Reconstructing Textureless Objects *Image Enhancement for 3D Reconstruction of Weakly-Textured Surfaces*

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Abstract: Photogrammetric techniques for 3D reconstruction of weakly-textured surfaces are challenging. This paper proposes a new method to enhance image-based 3D reconstruction of weakly-textured surfaces. The idea behind it is to enhance the contrast of images, especially in weakly-textured regions, before feeding them to the reconstruction pipeline. Images contrast is enhanced using a recently proposed approach for noise reduction. The dynamic range of the generated denoised-images has to be squeezed to the limited 8-bit range that is used by the standard 3D reconstruction techniques. Dynamic range squeezing is a very critical process and can lead to information losses, since many levels in the original range will no longer be available in the limited target range. To this end, this paper proposes a new tone-mapping approach that is based on Contrast Limited Adaptive Histogram Equalization (CLAHE). It amplifies the local contrast adaptively to effectively use the limited target range. At the same time, it uses a limit to prevent local noise from being amplified. Using our approach leads to a significant improvement of up to 400% in the completeness of the 3D reconstruction.

1 INTRODUCTION

In the presence of the accelerated developments of modern digital cameras, automated image-based 3D reconstruction of scenes and objects has been widely used in both commercial and research fields. 3D reconstruction mainly depends on a well known pipeline, called structure from motion (SfM) / multi view stereo (MVS). Generally speaking, SfM/MVS pipeline includes feature detection, feature description, feature matching, camera motion estimation, bundle adjustment, and finally 3D points estimation. It is worth mentioning that, the degree of success of the pipeline depends mainly on both feature detection and matching. The more key points detected and correctly matched, the more accurate the estimated camera motion and the more complete and denser the generated 3D models are (Lu et al., 2017). Therefore, we believe that feature detection and matching are the most critical parts in any SfM/MVS pipeline. Nowadays, because of the vast advances in both feature detection and matching techniques, it has been possible to generate accurate 3D models of objects appearing in images in a relatively short time and with little effort. Nevertheless, there are some difficult surfaces where feature detection and matching techniques fail. This leads to inaccurate or

incomplete 3D models. These problematic surfaces include but are not limited to reflective surfaces, weakly-textured surfaces, and their combinations (Aldeeb and Hellwich, 2017).

This paper tackles the problem of 3D reconstruction of objects having weakly-textured surfaces. Particularly, it investigates the gain of some image processing techniques to strengthen the details in weakly-textured surfaces of objects in order to facilitate feature detection and matching. This in turn has a direct impact on improving the 3D reconstruction of those objects.

In reality, there is no object having an untextured surface. Therefore, failing to find feature points and correspondences between image pairs is not because of having no texture. The reason is mostly either because of the low contrast of the details on the surface which is not sufficient to overcome the existing noise in the captured images, or because of variations of the lighting conditions from one image to the other. And so, this leads to inaccurate 3D reconstructions. Consequently, in order to overcome these problems, the first goal of this research is to get rid, or at least reduce the impact, of the noise that hides the Then, investigate image existing weak texture. processing techniques for enhancing the contrast of

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the restored weak-texture while trying to efficiently exploit the range of the gray levels simultaneously. Preferably if this contrast enhancement redistributes the pixels over the gray levels as an attempt to unify the lighting effect to show the hidden details in over- and under-exposed regions. The outcome of noise reduction and contrast enhancement leads to a noticeable improvement in the image quality, which in turn helps in improving the completeness of the generated 3D models. An example is shown in Fig. 1. This exemplary reconstruction shows the point cloud (middle) generated using a standard 3D reconstruction technique for one of the challenging objects (speaker - left) that has a smooth, homogeneous, and reflective surface, along with the point cloud (right) generated using the proposed approach.



Figure 1: Exemplary reconstruction: One view of the object (left) along with 3D reconstructions using a standard method (middle) and using our approach (right).

2 BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

Image-based methods for reconstructing the 3D geomentry of objects have been quite popular since a long time. They are cheaper than other alternatives like laser scanners, as they use standard cameras and some computer vision tools (many of them are free and non-commercial). Some of these methods depend on the enhancement of the image's quality to ease the task of the 3D reconstruction of objects. Quality-enhancement based methods can be divided into either exploiting single image or multiple images per viewpoint.

In nutshell, single-image а based contrast-enhancement techniques were investigated and proved an increase of the performance of feature point detectors, as can be seen in (Lehtola and Ronnholm, 2014). In addition, (Ballabeni et al., 2015) experimented the impact of a couple of image preprocessing techniques on the performance of automated orientation and 3D reconstruction. They concluded that image preprocessing pipeline that includes image denoising, image color and content enhancement, and color to Gray conversion can efficiently and positively affect the performance of the key-point matching tools.

There is not much work in the literature about methods that make use of multiple images per This is not surprising, as it is well viewpoint. known in photogrammetry that the best image-pair candidate should have a large common field of view and not too small baseline. However, the principle of using multiple images per viewpoint is already used in generating High Dynamic Range (HDR) images. Unfortunately, the entire dynamic range of the real-life scenes usually cannot be handed by standard cameras. They lead to clipping of the large dynamic range into a smaller one. The basic idea behind HDR imaging is to combine multiple shots with different exposure times of the same scene into a single radiance composition capturing a large dynamic range (Debevec and Malik, 1997).

For no clear reasons, the advantages of the HDR imaging are not much exploited in computer vision applications, especially in multi-view stereo. Although (Gomez-Gutierrez et al., 2015) showed that there is no significant enhancement observed in the generated 3D models when using HDR images in one remote sensing application, in (Cai, 2013) advantages of HDR photogrammetry were studied and validated by means of laboratory experiments. It has been concluded that HDR photogrammetry could benefit many applications.

Among the few works who try to take advantage of HDR images are the works of (Guidi et al., 2014), (Kontogianni et al., 2015), and (Ley et al., 2016). In (Guidi et al., 2014), image-acquisition and processing techniques are experimented to enhance the contrast in shiny and dark image regions simultaneously in order to improve 3D reconstructions of vases and plates of cultural heritage. To treat the problem of shiny regions, for each viewpoint images are captured with and without polarizing filters and merged into a single HDR image, which is then tone-mapped into an 8-bit image. Also, to treat dark regions (that are usually clipped using Standard Dynamic Range (SDR) images), HDR images are generated using 3 images per viewpoint with different exposure times. Using their proposed approaches, they recorded an improvement in the percentage of the matched feature points.

In (Kontogianni et al., 2015), the impact of using HDR images on key-points detection was tested. They compared the performance and speed of feature detection based on SDR images on one hand and based on tone-mapped HDR images on the other hand. Their results show a noticeable increase in the number of the detected points when using tone-mapped HDR instead of SDR images, with almost no increase in time.

In (Ley et al., 2016), a new approach for the 3D reconstruction of weakly-textured surfaces has been proposed. A white wall and a textureless sculpture have been tackled as two case studies. This approach is trying to highlight the fine details on the target objects. This is being achieved by first improving the PSNR in weakly-textured regions by means of noise reduction. Then, because the restored texture may still be weaker than other strong textures originally in the same image, they try to amplify it adaptively based on the local variance using Wallis filter (Wallis, 1974).

In this paper, we use the idea of noise reduction that is also used in (Ley et al., 2016). However, we propose a new tone-mapping approach that amplifies the local contrast adaptively to effectively use the limited 8-bit target range. In the same time, this paper proposes to use an amplification limit that is based on the remaining local noise to prevent noise amplification.

3 PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

The flowchart of the proposed approach is shown in Fig. 2. This scenario has to be done per viewpoint. Consequently, an image is generated for each viewpoint. Later, the generated set of images for all viewpoints can be fed into an SfM/MVS pipeline (free and open-source implementations are VSFM (Wu, 2013; Wu et al., 2011) followed by PMVS2 (Furukawa and Ponce, 2010)) for the sake of 3D reconstruction.



Figure 2: Flowchart of the proposed approach.

As mentioned before, to assist 3D reconstruction of weakly-textured surfaces, this paper first motivates that texture by means of suppressing the noise that might have a stronger measured signal than that of the weak texture. Images are subject to two types of noise; Fixed Pattern Noise (FPN), and Random Noise (RN). FPN is camera dependent, spatially random, and temporally constant process. RN is spatially and temporally random process. The easiest way to suppress the noise, i.e. increase SNR ratio, is to handle each noise type separately. Therefore, we first estimate the parameters of the FPN of the used camera in order to reduce its impact on each input image before being processed in the subsequent stages. Then, to reduce the impact of the RN, this paper uses the idea of averaging multiple exposures per viewpoint. Images have to be captured in a way that guarantees a highest possible alignment, using stable tripods is recommended. Generally speaking, assuming that our RN is independent and identically distributed, the standard deviation of that noise can be reduced by a factor of $1/\sqrt{n}$ if *n* images are averaged. This means, noise will gradually decrease by averaging more and more images.

It is worth mentioning that the idea of combining multiple exposures to generate a higher quality image is not new. It is already used to generate HDR radiance maps as in (Debevec and Malik, 1997). Also, the impact of using this idea on improving 3D reconstructions of relatively difficult objects and weakly-textured walls has been investigated respectively in (Guidi et al., 2014) and (Ley et al., 2016) and proved to succeed. Also, the idea of removing FPN before averaging has been investigated by (Ley et al., 2016). Nevertheless, according to their proposed approach for noise reduction, significant gains of FPN removal can only be achieved if large number of images are averaged per viewpoint. More specifically, after about 30 to 40 images. This means, if the number of shots acquired per viewpoint is less than 30 images, FPN removal does not affect the gain of noise reduction by averaging. On contrary, according to the proposed approach in this paper, the gain of FPN removal starts to appear even if the number of images that are averaged per viewpoint is small.

In this paper, in all processing stages or at least after noise reduction stages, we propose using single-band images. This way, we avoid any possible losses of the achieved gain that might be caused later by color conversion during the 3D reconstruction.

For each viewpoint, the outcome of noise reduction is an HDR image with floating point values. Unfortunately, there is almost no free SfM/MVS pipeline that can take HDR radiance maps as input. They only work on 8-bit images. Therefore, it is required to map the tone of the generated denoised-images into an 8-bit tone. But, because the texture in that restored, hopefully noise-free, image remains weak compared to other strong textures in the same image, this paper proposes to further motivate it by means of contrast enhancement processing that also prevents the strong textures from being saturated. To these ends, this paper proposes a new tone-mapping approach that is based on Contrast Limited Adaptive Histogram Equalization (CLAHE) (Zuiderveld, 1994). One more bonus point for using CLAHE is that it enhances the details in the overand under-exposed regions simultaneously. This will definitely facilitate feature matching process, which in turn benefits the 3D reconstruction. In the following subsections each stage of the proposed approach will be discussed in more details.

3.1 Noise and Signal Model

Because electrical circuity of cameras is subject to noise, cameras can generate image noise. In digital imaging, signal and noise are subject to several other processes like A/D conversion, demosaicing, color correction, tone mapping, and JPG compression. This will further complicate the nature of the noise and make its separation a hard process. Luckily, SfM/MVS pipelines are robust to these processes and can work even if they are bypassed. Therefore, to simplify noise modeling, this paper uses raw images generated immediately after demosaicing. This also eliminates the need to model complex processes. In addition, raw images have a bonus point of being richrer than the 8-bit JPG images.

Assume v(x, y) is the measured value of the pixel at location x, y, and let e(x, y) be the corresponding point in the real exposure, which we intend to estimate. The relation between these two values can be linearly expressed as seen in (1) by means of a scale s(x, y) and an offset o(x, y).

$$\underbrace{v(x,y)}_{\text{output}} = \underbrace{s(x,y)}_{\text{scale}} \cdot \left(\underbrace{e(x,y)}_{\text{input}} + \underbrace{n(x,y)}_{\text{noise}}\right) + \underbrace{o(x,y)}_{\text{offset}}$$
(1)

It is assumed that the additive noise has a zero mean (i.e. E[n(x,y)] = 0). This means, if the expected value of the noise should not be zero, it can be simply modeled by the remaining terms, scale and offset. We refer to the random and zero-mean noise term n(x,y) as the *random noise* (RN). Also, we refer to the pattern deviations caused by scales s(x,y) and offsets o(x,y) as the *fixed pattern noise* (FPN). Accordingly, given N images $v_i(x,y)$ per viewpoint, to estimate the real exposure e(x,y), we first need to get rid of the FPN in each of the images using (2) then suppress the RN by averaging the N images using (3).

$$\hat{e}_i(x,y) = \frac{v_i(x,y) - o(x,y)}{s(x,y)}$$
 (2)

$$\bar{e}(x,y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{e}_i(x,y)$$
 (3)

3.2 Estimating FPN of the Sensor

One simple method to estimate the FPN of a camera is to capture multiple images for a uniformly colored surface that undertakes same and constant light conditions. Then, the captured images are averaged to reduce the effect of the random noise. After averaging, it is supposed to have a homogeneous image. Therefore, all deviations of pixels are assumed as FPN. This approach has also been used by (Ley et al., 2016). But for more accurate estimation of the FPN, multiple exposure times are also considered. In this paper, a number N = 80 of images are captured for each of the used M = 7 stops. For each stop, an expected true exposure is estimated by blurring the average-image of that stop. Then all the estimated true exposures are used to formulate a least squares fit problem, which is then solved to estimate the FPN.

3.3 Using Single-band Images

As mentioned before, image-based 3D reconstruction pipelines involve two core processes: feature extraction and feature matching. Most of the used feature extraction algorithms depend on measures that are applied to the grayscale images. For instance, SIFT uses Difference of Gaussians (DoG) method which subtracts two blurred versions (different blurring levels) of the same gray variant of the original input image in order to extract local feature This means, most of the ordinary 3D points. reconstruction techniques consider only gray scale images in one or more of the intermediate processing stages. Hence, if the technique is fed color-images, they might be converted to single-band images in some processing stages. Many color conversion methods have been proposed, but unfortunately none of them is designed to fulfill the needs of image matching algorithms, where the preservation of the local contrast is very crucial. These methods merely focus on plausible visual and perceptual accuracy. Hence, the gain of the contrast enhancement methods can be lost after color conversion (Ballabeni and Gaiani, 2016).

In (Ley et al., 2016), identical processing chain for contrast enhancement is applied to each of the three color components independently. Then, the enhanced 3 color components are merged into one color-image that is used for reconstruction. However, because of the aforementioned problem, the gain of the enhancement methods might be lost completely or partially. Moreover, applying the same enhancement method on the three components of colored images leads to severe changes in the balance of the images color. This happens because the relative distributions of the three channels are broken as a consequence of arbitrarily applying the same enhancement method. It can be claimed that this argument is made for preserving perceptual and visual accuracy. Nevertheless, we still see that it is an important argument, as dramatic changes in the color-image will definitely lead to dramatic changes in its gray version. And consequently, will have a direct impact on the performance of the feature detection and matching of the reconstruction pipeline.

In this paper, to avoid any possible losses of the signal fidelity, we apply our contrast enhancement only on single-band images. More specifically, the *Green* channel is used, as it contains all the intensity information that are sufficient for SfM/MVS pipelines. This applies only if the generated denoised image is a color image. Otherwise, we proceed using the same single-band image.

3.4 CLAHE-based Tone-mapping

As mentioned before, most SfM/MVS pipelines run on 8-bit grayscale or color images. Therefore, the dynamic range of each generated denoised-image has to be tone-mapped or quantized into 8-bits. However, dynamic range squeezing is a very critical process, since many levels in the original range will no longer be available in the limited target range. (Ley et al., 2016) propose to filter the generated denoised-images and remove the low-frequency components with the aim of reserving the limited target range only for high frequency components. This has been achieved by applying an augmented version of Wallis filter (Wallis, 1974). It normalizes the signal by subtracting the local mean then amplifies the result adaptively based on the local variance and remaining noise. According to our point of view, the way by which the amplification factor is defined can be problematic in some regions. This is because different constants are chosen apart from defining to which level the signal is assumed weak and starting from which level it is assumed strong. In addition, this Wallis filter-based quantization approach performs poorly at region boundaries, where the corresponding histograms are mostly multi-modal. This happens because the used Wallis-filter-based tone-mapping approach maps the dynamic range just by scaling and shifting, and this does not solve the multi modality of the histogram.

This paper alleviates the aforementioned problems by employing a CLAHE-based method that both enhances the contrast and maps the dynamic range simultaneously. It amplifies the local contrast adaptively for efficient use of the limited target range. In addition, a contrast enhancement limit is used to avoid the enhancement (amplification) of the noise especially in homogeneous tiles.

The goal is to map each floating-point pixel in the denoised-image into the limited target range, while assigning it an optimal contrast. This is done adaptively using a squared window sliding on the input image and the amplification is done to the center pixel of that window. Assuming that the window covers *n* pixels (samples), the approach of histogram equalization involves amplifying each sample, such that it occupies one of the n intervals that have the same width 1/n, while keeping its order among the other samples. In detail, samples are first sorted in an ascending order, then each of them is mapped to the center of the corresponding interval. That means, all samples undertake a linear mapping function of a slope equals 1/n. However, this ordinary histogram equalization approach does not discriminate the noise from the real data, especially in homogeneous areas. It may increase the contrast of the noise at the expense of the real signal. To solve this problem, when the amplification factor exceeds some amplification threshold, the slope of the mapping function is scaled down by a factor of that increase. This paper proposes a maximum amplification threshold t(x, y) for a given sample at (x, y), such that 3σ of the remaining local noise range does not exceed 10/255 after signal amplification, see (4-5).

$$t(x,y) = \frac{10}{255 \cdot 3 \cdot \sqrt{\text{noise}(x,y)}}$$
 (4)

noise
$$(x, y) = \hat{n}(x, y) * G_{\sigma = 10}(x, y)$$
 (5)

For each denoised-image $\bar{e}(x, y)$, we estimate the variance of the remaining noise $\hat{n}(x, y)$ using the set of N images $v_i(x, y)$ that are used to generate that denoised-image. This is done by first adjusting the brightness of each image $v_i(x, y)$ using (6), then estimating $\hat{n}(x, y)$ using (7).

$$v_i'(x,y) = v_i(x,y) \cdot \frac{\bar{e}(x,y) * G_{\sigma=10}(x,y)}{v_i(x,y) * G_{\sigma=10}(x,y)}$$
(6)

$$\hat{n}(x,y) = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(v'_i(x,y) - \bar{e}(x,y) \right)^2 \tag{7}$$

The amplification factor for a given input sample S_i in the sorted list of samples can be calculated as in (8).

$$\mathbf{F}_i = \frac{1/n}{\mathbf{m}_{in,i}} \tag{8}$$

Where $m_{in,i}$ is the slope of the current input sample S_i . This slope depends on the previous sample S_{i-1}

and the next sample S_{i+1} in the sorted list, and can be calculated as seen in (9).

$$\mathbf{m}_{in,i} = \frac{\mathbf{S}_{i+1} - \mathbf{S}_{i-1}}{2} \tag{9}$$

Finally the output slop $m_{out,i}$ used for amplifying the current input sample S_i is determined as in (10)

$$\mathbf{m}_{out,i} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n}, & \text{if } \mathbf{F}_i \leq \mathbf{T}_i \\ \frac{\mathbf{T}_i}{n \cdot \mathbf{F}_i}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(10)

Where T_i is the amplification limit of the current sample S_i and estimated as in (4-5).

4 EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

In this section, the effect of the proposed approach on image-based 3D reconstruction methods will be investigated. More specifically, the impact of noise reduction and contrast enhancement on reconstructing weakly-textured surfaces will be tested. Obviously, an important aspect in this context would be investigating the effect of the proposed approach on feature detection and matching.

4.1 Impact on feature detection and matching

Two images have been captured for one of the problematic objects (see top of Fig. 3) and used to compare the outcome of feature detection and matching. It is worth mentioning that, some of the detected features can be useless, as they might not be correctly matched. Therefore, for accurate evaluation, this section considers only inliers and discards outliers. To this end, in each experiment, after features have been detected using the SIFT algorithm, 5000 RANSAC iterations (using a threshold of 100 pixels) are used to find the best approximate of inliers number. Fig. 3 depicts the results of matching the detected features. The second row shows the results after using no image enhancement. The third and the fourth rows show the results after using (Ley et al., 2016) approach on one hand and using our proposed approach on the other hand. It is evident that such kind of objects is one of the difficult objects. When no image enhancement is used (second row of Fig. 3), 96 correct matches are found. However, there is almost no feature point that has been detected inside the object. Most of the detected points are located near to the boundaries, where the contrast is relatively strong. On the other hand, it is clear in the third and fourth rows that feature detection has been



Figure 3: Impact of noise suppression and contrast enhancement on feature detection and matching: First row: Example image pair; second row shows matching of the detected features when using neither noise suppression nor contrast enhancement; third and fourth rows show matching of the detected features after using (Ley et al., 2016) and our approach respectively. Inliers (*Green*) and outliers (*Blue*).

improved after reducing the noise and enhancing the contrast. However, more feature points have been detected for images enhanced using our proposed approach. Regarding feature matching, the number of inliers has been increased by about 30% to become 125 inliers after processing the images using (Ley et al., 2016) approach. But, when processing the images using our approach, the number of inliers is doubled by a percentage of 185% to become 274. Which is 119% more than the number of inliers found after processing the images using (Ley et al., 2016) approach. This is one of the examples, where we can see the benefit of using HE over Wallis filter. Most of the newly added feature points are located in regions where the pixels are non-uniformly distributed, and mostly have a histogram of at least two peaks. The Wallis-filter based approach of (Ley et al., 2016) will produce a region having same kind of distribution of pixels. That means, the contrast of many pixels is not changed or damped. Therefore, the texture remains weak and consequently features are not detected. But using HE, pixels in those regions are adaptively amplified such that the corresponding histogram is

uniform giving a chance for weak textures to be enhanced, this leads to improving feature detection and matching performance. Which in turn has a direct effect on improving the completeness and accuracy of the generated 3D models.

4.2 Wall Dataset

For fair comparisons and better evaluation of our proposed approach, we use the same dataset that is used for evaluating the approach of (Ley et al., 2016). This dataset is for an indoor scene with some furniture and a homogeneous, weakly-textured, white wall in the background (see top row (left) of Fig. 4). The scene has been captured from 7 different viewpoints, where 30 images are taken for each viewpoint. This subsection analysis the performance of the proposed approach over the standard 3D reconstruction approach. In mean while, it compares the performance to that of (Ley et al., 2016) approach. For the sake of explanation simplicity, we refer to the standard approach (where a single image per viewpoint is used) as S-1. For Wallis-based approach of (Ley et al., 2016) and our HE-based approach we use the notations W-N and H-N respectively, where N is the number of the used images per viewpoint.

In this experiment, the pipeline SfM/PMVS2 is used to generate the point clouds seen in Fig. 4. The generated point cloud for the S-1 approach is seen in the first row (right). Each of the rows from two to seven shows the generated point clouds using W-N (left) and H-N (right). Where, N increases for each row as : 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, and 30. In addition, to quantitatively evaluate the performance, Fig. 5 summarizes the total number of points in each point cloud. As can be seen in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, it is clear that the more images provided per viewpoint, the more complete the reconstructed models are. This is because using more images leads to more noise reduction. However, our proposed approach outperforms the approach of (Ley et al., 2016) in the sense that it needs smaller number of images to give the same results. More precisely, our approach needs half the number of images needed by the approach of (Ley et al., 2016) to generate (at least) same number of reconstructed points. Take for example H-8 gives (474214) points compared to (453440) points for W-16.

One more important advantage of our approach, is its robustness to noise. This can be seen in Fig. 4, second row corresponds to W-1 and H-1. In these specific settings, it should be noted that images are still suffering from random noise, because we are using only one image per viewpoint. However, our approach, H-1, was able to achieve more than 82% increase in the number of reconstructed points (264251) compared to (142403) for S-1. At the same time, the non-robustness to noise of the augmented Wallis filter that is used in (Ley et al., 2016) leads to 14% decrease in the number of the reconstructed points (122627) using W-1 compared to (142403) points using S-1.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that the maximum number of 3D reconstructed points achieved by (Ley et al., 2016) is (499321) using W-30. At that moment, this maximum number was already exceeded by H-16 with (513481) points. Means, any further increase in the number of points is exclusively recorded to our approach giving a maximum number of 3D reconstructed points of (580896) using H-30 (see the last row of Fig. 4).

4.3 Sculpture Dataset

The Sculpture dataset contains images for a smooth and weakly-textured sculpture of a girls head. The top left of Fig. 6 shows an example image. This sculpture has been acquired from 12 viewpoints with 30 images per viewpoint. In this experiment, we generate dense point clouds of the sculpture using S-1, W-N, and H-N for different numbers of images N per viewpoint as: 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, and 30. Fig. 7 summarizes the number of reconstructed points for each of the approaches. For better evaluation, points are split into Sculpture (blue) and Background (red) points. Considering the total number of reconstructed points, it is evident that both our approach (H-N) and (Ley et al., 2016) approach (W-N) outperform the standard approach (S-1). However, our approach outperforms that of (Ley et al., 2016). The number of points (278612) reconstructed using S-1 has been increased by approximately 63% using H-1 to become 455199), while W-1 increased the number of points by nearly 8% to become (303436).

Considering the sculpture alone, W-1 does not achieve the number of points achieved using S-1. The number of reconstructed points using W-1 is (211044), which is about 8% smaller than the number that is achieved by S-1 (231430). This happens because random noise is still there, and it seems to be not as robust to noise as our proposed approach. It is worth mentioning that, starting from 8 images, the sculpture has been fully reconstructed. Therefore, there is no significant difference in terms of number of points between both approaches. Fig. 6, first row (right) shows the point cloud using S-1, while the second row shows the point clouds using W-30 (left) and H-30 (right).



Figure 4: Wall dataset. Top row: one view of the scene, S-1; Second to seventh row:W-1, H-1; W-2, H-2; W-4, H-4; W-8, H-8; W-16, H-16; W-30, H-30.

Considering the background alone, as seen in Fig. 6, the background is underexposed and the texture is barely visible. In such difficult surfaces, the power of noise reduction appears. As can be seen in Fig. 7, both algorithms achieve larger number of reconstructed points, as the number of images



Figure 5: Wall dataset. Points count in dense reconstruction for different numbers of images per viewpoint.



Figure 6: Sculpture dataset. First row: Example image (left) and point cloud using S-1 (right); Second row: point clouds using W-30 (left) and using H-30 (right).



Figure 7: Sculpture dataset. Number of points of the dense reconstruction for different methods and number of images per viewpoint. Sculpture (blue) and Background (red).

increases. However, our proposed approach still overcomes the approach of (Ley et al., 2016).

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE 5 WORK

Despite of the vast advances in feature detection, extraction, and matching mechanisms, weakly-textured regions are still a big challenge for standard automatic 3D reconstruction pipelines. This paper investigates image processing and noise suppression techniques to boost the hidden details in weakly-textured surfaces. To avoid possible loses of the achieved gain after image enhancement, this paper proposes to apply enhancements directly on one gray channel, such that the Green channel of the RGB or the L component of the Lab color space. This paper proposes a CLAHE-based approach to squeeze the dynamic range of the resulting denoised-images. It amplifies the local contrast adaptively to effectively use the limited 8-bit target range.

Experiments show that using the proposed approach leads to a relatively huge improvement of up to 400% in terms of precision and completeness. In addition, it has been shown that the proposed approach is outperforming a recently proposed approach which tackles the same problem.

Future work may include using multi-camera rig to acquire multiple images for different viewpoints simultaneously. Also, more approaches for reducing image noise can be investigated.

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