# NAND-measure: An Android App for Marker-based Spatial Measurement

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Abstract: In a disaster scenario, a quick decision must be made whether a bridge is stable enough to be used. The natural frequencies of a bridge can provide information about its condition. The actual frequencies (e.g. measured by the acceleration sensor built into a smartphone) must be compared with the desired frequencies. The desired frequencies can be approximated for example with the Finite Element Method (FEM). Among other parameters, the FEM requires the dimensions of the bridge. Numerous applications for spatial measurement for different purposes are offered in the mobile App-stores. However, most of these apps are limited to short distances of up to five meters and are not suitable for the aforementioned scenario. In this article, we present NAND-Measure - an application for spatial measurements for short distances (below one meter) up to distances of 50 meters. Two methods have been implemented - a stereoscopic approach with a single camera and an approach based on the pinhole camera model. Both methods were evaluated by taking sixty over different distances. Overall, the approach based on the pinhole camera model was more accurate and showed smaller deviations.

# **1** INTRODUCTION

Our overall objective, is a mobile ad-hoc evaluation of the condition of a bridge using Android devices. To assess the condition of a bridge the natural frequencies can be used - for this purpose the actual natural frequencies are compared with the desired values of the natural frequencies. In ((Benndorf et al., 2017) and (Benndorf et al., 2016)) we were able to prove that the sensors built into a smartphone are capable of recording the vibrations of the bridge. By transforming these vibrations into frequency domain the actual natural frequencies can be determined. The desired values of natural frequencies are specified during the planning and construction of the bridge and finally recorded in the construction diary. This construction diary is usually handed over to the authorities after the building is completed, yet, in some cases, these diaries are not available in a timely manner. In these cases, it is necessary to approximate these frequencies. Since these frequencies depend on the bridge type as well as the material and the dimensions of the bridge, we were able to determine this information by classifying the bridge type and the material of the bridge based on photos. The missing part are the bridge dimensions that we will determine with a measurement app. For this purpose, we propose NAND-Measure<sup>1</sup>. This application implements two methods of spatial measurement - a stereoscopic approach with only one camera and an approach based on the pinhole camera model. The application and the two implemented approaches are presented in this paper, which is structured as follows. The following section 2 provides an overview of the topic of spatial measurement apps and spatial measurement methods and discusses related work. In the METHODOLOGY section, we present our application and discuss the details of its implementation. In EVALUATION section, the implemented methods are evaluated and the results are discussed. Finally, in Section CONCLUSION AND OUTLOOK, we summarize this work and provide an outlook on future research.

## 2 RELATED WORK

For the described use case we were searching for applications/approaches that range from short distances

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>https://github.com/JoogsWasTaken/nand-measure

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(less than one meter) to long distances (more than 50 meters) with low requirements to working well on all Android phones. The methods used should determine measurements solely based on an image and return a unit of length. In the App-Stores for Android different measurement applications are already available. In many cases, the measurement method used depends on the use case of the application. Google, for example, uses the Simultaneous Localization and Mapping (SLAM) method in the application Measure with ARCore(Google Developers, nda) to determine the position of the smartphone in its environment. The ARCore detects feature points in the camera images and uses these points to calculate its change of position over time. By fusing these feature points with the values measured by the Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU), the position and orientation of the device relative to the world can be determined(Google Developers, ndb). At the same time, the distances of the device to the feature points can be determined. However, in order to use the application, the device has to meet some conditions: The device must be supported<sup>2</sup>. This requires at least Android 7 to be running on the device, OpenGL ES 3.0 must be supported and the Playstore must be installed. The application covers the entire range of the distances mentioned above. Nevertheless, due to the requirements of the application, it may not work well on all Android devices. Another approach is to determine measurements based on cartographic data((Esri, nd), (Farmis, 2013), and (Christensen, 2010)). In this approach, the starting or endpoints are chosen by the user or GPS is used to determine them. This approach works on long distances but cannot be used on short distances. Ruler applications (NixGame, 2016; Smart Tools co., 2010) scale the display width as a ruler which makes them suitable for short distances only. Away from the App-Stores some methods exist to determine the depth information of an image. For Example, in (Saxena et al., 2006) the authors used machine learning to create a depth image from textures in an image. However, the illustrations are only estimates and depth can only be described by the proximity to the observer. Furthermore, the correlation to a unit of length is not given. This depth information can also be determined by using stereoscopy. For this purpose, an object is captured from two locations that are a short distance apart. By superimposing the two images, the illusion of a three-dimensional image can be created. Moreover, by triangulating and focusing a point in both shots, depth information can be obtained. The authors of (Mrovlje and Vran, 2008) used two cameras and a circular marker. Using Matlab, they

determined the distances between the camera and the marker at distances up to 60 meters. They report an average deviation of 1.32 meters with a standard deviation of 2.84 meters over a distance of 50 meters with camera distances between 0.2 and 0.7 meters. In (Cao et al., 2013) the authors propose a marker-based measurement approach based on the pinhole imaging theory (PIT) with a single camera. They applied this approach to distances up to 1.40 meters and achieved a deviation of 0.23 cm.

## **3 METHODOLOGY**

In order to eventually measure a bridge in the field only using a smartphone, we decided to adapt both the stereoscopic and the PIT approach. For this purpose, we tried to reduce the stereoscopic approach to one camera. The parallelism of the two images had to be guaranteed with the sensors built into the smartphone. With the PIT approach, the measuring range was extended from 1.40 meters (in (Cao et al., 2013)) to approximately 50 meters. Finally, these two approaches will be evaluated in terms of accuracy.

### **3.1 Basic Workflow**

Figure 1 shows the basic workflow of a measurement with *NAND-Measure*. The first step is to activate the fullscreen, which is followed by enabling OpenCV(OpenCV Contributors, 2018). OpenCV provides the interface between the camera and our app as well as various methods for image processing. After



Figure 1: Basic workflow of spatial measurement.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>List of supported devices https://developers.google.com/ ar/discover/supported-devices

OpenCV is initialized, the camera component is activated and the focus is fixed to prevent other objects from being automatically or accidentally focused, thus ensuring consistent results for the measurements. In the MEASUREMENT step the user may choose between the stereoscopy and the PIT approach. For both approaches, the measurement starts with a calibration depending on the approach (described in the respective section). This is followed by a preprocessing of the input image for both approaches. Therefore, a blur is applied to minimize the noise in the image. Afterwards, the image is binarized, and then the OpenCV method findContours is used to find the contour of the marker in the binarized image. The user can limit the search area by framing the contour with a bounding box - thus, minimizing the number of wrongly detected contours. Finally, the detected contour is stored in an accumulator including its position and area. The measurement is repeated until the accumulator is filled with measured values. The concept of the accumulator is applied to avoid outliers. The default value for the size of the accumulator is 50, yet this value can be adjusted. In the final step, the mean value of the values in the accumulator is returned as a measured value and the camera component and the fullscreen are deactivated. The detailed steps differ in both approaches and are described in the following two subsections.

# 3.2 PIT Approach

In (Cao et al., 2013) the authors present a marker-based measurement method using a pinhole camera model and a circular marker. We used the circular marker and adapted their approach so it could be used with the built-in camera of a smartphone. Most of the cameras are monocular and, therefore, have a fixed focal length f.

$$\frac{f}{d} = \frac{R}{r} \tag{1}$$

This enables the relationship established in Equation 1 between f, the object distance d, the radius of the marker r, and the radius of the projected marker R as it can be seen in Figure 2. Since the area A of the circle is calculated by  $A = \pi r^2$  Equation 1 can be transformed to Equation 2.

$$\frac{f^2}{d^2} = \frac{R^2}{r^2} = \frac{\pi R^2}{\pi r^2} = \frac{A}{a}$$
(2)

By solving for d, the distance of an object can be determined (see Equation 3).

$$d = f \sqrt{\frac{a}{A}} \tag{3}$$

Since this equation is independent of the shape of the marker other kinds of markers can also be used.



Figure 2: Projection of circular markers according to the pinhole camera model (adapted from (Cao et al., 2013)).

Figure 3 provides an overview of the implemented approach. For the calibration step, the marker used for the measurement, which has the radius r is positioned in a distance d. The values r and d are entered to the application. This allows the size of the projection to be determined and used as a reference. This reference



Figure 3: Activity diagram for the measurement step for the PIT Approach.

projection is used during the following measurements that are repeated until the accumulator is full. The image is retrieved from the camera and preprocessed. Subsequently, the app tries to locate the contour in the image. If it is found, its area is calculated and added to the accumulator, otherwise, the measurement is canceled. Finally, when the accumulator is filled, the measurement is stopped, the distance calculation is performed and the result is returned to the main application.

### 3.3 Stereoscopic Approach

The measurement setup of the stereoscopic measurement according to (Mrovlje and Vran, 2008) calls for two identical cameras be placed parallel to each other to calculate the distance to any markers. This set up formed the basis for the approach presented in this paper. However, only one camera was used, because, usually, not two identical cameras are available in case of an ad-hoc measurement. Since a static object is used as a marker, a minimal time difference between two images taken can be tolerated as long as the parallelism between these two (images) is guaranteed. Figure 4 shows the basic setup for this approach. The upper and lower cones correspond to the images taken from the left side  $(I_l)$  and right side  $(I_r)$  respectively. Therefore, the marker to be measured must be in the right half of  $I_l$  and vice versa. If the object is projected perpendicular to the distance between the two camera locations  $(I_l \text{ and } I_r)$ , it divides the distance between them into the lengths  $b_1$  and  $b_2$ . The distance to the object can be calculated using the horizontal offset of the object between the two camera images. As can be seen, the two distances, between the cameras and the object, and the observation angles  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  form right-angled triangles from which trigonometric identities can be derived. Thus, the distance d can be calculated de-



Figure 4: Distance measurement with stereoscopic images (adapted from (Mrovlje and Vran, 2008)).

pending on the distance between the camera location b ( $b = b_1 + b_2$ ) and the two observation angles  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$ , as can be seen in Equation 4.

$$d = \frac{b}{\tan\phi_1 + \tan\phi_2} \tag{4}$$

Since the images have a fixed resolution the width in pixels is defined as  $x_0$ . The distance *d* to the object and the horizontal offsets of the object from the center of the image,  $x_r$  and  $x_l$ , form right-angled triangles in the image halves. These can be set in relation to half of the width  $x_0$  and half of the viewing angle  $\phi_H$ , since they share the right angle as well as the opposite sides.

$$\tan\phi_1 = \tan\left(\frac{\phi_H}{2}\right)\frac{2x_r}{x_0} \tag{5}$$

Thus, the observation angles can be used as a function of the angle of view of the camera, the image width, and the respective horizontal offset, as can be seen in Equation 5 for the left camera. By setting the observation angles in Equation 4 the calculation of the distance now depends on the horizontal field of view of the camera and the distance d can be calculated using Equation 6.

$$d = \frac{bx_0}{2\tan\left(\frac{\phi_H}{2}\right)(x_r - x_l)} \tag{6}$$

The overall workflow for the stereoscopic approach is similar to the workflow for the PIT approach (see Figure 3), with the difference that the steps after the calibration step are carried out for both image locations.

#### 3.3.1 Calibration

As mentioned above, stereoscopy requires knowledge of the camera's field of view. This field of view consists of the horizontal and vertical viewing angles ( $\phi_H$ and  $\phi_V$ ) of the camera. Using Equation 7, these values are determined in the calibration step by placing



Figure 5: Calculation of the horizontal viewing angle of a camera.

an object with the length l parallel to the camera at a distance d (see figure 5).

$$\phi_H = 2 \arctan\left(\frac{l}{2d}\right) \tag{7}$$

#### 3.3.2 Guaranteed Parallelism

The parallelism between the two image locations is guaranteed by using the rotation vector sensor to determine the position of the device based on the roll, pitch and yaw angles. These angles can also be used to correct minor deviations in the alignment angles. The correction is performed after the measurement on  $I_r$  is performed. The basis for this correction is the difference in the alignment angles of both image locations. The sign of this angle difference determines whether the orientation of the camera has changed in the mathematically positive or negative direction of rotation. Consequently, the location of the marker in the left half of the image has to be adjusted accordingly. Afterwards, both distances (corrected and uncorrected) are calculated and returned to the main application. Figure 6 shows the two phases of the measurements -



Figure 6: User interface for the stereoscopic measurement.

top: image location  $I_l$ , bottom: image location  $I_r$ . The upper left edge of  $I_r$  shows the deviation of the rotation vector sensor from  $I_l$ .

### **4 EVALUATION**

Using NAND-Measure experiments were carried out over different distances to evaluate the accuracy of the two approaches. Finally, we conclude this section by an evaluation of our application on the requirements mentioned in section 2.

### 4.1 Evaluation Experiments

To evaluate the accuracy of the app and their implemented approaches measurements were carried out over different distances in four measurement series. Table 1 provides an overview of these measurement series. In each measurement series, three measure-

Table 1: Measurement Series (Values are given in cm).

		measurement series			
Attribute		А	В	С	D
Marker radius		1.5	5	10	100
	$d_1$	20	100	600	1000
	$d_2$	35	200	800	2000
Distances	$d_3$	50	300	1000	3000
	$d_4$	65	400	1200	4000
	$d_5$	80	500	1400	5000
Distance of the camera <sup>1</sup>		20	80	400	400
Calibration distance <sup>2</sup>		50	300	1000	2000

ments were carried out for each of the five distances, resulting in a total number of 60 measurements for each approach. Figure 7 shows the deviations for each of the three measurements from distance d3 of measurement series A. As can be seen, the deviations vary over all three measurements. Furthermore, the deviations for the PIT approach are smaller than those for the stereoscopic method. This is also confirmed by further evaluations. Figure 8 shows the deviations and their respective standard deviations for all dis-



Figure 7: Deviations of the three measurements from the distance d3 of measurement series A for both methods.

<sup>1</sup>Relevant for stereoscopic measurement <sup>2</sup>Relevant for the PIT approach tances of measurement series A, B, and C. Additionally, the corrected values of the stereoscopic approach are shown in this figure. It is evident that the deviations



Figure 8: Deviations and their standard deviations for all distances (d1 - d5) of measurement series A, B, and C.

of the stereoscopic approach even at short distances are higher compared to the PIT approach and increases more strongly with a rising distance. One reason for the higher deviation in the stereoscopic approach are deviations of the rotation vector sensor. Since this sensor is a fused sensor, it is subject to gyroscopic drift and is also influenced by the magnetic field of the environment. This prevents true parallelism of both image locations. A final comparison of all distances



Figure 9: Averaged measured values for all three measurements for each measurement series.

confirms that the PIT approach is more accurate than the stereoscopic approach (see Figure 9).

### 4.2 Overall Evaluation

The defined requirements are fulfilled by this application and allow an ad hoc measurement, because, on the one hand, they do not make any requirements on the software or hardware and the other hand, in the case of the PIT approach, they only show small tolerable deviations over the whole range of distances. The stereoscopic approach using only one camera, however, only works with large tolerances and can at best be used as a comparative value.

# **5** CONCLUSION AND OUTLOOK

In this work we presented NAND-Measure - an app for spatial measurement for the Android operating system. This app implements two approaches - a stereoscopic approach with only one camera and an approach based on the pinhole camera model. These two approaches were evaluated with a total of 60 measurements. The results showed that the PIT approach is more accurate for each of the distances than the stereoscopic approach. One reason for the discrepancies in the stereoscopic approach is that true parallelism cannot be guaranteed with the rotation vector sensor. In future work, we want to work on other sensors to guarantee the parallelism. In general, we want to replace the circular marker with a more generic one. In order to further simplify the application, natural objects such as buildings or cars should be considered. At the same time, we want to extend the measurable distances and minimize the deviations in order to integrate this application into the above mentioned scenario and to make a further step towards the mobile ad-hoc assessment of bridges.

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