

11-23-2020

## A Novel Light Sectioning Vision System for a Three Dimensional Surface Roughness Assessment.

Ossama Abouelatta

*Professor of Production Engineering and Mechanical Design Department., Faculty of Engineering., El-Mansoura University., 35516 Mansoura., Egypt., abouelatta@mans.edu.eg*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://mej.researchcommons.org/home>

---

### Recommended Citation

Abouelatta, Ossama (2020) "A Novel Light Sectioning Vision System for a Three Dimensional Surface Roughness Assessment.," *Mansoura Engineering Journal*: Vol. 35 : Iss. 3 , Article 5.

Available at: <https://doi.org/10.21608/bfemu.2020.125069>

This Original Study is brought to you for free and open access by Mansoura Engineering Journal. It has been accepted for inclusion in Mansoura Engineering Journal by an authorized editor of Mansoura Engineering Journal. For more information, please contact [mej@mans.edu.eg](mailto:mej@mans.edu.eg).

## A NOVEL LIGHT SECTIONING VISION SYSTEM FOR A THREE DIMENSIONAL SURFACE ROUGHNESS ASSESSMENT

نظام قطاع ضوئي ورؤية بالحاسب جديد لتقييم خشونة السطح في الاتجاهات الثلاث

Ossama B. Abouelatta

Production Engineering and Mechanical Design Department, Faculty of Engineering, Mansoura University, 35516 Mansoura, Egypt

Email: [abouelatta@mans.edu.eg](mailto:abouelatta@mans.edu.eg)

د. أسامة بديع شفيق أبو العطا

قسم هندسة الإنتاج والتصميم الميكانيكي - كلية الهندسة - جامعة المنصورة

**الخلاصة:** تعتمد طرق قياس خشونة الأسطح القياسية بدرجة كبيرة على أجهزة القياس بواسطة المجس والتي لها مرونة محدودة في التعامل مع قياس خشونة الأجزاء المختلفة. ومن ناحية أخرى، تتميز تقنيات القياس الضوئية والغير تلامسية بدرجة كبيرة عند قياس وتوصيف الأسطح الهندسية المعقدة والدقيقة عن مثيلاتها من الطرق الأخرى. وتعتمد هذه الدراسة تقديم طريقة جديدة لقياس خشونة الأسطح في الاتجاهات الثلاث بدمج طريقة ميكروسكوب القطاع الضوئي مع نظام الرؤية بالحاسب. وتتميز هذه الطريقة بأنها غير تلامسية وسريعة وفي نفس الوقت رخيصة. وقد تم إنشاء نسخة مبدئية من برنامج، يسمى *SR3D Vision*، لكي يدير عملية قياس خشونة الأسطح في الثلاث اتجاهات. واستخدم ميكروسكوب قطاع ضوئي لعرض منحنيات الخشونة للعينات المراد قياسها، كما استخدم نظام للرؤية بالحاسب لالتقاط صور جانبية متعاقبة لمنحنيات الخشونة هذه. وقد تم كتابة وإنشاء هذا البرنامج باستخدام برنامج المتعاقب خصيصاً بغرض تحليل الصور المتقطعة من خلال أربعة وحدات رئيسية وهي: وحدة التحكم في عملية القياس، وحدة استخلاص منحنيات أو أسطح الخشونة، وحدة حساب خشونة الأسطح في الاتجاهين، ووحدة حساب خشونة الأسطح في الاتجاهات الثلاث. وقد تمت معايرة النظام للقياس بواسطة الوحدات المترية، كما تمت التحقق من دقة عمليات القياس باستخدام عينات قياسية. وقد استخدم هذا النظام لقياس بعض العينات المشغلة باستخدام عمليات تشغيل مختلفة وفورنت نتائج القياس بنتائج برامج جاهزة وتم التحقق من دقة النظام حيث أثبتت نتائج المقارنة أن الفروق كانت في حدود  $\pm 4.5\%$ .

### Abstract

Standard roughness measurement procedures depend heavily on stylus instruments which have only limited flexibility in handling different parts. On the other hand, optical non-contact techniques are very interesting for 3D characterization of sensitive and complex engineering surfaces. In this study, a new approach is introduced to measure surface roughness in three dimensions by combining a light sectioning microscope and a computer vision system. This approach has the advantages of being non-contact, fast and cheap. A prototype version of a user interface program, currently named *SR3D Vision*, has been developed to manage three dimensional surface roughness measurements. A light sectioning microscope is used to view roughness profiles of the specimens to be measured and the vision system is used to capture images for successive profiles. This program has been totally developed in-house using Matlab™ software to analyze the captured images through four main modules: (Measurement controller, Profile or surface extraction, 2D roughness parameters calculation and 3D roughness parameters calculation). The system has been calibrated for metric units and verified using standard specimens. In addition, the system was used to measure various samples machined by different operations and the results were compared with a commercial software and a web-based surface metrology algorithm testing system. The accuracy of the system was verified and proved to be within  $\pm 4.8\%$  compared with these systems.

### Key words

3D surface roughness, Computer vision, Light sectioning

## 1 Introduction

The development of new industries has led to a requirement for super-smooth surfaces and for the ability to measure surfaces of industrial parts accurately; therefore, the measurement of engineering surface roughness is becoming increasingly important [1]. Many methods of measuring surface finish have been developed ranging from the simple touch comparator to sophisticated optical techniques [2]. Optical methodology and computer vision systems are the most common methods among the developed researches [3]. Computer vision was also implemented to measure surface roughness. Computer vision systems offers the advantages of the optical techniques, which tend to fulfill the need for quantitative characterization of surface topography without contact, whilst vision systems is considered relatively cheap and fast.

Several investigations have been performed to inspect surface roughness based on optical surface roughness measurements. A noncontact three-dimensional optical profiler for measuring surface roughness is described by Wyant et al. [4], based on a reflection microscope and Mirau interferometer. Besides, a general scheme for an on-line, non-contact, optically based inspection machine has been developed by Jolic et al. [5]. Yilbas and Hasmi [6], introduced an optical system for surface roughness measurement, based on an He-Ne laser beam and a fibre optic probe, used to scan the surface. A linear relationship exists between the  $R_a$  values and the standard deviation of Gaussian function (SDGF) of the reflected beam intensity. The greater are the SDGF values the greater is the surface roughness. One can say that spectral interferometry provides a simple method for measuring average roughness of the surfaces in the scale of optical wavelengths [7].

On the other hand, an approach based upon solving the inverse problem of light scattering by model-based scatterometry has been proposed by Hertzsch et al. [8] for the near-process inspection of turned surfaces. In the range of precision engineering ( $R_a \leq 1.5 \mu\text{m}$ ),

the mean profile of the dominant periodic component can be measured optically without scanning and without resorting to comparator standards. An original low cost integrated system using a planar light scanning technique in measuring the surface contour of three-dimensional objects has been investigated and an algorithm of processing the measured bit-map data into a format that could be input readily to a CAD system has been developed [9].

Results of the measurement of surface roughness using angular speckle-correlation on machined surfaces are presented in Persson [10]. Surfaces of approximately  $1.6 < R_a < 6.3 \mu\text{m}$  have been measured, the surfaces being classified in the same manner as when using a stylus instrument. Angular speckle correlation is a technique that allows in-process measurement of the roughness of surfaces on machined surfaces. An experimental approach for surface roughness measurement based on the coherent speckle scattering pattern caused by a laser beam on the machined surfaces (grinding and milling) is presented by Dhanasekar et al. [11].

On the other hand, computer vision was implemented to measure surface roughness by many researchers. Gadelmawla et al. [12] introduced a system to capture an image for a surface and then to extract the roughness heights from the captured image. This system capable of measuring surface roughness in either 2D or 3D domains. Gadelmawla [13] presented an approach for surface roughness characterization using computer vision and image processing techniques based on the gray level co-occurrence matrix. A new parameter called maximum width of the matrix is introduced to be used as an indicator for the surface roughness. An inexpensive machine vision system was demonstrated by Gupta and Raman [14] to compute non-contact, optical parameters for the online characterization of surface roughness of machined surfaces. Their experimentation revealed that the vision parameters can discriminate different surface roughness heights and are insensitive to changes in ambient lighting and speed of rotation during

measurement. A surface roughness measurement technique for the on-machine measurement of the roughness of machined surfaces, based on the measurement of scattered light patterns and the statistical analysis of the light intensity distribution, has been proposed in Kim et al. [15]. The standard deviation of the scattered light pattern is nearly in proportion to the surface roughness. Measurements obtained using this method are within 10% of those obtained using a common contact method.

Unlike the stylus instruments, the optical techniques and computer vision systems have the advantages of being non-contact and are capable of measuring an area from the surface rather than a single line. Further the procedure is an in-process approach which is amenable for automation. Lee et al. [16-17] presented a system for measuring the surface roughness of turned parts using a computer vision system. Compared with the stylus method, the computer vision system constructed is a useful method for measuring the surface roughness faster, at a lower cost, and with lower environmental noise in manufacturing process. Ho et al. [18] proposed a method using an adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system to establish an accurate estimation of surface roughness based on texture features of the surface image. Ngan and Tam [19], investigated a non-contact costly low approach suitable for on-site polishing inspection based on computer vision and image analysis. The results are promising and show that the proposed approach could be practical and robust. Based on the surface image features, a parameter called magnification index has been estimated by Kumar et al. [20] using regression analysis, for original images and for a magnified quality improved images. Finally, a comparison has been carried to establish correlation between magnification index and surface roughness. Al-Kindi and Shirinzadeh [21], presented a methodology for using machine vision data to acquire reliable surface roughness parameter measurement using standard and non-standard roughness parameters. The overall

acquired results indicate that vision systems are a valid source of data to obtain both amplitude and spacing roughness parameters with confidence using the proposed methodology.

The use of light sectioning method combined with computer vision is suggested by many researchers. In the recent past, higher levels of automation in the shop floor has focused the attention on the application of fast, reliable and cost effective procedures for evaluating surfaces of medium finished parts. Light sectioning methods are considered as an optical technique, which was initially proposed by Schmaltz [22] to get the roughness profile of surfaces. A 2D surface roughness measurement system was designed with a light-sectioning microscope and the corresponding software was developed by Shou-Bin and Hui-Fen [23]. Their experimental results showed a feasible method for surface roughness measurement. A design of an optical instrument for 2D surface roughness measurement was demonstrated by Shou-Bin and Hui-Fen [24].

Based on these principles, a commercial optical instrument has been developed whose measurement height is in the range of 0.4-120  $\mu\text{m}$ . Light sectioning of an object surface uses the line deformation imaged to compute the object profile was used by Lewandowaki and Desjardins [25]. Kiran et al. [26] covered in brief few finish assessment methods of medium rough surfaces using a standard vision system in order to achieve quick estimation of the finish of medium rough surfaces. Matsumoto et al. [27], proposed a profile measurement system with light sectioning, which is available to detect step profiles on objects. The performance of this system was confirmed by experiments, in which step profiles of objects at a distance of 500 mm could be measured. In a previous work, Elhamshary et al. [28], introduced a system to measure two dimensional surface roughness by combining a light sectioning microscope and a computer vision system. The system was used to measure machined samples and the results were compared with the measurements of a stylus instrument.

## M. 17 Ossama B. Abouelatta

The aim of this work is to introduce a new non-contact system for automatic three dimensional measurement of surface roughness by utilizing a light sectioning microscope and a computer vision system. Consequently, amplitude roughness parameters in three dimensions as well as most of the two dimension roughness parameters can be calculated by the introduced system.

### 2 Experimental setup

The introduced system consists of two major parts, hardware and software. A photograph of the system is shown in Fig. 1. The hardware consists of four items: personal computer (PC), a light sectioning microscope, a vision system and a precision table of Nikon Measurescope-I0 derived by a stepper motor and its controller. The PC is an IBM-compatible personal computer with Pentium processor and Windows operating system. The light sectioning microscope is supplied with a suitable set of magnification lenses to produce magnified roughness profiles for surfaces under investigation. The vision

system consists of a JVC color video camera (CCD) and an ELF-VGA frame grabber provided with capturing software to capture images acquired by the CCD camera. The CCD camera is fixed on the eyepiece of the light sectioning microscope using a special holder designed to provide an accurate alignment between the camera and the image reflected by the microscope. The frame grabber is fitted inside the PC and connected to the CCD camera. It is used to digitize the analogue image, produced by the CCD camera, into  $760 \times 570$  pixels with 16 bits of color.

A specially developed program, named *SR3DVision*, has been fully developed in-house using Matlab™ software and the provided image processing toolbox, to analyze the captured images. The *SR3DVision* program consists of four modules with a graphical user interface, which are: Measurement controller, profile or surface extraction, 2D roughness parameters calculation, and 3D roughness parameters calculation. All modules can be executed from the main interface, Fig. 2.

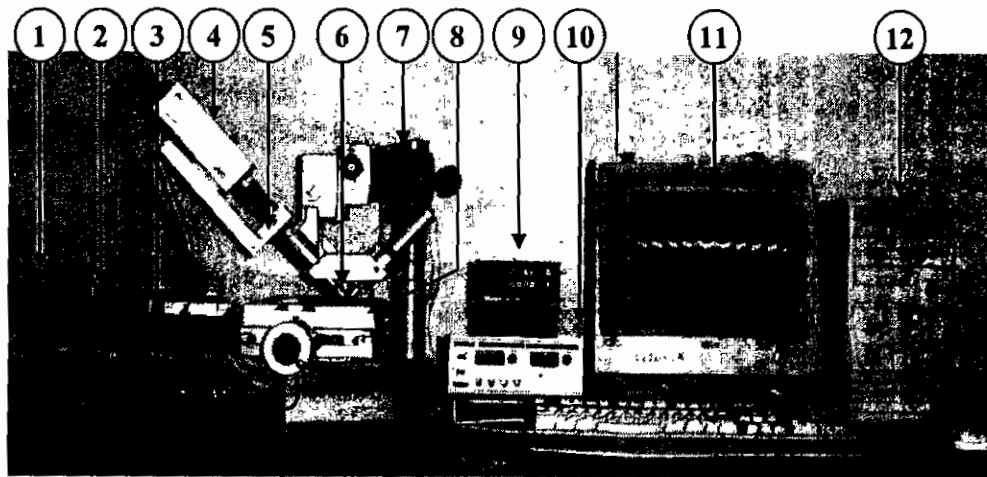
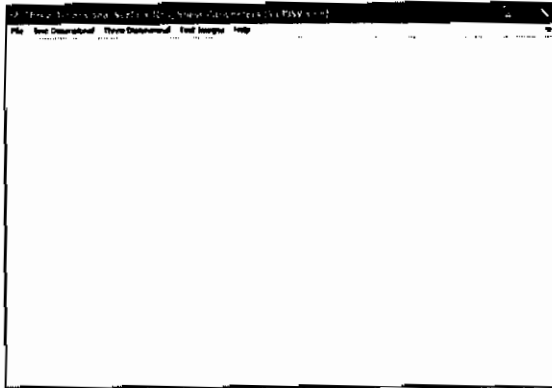


Fig. 1. Photograph of the introduced system.

1. Stepper motor.
2. Coupling.
3. Stepper motor controller.
4. CCD camera.
5. CCD camera holder.
6. Standard specimen.
7. Light section microscope.
8. Precision X-Y table.
9. Display counter.
10. Power supply.
11. Capturing software.
12. Personal computer.



**Fig. 2. Main interface of SR3DVision program.**

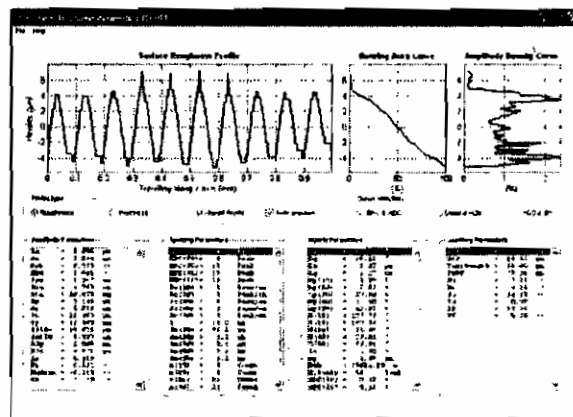
The first module (*MeasControl*) is used to control the measuring process via stepper motor and its controller [29]. After starting measurements, the *x-y* table is automatically moved forward by 20  $\mu\text{m}$  to eliminate backlash from the driving system. Next, the user is prompted to enter data file name, number of traces (*NTraces*) and the sampling interval  $\Delta y$ . These processes repeated *NTraces* times to produce a *NTraces* images.

The second module (*ProfileExtract*), Fig. 3, is used to extract the *x-z* coordinates of the roughness profiles from the captured images by performing various image processing and computer vision algorithms. Through this module, each captured image is opened and analyzed to extract the 2D roughness profile, then the *x-z* coordinates of the extracted profile is saved to an ".SDF" file for further use by the *SR3DVision* program or other commercial software. On the other hand, this module can be used to extract the *x-z* coordinates of the successive profiles from the captured images. The *x-z* coordinates of the extracted profiles are saved to an ".SDF" file for further use by the *SR3DVision* program or other commercial software.

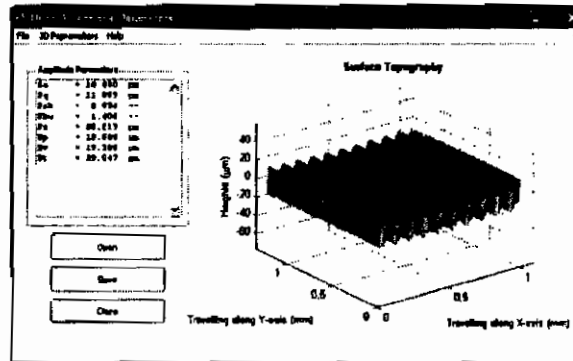
The third module (*RP2DCalc*), Fig. 4, is used to calculate the standard and non-standard 2D roughness parameters from the SDF file produced for each image by the second module [30-31]. In addition, this module is used to view the 2D surface roughness profile extracted from each image.



**Fig. 3. Profile extraction module (ProfileExtract).**



**Fig. 4. Two dimensional surface roughness parameters calculation module (RP2DCalc).**



**Fig. 5. Three dimensional surface roughness parameters calculation module (RP3DCalc).**

The fourth module (*RP3DCalc*), Fig. 5, is used to calculate the 3D roughness parameters [32] from the SDF files produced for all images by the second module. In addition, this module is used to view the 3D surface topography extracted from all captured images.

### 3 Procedures of work

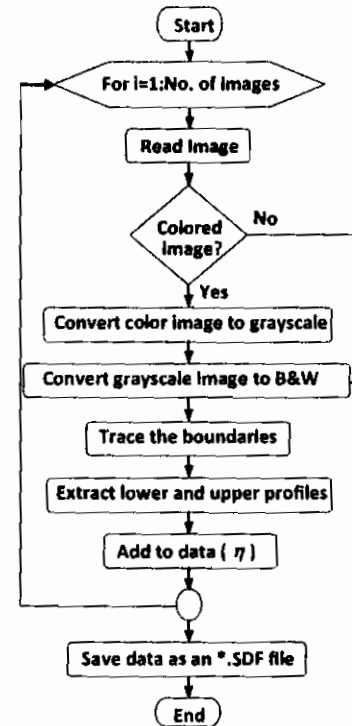
To calculate the 3D surface roughness parameters and to visualize the 3D surface topography by the introduced system, the specimen to be measured is positioned on the table of the light sectioning microscope under the projected light. The focus is adjusted until the roughness profile appears clear on the screen of the capturing software (ELF-VGA). After selecting a suitable section, the capturing software is used to capture an image for the viewed profiles and to save it to a bitmap image file (BMP). This step is repeated  $N_{Traces}$  for 3D surface roughness measurement. Finally, the captured image is opened by the *SR3DVision* program, then the processing algorithms are applied. The roughness parameters of the extracted profile can be calculated by selecting Calculate 2D or 3D parameters from the main module, which display the second and third modules, as shown in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, respectively.

### 4 Processing algorithms

Image processing and computer vision algorithms are applied to analyze the captured images and to extract the roughness profiles as shown in Fig. 6. First, the algorithms check the depth of color in the opened image. If the image is colored, the software converts it to grey scale. Then, a global threshold is calculated to convert the grey scale image into a binary image (Black and white image). The upper and lower profiles are traced by locating upper and lower boundaries of the binary image. Finally, a calibration factor is applied to the extracted profiles in order to calculate the actual  $x$  and  $z$  coordinates (See Section 5).

**Table 1: Lens's specifications and the horizontal and vertical resolutions of the system**

Lenses pair	Lens's focal length (mm)	Range of $R_r$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Range of $R_o$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Horizontal field of view (mm)	Horizontal resolution ( $\mu\text{m}/\text{pixel}$ )	Vertical resolution ( $\mu\text{m}/\text{pixel}$ )
1	25	10 - 80	2.5 - 20	1.8	2.3684	1.2550
2	13.9	6.3 - 20	1.25 - 5	1.0	1.3158	0.9343
3	8.2	3.2 - 10	0.63 - 2.5	0.6	0.7895	0.4967
4	4.3	1.6 - 3.2	0.32 - 0.63	0.3	0.3947	0.2647



**Fig. 6. Flowchart of the image processing algorithm used to extract surface heights data from the light sectioning profiles.**

### 5 System calibration

The system has been calibrated for light sectioning microscope lens in both  $x$ -direction (horizontal resolution) and  $z$ -direction (vertical resolution). A standard specimen produced by American Optical Company-Buffalo, was used to calibrate the system for horizontal resolution. The specimen has 2 mm scale divided into units of 0.01 mm. A light section microscope lens was used to capture an image for the scale of the standard specimen and the number of divisions was counted for each image to calculate the corresponding field of view as shown in Table 1.

Because the implied vision system produces images sized to 760×570 pixels, the horizontal resolution for each lens was calculated by dividing the value of the field of view (in  $\mu\text{m}$ ) by the width of the captured image (760 pixels). The horizontal resolution (H), for example, a lens of 13.9 mm focal length can be calculated as follows:

Horizontal resolution (H) =

Field of view/Width of the captured image

$$= 1000/760 = 1.31579 \mu\text{m/pixel}$$

On the other hand, another standard specimen (Handysurf E-10A, Advanced Metrology Systems, Limited, Leicester, UK) has an arithmetic average roughness  $R_a = 2.97 \mu\text{m}$  and peak to valley height roughness parameter  $R_t = 11.72 \mu\text{m}$  was used to calibrate the system for the vertical resolution. Fig. 7 and Table 2 show a sample roughness profile of the standard specimen (4 mm length) obtained by a Surftest SJ201-

P instrument connected to a personal computer. At least twenty images were captured for two standard specimens, then a two roughness profiles (upper and lower) were extracted by the *SR3DVision* program. Because the captured profiles may not be exactly horizontal, the least square method was applied to the extracted profiles to remove any inclination in the surface. The maximum peak to valley height was calculated (in pixels) for each profile, then the average value was taken. The vertical resolution (V) was calculated by dividing the actual value of  $R_t$  by the calculated average as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Vertical resolution (V)} &= 10.95/R_t \\ &= 0.9343 \mu\text{m/pixel} \end{aligned}$$

Table 1 summarizes the horizontal resolution (H) and vertical resolution of the system for a pair of light section microscope lens.

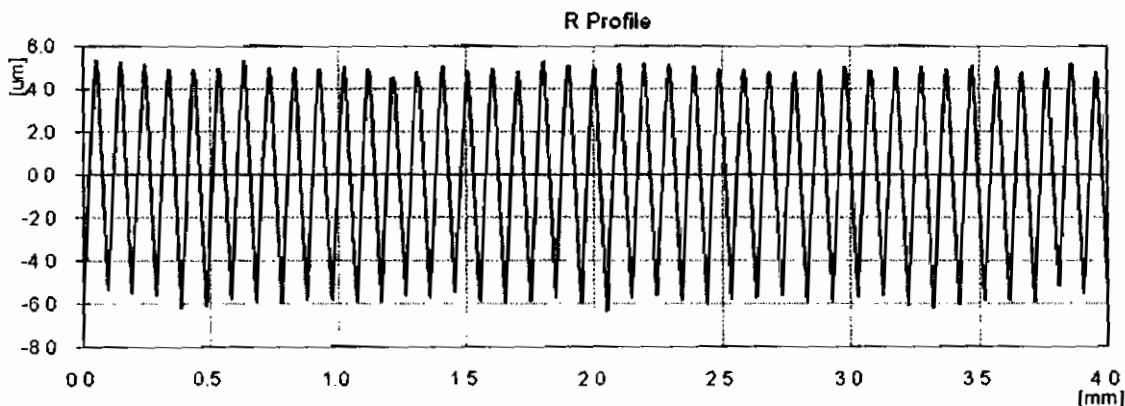


Fig. 7. Standard specimen measured by a Surftest SJ201-P.

Table 2: Surface roughness values of standard specimen measured by a Surftest SJ201-P

Parameter	Value
Average roughness height, $R_a$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	2.97
Ten-point height, $R_z$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	11.3
Root mean square roughness, $R_q$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	3.37
Maximum peak to valley height, $R_t$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	11.72
Maximum height, $R_p$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	5.15
Peak count, $RP_c$ (Peak/cm)	102.5
Average roughness height, $R_{nr}$ (%)	15
Mean from 3 <sup>rd</sup> highest peak to 3 <sup>rd</sup> lowest valley, $R_{3z}$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	10.97
Mean spacing of profile irregularities, $RS$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	97
Mean spacing of profile irregularities, $RS_m$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	98



6 Parameter calculation algorithms

Eight parameters for characterizing the amplitude parameters of surfaces are specified here. Amplitude parameters in three dimensions were calculated according to the flowchart shown in Fig. 8. At first, a least square mean plane was applied so that the sum of the squares of asperity departures from this plane is a minimum.

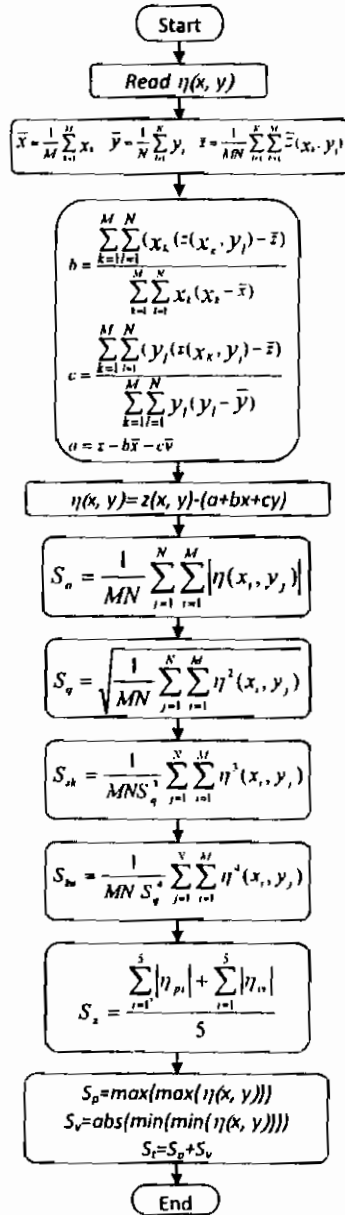


Fig. 8. Application of least square mean plane and 3D amplitude parameters calculation.

The least squares mean plane is unique for a given surface and it minimizes the root

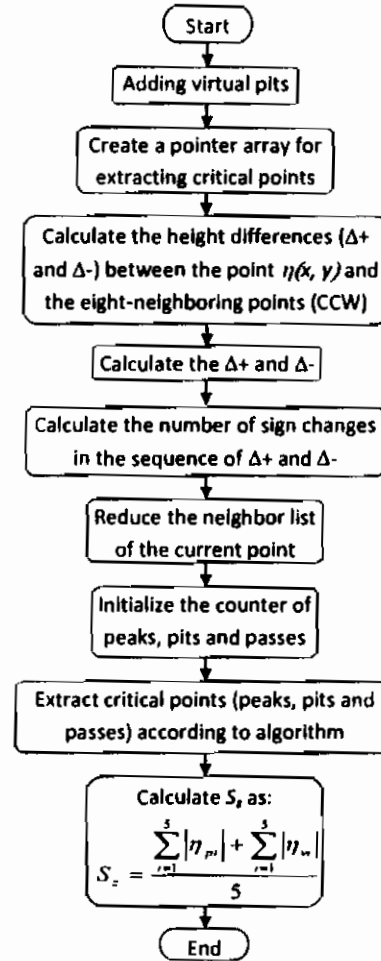
mean square height in comparison with other planes. For a given surface  $z(x, y)$ , its linear or first order least squares mean plane may be defined by  $f(x, y) = a + bx + cy$  where  $a, b, c$  are the coefficients to be solved from the given topographic data. The calculated roughness parameters in three dimensions are: average roughness ( $S_a$ ), root mean square roughness ( $S_q$ ), skewness ( $S_{sk}$ ), kurtosis ( $S_{ku}$ ), ten-point height ( $S_z$ ), maximum height ( $S_p$ ), minimum Valley ( $S_v$ ), maximum peak to valley height ( $S_t$ ).

Ten point height of the surface ( $S_z$ ) is an extreme parameter defined as the average value of the absolute heights of the five highest peaks and the depths of the deepest pits or valleys within the sampling area. A problem arises when calculating this parameter with digital computers, i.e. the definition of summits and valleys of areal topographic data [33]. They are more ambiguous compared with the definition of peaks and valleys of the profile data. Firstly, a summit may be defined within four nearest neighbors or eight nearest neighbors or contour-based summit. Secondly, the ridges, saddles, valleys and local undulations around the highest summit may adversely affect the ability to find the second and subsequent highest summits. Even for the contour-based summit, a problem arises as to whether only one summit should be defined on a ridge or not. Although a method to identify summits, flats, straits and ridges has been proposed, the algorithm still relies on the size of neighboring area [34-35]. Thus all the problems in defining the summit are concentrated on the extent of the neighboring area within which a summit should be defined. By using different definitions, the number of summits and the average height of the summits would be different. Anyway, the method of extracting summits, flats, straits and ridges that proposed by Peucker and Douglas, is used in this study as shown in Fig. 9.

7 System verification

To verify the accuracy of the introduced system, twenty images for different sections in each of the two standard specimens were

captured and processed by the *SR3D Vision* program to extract their roughness profiles and to calculate the 2D roughness parameters. The averages of  $R_a$  and  $R_t$  for the forty images were calculated and compared with the actual values of the two standard specimens (Specimen I: Handysurf E-10A, Advanced Metrology Systems, Leicester, UK; Specimen II: Surfrest SJ-201P, Mitutoyo, Japan), as shown in Table 3. The percentage of differences between the actual and the measured values were within  $\pm 4.5\%$ . Table 4 shows the calculated three dimensional roughness parameters, obtained by both the third module of the *SR3D Vision* program and a commercial software, for an area of the standard specimens. A Web-based surface metrology algorithm testing system (<http://syseng.nist.gov/VSC/jsp>), was used to verify the *SR3D Vision* program. This system includes surface analysis tools and a surface texture specimen database for parameter evaluation and algorithm verification. It was found that the maximum difference between the results of the two software is less than 4.8% for ten-point height of the surface ( $S_z$ ). This may be due to the method of ten-point height calculation presented here. The difference percentages for the other parameters are less than 3.13%.



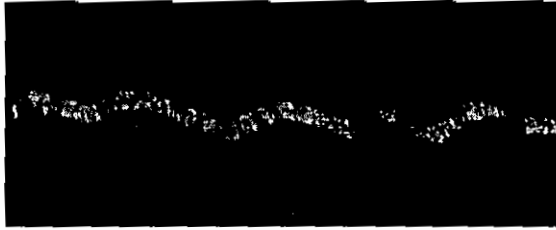
**Fig. 9. Flowchart of  $S_z$  parameter calculation based on extraction of critical points (Peucker and Douglas, 1975; Pfaltz, 1976; and Wolf, 1991).**

**Table 3: Actual and calculated roughness parameters for the two standard specimen**

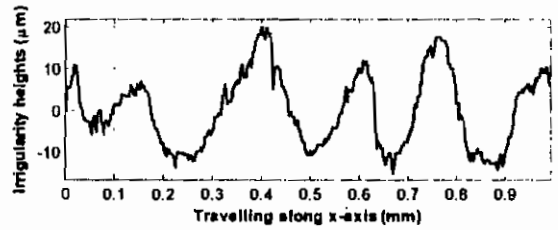
Standard Specimen	Average roughness height $R_a$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )			Maximum peak to valley height $R_t$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )			Accuracy (%)
	Actual	Ave.	Diff. (%)	Actual	Ave.	Diff. (%)	
I	2.97	2.98	$\pm 0.50$	11.72	12.10	$\pm 3.77$	$\pm 3.77$
II	2.97	2.92	$\pm 1.82$	13.21	12.91	$\pm 4.46$	$\pm 4.46$

**Table 4: Calculated unfiltered 3D roughness parameters of a two standard specimen surfaces**

	Standard specimen I			Standard specimen II		
	<i>SR3D Vision</i>	Mountain	Diff.%	<i>SR3D Vision</i>	Mountain	Diff.%
$S_a$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	11.26	11.2	0.54	10.43	10.4	0.29
$S_q$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	11.97	12.00	0.25	11.06	11.10	0.36
$S_{sk}$	0.052	0.053	1.89	0.033	0.032	3.13
$S_{ku}$	1.45	1.45	0.00	1.41	1.43	1.40
$S_z$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	44.53	42.50	4.78	38.21	36.50	4.68

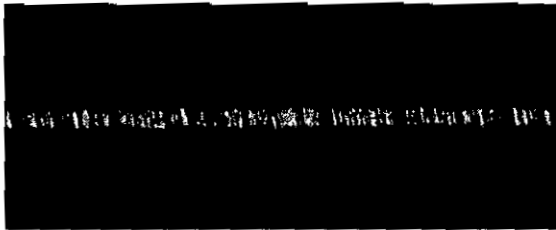


(a) Original image.

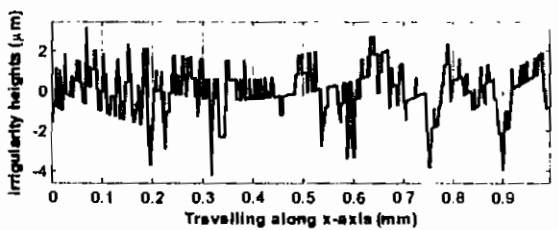


(b) Roughness profile .

**Fig. 10. The captured images and the final roughness profiles for turning specimen (facing).**

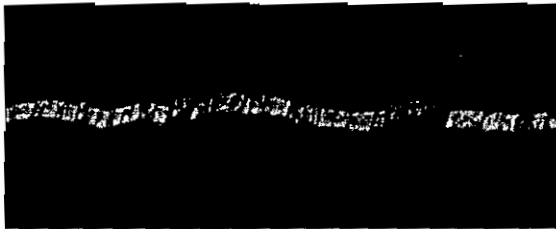


(a) Original image.

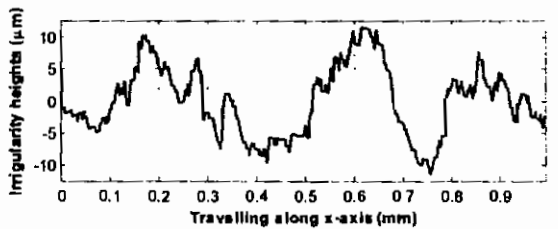


(b) Roughness profile .

**Fig. 11. The captured images and the final roughness profiles for ground specimen.**

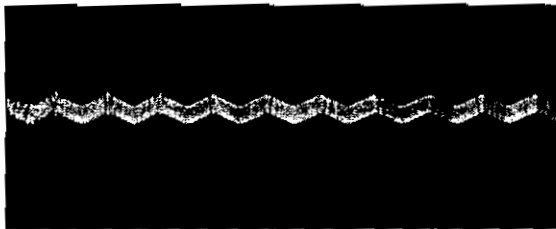


(a) Original image.

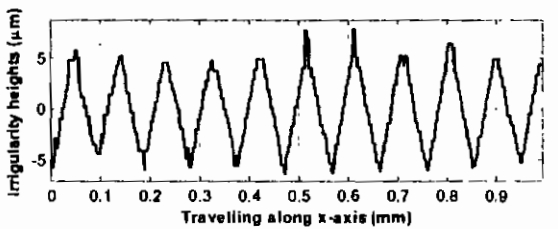


(b) Roughness profile .

**Fig. 12. The captured images and the final roughness profiles for milled specimen.**

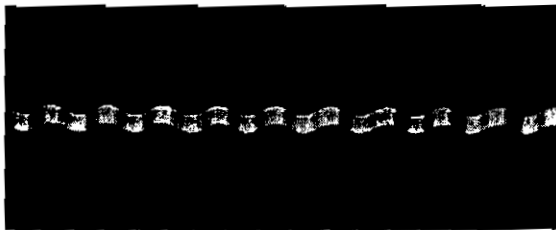


(a) Original image.

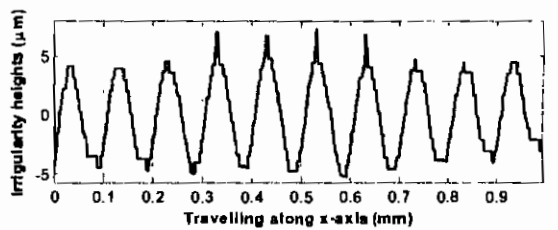


(b) Roughness profile .

**Fig. 13. The captured images and the final roughness profiles for standard specimen I.**

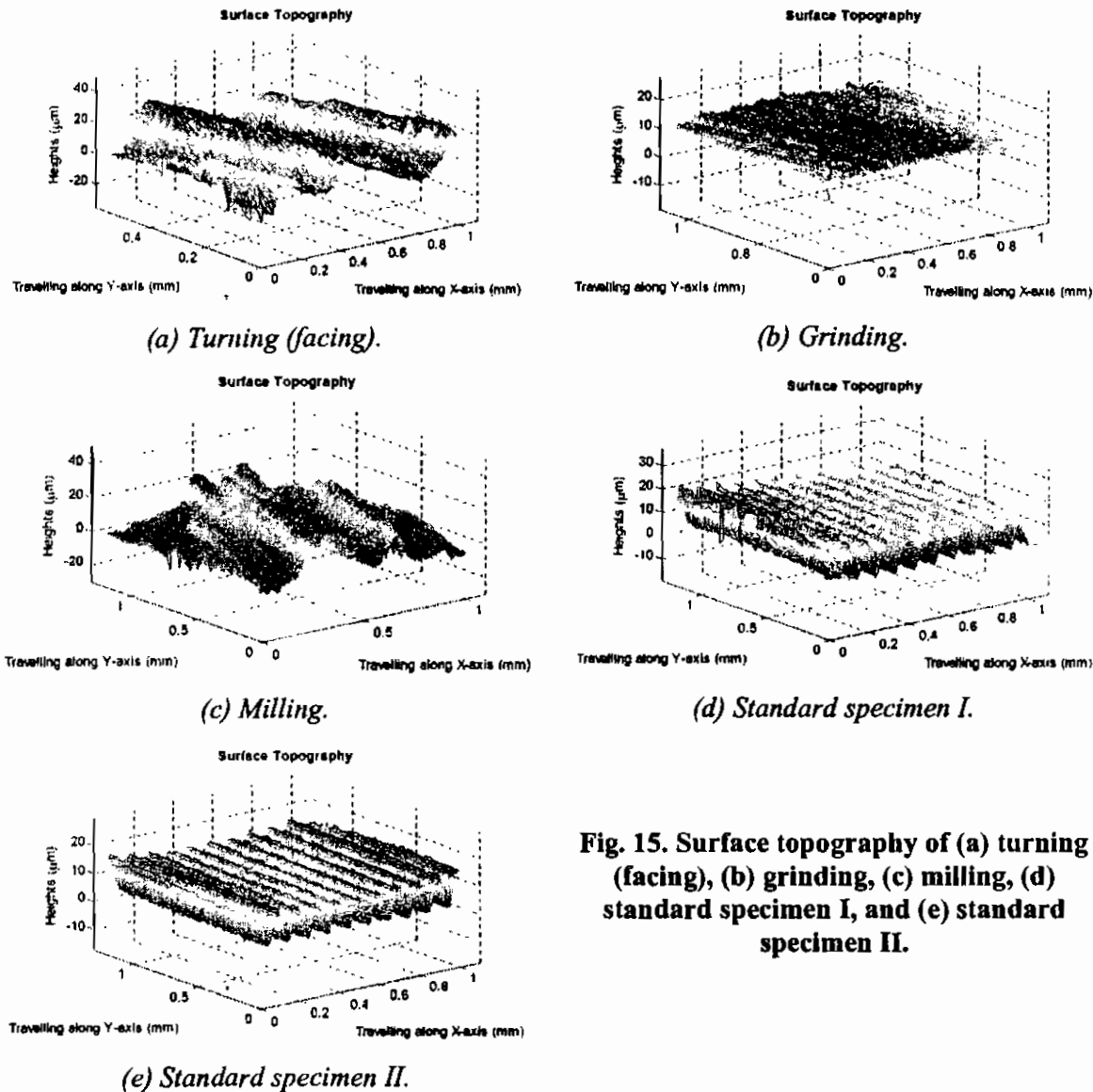


(a) Original image.



(b) Roughness profile .

**Fig. 14. The captured images and the final roughness profiles for standard specimen II.**



**Fig. 15. Surface topography of (a) turning (facing), (b) grinding, (c) milling, (d) standard specimen I, and (e) standard specimen II.**

## 5 Conclusions

A non-contact and multi-parameter system for measuring surface roughness has been realized by combining a light sectioning microscope and computer vision system. The vision system has been utilized to capture images for the roughness profiles viewed by light sectioning microscope and save them for further image processing. A program named (*SRLSVision*) has been specifically written in-house to process the captured images. Four modules, supported by a graphical user interface (GUI), were developed to extract the roughness profiles from the captured images and to calculate roughness parameters from

the extracted profiles. Most of the standard and non-standard surface roughness parameters are calculated by the introduced system. The system was calibrated for both horizontal and vertical resolutions, using two standard specimens, to calculate the roughness parameters in Metric units. Also, the standard specimens were used to verify the system. In addition, various samples machined by different operations were measured by the introduced system and a stylus instrument and the results showed that the maximum difference between the two systems was within  $\pm 4.8\%$ , which prove the accuracy of the system.

## References

1. Thomas, T.R., 1982. "*Rough surfaces*" Longman, London & New York, pp. 47-52.
2. Whitehouse, D.J., 1994. "*Handbook of surface metrology*" Institute of physics publishing. Bristol BS1 6NX, UK, ch. 4.
3. Griffiths, B.J., Middleton, R.H., and Wilkie, B.A., "*Light-scattering for the measurement of surface finish - A review*" International Journal of Production Research, Vol. 32, No. 11, 1994, pp. 2683-2694.
4. Wyant, J.C., Koliopoulos, C.L., Bhushan, B., and Basila, D., "*Development of a three-dimensional noncontact digital optical profiler*" Journal of Tribology. Vol. 108, Vol. 1, 1986, pp. 1-8.
5. Jolic, K.I., Nagarajah, C.R., and Thompson, W., "*Non-contact, optically based measurement of surface roughness of ceramics*" Measurement Science Technology. Vol. 5, 1994, pp. 671-684.
6. Yilbas, Z. and Hasmi, M.S.J., "*Surface roughness measurement using an optical system*" Journal of Materials Processing Technology. Vol. 88, 1999, pp. 10-22.
7. Kandpal, H.C., Mehta, D.S., and Vaishya, J.S., "*Simple method for measurement of surface roughness using spectral interferometry*" Optics and Lasers in Engineering. Vol. 34, 2000, pp. 139-148.
8. Hertzsch, A., Kröger, K., and Truckenbrodt, H., "*Microtopographic analysis of turned surfaces by model-based scatterometry*" Precision Engineering. Vol. 26, 2002, pp. 306-313.
9. Wong, C.M., Chan, W.H., Lam, T.W., and Yip, K.Y., "*Surface mapping of three-dimensional objects by a planar light scanning technique*" Journal of Materials Processing Technology. Vol. 139, 2003, pp. 96-102.
10. Persson, U., "*Surface roughness measurement on machined surfaces using angular speckle correlation*" Journal of Materials Processing Technology. Vol. 180, 2006, pp. 233-238.
11. Dhanasekar, B., Mohan, N.K., Bhaduri, B., and Ramamoorthy, B., "*Evaluation of surface roughness based on monochromatic speckle correlation using image processing*" Precision Engineering. Vol. 32, 2008, pp. 196-206.
12. Gadelmawla, E.S. and Elewa, I.M., Soliman, H. H., Koura, M.M., Maksoud, T.M.A., "*Assessment of surface texture using a uniquely featured computer vision technique*" Society of Manufacturing Engineers. MR01-223, 2001, pp. 1-16.
13. Gadelmawla, E.S., "*A vision system for surface roughness characterization using the gray level co-occurrence matrix*" NDT&E International. Vol. 37, 2004, pp. 577-588.
14. Gupta, M. and Raman, S., "*Machine vision assisted characterization of machined surfaces*" International Journal of Production Research, Vol. 39, No. 4, 2001, pp. 759-784.
15. Kim, H.Y., Shen, Y.F., and Ahn, J.H., "*Development of a surface roughness measurement system using reflected laser beam*" Journal of Materials Processing Technology. Vol. 130-131, 2002, pp. 662-667.
16. Lee, B.Y., Juan, H., and Yu, S.F., "*A study of computer vision for measuring surface roughness in the turning process*" International Journal of Advanced Manufacturing Technology. Vol. 19, 2002, pp. 295-301.
17. Lee, B.Y., Yu, S.F., and Juan, H., "*The model of surface roughness inspection by vision system in turning*" Mechatronics. Vol. 14, 2004, pp. 129-141.
18. Ho, S.Y., Lee, K.C., Chen, S.S., and Ho, S.J., "*Accurate modeling and prediction of surface roughness by computer vision in turning operations using an adaptive neurofuzzy inference system*" International Journal of Machine Tools & Manufacture. Vol. 42, 2002, pp. 1441-1446.

19. Ngan, C.-C. and Tam, H.-Y., "A non-contact technique for the on-site inspection of molds and dies polishing" *Journal of Materials Processing Technology*. Vol. 155-156, 2004, pp. 1184-1188.
20. Kumar, R., Kulashekar, P., and Dhanasekar, B., Ramamoorthy, B., "Application of digital image magnification for surface roughness evaluation using machine vision" *International Journal of Machine Tools & Manufacture*. Vol. 45, 2005, pp. 228-234.
21. Al-Kindi, G.A. and Shirinzadeh, B., "An evaluation of surface roughness parameters measurement using vision-based data" *International Journal of Machine Tools & Manufacture*. Vol. 47 No. 3-4, 2007, pp. 697-708.
22. Schmaltz, G., "Technische Oberflächenkunde. Springer Verlag" Berlin, 1936, pp. 5-8.
23. Shou-Bin, L. and Hui-Fen, Y., "Surface roughness measurement by image processing method" *SPIE*. 2101, 1993, pp. 1323-1328.
24. Shou-Bin, L. and Hui-Fen, Y., "Design of a commercial optical instrument for surface roughness measurement" *SPIE*, Vol. 2349, 1995, pp. 190-200.
25. Lewandowski, J. and Desjardins, J., "Light sectioning with improved depth resolution" *Optical Engineering*. Vol. 34, No. 8, 1995, pp. 2481-2486.
26. Kiran, M.B., Ramamoorthy, B., and Radhakrishnan, V., "Evaluation of surface roughness by vision system" *International journal of machine tools & manufacture*, Vol. 38, No. 5-6, 1998, pp. 685-690.
27. Matsumoto, T., Kitagawa, Y., Nakazato, K., and Adachi, M., 1999, "Light sectioning for step profile measurement using spatial filter in sensing unit" *SPIE*. 3740, 590-593, *Optical Engineering for Sensing and Nanotechnology (ICOS'99)*, Ichirou Yamaguchi; Ed.
28. Elhamshary, N.A., Abouelatta, O.B., Gadelmawla, E.S., and Elewa, I.M., "Surface roughness measurement using light sectioning method and computer vision techniques" *Mansoura Engineering Journal (MEJ)*. Vol. 29, No. 1, 2003, pp. M.1-M.12
29. Abouelatta, O. and Elewa, I., "Automation of two-dimensional surface roughness instrument for three-dimensional surface texture assessment" 9th IMEKO Symposium Metrology for Quality Control in Production; Surface Metrology for Quality Assurance, IMEKO - ISMQC, National Institute of Standards (NIS), Cairo, Egypt, 2001, pp. IV-11- IV-18
30. ISO 4287:1997+Cor. 1:1998. "Geometrical product specifications (GPS) - Surface texture: Profile method - Terms. Definitions and surface texture parameters", 1998.
31. "Surface texture (surface roughness waviness, and lay), An American national standard" The American Society of Mechanical Engineers, ASME B46.1-2002, Revision of ASME B46.1-1995
32. Stout, K.J., Sullivan, P.J., Dong, W.P., Mainsah, E., Luo, N., Mathia, T., and Zahouani, H., 1993, "The development of methods for the characterizations of roughness in three dimensions" Published on behalf of the commission of the European communities, Report EUR. 15178 EN, Part IV.
33. Peucker, T.K. and Douglas, D.D., "Detection of surface-specific points by local parallel processing of discrete terrain elevation data" *Computer Graphics and Image Processing*. Vol. 4, 1975, pp. 375-387.
34. Pfaltz, J., "Surface networks" *Geographical Analysis*. Vol. 8, 1976, pp. 77-93.
35. Wolf, G.W., "A FORTRAN subroutine for cartographic generalization" *Computers and Geosciences*. Vol. 17, No. 10, 1991, pp. 1359-1381.