Enhanced remote visual inspection of aircraft skin*

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ABSTRACT

Visual inspection is the most widely used method in commercial aircraft surface inspection. We have developed a prototype remote visual inspection system, designed to facilitate testing the feasibility and advantages of remote visual inspection of aircraft surfaces. We describe experiments with image understanding algorithms to aid remote visual inspection by enhancing and recognizing surface cracks and corrosion from live imagery. Also described are the supporting mobile robot platform that delivers the imagery, and the inspection console through which the inspector accesses it. We discuss initial results of the image understanding algorithms and speculate on their future use in aircraft surface inspection.

KEYWORDS: enhanced remote robotic visual inspection stereoscopic multiresolution ANDI CIMP

1. INTRODUCTION

Visual inspection of aircraft is the most widely used method employed for ensuring the structural integrity of an aircraft skin and its substructure. For example, a typical heavy inspection carried out on a commercial aircraft after every 12,000 flying hours, is about 90% visual and 10% non-destructive inspection (NDI).[1] Visual inspection involves putting a human inspector on the body of the aircraft to visually examine its surface for defects such as cracks, corrosion, damaged rivets, lightning strikes, etc. This practice raises safety issues for the inspector, is time consuming, and suffers at times from being ineffective due to inspector fatigue or boredom.[2]

An attractive alternative to the current inspection practice is remote visual inspection. In remote visual inspection, the inspector examines, at an inspection console, high-quality imagery of the inspection surface that is captured and delivered to the console by a remote mobile robot on the body of the aircraft. The robot may be teleoperated via low level controls, it may navigate autonomously under computer control, or typically something in between with high level commands issued by the inspector and low level details decided and executed by the computer. This method, while inherently safe (since the inspector is on the ground), allows for direct human observation of the remote aircraft surface. It also provides for computer processing of the delivered imagery for image processing, enhancing and understanding. Image processing involves adjusting contrast or range of the imagery dynamically, for improved visualization. Image enhancement amplifies high spatial frequencies of the imagery to highlight features suggestive of surface defects which are typically of high frequency nature.[3] Image understanding via characterization and recognition of surface defects, allows for automated defect detection and classification of the surface imagery. With the aid of these facilities, an inspector can safely, quickly and accurately perform the necessary visual inspection from the inspection console.

In Section 2 of this paper, we describe a prototype mobile robot called the Crown Inspection Mobile Platform (CIMP) designed to test and demonstrate the hypothesized feasibility and advantages of the remote visual inspection of an aircraft surface. Also included in section 2 is a brief description of the predecessor to CIMP, the Automated NonDestructive Inspection (ANDI) robot.[4,5] Section 3 discusses the inspection console that displays the remote imagery and a graphical user interface (GUI) that provides the inspector

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* This is an updated version of the paper "Image Understanding Algorithms for Remote Visual Inspection of Aircraft Surfaces", Priyan Gunatilake, M.W. Siegel, A.J.Jordan, and G. Podnar, Proceedings of SPIE "Machine Vision Applications in Industrial Inspection V", A. Ravishankar Rao and Ning Chang, Chairs/Editors, 10-11 February 1997, San Jose, CA, SPIE Vol. 3029.

with access to image processing, enhancing and understanding algorithms. Section 4 contains a brief discussion of image understanding for surface defect detection and a description of two common aircraft surface defects. Section 5 describes a surface crack detection algorithm. Section 6 describes a surface corrosion detection algorithm. Section 7 describes an approach to subsurface corrosion detection. Section 8 provides a summary discussion and thoughts about future work, and Section 9 draws some conclusions.

2. CIMP

The first aircraft-capable mobile robot developed at CMU was ANDI (the Automated NonDestructive Inspector of aging aircraft). ANDI successful1y demonstrated mobility, manipulation and navigational capabilities on an aircraft surface. However, due to the ANDI project emphasis on mobility and navigational issues, the delivery of high quality visual imagery useful for remote visual inspection was not addressed at length. After the initial demonstrations of ANDI, the first author launched another research effort with the twin objectives of designing a high quality remote imaging system that delivers useful inspection data and developing an inspection console consisting of a graphical user interface (GUI) and a library of image enhancement and understanding algorithms, through which an inspector could access, enhance and recognize surface defects from the live imagery. [See the Acknowledgments section for additional historical details.]

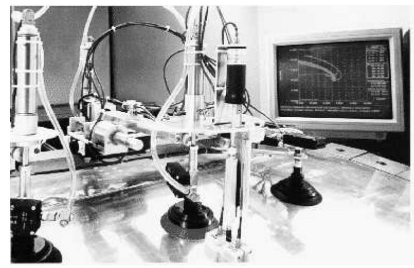

Fig 1. Automated NonDestructive Inspection (ANDI) robot

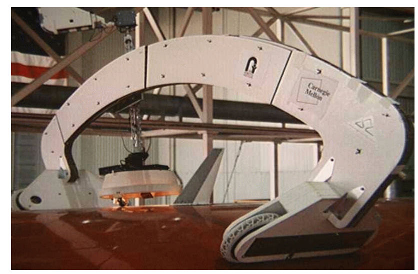

Fig 2. Crown Inspection Mobile Platform (CIMP) robot

CIMP was developed as a part of this second research effort. CIMP is a wireless remote-controlled mobile vehicle that carries a sensor package designed to deliver high quality, live imagery of the aircraft crown on which it travels. The sensor package of CIMP contains a stereoscopic pair of inspection cameras, a dynamic lighting array consisting of two fixed flood lights and a rotatable directional light source, and a stereoscopic pair of proprioceptive navigational cameras. The inspection cameras were developed in our laboratory, and are constructed in a geometrically correct imaging configuration that provides 3.5x magnified, natural, easy to view, high quality stereoscopic imagery of the aircraft surface.[6,7] The navigational and proprioceptive cameras provide a wide-angle stereoscopic view of CIMP with respect to the aircraft body that is used by the inspector to control and navigate CIMP. Left and right frames of the inspection or navigational camera pairs are interleaved at 120 Hz on a monitor in the inspection console, and viewed stereoscopically through active eyeware. Figures 1 and 2 show the ANDI and CIMP robots.

Fig 3a. remote live video station

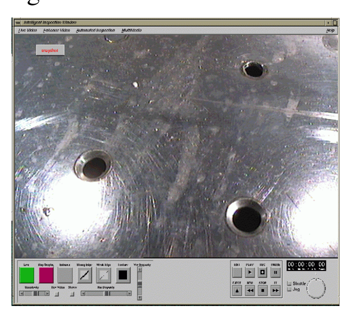

Fig 3b. Intelligent Inspection Window (IIW)

3. INSPECTION CONSOLE

The inspection console, through the display of stereoscopic imagery delivered by the inspection cameras and the proprioceptive navigational cameras, provides for remote visual inspection of aircraft surface and remote control and navigation of CIMP on the aircraft body. The current inspection console consists of two primary displays and their supporting equipment and a radio transmitter (of the type used to control model vehicles) that controls forward and backward motion, left right steering, camera position and orientation, and lighting selection and orientation. The first display is a monitor that provides live, flicker-free, full spatial and temporal resolution per eye, stereoscopic imagery of either the inspection or navigational camera pair. The second is a Silicon Graphics Indy workstation with a GUI that we call the Intelligent Inspection Window (IIW). The IIW performs a variety of tasks: it displays live monoscopic or still stereoscopic imagery; it acts as the operational interface and output display unit to the image enhancement and understanding algorithms that are tied to the menus and buttons of the IIW; and in the future, it will contain facilities for creating, editing, storing and retrieving multimedia records of surface defects. Figure 3a displays the live video station. Figure 3b displays the IIW.

4. IMAGE UNDERSTANDING AND SURFACE DEFECTS - BACKGROUND

The goal of an image understanding algorithm is to recognize and classify certain surface flaws from the live imagery. The recognition capability of this algorithm is achieved by correlating features of the live imagery with prior or learned knowledge of the surface flaw type. A high correlation of a feature in the live imagery with a flaw type will result in the feature being classified as a flaw of the correlated type. However, developing a successful image understanding algorithm remains a non-trivial challenge due to its dependency on factors such as normal and defect feature characterization, imaging resolution and environment factors such as illumination.

One scenario for application of image understanding algorithms in remote visual inspection is screening large volumes of image data. The image understanding algorithm can conservatively label all plausible defects, so that the inspector separates a larger fraction of actual defects from normal features in a smaller volume of raw data. Another scenario is the interactive use of these algorithms by inspectors to obtain a second opinion about a particular suspicious flaw. The latter possibility is most attractive when the real-time inspector is relatively inexperienced, in general or with respect to a specific problem, compared to the inspector or inspectors whose expertise has been incorporated (explicitly or implicitly) in the algorithm; in this case the computer fulfills a training role in addition to its direct inspection role.

We have developed prototype algorithms that detect surface cracks, surface corrosion, and subsurface corrosion evidenced by surface pillowing; the pillowing detection algorithm uses an auxiliary laser spot projector to facilitate precise height mapping of the inspected surface.

4.1. SURFACE CRACKS

Pressurization and de-pressurization of the aircraft during each flight cycle causes its body to expand and contract in a manner similar to inflating and deflating of a balloon. This expansion and contraction induces stress fatigue at rivets (which hold the aircraft surface skin to its frame), resulting in the growth of cracks outward from the rivets. The growth of a surface crack is essentially exponential in nature. There are many reliable models[8] which predict crack growth quite accurately as a function of the number of pressurization and depressurization cycles. The goal of visual inspection is to detect cracks that are above a minimum threshold length. This threshold length provides a safety margin that allows a crack to be missed in two or three consecutive inspections before it is big enough to endanger the structure of the aircraft.

One of the main methods inspectors use to find cracks is to observe the reflection of directional lighting incident on a rivet location, using a flashlight held at a low angle to the surface.[9] Absence of reflecting light from an edge (line on the surface) emanating from the rivet suggests the possibility of a crack; on the other hand, reflection of light indicates a scratch, which if small is harmless. Therefore the task for an inspector is to first detect edges emanating outwards from the rivets and then to discriminate the cracks from scratches and other edges from that edge pool. Since there may be hundreds of thousands of rivets on the aircraft body, inspection for cracks is a demanding and tiring task for the inspector.

4.2. SURFACE CORROSION

Corrosion is common due to the frequent exposure of the aircraft body to environments such as aircraft operating fluids, liquids spilled in the galleys, lavatory liquids, moisture of sea air, etc. Corrosion can appear as subsurface or surface corrosion. Surface corrosion is recognized by the appearance of corrosion texture. Subsurface corrosion is recognized by the bulging of the affected surface region, called "pillowing". Since corrosion results in a loss of structural material of the affected area, early detection is crucial. Corrosion is also known to induce cracking.

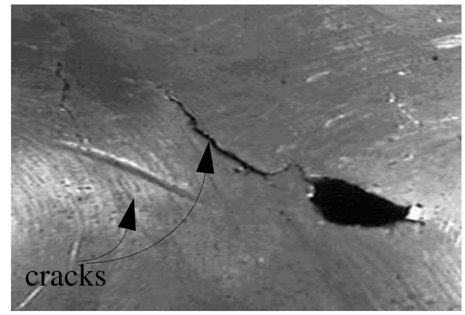

Fig 4a. Metal surface with two cracks and several other crack-like features.

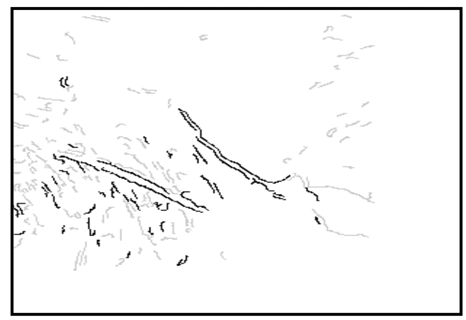

Fig 4b. Output of crack detection algorithm; cracks in black; non-cracks in gray.

5. SURFACE CRACK DETECTION ALGORITHM

The crack detection algorithm that we have developed is modeled closely on the widely practiced test for detection of cracks using directional lighting. We simulate the directional lighting produced by the inspectors flashlight with a remotely controlled rotatable directional light source on CIMP. The inspector can remotely rotate the light source around a rivet location and examine the resulting live monoscopic or stereoscopic imagery of the rivet and its neighborhood for cracks. In addition, the inspector can run the crack detection algorithm on these images for detection or verification of cracks in the live imagery. The stereoscopic imagery can also be recorded (at slightly reduced resolution) on a standard VHS recorder for future examination or computer processing.

Figure 4a shows a section of an aircraft surface containing two natural cracks and several scratches appearing in the neighborhood of a rivet hole. The first crack emanating from the rivet hole is 1/2 inch in length while the second crack which is partly masked by the scratch beside it is 1/3 inch long. The output of the surface crack detection algorithm is shown in Figure 4b. Edges that are marked in black indicate suspected cracks. Edges marked in grey indicate edges that the algorithm detects but classifies as “non-cracks”. The algorithm detects the two known cracks which are marked in black in the output image. It also correctly classifies the edges of the rivet hole and scratches as “non-crack” edges. The other edges that are marked in black are false alarms for cracks. Figure 5 displays a block diagram of the crack detection algorithm.

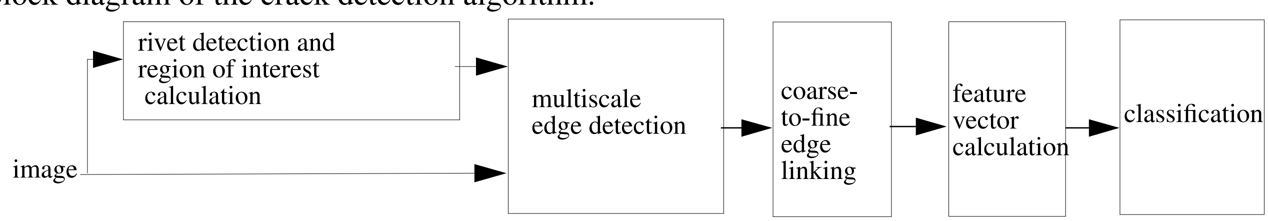

Figure 5. Block diagram of the surface crack detection algorithm

5.1. RIVET DETECTION AND REGION OF INTEREST CALCULATION

The first step of our crack detection algorithm is to find rivet locations in the image. Since cracks appear in the neighborhood of rivets, finding rivet locations enables the algorithm to focus on areas that are most likely to contain cracks. The neighborhood surrounding the rivet that is examined for cracks is defined as the Region of Interest (ROI). The algorithm defines for each detected rivet, a ROI. By focussing on ROIs, the algorithm avoids unnecessary processing of features outside the ROIs; they are not likely to be cracks. Rivets are identified by detecting the circular arc edges made by their heads. Rivet detection and ROI determination consists of the following steps.

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1. Smooth with a gaussian filter. Convolve with the x- and y- partial derivatives. Calculate the *gradient magnitude image*.
2. Calculate the histogram of the gradient magnitude image. Define a *high threshold* above which lie a specified fraction of the pixels. Mark the pixels above the high threshold as *edge points*. Link the edge points to create *edges*.
3. Define a *low threshold* below which lie a specified fraction of the pixels. Grow edges with adjacent pixels below the low threshold. Discard edges that contain fewer than 10 pixels.
4. Fit a circular arc to each edge. Discard edges whose fit error is worse than a minimum value. The remaining edges are *rivet head edges*.
5. Merge nearby rivet head edges into *rivets*. Define the *ROI* as a fixed-size box whose center is the rivet centroid.

Figure 6a displays a section of an aircraft surface with three simulated cracks appearing as dark lines from the two rivets. This image is processed by the crack detection algorithm. Figure 6b displays the two ROIs found by the algorithm

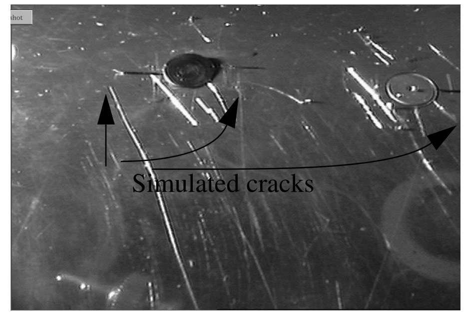

Fig 6a. Metal surface with three synthetic cracks and other crack like features

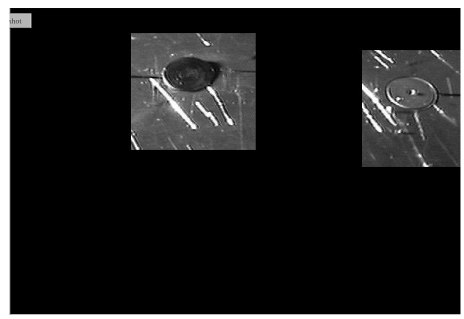

Fig 6b. ROIs found in Fig 6a.

5.2. MULTISCALE EDGE DETECTION

An ROI in the live image contains a large number of edges, most of which are caused by rivet edges, scratches, dirt marks, lap joints of metal repair plates on the surface and occasionally real cracks. Therefore, we need an analysis framework which lends itself to the discrimination of the small fraction of cracks which are edges of interest to us from those edges that are not of interest.

A crack is typically very small compared to other objects present on the aircraft surface such as rivets, scratches, etc. This motivated us to select a multiscale edge detection framework for the detection and analysis of edges in the ROIs. Multiscale edge detection is defined as detection of edges at multiple scales or equivalently multiple resolutions. Here, scale implies the size of the neighborhood in which intensity changes are detected for edge determination. In multiscale edge detection, edges belonging to small objects appear at low scales or high resolutions while edges of large objects appear at higher scales or coarser resolutions. Therefore, performing multiscale edge detection and analysis on the detected edges in the ROIs will allow us to characterize each edge by assigning a relative size corresponding to the object that created the edge. This is an important feature useful in the discrimination of cracks from non-cracks due to the relatively small size of a typical crack in comparison to other objects appearing on the aircraft surface.

Multiscale edge detection is a two step process where the ROI is first decomposed into different resolutions, usually by successive smoothing, followed by edge detection at each resolution. We have selected wavelet based filters for the projection of the ROI to different resolutions and estimations of intensity variation in them for multiscale edge determination. Wavelets are basis functions with good spatial and frequency localization that is controlled by a scaling parameter attached to the wavelets. Hence, they are a natural choice for multiresolution analysis due to the ease of defining the resolution of interest through the use of the scaling parameter of the wavelet.

We have chosen the cubic spline and its derivative the quadratic spline, described by Mallat,[10] as our scaling and wavelet functions. The frequency responses of these functions are shown in Figure 7. Note that scaling and wavelet functions are low pass and high pass in nature. The wavelet transform of a ROI at scale s is equal to the convolution of the ROI with a filter derived from the wavelet of scale s. Since the wavelet we chose is the derivative of a smoothing function, the wavelet transform is equivalent to first smoothing the ROI to a scale s by a smoothing filter, and then taking its first derivative. This is identical to the sequence of operations undertaken in classical edge detection. Note that the edge points of the ROI at a particular scale corresponds to the extrema of the wavelet transform of that scale. By varying the scaling parameter of the wavelet by successive factors of two (dyadic scale), we generate edges of the ROI at multiple scales. To summarize, listed below are steps taken to generate multiscale edges within each ROI.

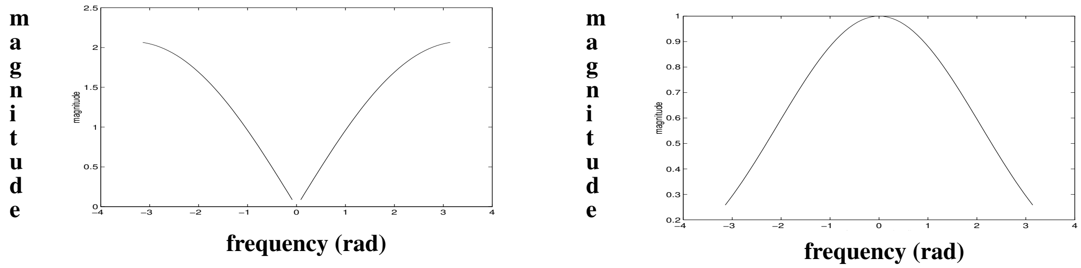

Fig 7. Frequency response of the wavelet and scaling functions

1. Filter each ROI with the dyadic scale filter bank shown in Figure 8a.
2. Calculate the magnitude M_i and angle A_i images for each scale of the wavelet transform images W_x and W_y using

$$M_i = \sqrt{W_{xi}^2 + W_{yi}^2} \qquad\qquad A_i = \operatorname{atan}(W_{yi}/W_{xi}) \quad \text{for i=0,1,2}$$

3. Threshold each magnitude image using a threshold calculated from its histogram. Mark pixels above the threshold as *edge points*.
4. Link edge points if their corresponding angles differ by less than a threshold angle. This produces edges that are smoothly varying in direction, and thus characteristic of natural edges such as cracks

This process generates a list of edges in each ROI at each scale. Figure 9 displays the edges in Figure 6b..

5.3. Coarse-to-fine edge linking

Multiscale edge detection described in the previous section generates edges, at several scales, for each ROI in the image. It is clear in Figure 9 that edges of the same object are present in more than one scale. For example, parts of the rivet head edges appear in all three scales while the simulated cracks shown in Figure 6a appear only at the first two scales.The next step of this process is to assign to each edge a feature value that will provide information about the size of the object that produced the edge. This size information is useful in the discrimination of edges of cracks from edges of non-cracks appearing in each ROI.

We model an edge belonging to an object appearing at multiple scales, as the propagation of that edge along scale (or resolution) space. We define propagation depth as the number of scales in which the edge appears. We then assign a propagation depth value to each edge at scale 1. The propagation depth captures the size information of the object revealed by multiscale edges. For example, edges of objects that are small will have a lower propagation depth than edges of objects that are large. This explains why edges corresponding to the simulated cracks (actually black fibers of approximately 10 μm diameter), appear only in two scales, whereas edges of the rivets and scratches appear in all three scales in Figure 9.

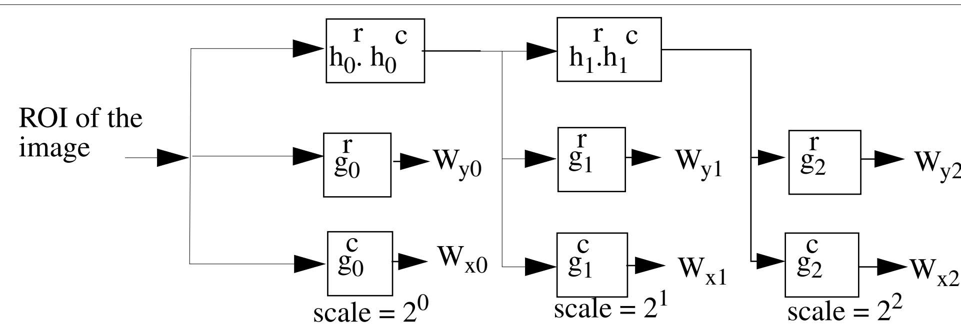

Fig 8a. Multiresolution decomposition of the live image.

Filters h_0 and g_0 denote the filters corresponding to the scaling and wavelet functions at scale 1.
h_n and g_n^* are derived from h_0 and g_0 by inserting 2^n-1 zeros between the coefficients of
h_0 = {0.125, 0.375, 0.375, 0.125} and g_0 = {-2, 2}.
W_{yn} and W_{xn} denote the wavelet transform images at scale 2^n in the y (row, r) and x (column, c) directions.

We. use a coarse-to-fine edge linking process to find the propagation depth of all edges appearing at scale 1. The coarse-to-fine edge linking process attempts to trace an edge from a coarse resolution (high scale) to a fine resolution (low scale). We define active pixels as those pixels that belong to the edge of reference. Given below are the steps of the coarse-to-fine edge linking process.

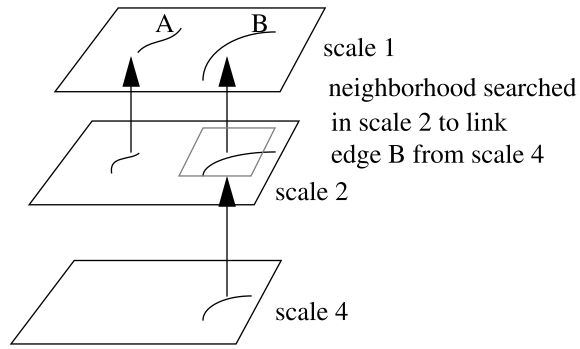

Fig 8b. Coarse-to-fine edge linking of edges A and B

1. Assign to each edge, in each scale (scale = 1, 2,4), a feature vector with the following components:
   a. Centroid of the active pixels
   b. Average wavelet magnitude of the active pixels
   c. Number of active pixels that constitute the edge
2. For each edge **E** in scale 4, define a window centered on its centroid in scale 2. Find all unlinked edges {e} in scale 2 that are within the window. Find the edge e_i of {e} that produces the minimum weighted square difference between itself and **E**. Link **E** to e_i.
3. Do (2) for each edge in scale 2 with edges in scale 1
4. For each edge in scale 1, count the number of links (how deeply it is connected); this is the *propagation depth* of that edge.

Figure 8b illustrates the coarse-to-fine edge linking process. Note that edges A and B have propagation depths of 1 and 2 respectively.

5.4. FEATURE VECTOR CALCULATION

We are now in a position to assign a feature vector for each edge in scale 1. The feature vector assigned to the edge will characterize its properties so that edges of cracks can be discriminated from edges of non-cracks based on classification of the feature vectors. We have selected the following attributes of an edge to be included in a feature vector:

1. Average wavelet magnitude of active pixels;
2. Propagation depth number;
3. Average wavelet magnitudes of any linked edges in scale 2 and scale 4;
4. Signs of sum(W_x) and sum(W_y) where W_x andW_y are the coefficients in the x- and y-directions of at scale 1;
5. Number of active pixels.

The wavelet magnitudes at each scale of an edge that propagates down multiple scales was included because it has been shown that under certain conditions, these values characterize the shape of an edge, e.g., a step or a ramp edge.[10]

5.5. FEATURE CLASSIFICATION

The.feature vectors are classified into one of two classes, cracks or non-cracks. We use a six input, 1 hidden layer with four elements and one output neural network trained under backpropagation with momentum to classify the feature vectors. We generated 14 feature vectors of simulated cracks and 30 feature vectors of non-cracks corresponding to rivet edges and scratches. A training set of 7 simulated cracks and 15 non-cracks were used to train the network. After 1000 training cycles, the network was approximately 72% accurate in predicting cracks with a 27% false alarm rate for the test set edges.

Figure 6a is repeated in Figure 10a. The output image of the algorithm is shown in Figure 10b.

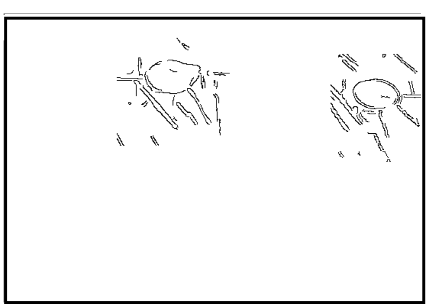
Fig 9a. Edge image at scale 1

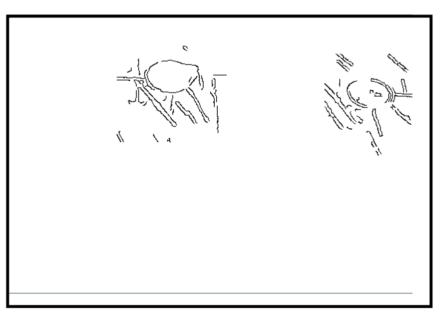
Fig 9b. Edge image at scale 2

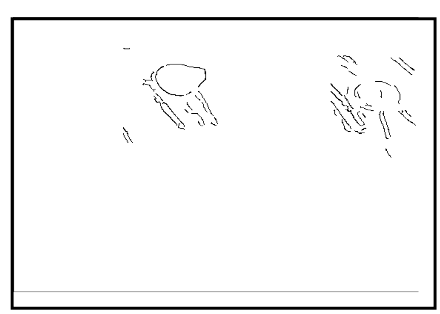
Fig 9c. Edge image at scale 4

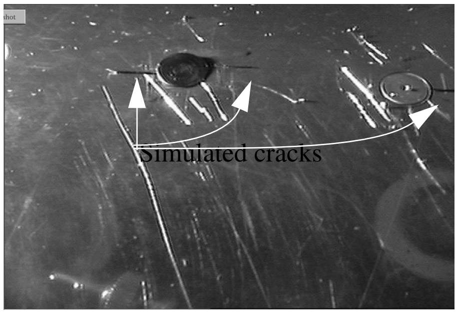

Fig 10a. Metal surface with three synthetic cracks and other crack like features

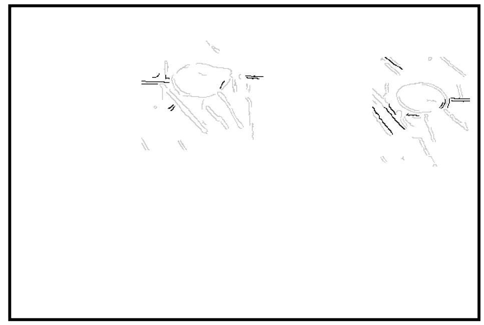

Fig 10b. Output of the crack detection algorithm.

6. SURFACE CORROSION DETECTION ALGORITHM

A comprehensive corrosion detection algorithm needs to detect both surface and subsurface corrosion. Surface corrosion is detected by texture visually suggestive of corrosion, whereas subsurface corrosion is detected by distortion ("pillowing") of the surface. Thus a comprehensive algorithm requires an image and a shape profile of the inspection surface to detect both types of corrosion. In this section, we describe the algorithm we developed to detect surface corrosion. Section 7 discribes our subsurface corrosion detection apparatus and algorithm.

We detect surface corrosion by a binary segmentation of the image into regions of texture suggestive of corrosion and regions of texture suggestive of freedom from corrosion. Texture can be well described by scale and orientation. This has resulted in the development of many methods based on multiresolution, multiorientation based approaches that allow scale and orientation based analysis of textures.[11,12] Our corrosion detection algorithm, shown as a block diagram in Figure 11, is based on a similar method.

Figure 12a displays an image of a corroded section of an aircraft surface. Figure 12b shows the output of our surface corrosion detection algorithm; bright and dark areas respectively indicate corrosion and corrosion free areas in this image. The following three sections outline the three modules of the processing pipeline indicated schematically in Figure 11.

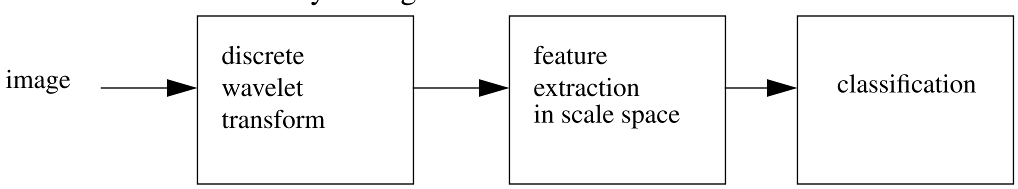

Fig 11. surface corrosion detection algorithm

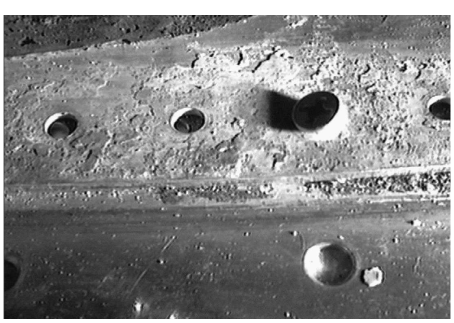

Fig 12a. surface with corrosion

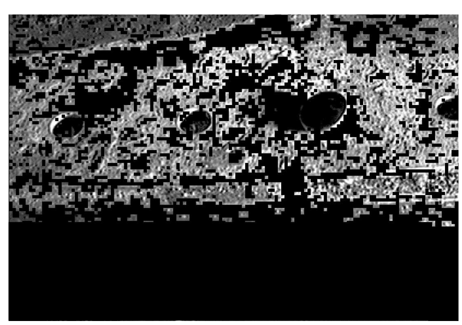

Fig 12b. output of corrosion detector

6.1. Discrete wavelet transform (DWT)

In the first module we perform a multiresolution, multiorientation decomposition of the image using the discrete wavelet transform (DWT). The DWT can be thought of as filtering of the image into sub-bands by an array of scale and orientation specific filters. Since wavelets have good spatial and frequency localization, the wavelet coefficients provide a good characterization of the texture.

We have selected Daubechies D6 orthogonal wavelet (coefficients {0.3327, 0.8069, 0.4599, -0.1350, -0.0854, 0.0352}) for the DWT. The orthorgonal wavelet prevents correlation between scales in the decomposition of the image by DWT. We perform a three-level wavelet decomposition of an image which results in 10 sub-bands. Figure 13 displays the corresponding sub-bands created by the transform.

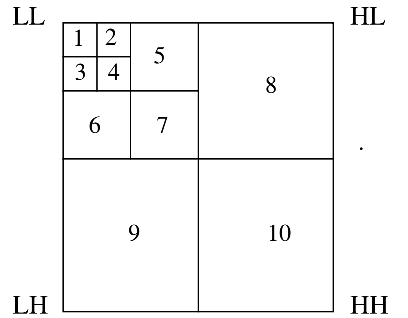

Fig 13. Three-level wavelet decomposition yielding aub-bands 1 to 10.

6.2. Feature extraction

In the second module, feature extraction, the image is first divided into non-overlapping blocks of size 8x8 pixels. For each block, a 10-dimensional feature vector is assigned whose components represent energy within the block in each of the wavelet transform frames $W_{j=1:10}$ shown in Figure 13. Letting the energy of block B(i) in W_j be given by $E_j(i)$, we have:

$$E_j(i) = \sum_{(k,l) \in B(i)} w_j(k,l)^2$$

where $w_j(k,l)$ is the wavelet coefficient at (k,l) in the wavelet transform frame W_j. The feature vector is normalized by the total energy of the block.

6.3. Feature classification

In the third and last module we classify the features developed in the previous modules. We generated a training and test set of 2400 vectors (1200 each corrosion and corrosion free vectors), using a set of images of corrosion and corrosion free surfaces. A clustering algorithm was applied on the training sample vectors to find three prototype vectors representing clusters of the corrosion vectors and five prototype vectors representing clusters of corrosion free vectors in the training set. The algorithm uses a 1 nearest neighbor method to classify a new feature vector into corrosion or corrosion free classes based on its distance to the prototype vectors. The trained algorithm was able to detect 95% of the corrosion vectors of the test set.

Figure 14a displays an image of a corroded section of an aircraft surface. Figure 14b shows the output of the surface corrosion detection algorithm. Bright and dark areas indicate corrosion and corrosion free areas in the image.

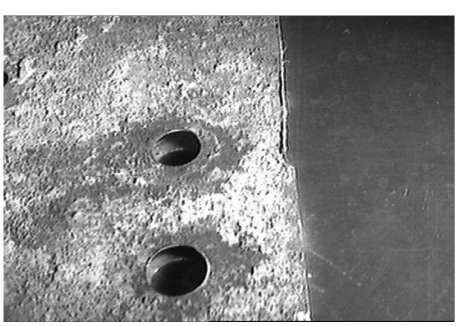

Fig 14a. surface with corrosion

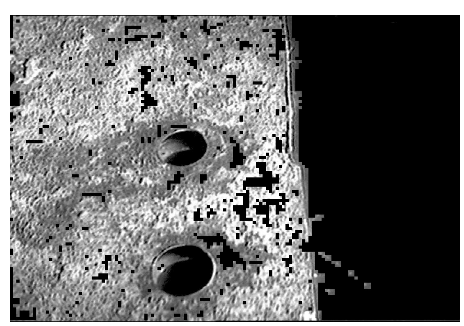

Fig 14b. output of corrosion detector

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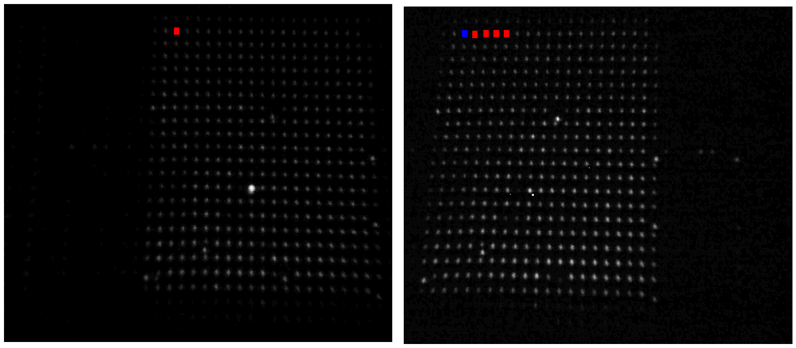

Fig 15: Left and right perspectives on the projected 17x17 laser grid. The blue dot in the right image [leftmost] corresponds to the red dot [near upper left of grid pattern] in the left image. The red dots in the right image are candidates that the matching algorithm rejected.

7. SUBSURFACE CORROSION DETECTION SYSTEM

Subsurface corrosion may be visible externally because of the surface “pillowing” it induces. Pillowing is a change in skin surface shape rather than surface texture; it is detectable as an increase in skin surface height toward the center of each rivet row-and-column-bounded rectangle over a region suffering from subsurface corrosion. Stereoscopic cameras are well suited to creating surface altitute maps, but the low density of high contrast features on aircraft sheet metal expanses makes the critical step of identifying corresponding points in left and right images very difficult. We circumvent this difficulty by illuminating the surface with a laser that projects a square grid of 17x17 spots; by concentrating on these spots rather than on natural textural features of the surface, the correspondance problem is easily solved.

We illustrate this system with Figure 15, which shows the dot pattern from left and right stereoscopic perspectives, one dot in the left image marked by a small red square [near the upper left of the grid, in b&w rendering], several candidates, in color, for the corresponding dot in the right image, and the dot identified as the matching one shown also in red [the leftmost small square, in b&w rendering].

Figure 16 shows the result of applying this method to a surface step (above, actually a rubber stopper) and to a slightly wrinkled piece of aircraft belly skin that is sloping downward from back to front (below).

8. SUMMARY DISCUSSION AND FUTURE WORK.

8.1. CIMP AND REMOTE VISUAL INSPECTION

We have successfully demonstrated CIMP’s remote control and imaging capability to Northwest Airlines at their Minneapolis 747 maintenance and inspection facility and to US Airways at their Pittsburgh maintenance and inspection facility. Our demonstration showed that state-of-the-art 3D stereoscopic video technology implemented by us and operated by inspectors not specifically trained in its use, delivers imagery of sufficiently high visual quality that aircraft inspectors and NDI supervisors were willing to accept it (and sometimes prefer it) as an alternative to direct visual inspection.

8.2. SURFACE CRACK DETECTION ALGORITHM

Based on our experience with the algorithm and insights gained through limited testing, we are convinced that the multiscale edge analysis framework on which the algorithm is based is an appropriate framework for extraction and analysis for aircraft surface cracks. We are encouraged by its performance in detecting simulated cracks though it was trained and tested using only a small sample of simulated cracks. Anticipated future development needs include: adding suitable new features to the feature vectors that describe edges, e.g., pairing adjacent rising and falling edges, linking neighboring edges with similar feature vectors, i.e., edges that presumably belong to a single object, data fusion involving multiple images of the same region under dynamic lighting conditions, and, for all of these, training and testing with a richer library of natural surface cracks.

8.3. Surface and subsurface corrosion detection algorithms

The surface corrosion detection algorithm is successful in detecting surface corrosion as indicated by the performance on the test images. We plan on training and testing the algorithm with a wider array of corrosion test samples. The subsurface corrosion detection algorithm using a laser spot grid projector produces surface profile maps that lab experiments indicate will be useful for detecting pillowing and other problems that are manifested as surface height variations.

9. CONCLUSION

Our research efforts are directed at testing the hypothesized feasibility and advantages of remote visual inspection. To test this premise, we have built CIMP, a prototype mobile robot that carries a remote imaging system and an inspection console that allows the inspector to view monoscopic or stereoscopic imagery of the remote inspection surface. In addition, the inspection console provides the inspector with a library of image enhancement and understanding algorithms that can be used to process, enhance and understand the remote imagery to aid the detection of surface defects. Through field testing, we have demonstrated successfully that our remote imaging system delivers imagery of sufficient high visual quality that aircraft inspectors are willing to accept it as an alternative to direct visual inspection. In this paper, we have described image understanding algorithms for surface crack and corrosion detection and subsurface corrosion detection, and we have reported test results that are promising. We believe that further development of these algorithms based on their adaptation to real world environments through extensive testing will significantly increase their probability of flaw detection and make them successful and productive tools for remote visual inspection.

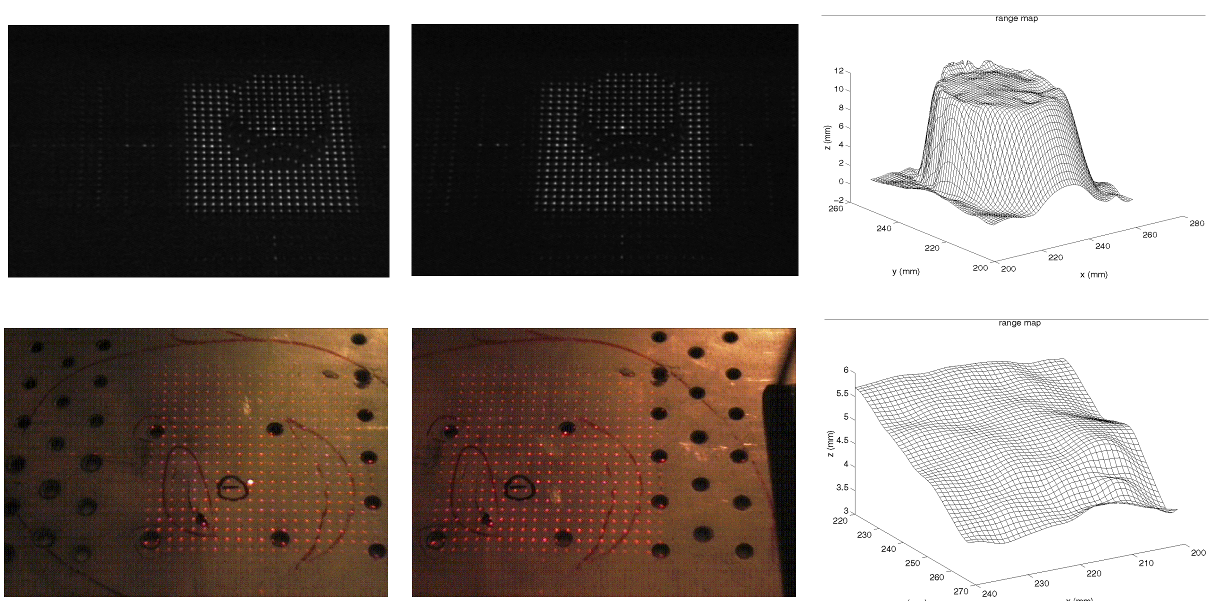

Fig 16. Method of detecting subsurface corrosion by elevation mapping of the visible surface. Top three frames are left and right perspectives of the projected laser grid illuminating a rubber stopper, and the corresponding depth map. Bottom three frames are left and right perspectives of the projected laser grid illuminating a sloping aircraft sheet metal surface, and the corresponding depth map. Elevation resolution is about 0.5 mm.

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10. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

ANDI was a joint project of the Carnegie Mellon Research Institute and the Robotics Institute, with W.M Kaufman and M.W. Siegel, co-PI's, funded by the FAA Aging Aircraft Research Program. CIMP was a project of the Robotics Institute and Aircraft Diagnostic Corporation, M.W. Siegel PI, funded partially by the Ben Franklin Technology Center of Western Pennsylvania (grant RR 10032) with in-kind assistance from US Airways and valuable cooperation from Northwest Airlines. The basic research on which the stereoscopic video system implementation is based was funded by DARPA's High Definition Systems program. The authors wish to thank Gregg Podnar for the engineering design and implementation of CIMP and its geometrically correct stereoscopic camera system, and Alan Guisewite for his constant technical support.

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