseline setup with a left-camera image and a right-camera image. To take advantage of these two different baselines, we propose a trinocular active stereo network (Figure 2).

**Network Design.** We take trinocular inputs: a left-camera image \(x^{L}_{\text{left}}\), a right-camera image \(x^{R}_{\text{right}}\), and an illumination image \(x^{\text{illum}}\). During the training phase, our image formation model synthetically generates these trinocular inputs; during real-world testing, we directly use the calibrated sensor inputs.

Our network first extracts feature tensors \(y^{L/R/\text{illum}}\) of the three input images using two convolutional encoders: \(\text{FE}_{\text{cam}}\) for the camera images and \(\text{FE}_{\text{illum}}\) for the illumination image, that is

\[
y^{L}_{\text{cam}} = \text{FE}_{\text{cam}}(x^{L}_{\text{left}}), y^{R}_{\text{cam}} = \text{FE}_{\text{cam}}(x^{R}_{\text{right}}), y^{\text{illum}} = \text{FE}_{\text{illum}}(x^{\text{illum}}), \tag{6}
\]
We fuse the two cost volumes into a single cost volume

\[ C_{\text{wide}}^d(x, y) = y_L(x, y) - y_R(x - d, y), \]

where \( d \) is a disparity candidate. Similarly, the narrow-baseline cost volume is defined between the left-camera feature \( y_{\text{left}} \) and the illumination feature \( y_{\text{illum}} \) as

\[ C_{\text{narrow}}^d(x, y) = y_L(x, y) - y_{\text{illum}}(x - d, y). \]

We fuse the two cost volumes into a single cost volume \( C_{\text{fused}}^d \) given by

\[ C_{\text{fused}}^d = C_{\text{wide}}^d + C_{\text{narrow}}^d, \]

where \( \hat{d} = \frac{d \cdot b_{\text{base}}}{b_{\text{narrow}}} \) is the disparity scaled by the ratio between the wide baseline and the narrow baseline. Per-pixel disparity probability is computed using a soft-max layer, followed by disparity regression on the obtained probability resulting from the low-resolution disparity estimate \( \hat{d} \).

Finally, an edge-aware convolutional disparity estimator estimates a disparity map \( D_{\text{est}}^L \) at the original resolution. For network details, refer to the Supplemental Document.

**Joint Learning.** Denoting the network parameters as \( \theta \) and the phase delay for the DOE as \( \phi_{\text{delay}} \), we solve the end-to-end joint optimization of the illumination and the network using Adam optimization [24] as

\[
\minimize_{\phi_{\text{delay}}, \theta} \mathcal{L}_s(D_{\text{est}}^L(\phi_{\text{delay}}, \theta), D^L),
\]

where \( \mathcal{L}_s = \text{MAE} \) is the mean-absolute-error loss of the estimated disparity supervised by the ground-truth disparity \( D^L \). Note this joint optimization using stochastic gradient optimization is only possible by formulating the proposed image formation model and reconstruction method as fully differentiable operations. We also incorporate varying ambient illumination conditions into our learning framework by controlling the simulation parameters: ambient light power \( \alpha \) and intensity scalar \( \gamma \) in Equation (5). We train three separate models for different illumination configurations of general, indoor, and outdoor environments. For details, we refer the reader to the Supplemental Document.

**Dataset.** For training, our framework requires an active-stereo dataset of disparity maps \( D_{\text{est}}^{LR} \), NIR reflectance maps \( I^{LR} \), and occlusion masks \( O^{LR} \) at the left and the right camera viewpoints. To obtain this dataset, we modify a synthetic passive-stereo RGB dataset [31] which directly provides disparity maps \( D_{\text{est}}^{LR} \), but not the NIR reflectance maps \( I^{LR} \) and the occlusion masks \( O^{LR} \). We obtain the NIR reflectance maps \( I^{LR} \) from the RGB rendered images of the stereo cameras using the RGB-inversion method [15]. Next, we compute the occlusion masks \( O^{LR} \) of the stereo cameras with respect to the illumination module. We take the provided occlusion mask between the stereo cameras and horizontally shrink it by half since the illuminator lies halfway between the stereo cameras. Finally, we resize the image to have the same resolution as the simulated illumination image. Refer to the Supplemental Document for data samples.
5. Self-supervised Finetuning

To address potential fabrication inaccuracies of the optimized DOE and the domain gap between the simulated training images and the real captures, we opt to finetune our reconstruction network using a real-world dataset captured by our prototype. To this end, we capture left and right IR image pairs \( J_{L/R} \) and the illumination image \( P \) by capturing the projected pattern onto a diffuse textureless wall. However, for the disparity maps and the occlusion masks, it is challenging to obtain ground truths of them in the real world. Therefore, we adopt the self-supervised learning scheme commonly used in both passive and active stereo systems [53, 38].

The key idea in this self-supervised training is to find disparity maps \( D_{L/R}^{est} \) and validity maps \( V_{L/R}^{est} \) that provide the optimal reconstruction of the stereo images \( J_{L/R} \) by warping the other images \( J_{R/L} \) with the disparity \( D_{L/R}^{est} \) in consideration of the validity \( V_{L/R}^{est} \). The validity maps are defined as the opposite of the occlusion maps \( V_{L/R}^{est} = 1 - O_{L/R}^{est} \). We implement this by changing the network architecture and the loss functions. For the network design, we estimate both left and right disparity maps by computing the individual cost volumes for the left and the right views. In addition, we add a validation network that estimates the validation maps \( V_{L/R}^{est} \) to account for occlusion. For the loss functions, we use three self-supervised loss functions \( \mathcal{L}_u, \mathcal{L}_v, \mathcal{L}_d \). \( \mathcal{L}_u \) encourages the network to estimate disparity maps that reconstruct one stereo view from the other view through disparity warping. \( \mathcal{L}_v \) is the regularization loss for the validity maps \( V_{L/R}^{est} \). \( \mathcal{L}_d \) is the disparity smoothness loss. We train the network parameters of the trinocular reconstruction network and the validation network on the captured stereo images and the illumination image of the prototype. For inference, we mask out the disparity estimates of pixels with low validity. For further details, refer to the Supplemental Document.

6. Analysis

Before presenting the results from our experimental prototype, we first evaluate the proposed end-to-end framework using synthetic data.

Polka Lines Illumination Pattern. We evaluate the effectiveness of our learned illumination, the polka line pattern, against heuristically-designed patterns: the pseudo-random dot and the regularly spaced dot [1]. For fair comparison, we use our trinocular network architecture for all patterns and finetune the reconstruction network for each individual illumination pattern. Figure 5 validates that the proposed polka-line pattern outperforms the conventional patterns in the real world. For this experiment, we ensure that equal illumination power is used for all illumination patterns. We refer to the Supplemental Document for outdoor environment. The proposed polka lines design is the result of the proposed optimization method. We can interpret the performance of this pattern by analyzing the structures of the polka-line pattern compared to heuristic patterns. First, each dot in a line of dots has varying intensity levels, in contrast to the constant-intensity heuristic patterns. We attribute the improved performance in large dynamic ranges to these varying dot intensities. Second, the orientations of polka lines are locally varying, which is a discriminative feature for correspondence matching.

Trinocular Reconstruction Ablation Study. We validate our trinocular reconstruction method by comparing it to the binocular method similar to Zhang et al. [54]. We build a baseline model that takes only binocular inputs of stereo camera images by removing the illumination feature extractor. Figure 4 shows that the binocular reconstruction
Our learned system acquires accurate disparity for challenging scenes. We show examples containing complex objects including textureless surface under diverse environments from indoor illumination to outdoor sunlight.

Figure 8. Our learned system acquires accurate disparity for challenging scenes. We show examples containing complex objects including textureless surface under diverse environments from indoor illumination to outdoor sunlight.

Figure 9. Our prototype system consists of stereo NIR cameras and an illumination module, where laser light is collimated and modulated by a DOE. We fabricated three DOEs designed for general, indoor, and outdoor environments that can be easily switched by a rotation mount. Calibrated illumination images closely resemble our simulated design; dense low-intensity pattern for the indoor, sparse high-intensity dot for the outdoor, dense varying-intensity dot for the general.

We vary the parameter values depending on the environments: indoor ($\alpha = 0.0, \beta = 1.5$), outdoor ($\alpha = 0.5, \beta = 0.2$), general ($\alpha \in [0, 0.5], \beta \in [0.2, 1.5]$).

Method struggles especially in occluded regions, where the proposed trinocular provides stable estimates.

Environment-specific Illumination Design. Our end-to-end learning framework readily facilitates the design of an illumination pattern tailored to a specific environment by changing the environment parameters in Equation (5) and solving Equation (10). We vary the ambient power $\alpha$ and the laser power $\beta$ to simulate indoor, outdoor, and general environments. Figure 5 demonstrates that the illumination pattern becomes dense with low-intensity dots in the indoor case for dense correspondence, while the outdoor environment makes the pattern sparse with high-intensity dots to stand out of the ambient light. In the general environment, we obtain polka lines with varying intensities from low to high. We also evaluate the proposed method for two different noise levels using the standard deviation values of 0.02 and 0.6 for the Gaussian noise term $\eta$. Figure 6 shows that the illumination pattern becomes sparse with high intensity dotted lines for the severe noise level.

DOE Phase Profile Design. We can repurpose the proposed method to design a DOE that produces a target far-field illumination pattern when illuminated by a collimated beam. Designing DOEs for structured illumination has applications beyond active stereo, including anti-fraud protection, projection marking, and surface inspection [48]. Figure 7 shows that we obtain comparable reconstruction quality with the state-of-the-art iterative FFT methods [11]. One benefit of using our framework for DOE design is in its flexibility. For example, any additional phase-changing optical element can naturally be incorporated in the image formation model. Also, additional loss functions can be imposed, e.g. enforcing smoothness of the DOE to reduce potential fabrication inaccuracies. We refer to the Supplemental Document for the optimization details.

7. Experimental Prototype Results

Experimental Prototype. Figure 9 shows our experimental prototype and the proposed Polka Lines pattern variants. We implement the proposed system with two NIR cameras (Edmund Optics 37-327) equipped with the objective lenses of 6 mm focal length (Edmund Optics 67-709). The prototype is shown in Figure 9. The pixel pitch of the cameras is 5.3 um, and the stereo baseline is 6 mm. We em-
We measure the depth accuracy of our prototype system by capturing planar textureless objects at known distances as shown in Figure 10. The estimated depth using the Polka Lines pattern closely matches the ground truth, with a mean absolute error of 1.4 cm from 0.4 m to 1 m. We demonstrate qualitative results on diverse real-world scenes in Figure 8 which include complex objects, dynamic hands, textureless objects without ambient light, objects and a person with dynamic movement in sunlight. The proposed method recovers accurate depth without holes in all of the demonstrated scenarios.

Comparison. We compare our learned Polka Lines pattern with the Intel D415 pattern in Figure 11. The laser power of the Intel D415 pattern is adjusted to match the laser power of the proposed system via a radiometric calibration using an integrating sphere (Thorlabs S142C). Figure 11 validates that our intensity-varying pattern is more robust to the high dynamic range of scenes than the commercial Intel D415 pattern. We note that the Intel D415 pattern is of high fabrication quality and does not exhibit a severe zero-order component (as does our fabricated DOE). Even though the commercial pattern directs more light to the modulated pattern, the proposed method outperforms the Intel D415 pattern. We also validate the qualitative difference of our learned Polka Line variants for general environment and indoor environment in Figure 12. The general DOE has a wide range of intensity dots, resulting in accurate reconstruction for low-reflectance objects.

8. Conclusion

We introduce the first jointly learned illumination and reconstruction method for active stereo depth imaging. Departing from hand-engineered illumination patterns, we learn a novel illumination pattern, the Polka Lines pattern, that does not only outperform heuristic DOE designs but also provides insights on the function of structured illumination patterns under various imaging conditions. To realize this approach, we introduce a hybrid image formation model that exploits both wave optics and geometric optics for efficient end-to-end optimization, and a novel trinocular reconstruction network that utilizes the trinocular inputs of active stereo systems for accurate depth reconstruction. The proposed method allows us to design environment-specific structured Polka Line patterns tailored to the camera and scene statistics. We validate the effectiveness of our method with comprehensive simulations and with an experimental prototype, outperforming conventional hand-crafted patterns across all tested scenarios. In the future, combined with a phase spatial light modulator, the proposed method may not only allow for ambient-illumination specific, but semantically-driven illumination patterns that adaptively increase depth accuracy.
References


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