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Detection of Surface Defects and Subsurface Defects of Polished Optics with Multisensor Image Fusion

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Abstract: Surface defects (SDs) and subsurface defects (SSDs) are the key factors decreasing the laser damage threshold of optics. Due to the spatially stacked structure, accurately detecting and distinguishing them has become a major challenge. Herein a detection method for SDs and SSDs with multisensor image fusion is proposed. The optics is illuminated by a laser under dark field condition, and the defects are excited to generate scattering and fluorescence lights, which are received by two image sensors in a wide-field microscope. With the modified algorithms of image registration and feature-level fusion, different types of defects are identified and extracted from the scattering and fluorescence images. Experiments show that two imaging modes can be realized simultaneously by multisensor image fusion, and HF etching verifies that SDs and SSDs of polished optics can be accurately distinguished. This method provides a more targeted reference for the evaluation and control of the defects of optics, and exhibits potential in the application of material surface research.

Keywords: Polished optics; Surface defects; Subsurface defects; Multisensor; Image fusion.

Introduction

Cutting, grinding and polishing are commonly used contact processing methods for optics, and they can cause surface defects (SDs) such as pits, scratches, and micro-cracks. These defects are not only distributed on the surface, but may further extend to a depth of several micrometers to hundreds of micrometers below the surface, becoming subsurface defects (SSDs). These defects will degrade the mechanical stability of the optics in extreme environment, such as space telescopes^[1] and deep-

31 ultraviolet detectors^[2]. And in high-power solid-state laser devices^[3, 4], even small-sized defects can
32 cause the laser damage threshold to decrease, which becomes one of the key factors limiting the increase
33 of energy density^[5, 6]. It is necessary to detect and evaluate SDs and SSDs accurately, and reduce them
34 during processing or subsequent processing.

35 The detection of SDs is relatively mature at present. For example, the method using atomic force
36 microscope or electron microscope has high resolution, and is suitable for the detection in small
37 sampling areas. Efficient and fast detection of SDs of large optics can be realized by digital evaluation
38 system with wide-field scattering microscope^[7, 8]. But SSDs are covered under the surface, which are
39 difficult to directly detect by classic detection systems for SDs. Specific detection methods for SSDs
40 have been developed. Destructive ones such as acid etching^[9], dimpling^[10], etc. They expose SSDs
41 through physical or chemical means, and will cause irreversible damage to the optics. Non-destructive
42 methods based on optical imaging include total internal reflection microscope (TIRM)^[11], confocal laser
43 scanning microscope (CLSM)^[12, 13], and optical coherence tomography (OCT)^[14], etc. They illuminate
44 the detection area in different ways, receive the optical signal modulated by SSDs, and will not cause
45 damage. CLSM with fluorescence imaging is widely used for SSD detection in recent years^[15, 16]. The
46 optics are doped with tiny fluorescent materials during grinding and polishing, and they can generate
47 fluorescence under the excitation of lasers. These materials may come from the cooling fluid used in
48 polishing^[15], or may be artificially doped quantum dots^[17]. They are buried in the pits, scratches and
49 other mechanical damage in subsurface layer. In addition, studies have shown that this kind of SSDs
50 with fluorescence characteristics is closely related to the laser damage of optics^[18, 19].

51 The surface of polished optics is relatively smooth, and most of the defects are removed, but there
52 are still some residues randomly distributed on the surface and subsurface. Since SDs and SSDs may be
53 stacked in space, it is a major challenge to quickly detect and accurately distinguish them by non-
54 destructive detection. CLSM with fluorescence imaging has capabilities of high resolution and three-
55 dimensional (3D) reconstruction. But the system is complex, and its field of view is quite small, which
56 is usually used for small-range detection of hundreds of microns. The large-range detection can be
57 realized by wide-field scattering imaging, but SDs and SSDs cannot be distinguished. Herein, a

58 multisensor image fusion detection method is proposed, which combines wide-field scattering and
59 fluorescence imaging. The sample is illuminated by a laser, and a microscope system is placed in a
60 direction perpendicular to the sample. Scattering and fluorescence lights are split by the system, and
61 received by two image sensors at the same time. Multisensor images are processed by spatial registration
62 and feature-level fusion, realizing the identification and extraction of SDs and SSDs.

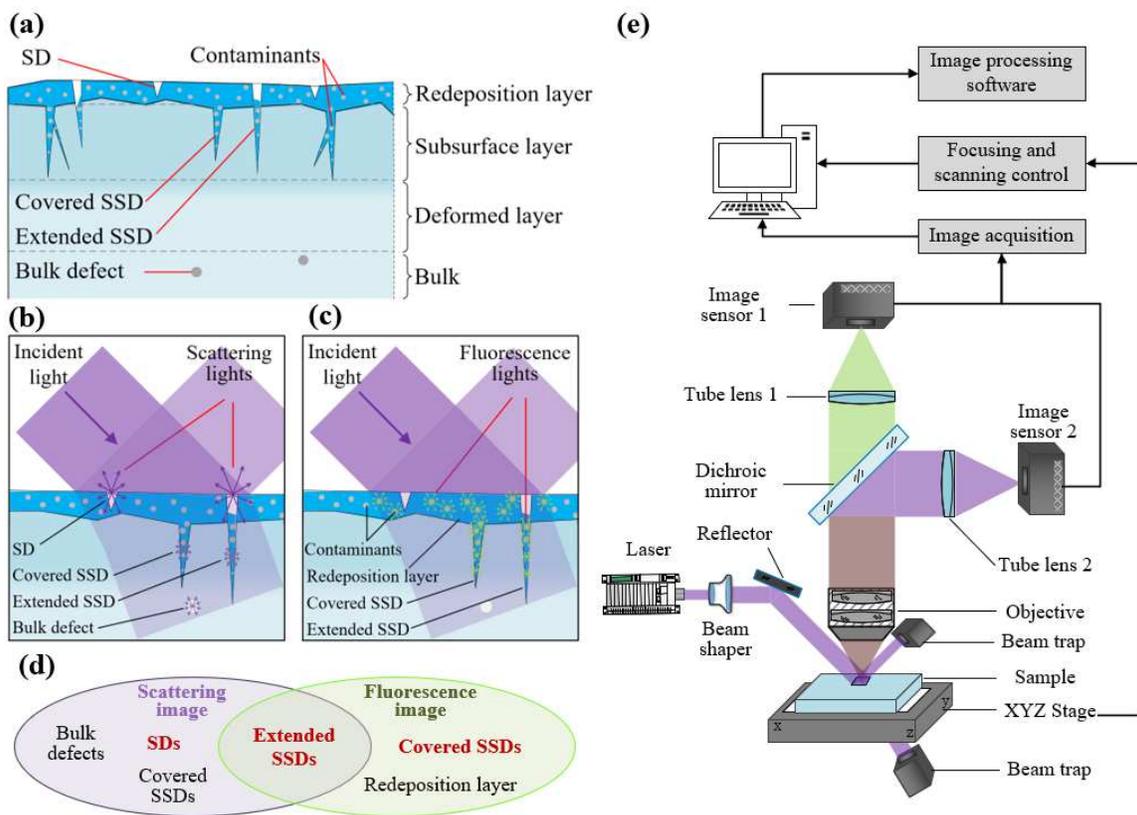
63 **Results and discussion**

64 **Multisensor imaging system**

65 Polishing is the last processing process of most optics, SDs and SSDs are greatly affected by polishing.
66 The surface and subsurface structure of a polished optics is shown in Fig. 1a. From top to bottom, there
67 are redeposition layer (or hydrolyzed layer, Beilby layer, polishing layer), subsurface layer, deformed
68 layer and the bulk^[20]. According to the chemical action theory and thermal surface flow theory, the
69 redeposition layer is produced by the hydrolysis of the polishing slurry and the material surface.
70 Contaminants such as cerium and iron remain in this layer, and the thickness of this layer is about tens
71 to hundreds of nanometers. According to the mechanical grinding theory, polishing particles enter the
72 redeposition layer and then slide on the material, resulting in polishing dots and polishing scratches.
73 They and a small amount of cracks remaining during grinding together constitute mechanical SSDs.
74 Affected by the pulling force of polishing, contaminants are quickly buried in these SSDs, covering all
75 or part of SSDs under the redeposition layer. Therefore, there is SSD that extends below the surface and
76 is partially covered^[21, 22]. The former is called extended SSD and the latter is called covered SSD in this
77 paper.

78 The principle of dark-field scattering imaging for defects detection is shown in Fig. 1b. The surface
79 of the sample is illuminated by the incident light obliquely at a certain angle, and the light is directly
80 reflected when there are no defects on the surface. If there are defects, the scattering light is generated
81 and can be received by the microscopy system (not shown in the figure), so a dark-field image with
82 bright defects can be obtained. Since transmissive optics can be penetrated by the incident light, covered
83 SSDs and bulk defects^[23] will also be illuminated and generate scattering light, but the strength is

84 relatively weak. Fluorescence imaging is similar to scattering imaging. As shown in Fig. 1c, the surface
 85 is illuminated by the excitation light, then the fluorescence is generated by contaminants with strong
 86 light absorption. These contaminants are all over the surface and subsurface. The ones buried in SDs
 87 are removed after cleaning; and the ones buried in the redeposition layer and SSDs are retained and
 88 become the main source of fluorescence. Because of the deep mechanical SSDs, they provide places for
 89 a large number of contaminants to gather, so the fluorescence is strong and concentrated. The depth of
 90 the redeposition layer is very shallow, there are few contaminants and they are evenly distributed, so the
 91 fluorescence from the redeposition layer is weak, showing as a uniform background.



92
 93 **Fig. 1** Principle and layout of multisensor imaging system. **a** Surface and subsurface structure of
 94 polished optics. **b** Scattering imaging principle of defects. **c** Fluorescence imaging principle of defects.
 95 **d** Different types of defects characterized by scattering image and fluorescence image. **e** Layout of the
 96 multisensor detection system.

97 As shown in Fig. 1d, SDs and extended SSDs are the main types of defects in scattering image,
 98 and they are hard to distinguish. Extended SSDs and covered SSDs are the main types of defects in

99 fluorescence image, and they are also hard to distinguish. The defects information collected by one
100 imaging method is very limited, so multisensor imaging includes both scattering and fluorescence
101 modes is proposed. Scattering and fluorescence lights are collected by two independent sensors
102 simultaneously to improve efficiency. Different types of defects are identified from the multisensor
103 images, so they can be reduced in a targeted manner in subsequent processing.

104 A detection system designed based on the principle of multisensor imaging is shown in Fig. 1e.
105 Two image sensors are used in the microscope to take scattering and fluorescence images simultaneously,
106 and a laser is used as the light source for two imaging modes. The sample used in the experiment is an
107 optical window of polished fused silica with a size of 100×100mm and a thickness of 5mm. When it is
108 illuminated by an ultraviolet laser, fluorescence in the visible light can be generated from the SSDs^{[19,}
109 ^{24]}. Therefore, a 355nm quasi-continuous laser is used as the excitation light in the system. The laser of
110 Gaussian beam is modulated into a uniform flat-top beam by a shaper, so the energy density of the
111 illuminated area is basically the same, covering the field of view of the imaging system. Reflected and
112 transmitted lights are absorbed by beam traps to reduce stray light. Scattering and fluorescence lights
113 generated by defects are received by an objective (4×, NA 0.13), and after being split by a 409nm
114 dichroic mirror (transmission wavelength: 415-850 nm), they enter different tube lenses ($f=150\text{mm}$) and
115 image sensors respectively. The sensors are ultraviolet-enhanced CCD and electron-enhanced CCD
116 (pixel size: 13.3 μm , resolution: 1024×1024). Both sensors are located at a position conjugate to the
117 object plane, and take the scattering and fluorescence images on the same imaging area. The focusing
118 and scanning control system is used to control the 3D movement of the sample by a XYZ stage, and
119 adjusts the posture of the sample to keep it in focus positions.

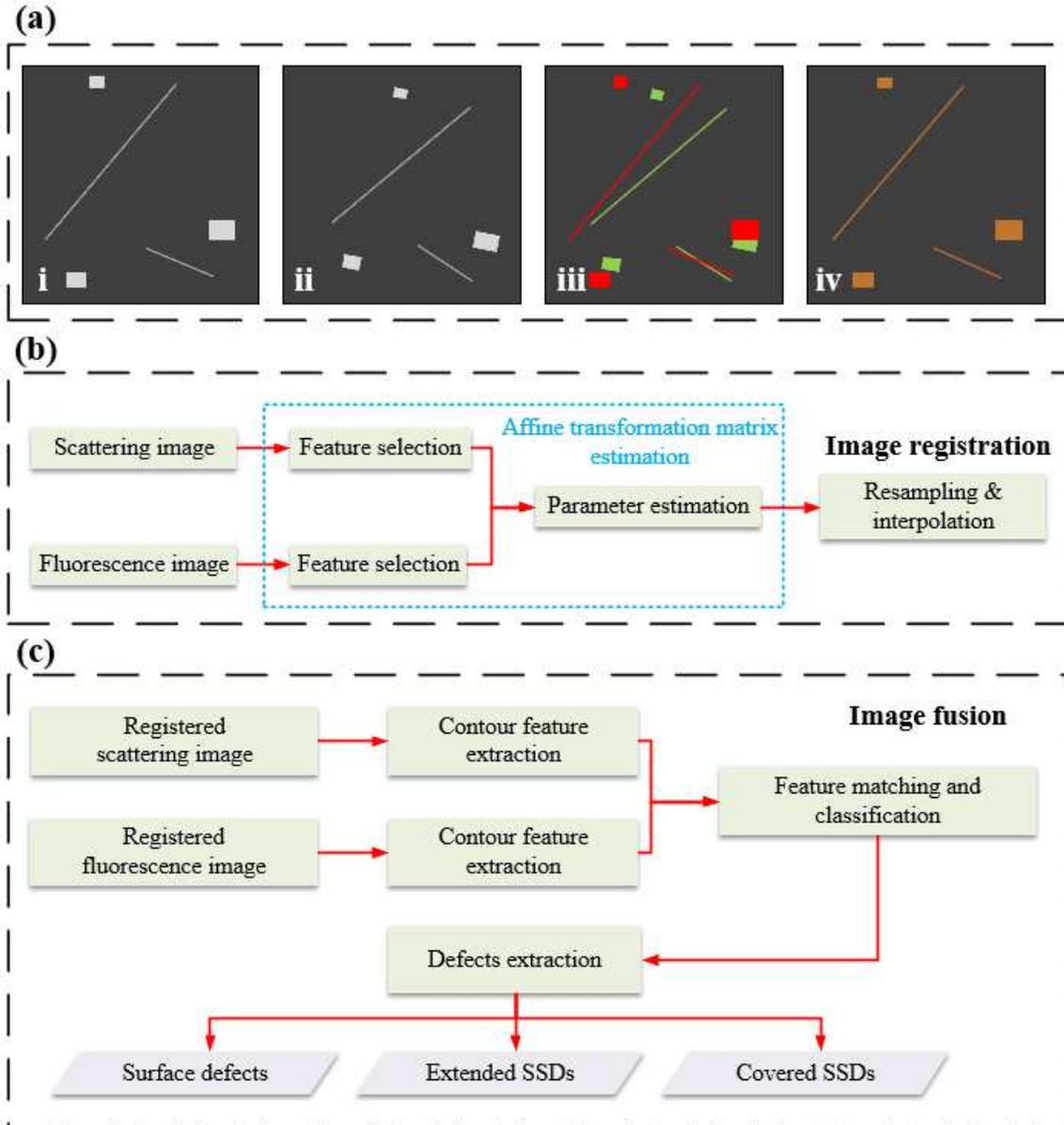
120 Image processing includes preprocessing, registration and fusion. The scattering and fluorescence
121 images are first preprocessed after reading into the computer, including denoising, background
122 homogenization, and distortion correction. Then the defects will be highlighted from the background,
123 which is conducive to the subsequent image processing. Next, two images will be registered and fused
124 to get images characterizing SDs, extended SSDs and covered SSDs respectively.

125 **Image registration and fusion**

126 Image registration refers to the process of matching multiple images of the same scene to make their
127 features correspond. These images with overlapping regions may be taken at different times, different
128 conditions, or different sensors. Even if the same objective lens, tube lens and image sensors are used
129 in the multisensor imaging system, the positions of image planes will be slightly different due to the
130 difference in the detection wavelength. In addition, there will inevitably be differences in the positions
131 of the imaging devices in the optical path, especially the image sensors. These factors will cause the
132 difference of the imaging range of the target.

133 As shown in Fig. 2a.i & 2a.ii, the imaging results of polishing scratches and polishing dots are
134 represented by straight lines and rectangles. These defects are extended SSDs, which exist in both
135 scattering and fluorescence images. Due to the difference between the two imaging systems, there are
136 differences in the position, size and rotation angle of the same defects in the two images. The
137 unregistered and registered superimposition images are shown in Fig. 2a.iii & 2a.iv (the defects in the
138 scattering image and the fluorescence image are set to red and green respectively for display). If the two
139 images are not registered, the same defect cannot be overlapped in the superimposition image. In the
140 subsequent image fusion process, it is easy to misjudge the spatial location of such defects. Therefore,
141 image registration become one of the key steps before image fusion.

142 The flow chart of image registration is shown in Fig. 2b. First, the feature points are selected in the
143 scattering and fluorescence images respectively, and then the parameters of the transformation matrix
144 are estimated based on affine transformation. Finally, the image is resampled and interpolated to
145 complete the registration. After the system is set up, multisensor imaging system will no longer change,
146 so the affine transformation matrix is also fixed. Therefore, after the matrix is estimated for the first
147 time, the parameters can be used directly to complete image registration.



148

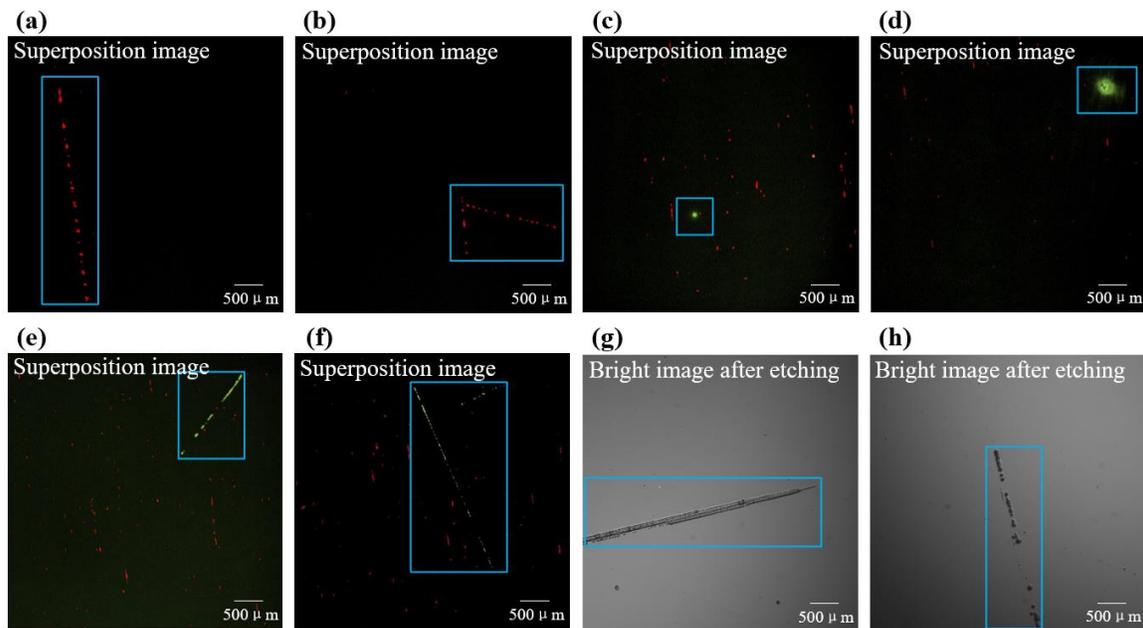
149 **Fig. 2** Image registration and fusion. **a** Diagrams of image registration. i. scattering image; ii.
 150 fluorescence image; iii. unregistered superposition image; iv. registered superposition image. **b**
 151 flow chart of image registration. **c** Flow chart of image fusion.

152 Image fusion is a multi-level image processing that uses the temporal or spatial correlation and
 153 complementarity of two (or more) images to get more accurate fusion images. For the multisensor image
 154 fusion detection system, the images taken by two sensors are based on different imaging principles,
 155 having different physical meanings. The information of the scattering and fluorescence images is both
 156 complementary and redundant, and the purpose of image fusion is to get images that characterize

157 different types of defects. According to the characteristics of the images of defects, feature-level fusion
158 is used in this paper, and the flow chart is shown in Fig. 2c. First, the contours of all defects in the
159 scattering and fluorescence images are extracted, and the coordinates of the contour points are recorded.
160 Then the coordinates are used for feature matching, and the defects are divided into three types. Finally,
161 the defects are classified and extracted, getting images that characterize SDs, extended SSDs and
162 covered SSDs respectively.

163 **Imaging and identification of typical defects**

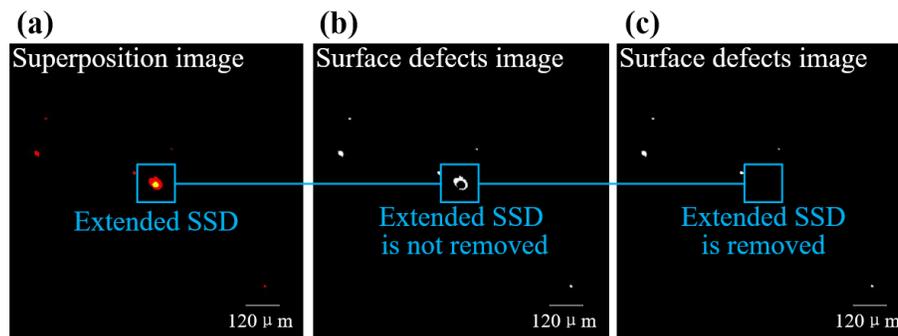
164 The imaging results of SDs and covered SSDs are shown in Fig. 3a-3f, they are superimposition images
165 of scattering and fluorescence images. The red areas in Fig. 3a-3b are surface scratches. They only exist
166 in the scattering image, indicating that they are SDs. The green areas in Fig. 3c-3d are polishing points,
167 and in Fig. 3e-3f are polishing scratches. These four defects are all covered SSDs, which are covered
168 under the redeposition layer and cannot generate obvious scattering lights, only existing in the
169 fluorescence image. The sample is etched with HF acid to verify the effectiveness of multisensor
170 imaging for SSDs detection. As shown in Fig. 3g-3h, the covered SSDs are fully exposed after etching,
171 which can be directly observed by a bright field microscope.



172
173 **Fig. 3** Imaging results and etching verification of SDs and covered SSDs. **a b** Superposition images,

174 there are SDs in the figures (red areas). **c d e f** Superposition images, there are covered SSDs in the
175 figures (green areas). **g h** Bright images, there are covered SSDs after etching.

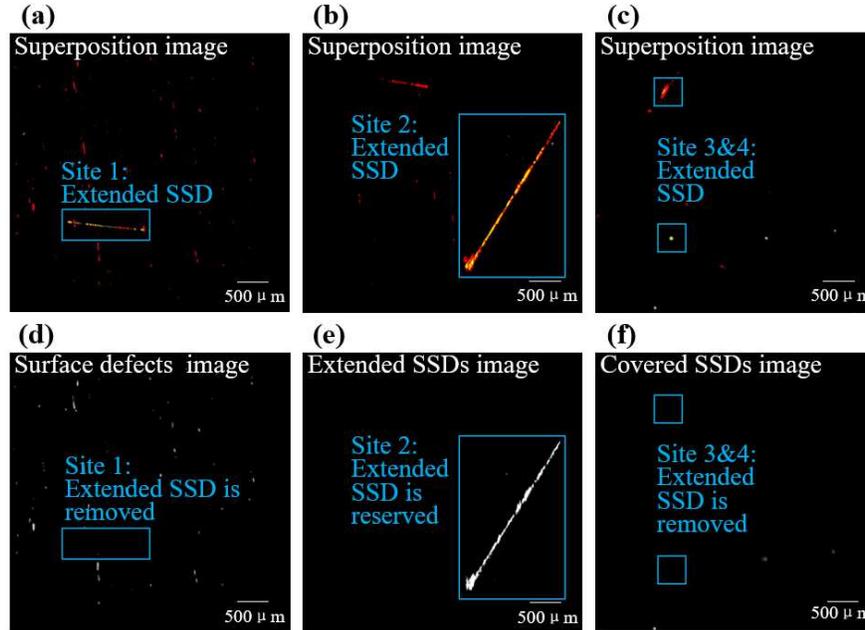
176 The imaging result of an extended SSD is shown in Fig. 4a. This defect exists in both the scattering
177 and fluorescence images, and the overlapping area is displayed in yellow (red in the scattering image,
178 green in the fluorescence image, and the overlapping area becomes yellow after superimposition). To
179 get an image characterizes SDs, the extended SSD is needed to be removed from the scattering image.
180 The removal result after the pixel-level processing is shown in Fig. 4b. The defect in the fluorescent
181 image is first expanded, and then the expanded area is subtracted from the scattered image. It can be
182 seen from the result that the defect is not completely removed, but a "doughnut" remains, which is
183 physically meaningless. Although the "doughnut" can be removed by adjusting the expansion
184 parameters, but it is difficult to set parameters suitable for different sizes of defects. The removal
185 result after the feature-level image fusion is shown in Fig. 4c. It can be seen that the extended SSD is
186 completely removed, and the remaining defects in the figure are SDs.



187
188 **Fig. 4** Imaging and removal results of extended SSDs. **a** Superposition image. **b** SDs image (the
189 extended SSD is not completely removed). **c** SDs image (the extended SSD is completely removed).

190 The superimposition images taken in three sites are shown in Fig. 5a - 5c. There are extended SSDs
191 in all three images, and image fusion is needed to extract different types of defects. There is a scratch
192 that exists in both the scattering and fluorescence images in Fig. 5a, and after it is removed from the
193 scattering image, a SDs image is obtained as shown in Fig. 5d. There is also a scratch that exists in both
194 the scattering and fluorescence images in Fig. 5b, and after it is extracted, an extended SSDs image is
195 obtained as shown in Fig. 5e. There are two polishing dots in both the scattering and fluorescence images
196 in Fig. 5c, and after they are removed from the fluorescence image, a covered SSDs image is obtained

197 as shown in Fig. 5f. After the defects are classified and extracted by image fusion, the scratches and pits
198 in the images can be identified, and the sizes of the defects can be calculated with calibration^[25], finally
199 realizing the quantitative evaluation of various defects.



200

201 **Fig. 5** Extraction results of three types of defects. **a b c** Superposition images of three sites. **d** Surface
202 defects image (the extended SSD in Fig. 5a is removed). **e** Extended SSDs image (the extended SSD in
203 Fig. 5b is reserved). **f** Covered SSDs image (the extended SSD in Fig. 5c is removed).

204 **Methods**

205 This section presents briefly the algorithms for image registration and fusion. In the beginning,
206 preprocessing is introduced. Whether it is a scattering image or a fluorescence image, the image pixels
207 where the defect is located have different gray-scale from the surrounding background, which is shown
208 as a bright spot on a dark background. However, the noise generated during image acquisition and the
209 uneven background generated by the illumination will adversely affect the extraction of defects. In the
210 previous paper, we have introduced the preprocessing algorithms such as Top-Hat algorithm, gray-scale
211 converting and medium filter^[25].

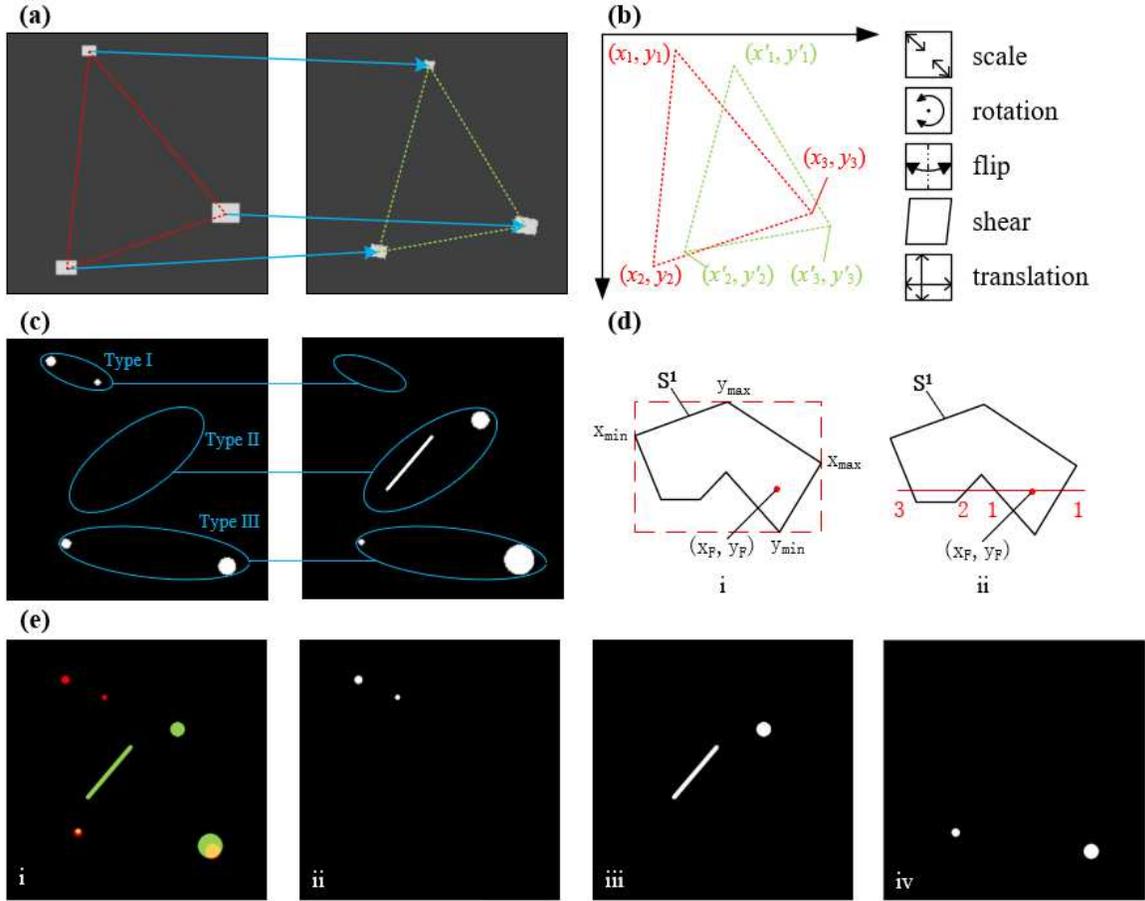
212 The core step of image registration, affine transformation matrix estimation is introduced next. For
213 two images to be registered for the same target, if the distance between a pair of feature points in the

214 two images is small enough, it is considered that the points correspond to the same position in the target
 215 object. This feature-based registration calculates the spatial transformation model between the images
 216 by extracting the positional relationship between a pair of feature points. The analysis and processing
 217 of the entire image is transformed into few points, which greatly reduces the amount of calculations. In
 218 the multisensor image fusion detection system, the polished dots appear as bright spots under a dark
 219 background in the scattering and fluorescence images, and the shapes are generally regular with obvious
 220 closed area characteristics, which are suitable choices for feature points. The fluorescence and the
 221 scattering image are used as fixed image and moving image respectively, and the feature points
 222 coordinate sets of the fixed image $\{(x_i, y_i)\}$ and the moving image $\{(x'_i, y'_i)\}$ are established (i is the
 223 number of selected feature points). As shown in Fig. 6a, three polishing dots that exist in both the
 224 fluorescence and scattering images are selected as feature points. The centroid coordinates of the
 225 polishing dots are used as feature point coordinates as Fig. 6b.

226 After the feature points are determined, the spatial transformation model parameters between the
 227 fixed and moving images are calculated by affine transformation. The model of affine transformation
 228 can be expressed as:

$$229 \quad \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & t_x \\ a_3 & a_4 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{M} \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

230 where (x, y) and (x', y') are the pixel coordinates of the feature point pair in the fixed image and the
 231 moving image respectively; a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4 are the transformation parameters of scale, rotation, flip
 232 and shear; t_x, t_y are the translation parameters. Substituting the coordinates $\{(x_i, y_i)\}$ and
 233 $\{(x'_i, y'_i)\}$ into formula (1), the affine transformation matrix \mathbf{M} can be calculated. Since there are 6
 234 unknowns in formula (1), at least 3 pairs of non-collinear feature points are needed. The moving image
 235 is resampled and interpolated according to the affine transformation matrix, and its coordinate system
 236 is mapped to the coordinate system of the fixed image.



237

238 **Fig. 6** Algorithm schematic diagrams for image registration and fusion. **a** Diagrams of feature points
 239 selection from two images to be registered (scattering image on the left, fluorescence image on the right).
 240 **b** Diagrams of affine transformation model. **c** Simulation images of three types of defects (scattering
 241 image on the left, fluorescence image on the right). **d** Diagrams of contour overlap judgment: i. coarse
 242 judgment; ii. fine judgment. **e** Results of image fusion: i. superposition image; ii. type I defects (SDs);
 243 iii. type II defects (covered SSDs); iv. Type III defects (extended SSDs).

244 The images are binarized after registration, and then they are processed by modified algorithm of
 245 feature-level fusion. The algorithm consists of three steps: a. Contour feature extraction; b. Feature
 246 matching and classification; c. Defects extraction. Next, they will be introduced in detail.

247 a. Contour feature extraction

248 The contour features in the image are extracted at first in the process of feature-level image fusion,
 249 and a feature space is retained, reducing memory and time consumption. Traversal searching is used to
 250 extract contour features of the defects, and the steps are as follows:

- 251 i. First search the image from top to bottom, from left to right, and find the first white pixel
252 as the contour point of the first defect, and record its coordinates as (x_1, y_1) .
- 253 ii. Take the first contour point as the center, and start the search for the second contour
254 point clockwise in the 8-neighborhood with (x_1, y_1) as the starting point, and denote
255 the second contour point as (x_2, y_2) . The basis for judging the contour point is: if the
256 four adjacent points of a certain point are white points, it is not a contour point,
257 otherwise it is a contour point.
- 258 iii. Take the second contour point as the center, repeat the step in ii. Until it returns to
259 (x_1, y_1) , it means that the traversal of all contour points of the first defect has been
260 completed, and these contour points are denoted as set $F^1 = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), \dots\}$.
- 261 iv. Repeat the above steps, establish the contour point coordinate set F^i of all the defects
262 in the figure, where i is the number of the defect.

263 The defects can be numbered while obtaining the contour point coordinates of each defect. If there
264 are a total of m defects in the fluorescence image, the contour point coordinate set of the i -th defect
265 is denoted as $F^i (i = 1, 2, \dots, m)$; and there are a total of n defects in the scattering image, the contour
266 point coordinate set of the j -th defect is denoted as $S^j (j = 1, 2, \dots, n)$.

267 b. Feature matching and classification

268 The commonly used feature matching method is template matching. If the morphological similarity
269 of the features in two images is greater than a threshold, the two features are considered to belong to the
270 same target. The defects are mainly linear scratches and dotted polished dots, and there will be a lot of
271 similar features in the image. And the scattering image and the fluorescence image are taken by different
272 imaging mechanisms, even the same defect may show different topography in the two images. Therefore,
273 template matching is not suitable for the feature matching of defects. The spatial information of the
274 defects is used for feature matching in this paper. As shown in Fig. 6c, if the contour of a defect in the

275 scattering image does not overlap with any contour in the fluorescence image, the defect belongs to
 276 Type I (SD, which only exists in the scattering image). If the contour of a defect in the fluorescence
 277 image does not overlap with any contour in the scattering image, the defect belongs to Type II (covered
 278 SSD, which only exists in the fluorescence image). If the contour of a defect overlaps on the two images,
 279 the defect belongs to Type III (extended SSD, which exist in both scattering and fluorescence images).

280 The key to feature matching is to accurately determine whether the contour overlaps in the two
 281 images. The judgment criterion used in this paper is: if there are two points on the contour of a defect
 282 that are located within the area contained by the contour of another defect, the two defects are spatially
 283 overlapped. For example, take one point (x_F, y_F) in the first defect F^1 to determine whether it
 284 locates within the irregular area contained by the first defect S^1 . As shown in Fig. 6d.i, the rough
 285 judgment is carried out first. The maximum and minimum values of the abscissa and ordinate in S^1 are
 286 denoted as x_{\max} , x_{\min} , y_{\max} , y_{\min} respectively. According to the coordinates of the above four points,
 287 a circumscribed rectangle of S^1 can be constructed. If (x_F, y_F) is outside this rectangle, that is:

$$288 \quad (x_F > x_{\max}) \vee (x_F < x_{\min}) \vee (y_F > y_{\max}) \vee (y_F < y_{\min}).$$

289 Then (x_F, y_F) must be outside the irregular area of S^1 , and the coarse judgment is completed. On the
 290 contrary, if (x_F, y_F) is within the circumscribed rectangle, the Ray Casting Algorithm^[26] is used for
 291 fine judgment. As shown in Fig. 6d.ii, a horizontal straight line through (x_F, y_F) is drawn, and the
 292 number of times that the straight line intersects the contour of S^1 are calculated. If the number of
 293 intersection points on the left and right sides of the point are both odd, then the point is inside the contour,
 294 otherwise it is outside. The number of intersections on the left and right sides are 3 and 1 respectively
 295 shown in Fig. 6d ii, so it can be judged that (x_F, y_F) is in the irregular area contained by S^1 .

296 The implementation of fine judgment are provide in references^[26, 27]. Compared with the point-by-
 297 point comparison in the connected domain, this feature-level matching only traverses the points on the
 298 contour, reducing the time required for feature matching. And the number of judgments is greatly

299 reduced by two rounds of judgment. After all the points in F^i are traversed, if there are two points
300 located in the irregular area contained by S^j , it means that the two defects F^i and S^j are overlapped.
301 Comparing all the features in F^i and S^j , all the overlapped defects can be indentified and marked,
302 which belong to type III. After the marked defects removed from S^j , the remaining ones belong to
303 Type I. And after the marked defects removed from F^i , the remaining ones belong to Type II.

304 c. Defects extraction

305 After the classification of all defects is completed, the final step of image fusion is to extract defects
306 to get fused images with accurate physical meaning. The image in Fig. 6e.i is the superposition result
307 of the scattering and fluorescence images in Fig.6c. This image retains the information taken by two
308 sensors to the greatest extent, and Type I, Type II and Type III defects are set to red, green and yellow
309 respectively. Fig. 6e.ii - 6e.iv are fusion images after defects extraction. A single image does not cover
310 all the information taken by two sensors, but each one characterizes a type of defect and has a more
311 accurate physical meaning.

312 **Conclusion**

313 SDs can be detected by scattering imaging, but the detection results will be interfered by SSDs; SSDs
314 can be detected by fluorescence imaging, but it is difficult to distinguish between the extended SSDs
315 and covered SSDs. Based on the scattering and fluorescence imaging principles of polished optics, a
316 multisensor image fusion detection method for SDs and SSDs is proposed. Two image sensors are used
317 for wide-field imaging in two modes at the same time, which has the advantages of large imaging range
318 and high detection efficiency. The scattering and fluorescence images are processed by registration and
319 fusion algorithms, and after contour extraction, feature matching and classification, three types of
320 defects are extracted. The method provides a rich reference for the quality evaluation of the optical
321 surface processing, which is beneficial to improve the processing technology, reducing various defects
322 in a more targeted manner.

323 **Abbreviations**

324 SDs: Surface defects; SSDs: subsurface defects (SSDs); TIRM: total internal reflection microscope;
325 CLSM: confocal laser scanning microscope; OCT: optical coherence tomography; 3D: three-
326 dimensional; CCD: charge coupled device; HF: hydrogen fluoride.

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329 their helps in programming.

330 **Authors' contributions**

331 Huanyu Sun: Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing original draft. Shiling Wang: Conceptualization,
332 Methodology. Xiaobo Hu: Software, Formal analysis. Hongjie Liu: Methodology. Xiaoyan Zhou:
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341 **Availability of data and materials**

342 The calculation and experiment data that support the works of this study are available from the
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344 **Competing interests**

345 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

346 **References**

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