A Portable Low-Cost Archaeological 3D Imaging and Cataloging System

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Abstract. This paper introduces a cross-platform low-cost system for 3D object reconstruction using a projection-based laser scanner. It uses contact-free measurement techniques for 3D object reconstruction and fast surface registration using Iterative Closest Point (ICP) [1]. The only hardware requirements are a simple commercial hand-held laser and a standard camera. The camera is initially calibrated using Zhang's camera calibration method so that its external and internal parameters are exactly known. The visible intersection with the background is used to find the exact 3D pose of the laser plane. This laser plane is used to triangulate new 3D point coordinates of the object's surface. The point clouds obtained are processed using 3D Toolkit (3DTK) [2] which includes an automatic high-accurate registration process and a fast 3D viewer.

Keywords: Camera Calibration, Hough Transformation, 3D Reconstruction, Scan Registration, Hand-Held Laser, Image Filters, Color Models

1 Introduction

introduction

2 Related Work

related work

3 Approach

cite: David Laser Scanner

elevator pitch

3.1 Data Acquisition

We used a standard digital camera to capture multiple runs of a hand-held laser sweeping across the object as shown in figure 1. Since the videos were stored in raw format which cannot be directly processed by OpenCV [3], we used mplayer to extract individual frames at the rate of 5 frames per second.



Fig. 1. Data Acquisition

These frames were then later read into memory by calling the OpenCV routine cvLoadImage() with a CV_LOAD_IMAGE_UNCHANGED flag. The routine allocates an image data structure and returns a pointer to a struct of type IplImage

3.2 Camera Calibration

The first step in the process of reconstructing the 3D geometry of the object is to establish a mathematical relationship between the natural units of the camera with the physical units of the 3D world. We used camera calibration to learn the internal parameters of the camera and its distortion coefficients. The geometry is described in terms of camera's optical center and focal length.

We used OpenCV routines that are based on [4] [5] and used a planar chess-board pattern as our calibration object. We rotated and translated the pattern to provide multiple views to get the precise information about the intrinsic parameters of the camera as shown in figure 2. We used OpenCV routine cvFindChessboardCorners() to locate the corners and once we had enough corners from multiple view images, we used cvCalibrateCamera2() to get the intrinsic matrix A as shown in equation 1.

$$s \times \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = A \times \begin{bmatrix} R \mid T \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x_w \\ y_w \\ z_w \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
where $A = \begin{bmatrix} f_x & 0 & c_x \\ 0 & f_y & c_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (1)

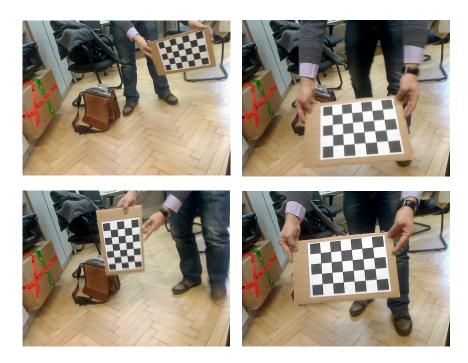


Fig. 2. Calculating the Camera's Intrinsic Parameters

The intrinsic matrix A was later used to describe the pose of the objects being scanned by the laser relative to the coordinate system of the camera. In order to determine this pose on both sides of the target object, the patterns were masked out to allow individual calculation as shown in figure 3. The parameters represented by $\begin{bmatrix} R \mid T \end{bmatrix}$ could then be separately calculated for both the sides by calling the OpenCV routine cvFindExtrinsicCameraParams2().

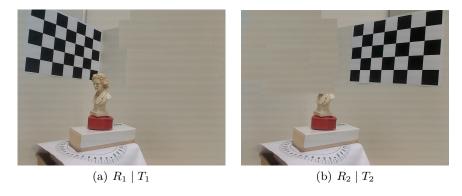


Fig. 3. Calculating the Camera's Extrinsic Parameters

3.3 Identification of 2D Laser Lines and Object Points

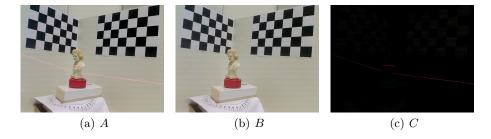


Fig. 4. Using Image Difference to Find the Laser

We used OpenCV routine cvAbsDiff() to calculate the image difference of the laser image from the reference image using equation 2. The resulted image difference is shown in figure 4

$$C = A - B$$
 (2)
where A is the laser image in figure 4(a) and B is the reference image in figure 4(b) and C is the difference image in figure 4(c)

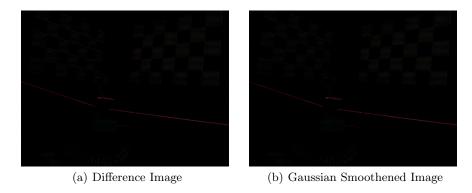


Fig. 5. Gaussian Smoothing the Difference Image

In order to reduce the noise in the difference image, we used the OpenCV routine cvSmooth() to convolve the image with a Gaussian kernel function as shown in figure 5. It not only helped us to remove the camera artifacts but also reduce the information content in the image.

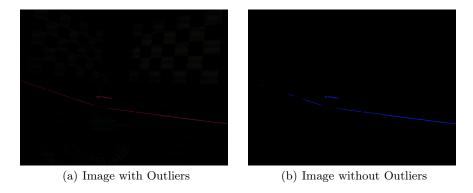
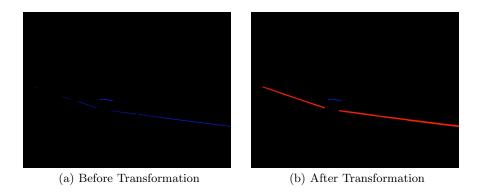


Fig. 6. Color Thresholding to Remove Outliers

In order to blacken out (remove) all outliers and keep just the pixels representing the red laser line as shown in figure 6, we used a pre-defined threshold value for the intensity of the red pixels. In order to restrict this thresholding only along the red channel, we used cvSplit() to split the three-channel (R,G,B) difference image into separate one-channel image planes. We used cvGet2D() and cvSet2D() to work on the scalar intensity values of the pixels.



 ${\bf Fig.~7.~} {\bf Hough~} {\bf Transformation}$

We used Probabilistic Progressive Hough Transform (PPHT) [6], [7] using OpenCV routine cvHoughLines2() to detect the laser lines on both sides of the target object. The line end points of each line thus obtained were used to draw the line using cvLine() as shown in figure 7. The difference image was initially passed through an edge detection phase, since hough transform not only expects a gray-scale image as input but the input is also treated as binary information where the non-zero points are edge points of the image. Therefore, we used OpenCV routine cvCvtColor to convert the RGB difference image to gray scale

and cvCanny() to perform the Canny Edge Detection [8] before PPHT. The two hough line equations on either side of the object were used to learn the laser line points, while the points not identified as part of the hough line were taken as target object points.

3.4 Generation of Point Cloud

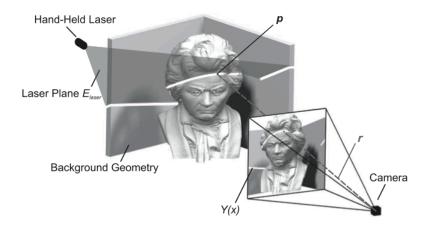


Fig. 8. Laser Triangulation [9]

The first step is to use the calculated camera extrinsics $(R \mid T)$ for each side of the target object along with the intrinsic parameters (A) to transform each laser pixel (P_c) into 3D laser surface points (P_w) using equation 3. The laser pixel points are expressed in the homogenous coordinate system.

$$P_{w} = \underbrace{s \times R^{-1} \times A^{-1} \times P_{c}}_{\overrightarrow{b}} - \underbrace{R^{-1} \times T}_{\overrightarrow{d}}$$
where $P_{c} = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \overrightarrow{d} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{x} \\ a_{y} \\ a_{z} \end{pmatrix}, \overrightarrow{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{x} \\ b_{y} \\ b_{z} \end{pmatrix}$
and $s = \frac{a_{z}}{b_{z}}$

Next in order to bring all the laser surface points into a common coordinate system, we transformed all the 3D laser points from the right side of the target object to the coordinate system of the left side using equation 4

$$P_{l} = R_{1}^{-1} \times P_{r} - R_{1}^{-1} T_{1}$$
 where $P_{r} = [R_{2} \mid T_{2}] \times P_{w}$ (4)

With all the 3D laser surface points in a common coordinate system, we randomly choose 3 points to generate the laser plane equation. Using the coefficients of this equation, we could define the normal to the plane (\overrightarrow{N}) using equation 5.

$$A_x + B_y + C_z + D = 0$$
where $\overrightarrow{N} = \begin{pmatrix} A \\ B \\ C \end{pmatrix}$ (5)

The last step is to use the target object pixels (P_{c}) and intersect them with the laser plane equation represented by the normal (N) to obtain the 3D surface points of the target object (P_{w}) as shown in figure 8 using equation 6

$$P_{w} = s \times R^{-1} \times A^{-1} \times P_{c} - R^{-1} \times T$$
where $s = \frac{\overrightarrow{N} \times \overrightarrow{a} - D}{\overrightarrow{b} \times \overrightarrow{N}}$ and $P_{c} = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

In addition, we used OpenCV routine cvGet2D() to retrieve the RGB color information for each object pixel and mapped it to the calculated corresponding 3D object surface point. We used the reference image as the source for retrieving the original color information since that image does not have a laser line sweeping the target object.

3.5 Point Cloud Processing and Registration

The generated point cloud was saved as a text file in the UOS_RGB file format. The first line represented the number of 3D object surface points and the following lines had (x,y,z) coordinates of each point respectively with their (R,G,B) information defined in a left-handed coordinate system. Each complete scan of the target object was in this way stored as a new scanXXX.3d file where XXX determines the index of the scan.

We used ICP [1] to register the two points from different scans into a common coordinate system using equation 7. The algorithm requires an initial starting guess of relative poses $(x, y, z, \theta_x, \theta_y, \theta_z)$ to compute the rotation and translation to fit the 3D geometrical models together. Since our system did not have an odometer, we set the initial pose to 0 and let it extrapolate further.

$$E(R,t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_m} \sum_{j=1}^{N_d} w_{i,j} \| m_i - (Rd_j + t) \|^2$$
 where $N_m =$ number of points in model set M

$$N_d = \text{number of points in data set } D$$

$$w_{i,j} = 1, \text{ if } m_i \text{ is closest to } d_j$$

$$w_{i,j} = 0, \text{ otherwise}$$

$$(7)$$

We used 6D Simultaneous Localization and Mapping (SLAM) from 3DTK [2] for automatic scan registration that uses cached kd-trees for fast iterative ICP match [10]. The slam6D component produced a frames file that was used by the show component to visualize the 3D model of the target object along with its color information.

4 Some Experimental Results

results



Fig. 9. Results

5 Evaluation and Comparison (maybe?)

evaluationcomparison

6 Conclusion

conclusion

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