LIT: Light-field Inference of Transparency for Refractive Object Localization

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Abstract—Translucency is prevalent in everyday scenes. As such, perception of transparent objects is essential for robots to perform manipulation. Compared with texture-rich or textureless Lambertian objects, transparency induces significant uncertainty on object appearances. Ambiguity can be due to changes in lighting, viewpoint, and backgrounds, each of which brings challenges to existing object pose estimation algorithms. In this work, we propose LIT, a two-stage method for transparent object pose estimation using light-field sensing and photorealistic rendering. LIT employs multiple filters specific to light-field imagery in deep networks to capture transparent material properties, with robust depth and pose estimators based on generative sampling. Along with the LIT algorithm, we introduce the light-field transparent object dataset ProLIT for the tasks of recognition, localization and pose estimation. With respect to this ProLIT dataset, we demonstrate that LIT can outperform both state-of-the-art end-to-end pose estimation methods and a generative pose estimator on transparent objects. The link of supplementary material can be found at: https://sites.google.com/umich.edu/prolit

I. INTRODUCTION

Recognizing and localizing objects has a wide range of applications in robotics, and remains a very challenging problem. The challenge comes from the variety of objects in the real world and the continuous high dimension spaces of object poses. The diversity of object materials also induces strong uncertainty and noise for sensor observations. Existing works and datasets [1], [2], [3] cover a variety of texture-rich objects with distinguishable features between different types of objects. Several other works [4], [5] cover textureless objects with Lambertian surfaces, where robot sensors can still perceive rich depth information. However, many of these assumptions for objects with Lambertian surface properties are ill-posed for transparent objects.

The challenges imposed by transparency are multidimensional. First, non-Lambertian surface texture is highly reliant on the environment lighting and background appearance. Specifically, transparent surfaces will produce specularity from environmental lighting and project distorted background texture on their surfaces due to refraction. Second, transparent object depth information cannot be correctly captured by RGB-D sensors, which are commonly used by current object recognition and localization methods. This limitation imposes difficulties in collecting transparent object pose data using current labeling tools [6]. As a result, transparent objects remain effectively invisible to robots using the sensors.

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Fig. 1: Demonstration of our LIT pipeline. (Top row) Lytro Illum camera is mounted on the tripod and robot arm to capture the transparent objects in challenging environments. (Bottom row) final estimated poses are overlapped to the center view of the observed light-field image.

Recently, several works [7], [8] showed promising results using light-field (or plenoptic) photography in perceiving transparent objects. For example, Zhou et al. [9] generated grasp poses for transparent objects by classifying local patch features in a Depth Likelihood Volume (DLV) plenoptic descriptor. However, capturing and labeling over light-field images is time-consuming and computationally costly. Synthetic data is an alternative for image generation and has shown encouraging results in object recognition and localization. Georgakis et al. [10] rendered photorealistic images by projecting the object texture model on the real background for training object detectors. Tremblay et al. [3] proposed DOPE as an end-to-end pose estimator using domain randomization and photorealistic rendering [11]. We similarly address the problem of transparency using photorealistic rendering and light-field perception.

In this paper, we propose LIT as a generative-discriminative method for recognition and pose estimation for transparent objects. Within LIT, we introduce 3D convolutional light-field filters as the first layer of our neural network. This neural network is trained purely with synthetic data from a customized light-field rendering system for virtual environments. At run time, the output of this trained neural network is used as input to a generative inference. The pose estimates resulting from this inference are then used to perform grasping and manipulation tasks. We introduce
the ProgressLIT light-field dataset (ProLIT) for the task of transparent objects recognition, segmentation, and pose estimation. The ProLIT dataset contains 75,000 synthetic light-field images and 300 real images from Lytro Illum light-field camera labeled with segmentation and 6D object poses. We show the efficacy of LIT with respect to state-of-the-art end-to-end methods and a generative method on our proposed ProLIT transparent object dataset. We additionally present a demonstration of using LIT for a purposeful manipulation task of building a champagne tower in a sparsely textured environment.

II. RELATED WORK

A. Pose Estimation for Robot Manipulation

6D pose estimation remains a central problem in robot perception for manipulation in recent years. Deep learning methods have been a prevalent approach to perform accurate and fast inference for this problem. Xiang et al. [12] proposed PoseCNN to recognize and estimate objects and their 6D poses by decoupling translation and rotation separately in a neural network structure. Other end-to-end methods have explored using synthetic data in training [3], [13], pixel-wise voting over keypoints [14], [15], and residual networks to iteratively refine object poses [5], [2]. Hybrid (or generative-discriminative) methods can achieve better performance by using deep networks to give hypotheses of object poses followed by a second stage of refinement. To get the final pose estimates, a variety of methods have been proposed for the second stage, including probabilistic generative inference [1], [16], template matching [17], and point cloud registration [4], [18].

Most deep learning methods for pose estimation are focused on texture-rich objects or those with texture-less but Lambertian surfaces [17], [4]. Transparent objects bring challenges in two main aspects, where there is: 1) no reliable depth information, and 2) no distinguishable environment-independent color textures. Prior works [19], [20] have used invalid readings from depth camera to extract object contours for pose estimation. However, these methods rely on the Lambertian reflections of the background surface to establish reliable contour of transparent objects. We take inspiration from these ideas for perception from light-field observations in two ways. First, a decent detection or segmentation intermediate result plays an important role in restricting the search area of the 6D object pose. Further, a deep network trained on a large, elaborately designed synthetic dataset can reach similar performance with those trained on real world data.

B. Light-field Perception for Transparency

The foundation of light-field image rendering was first introduced by Levoy and Hanrahan [21] for the purpose of sampling new views from existing images. Since the seminal work, light-field cameras have shown advancement in performing visual tasks in challenging environments with transparency and translucency. Maeno et al. [22] proposed the light-field distortion features from epipolar images for recognizing transparent objects. Recent work by Tsai et al. [23] further explored the light-field features to distinguish transparent and Lambertian materials. The result showed that
the distortion features in the epipolar images can be used to distinguish materials with different refraction properties. Apart from refraction, specular reflection is another unique property carried by transparent materials. Tao et al. [24] investigated the line consistency in the light-field images with a dichromatic reflection model that removes the specularity from the images. Alperovich et al. [25] proposed fully convolutional networks to separate specularity in light-field images. In robotics, Zhou et al. [7, 9] created a plenoptic descriptor called DLV to model the depth uncertainty in a layered translucent environment. Based on this DLV, the object poses and grasp poses for robot manipulation are estimated using generative inference. Our proposed LIT method is built on these ideas above and leverages the power of discriminative and generative methods with data generation using photorealistic rendering.

III. LIT ESTIMATOR

Given an input light-field image $L$, the objective of LIT estimator is to infer the objects label $l$ and their poses $q$ in $SE(3)$. The pose $q$ represents the transformation from object local coordinate frame to the camera coordinate frame. For a light-field image $L$ with spatial resolution $H_s \times W_s$ and angular resolution $H_a \times W_a$, we assume the camera coordinate frame overlaps with the center view image’s coordinate frame. The object pose $q$ is defined in center view and parameterized into 3D translation and 3D orientation in quaternion.

A. LIT Pipeline

The two-stage LIT pipeline is shown in Figure 2. The first stage consists of a two-stream neural network that outputs pixel-wise image segmentation and 2D object center point locations. This output is followed by a detection network that classifies object labels $l$ and clusters the corresponding center points. A light-field based object depth estimator gives object center depth distributions. The second-stage is a particle optimization initialized based on network and depth estimates, that converges to the final 6D poses.

There are several insights incorporated in the pipeline design. First, the segmentation decoder branch in the first neural network performs transparent material segmentation rather than object-class or instance segmentation. This distinction means it only decides whether a pixel belongs to a transparent material or not. The rationale for this classification is that pixel values within transparent object areas highly depend on the background and material property, rather than object types. Thus, it is difficult for a single network to distinguish different objects from raw pixel values. In addition, the center point estimation branch does not regress multiple keypoints which is common in texture-rich object pose estimation networks [14, 15]. The further rationale is that transparent objects lack features that are independent to object poses and environmental changes, such as background and lighting. In our work, we only predict the 2D object center point location.

B. Network Architecture

As shown in Figure 2, the input light-field image is first decomposed into sub-aperture image stacks. This structure gives a 3D matrix with size $H_s \times W_s \times (H_a \times W_a)$ replicated for each of the R, G, B channels. The stacks are then going through three light-field filters: angular filter [26], 3D sEPI filter, and 3D tEPI filter.

- Angular Filter. The angular filter aims to capture the reflection property of 3D surface points in the direction space of light ray. For instance, a non-Lambertian surface will establish different colors in a single angular patch while it will be nearly identical for a Lambertian surface. The angular filter can be expressed as an operation over each pixel $(x, y)$ in spatial space (for the $j$th filter):

$$g(\sum_{s,t} w^j_{s,t}(s,t)L_i(x, y, (s,t)))$$

where $g(\cdot)$ is the activation function, $s$ and $t$ are the angular indices, $w^j_{s,t}$ is the weight in the angular filter, $i \in \{r, g, b\}$ is the color channel, and $L_i(x, y, (s,t))$ is the 4D light-field function.

- 3D EPI Filters. Transparent surfaces will produce distortion features because of refraction. In the epipolar image plane, it will produce polynomial curve patterns which can be distinguished from the background texture without distortion. To capture distortion features, we propose the epipolar filters using 3D convolution layers along the two angular dimensions $s$ and $t$ respectively. The 3D EPI filters can be expressed as:

$$g(\sum_{u,v,s} \tilde{w}^j_{u,v,s}(u, v, s)L_i(x + u, y + v, (s,t)))$$

$$g(\sum_{u,v,t} \tilde{w}^j_{u,v,t}(u, v, t)L_i(x + u, y + v, (s,t)))$$

where $(u, v)$ is the index of convolution kernel in spatial space, $\hat{w}$, $\tilde{w}$ are weights in sEPI and tEPI filters, and we
assume the input and output have the same dimension in spatial space by proper paddings.

Passing through the three customized filters, the embedded features of light-field images are concatenated. The result goes into an encoder-decoder structure with two branches for image segmentation and object center point regression. The output of the segmentation branch is a pixel-wise segmentation of the center view image. Each center view pixel is then predicted to be on a transparent surface, in the background, or on the boundary between a transparent object and background in the image. The output of the center point branch are the 2D pixel offsets from each pixel to their estimated center position on the image, as well as a pixel-wise confidence values.

The loss in segmentation branch \( L_{\text{seg}} \) is defined as the cross-entropy loss normalized by class pixel probabilities [27]. The loss of center point regression is mainly following design in [14], although we only regress the center point positions. The learning goal for each pixel \( p \) inside the segmentation area \( M \) is to regress the offset \( h_p \) from its location \( c_p \) to the object center \( g_p \) on 2D image. In this way, the loss \( L_{\text{pos}} \) is expressed as:

\[
L_{\text{pos}} = \sum_{p \in M} \| g_p - (c_p + h_p) \|_1
\]

where \( \| \cdot \|_1 \) denotes \( L^1 \) loss. Each pixel’s estimation is associated with a confidence value \( b_p \), and the confidence loss \( L_{\text{conf}} \) is defined as:

\[
L_{\text{conf}} = \sum_{p \in M} \| b_p - \exp(-\tau \| g_p - (c_p + h_p) \|_2) \|_1
\]

where \( \tau \) is a modulating factor and \( \| \cdot \|_2 \) denotes \( L^2 \) loss. The overall loss \( L \) is calculated as:

\[
L = \alpha L_{\text{seg}} + \beta L_{\text{pos}} + \gamma L_{\text{conf}}
\]

where \( \alpha, \beta, \gamma \) modulates the importance of segmentation, regression and regression confidence respectively. In practice, we select \( \alpha = 1, \beta = 8, \gamma = 2 \) from initial experimentation.

An object detection network is appended to differentiate object types based on geometry shapes from segmentation results. Specifically, the network takes the result of segmentation decoder branch as input and gives bounding boxes with object labels. Detected bounding boxes also play the role of clustering object center points. The overall output of the first stage is a set of bounding boxes, each with an object label and a set of object center points, which serves as the initial distribution of object center locations for the next stage.

Directly regressing the depth of center points without depth observation is difficult for neural networks. Instead, we deploy a DLV plenoptic descriptor [7] to describe the depth of a single pixel as a likelihood function rather than a deterministic value. The advantage of using a DLV is that depth likelihood can be naturally leveraged into generative inference framework in a sample initialization step. The likelihood \( D(x_c, y_c, d) \) of a given center point located at \((x_c, y_c)\) in center view image plane \( I_c \) can be calculated as:

\[
D(x_c, y_c, d) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{a \in A \setminus I_c} T_{a,d}(x_c, y_c)
\]

where \( A \) is a set of sub-aperture views, \( T_{a,d}(x_c, y_c) \) is the function to calculate the color intensity and gradient cost of pixel \((x_c, y_c)\) on a specific depth \( d \). \( \frac{1}{N} \) is a normalization term that maps cost to likelihood. Detailed implementation can be referred in [7], [9].

C. Particle Optimization

The second stage of pipeline estimates the 6D pose of transparent objects in a sampling-based iterative likelihood reweighting process [28]. Object pose samples are initialized based on the center point locations from the first stage. During the iterations, rendered samples are projected to 2D image and their likelihoods are calculated as the similarity between the projected rendered samples and segmentation results.

1) Sample Initialization: Each sample is a hypothesis of object 6D pose. Its 3D location can be derived from 2D image coordinate \((u, v)\), depth \( d \) and camera parameters. In this way, the probability distribution of 3D center point locations is formed by leveraging center point candidates and depth likelihood volume results:

\[
\begin{align*}
  u &= c_x + f_x \frac{x}{z}, \quad v = c_y + f_y \frac{y}{z}, \quad d = z \\
  p(X = x, Y = y, Z = z) &= b(u, v) D(u, v, d)
\end{align*}
\]

where \( b \) is the confidence value of object center point estimation from neural network, \( f_x, f_y, c_x, c_y \) are camera intrinsic parameters, and \( D \) is likelihood from DLV in Equation (6).

We perform importance sampling over this distribution to initialize the pose sample locations. The initial orientations of samples are randomly selected in \( SO(3) \) space.

2) Likelihood Function: The probability of each sample during iterations is calculated using the likelihood function, represented as the similarity between the projected rendered object point cloud and segmentation results from neural network. Specifically, the object points in its local frame are transformed by the sample pose and then projected to 2D image plane. The likelihood function is composed of intersection over union scores of projected rendered point clouds and segmentation masks on transparent material and its boundary:

\[
\text{weight} = \eta \frac{|S_{\text{pcd}} \cap S_{\text{seg}}|}{|S_{\text{pcd}} \cup S_{\text{seg}}|} + (1 - \eta) \frac{\partial S_{\text{pcd}} \cap \partial S_{\text{seg}}}{\partial S_{\text{pcd}} \cup \partial S_{\text{seg}}}
\]
3) **Update Process:** We follow the procedure of iterative likelihood reweighting to produce pose estimations. The initialized samples are assigned the same weights. Then the process of calculating likelihood values, resampling based on weights, and sample diffusion is repeated in every iteration. During diffusion step, each pose sample is randomly diffused in $SE(3)$ space in translation and rotation with Gaussian noise. The algorithm terminates when the maximum sample weight reaches a threshold, or the iteration number reaches the limit.

### IV. PROLIT LIGHT-FIELD DATASET

We propose the ProLIT light-field image dataset for the task of transparent object recognition, segmentation, and 6D pose estimation. This dataset contains a total of 75,000 synthetic images and 300 real-world images with 442 object instances, each labeled with pixel-wise semantic segmentation and 6D object poses. Figure 4 shows examples of synthetic images, real-world images and estimation results from LIT. There are 5 instances of objects included in the dataset: wine cup, tall cup, glass jar, champagne cup, starbucks bottle with different geometric shapes. The images are captured using a Lytro Illum camera which is calibrated by the toolbox described in [29]. The spatial resolution of the calibrated image is $383 \times 552$, and the angular resolution is $5 \times 5$ (extracted from $9 \times 9$ sub-aperture images with stride 2). The object poses in testing data are labeled by reprojecting objects directly into the center view image and matching with observations.

The light-field rendering pipeline is built on NDDS [11] synthetic data generation plugin in Unreal Engine 4 (UE4). The created virtual light-field capturer has an angular resolution $5 \times 5$ and spatial resolution $224 \times 224$. The baseline between the adjacent virtual camera is set to 0.1cm. We generate data in three UE4 world environments: room, temple, and forest. In each environment, we highly randomized the lighting conditions including color, direction, and intensity. The target objects are rendered using the transparent material. Objects move in two ways in the environment: flying in the air with random translation and rotation, or falling freely with collision and gravity enabled. When the objects move, the virtual light-field capturer will track and look at them with arbitrary azimuths and elevations. Ray tracing is enabled when capturing images.

### V. EXPERIMENTS

We choose 64 light-field filters as the first feature extraction layer. The LIT network uses VGG16 [30] as backbone architecture and initialized with pre-trained model on ImageNet [31]. The segmentation branch outputs pixel-wise labels from over three classes: background, transparent, boundary. The center points prediction branch outputs pixel-wise offset for each segmented pixels. The detection network is a Faster R-CNN network [32] with VGG16 backbone. The input to the network is the binary masks of transparent object segmentation and the output is bounding boxes with object labels.

#### A. Evaluation of Light-field Filters on Image Segmentation

Segmentation is taken as the optimization target in our second stage which is critical to LIT pipeline. We first compare with two baseline methods to show the advantage of using light-field images with three light-field specific filters. One baseline takes input of 2D center view image, which passes through the same neural network structure as LIT except for light-field filters, the other is an ablation study with only the angular filter. All three networks are trained on the synthetic dataset containing 75,000 images. Table I shows segmentation accuracy results, where LIT achieves better performance than baseline methods in all metrics. Through the comparison with single RGB input, we show that lighting direction information captured inside light-field images helps distinguish transparent pixels from the background. Through the comparison with only an angular filter, LIT also achieves
TABLE I: Comparison of \textit{LIT} and baseline methods on transparent material segmentation. The performance is quantified through global accuracy (gAcc), mean of class accuracy (mAcc), mean of Intersection over Union (mIoU), weighted IoU (wIoU), and mean BF (Boundary F1) contour matching score (mBFS). The definitions are detailed in [33]. ‘AF only’ here refers to the baseline method with only angular filters.

| Method | gAcc | mAcc | mIoU | wIoU | mBFS |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 2D     | 0.871 | 0.500 | 0.228 | 0.397 | 0.140 |
| AF only| 0.917 | 0.501 | 0.318 | 0.582 | 0.197 |
| \textit{LIT} | 0.954 | 0.520 | 0.455 | 0.854 | 0.390 |

higher accuracy, showing that both angular features and EPI features are important in contributing to segmenting transparent objects.

B. Evaluation of Pose Estimation

We compare the 6D pose estimation results of \textit{LIT} against a state-of-the-art general-purpose end-to-end object pose estimator, DOPE [3], a state-of-the-art textureless object pose estimator, Augmented Autoencoder (AAE) [4], and a generative light-field based transparent object pose estimation method, PMCL [7].

![Fig. 5: Comparison of 6D pose estimation results with respect to ADD-S and Accuracy Under Curve metric.](image)

For the fair comparison with DOPE and AAE, we make both methods compatible with light-field inputs. We add the three light-field filters in Section III before the first encoder layer of DOPE network as well as AAE encoder network. We adopt Faster R-CNN network as the first stage object detector for AAE. All of the methods are trained with 75,000 synthetic images for 5 objects. In the second stage of \textit{LIT} pipeline, we diffuse the particles with Gaussian noise $\mathcal{N}(0, 0.08)$ in translation and $\mathcal{N}(0, 0.4)$ in orientation. PMCL is a generative method which requires object labels and 3D search space. We initialize PMCL with ground truth object labels and a search volume with size $40 \times 40 \times 40$ cm$^3$ around the ground truth object locations. The convergence threshold of particle weights is set to 0.7. We use ADD-S metric [12] to evaluate the pose results of symmetric objects. We then show the accuracy curves in Figure 5 with a distance threshold of 0.1m. The Area Under accuracy-threshold Curve (AUC) and algorithm computation time per object are shown in Table II.

From the result plots, we find that \textit{LIT} performs much better than DOPE and AAE, and better than PMCL. For DOPE, we believe directly regress the eight 3D bounding box vertices and their relations is not an optimal strategy for transparent objects. First, DOPE’s object recognition is embedded in the network but the transparent object’s texture is not informative to distinguish different objects. Secondly, the eight vertices of 3D bounding boxes are ambiguous for networks to learn the features because of the object symmetry and lack of distinguishable features for transparent objects. For AAE, it is possible that it is difficult for the latent variable to learn the embedded features to distinguish different orientations of transparent objects. Also, it is difficult for the first stage detector to provide accurate location of the transparent objects, which heavily influences the second stage translation and orientation estimation. Since PMCL is provided with ground truth labels and search space, it performs comparatively well in the testset. However, PMCL uses single-view DLV as matching target which includes noise from specularity and distortion from transparent surfaces. Furthermore, DLV construction is computationally expensive, which takes an average 300 seconds for one object. In conclusion, \textit{LIT} pipeline provides better accuracy than all three baseline methods on the testing dataset with a relatively small computationally cost.

![Table II: Comparison of \textit{LIT}, DOPE, AAE, and PMCL on transparent object pose estimation. The column headings wc, tc, gj, cc, sb refer to the wine cup, tall cup, glass jar, champagne cup, and starbucks bottle objects, respectively. All columns, except for the last, refers to the area under the curve (AUC) for accuracy-threshold values for the symmetric objects metric (ADD-S), shown in Figure 5.](image)

C. Champagne Tower Demonstration

\textit{LIT} is also integrated into a robotic manipulation pipeline for a purposeful manipulation task of building a champagne tower in a sparsely textured environment, as shown in Figure 6. In the initial setup, the champagne cups are randomly placed on a textureless white table. The Lytro Illum camera takes a light-field image and transfer the image with on-chip wifi. The Lytro camera’s extrinsic matrix is calibrated with
robot world frame. \textit{LIT} then performs pose estimation over the scene, and the results are then adopted to transform the pre-defined grasp poses from the object’s local coordinate frame to the robot world frame. With the accurate pose estimates, the robot is able to pick up all champagne cups from the table and arrange them into a champagne tower.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

We introduce \textit{LIT}, a two-stage generative-discriminative object and pose recognition method for transparent objects using light-field observations. \textit{LIT} employs the learning power of deep networks to distinguish transparent objects across light-field sub-aperture images. We show that the network trained only on synthetic data can deliver a good segmentation on transparent materials, which is served as matching target for second stage pose estimation. Along with the method, we propose the light-field transparent object dataset including synthetic and real data for the tasks of object recognition, segmentation, and 6D pose estimation. We demonstrate the use of \textit{LIT} for a purposeful robot manipulation task over transparent cups. However, our method still has limitations in cluttered environments where the first stage segmentation results cannot provide distinguishable object shapes for second stage refinement. Possible future works built on \textit{LIT} could be instance-level segmentation based on transparent objects and single-view light-field depth estimation directly predicted by neural network.

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