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Crack Detection from a Concrete Surface Image Based on Semantic Segmentation Using Deep Learning

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1. Introduction

The issues seen in recent years have been the progressing deterioration of concrete structures such as bridges and tunnels. To use these structures safely, appropriate inspections are required, and a crack is one of the important items to be checked. A common inspection method to check the crack carried out currently is that an inspector visually inspects the crack and sketches it. However, since the number of concrete structures and the area that need to be inspected are large, manual inspections cannot keep pace with this, and there are calls for automated inspections (MLIT 2018; Chun et al. 2020a).

Under this circumstance, researches have widely been conducted into the possibility of photographing the surface of the concrete structures and detecting the crack via image analysis. The research work of Luxmoore (1973) is considered to be the one that marked the beginning of this particular research field, in which he discussed the crack detection method using holography along with its range of application. In these years, significant improvements in hardware such as photographic instruments and computers, as well as in software such as image processing algorithms have been observed, and inspections using various methods have been conducted, especially since 2000.

Abdel-Qader et al. (2003) demonstrated the superiority in detection accuracy of fast Haar wavelet transform by comparing analysis results on photo images of 50 bridges analyzed by the following four edge detection techniques: fast Haar wavelet transform, fast Fourier transform, Sobel operator, and Canny algorithm. Similar to this study, there were many studies on the crack detection using frequency analysis in the early 2000s. For example, Hutchinson and Chen (2006) used a Canny filter and the wavelet transform for the crack detection and estimated parameters. Ito et al. (2002) developed a system that was able to extract and analyze the crack on the concrete surface by combining several image processing techniques, including the wavelet transform, shading correction, and binarization. Although the number has been decreasing recently, there are still ongoing studies on the crack detection using the frequency analysis such as the work on Dual Tree Complex Wavelet Transform (Dixit and Wagatsuma 2018).

There are research projects focused on geometrical features as well. For example, Iyer and Sinha (2006) used a curvature feature evaluation with a mathematical morphology processing to detect the crack in contrast enhanced sewer pipeline images. The resulting images were used to measure the crack properties and determine pipe criticality levels. Sinha and Fieguth (2006) developed an algorithm based on the morphological operations to segment pipe cracks, holes, joints, laterals, and collapsed surfaces accurately, which is a crucial step in the classification of defects in underground pipes. This study is novel in that it takes a two-step approach to inspect the crack broadly and then locally. Hashimoto and his research team proposed a crack detection technique focused on crack’s linearity and continuity using a gray-scale Hough transform and a percolation processing (Yamaguchi et al. 2008; Yamaguchi and Hashimoto 2008, 2009, 2010). As another research project focused on the geometrical features, Fujita et al. (2006) propose an extremely robust method for detecting the crack by effectively utilizing a probabilistic relaxation, a line ex-

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section processing, and a multi-scale line enhancement processing using Hessian matrices (Fujita et al. 2006; Fujita and Hamamoto 2009, 2011). There are much more projects such as the one by Amarasinghe et al. (2009), in which they proposed a crack detection technique using the bidirectional reflection distribution function derived from the model based on the Gaussian reflectance model introduced by Ward (1992); a research work by Lee et al. (2013) that combined the binarization with a noise processing and a thinning processing; and a method proposed by Sohn et al. (2005), in which they used a three dimension analysis based on the photogrammetric methods combined with the Hough transform and a filter processing. The author’s group also proposed a method to detect the crack by focusing on the geometrical features (Chun and Igo 2015; Chun et al. 2020b). There are various other methodologies. They are properly summarized in the several review papers (Koch et al. 2015; Zakeri et al. 2017; Mohan et al. 2018).

However, a common issue found in these studies is that the judgment results tend to be influenced by the presence of items other than the crack, such as traces of formwork or traces of tie-rod holes. The cause of this is that the methods used in these existing studies made the judgment using only the pixels of interest themselves or neighboring pixels, despite the fact that classification and determination are not possible for typical images, unless a broad judgment using an area of at least 100 × 100 pixels is made. It is considered that artificial intelligence techniques, such as deep learning, are useful as a method to resolve these issues.

The artificial intelligence technique including deep learning has gained popularity in recent years owing to its high performance to deal with the large amount of data and was used for civil engineering applications, for example, by Rafiei et al. (2017), Rafiei and Adeli (2018a, 2018b), Chun et al. (2019, 2020c, 2020d), Moon et al. (2019, 2020) and Okazaki et al. (2020). It is also used for the detection of the crack. Yokoyama and Matsumoto (2017) used a convolutional neural network (CNN), one of the deep learning techniques, and proposed a system that classified the concrete surface into five categories, i.e., cracked part, chalk letter part, joint part, surface part, and other parts, and displayed the cracked part as a rectangular area. In addition to displaying as the rectangular area, there is also a demand for extracting the crack pixel by pixel to evaluate the damage properly. As an example of such study, Dung (2019) first classified the existence of the crack within a small area using VGG, and then detected the crack pixel by pixel using fully convolutional network (FCN). Another study used an approach, in which screening was performed first using deep learning, and then the crack was detected using a random forest (Chun et al. 2017).

Additionally, as the extensions of the CNN, methods such as pix2pix (Kobayashi 2018), deep convolutional encoder-decoder network (Bang et al. 2019), method using fully convolutional network (Yang et al. 2018), CrackNet (Zhang et al. 2018a), CrackNet II and CrackNet-V proposed by improving original CrackNet (Zhang et al. 2018b; Fei et al. 2019), and DeepCrack (Liu et al. 2019) were recently proposed. There are also the studies by Minami et al. (2019a, 2019b), in which they improved the performance of photographic devices and performed the CNN. Other studies on crack detection using CNNs have also been conducted by, for example, Cha et al. (2017, 2018), Silva and Lucena (2018), Xue and Li (2018), Deng et al. (2019), Jiang and Zhang (2019), Li and Zhao (2019) and Zhang et al. (2019). Although several crack detection techniques using deep learning have been proposed so far as above, practical development is still in the early stage, since the technology itself is still immature. In this study, therefore, through a semantic segmentation using deep learning, the crack was detected pixel by pixel, while images were judged from a large perspective (Yamane and Chun 2019). Meanwhile, in existing studies, there is little mention of the trace of tie-rod hole or the trace of formwork. However, since these have the features of being dark, long, and thin, similar the crack, these are the main causes of false detection. This study detected these pixel by pixel to increase the accuracy of the crack detection.

2. Automatic crack detection method

The flow diagram for the automatic crack detection method proposed in this study is shown in Fig. 1. The details of each step are explained below.

2.1 Semantic segmentation

Semantic segmentation is a technology for extracting the region of an object in an image pixel by pixel, and various area extraction methods have been proposed up to this point, such as the Graph Cut and the Grow Cut.

![Fig. 1 Flow diagram of method proposed in this study.](image-url)
(Blake et al. 2004; Vezhnevets and Konouchine 2005). Then with the development of deep learning technology in recent years, the accuracy of the extraction technology has improved rapidly.

In terms of the semantic segmentation using deep learning, Long et al. (2015) proposed a FCN, which does not use a fully connected layer to output the feature map of the object area in the input image, but consists of convolution layer and pooling layer. Generally, the CNN outputs the classification results of the input image by eventually establishing the fully connected layer. On the other hand, the FCN outputs the feature map in relation to the input image by not using the fully connected layer. Then, this feature map becomes a probability map for the class to be labeled for each pixel. Note that, as the size of the feature map of an input image is reduced every time it passes through the convolution layer and the pooling layer, the final size of the feature map is extremely smaller than that of the input image. For this reason, in the FCN, the feature map eventually generated is enlarged (deconvolution process) to overlay it on the original image. However, as the information in the feature map that was enlarged in this way is rough compared to the original image, the FCN merges the feature map that is output in the intermediate layer at the final layer. Generally, as the feature map in the intermediate layer of the CNN has detailed features in a layer close to the input layer, it is possible to output a detailed feature map by using this information. However, with the FCN, the issue has been raised that high memory usage is required for merging the output feature map with the final layer.

To speed up the processing and save the memory usage, Badrinarayanan et al. (2017) proposed SegNet that has an encoder-decoder structure that does not need to memorize the feature map output in the intermediate layer. With the SegNet, the feature map is enlarged at the decoder side after the convolution and the pooling layer. As a result, it is possible to recover a detailed map while also saving memory.

Furthermore, as a method of carrying out the semantic segmentation at high accuracy, Mask R-CNN has recently been proposed based on Faster R-CNN that can detect rectangular areas of the object at high speeds (Ren et al. 2015; He et al. 2017). With the Faster R-CNN, the features of the input image are extracted first using the CNN, and then candidate areas on the object are selected. After judging whether the selected object candidate areas are objects or not, their classes are classified. For this process, the Faster R-CNN proposes a region proposal network (RPN) for making a selection of the object candidate area while learning, making a high-speed, and high-accuracy object selection possible. With the Mask R-CNN, similar to the Faster R-CNN, the features of the input image are extracted using the CNN, which is a backbone network. Then, the object candidate area is selected using the RPN, and the semantic segmentation is performed on the identified rectangular area, making a high accuracy area extraction possible (Fig. 2). As it was thought that, when actually performing the semantic segmentation using deep learning, it was generally easier to use a method of analysis based on a method already established, a method of detecting the crack based on this Mask R-CNN was proposed in this study.

The semantic segmentation using deep learning is frequently used in fields such as automated driving, factory inspections, etc., but only in its early stages in the civil engineering field. As stated in the introduction, whereas it has started to be used for the detection of the crack in concrete, as there is a wide divergence of situations and environments in which the crack exists in concrete, proposing an approach different from the existing methods of the crack detection is useful in raising the accuracy of the crack detection.

2.2 Crack detection using the semantic segmentation

In the semantic segmentation carried out in this study, a judgment on whether the pixel in question within the image is a crack or not is made using supervised machine learning. With the supervised machine learning, data that is prepared in advance by humans is applied as learning data, and by making it learn the relationship between the input and the output, the output is predicted against unknown input data. In this study, an algorithm for judgment is constructed by learning the crack image data of concrete surface prepared in advance for the input and data showing the position of the crack in each image data. By using this algorithm, it is possible to judge the position of the crack pixel by pixel even for unknown the crack that has not been used in the learning.

When recognizing the object area within the image using deep learning, as done in this study, recognition accuracy is greatly affected by the number of repetitions of the convolution layer and pooling layer, and the setting of parameters within each layer. In case of the Mask R-CNN used in this study, the CNN settings for performing the feature extraction of the input image are directly linked to recognition accuracy. The optimal solution for these settings differs depending on the problem, but in this study, ResNet-101 (He et al. 2016), for which the high recognition accuracy has been found in recent years, was used for the feature extraction and the structure after the feature extraction was set the same.
as that shown in He et al. (2017).

Additionally, to make the procedure of setting these comparatively simple, it is possible to use an open source library such as Keras as a library for deep learning, and the analysis in this study was performed using the Mask R-CNN that was constructed using the Keras. He et al. (2017) indicated 0.02 as the value for learning rate, which is the hyperparameter that determines the update quantity of weights at the time of learning, but as weights was divergent if this was used as is, learning was performed in this study with the learning rate set to 0.001. Further, the optimization algorithm at this time used the stochastic gradient descent method. These settings were the same for learning the trace of tie-rod hole and the trace of formwork shown later.

In this study, 45 digital images (5184 × 3456 pixels) captured under various situations, such as the floor slabs and beams of bridges and the inner wall of buildings, were prepared for the use in image analysis, and performed validation after separating the prepared images into learning use and evaluation use.

When trying to detect extremely detailed objects such as the crack, prospects for obtaining high-accuracy recognition by learning the image as is were poor. This is due to the fact that the image is shrunk during the process of learning and information on the detailed areas of the image may be lost. Therefore, a portion of the image among the learning data prepared was cut out with the size large enough to recognize the crack even with human eyes, and by using these cutout images of small areas as teacher data, detection was performed with high accuracy. As shown in Fig. 3, learning was performed by cutting out an area of 384 × 256 pixels against an original image of 5184 × 3456 pixels. Additionally, in the same way as when cutting out small areas from the image for learning to use in learning, small areas were cut out from the image for evaluation and analyzed.

Then, after the analysis, an image of the original size was reconstructed by adding these together. Further, as shown in red in Fig. 3, a ground truth for the crack was set for each of the cutout images. The ground truth data for the crack in this study was set by judging crack areas from the images using human observation. Additionally, when extracting the crack images, the cutout area is overlapped by a 1/2 width both vertically and horizontally, as shown in Fig. 4. Here in case the image cannot be overlapped and cut out, detection leaks may occur at the edges of each image after analysis, as shown in Fig. 4(a). For this reason, by reconstructing an image with an original size that allows the area judged to be the crack in the image to be overlapped after analysis reduces the impact of detection leaks on the image edges, as shown in Fig. 4(b).

In this study, multiple small areas were extracted in order from each image in this way, and a total of 676 images were generated from one image. Additionally, by dividing images into several small images and learning in this way, as image data for which there are few original images can be learned as data for many images, the aim is to be able to improve learning accuracy.

2.3 Detecting the trace of tie-rod holes and the trace of formwork

In terms of the crack detection, the existence of abnormality other than the crack such as the trace of tie-rod hole and the trace of formwork has been pointed out as a
cause the false detection in many existing crack detection methods. Therefore, this study did not stop at carrying out the judgments made by learning the crack only, and by learning the trace of tie-rod holes and the trace of formwork, respectively to exclude these from the crack detection results, performed the crack detection with higher levels of accuracy. For these detections, the Mask R-CNN that used the ResNet-101 was used as in the case with the detecting the crack, and the setting of the hyperparameters at that time was the same as for when detecting the crack.

2.3.1 Detection of the trace of tie-rod holes
When detecting the trace of tie-rod holes, with the aim of increasing the accuracy of detecting the trace of tie-rod hole, 55 images (5056 × 3792 pixels) containing the trace of tie-rod holes were prepared, in addition to the 45 images used in the crack detection. In this study, we used a total of 100 images and used these for the detection of trace of tie-rod holes.

As the trace of tie-rod hole covers a relatively large area unlike the crack, the original image can be used as is without dividing the image into smaller regions as was performed when learning the crack. The trace of tie-rod holes used for learning and an example of a ground truth is shown in Fig. 5. The ground truth for the trace of tie-rod holes in this study are set in the same way as with the crack, based on the judgment of the trace of tie-rod holes from images based on human observation.

2.3.2 Detection of the trace of formwork
When detecting the trace of formwork, in the same way as when detecting the trace of tie-rod hole, since the aim is to increase the detection accuracy of trace of formwork, 60 images including trace of formwork (5056 × 3792 pixels) were also prepared in addition to the 45 images used for crack detection. When learning only the trace of formwork and performing the analysis, since the assumption is that the crack with a form close to a straight line, similar to the trace of formwork, may be falsely recognized as the trace of formwork, 45 images with linear cracks were also prepared in addition to these 105 images. Additionally, by making it possible to detect regions with both the trace of formwork and the crack, it is possible to ensure that the trace of formwork is not confused with the crack. In this study, a total of 150 of these images were used to perform the detection of the trace of formwork.

Note that, the purpose of detecting the trace of formwork is to exclude the false detection area of the trace of formwork from the image of crack detection results. From this, for the detection of the trace of formwork, there is little necessity to make precise detection of the crack pixel by pixel, as shown in Section 2.2, and it is sufficient to be able to grasp the general location of the trace of formwork. Therefore, even when learning the trace of formwork, it is possible to learn using the original image in the same way as when learning the trace of tie-rod holes.

Meanwhile, the purpose when detecting the crack areas here is to avoid falsely recognizing the crack in linear form as the trace of formwork. For this reason, since it is not necessary to be able to perform detailed recognition in the order of a few pixels either, when setting the crack areas, the general area in which the crack exists is set as the ground truth. Additionally, by setting this kind of general area as the ground truth, the ground truth data set for each image can be simplified, it was confirmed that not only does this save time when creating used supervised data, but also the time required for one epoch of learning can be reduced by half.

Here, the trace of formwork images used for learning and an example of the ground truth are shown in Fig. 6. In Fig. 6, the ground truth for the trace of formwork is shown in red, and the crack ground truth is shown in blue. In these ground truths as well, they are set to be able to judge visually from the image, in the same way as for the trace of tie-rod holes.

2.3.3 Exclusion of falsely detected areas
In the areas in which the crack was detected in the 45 captured images analyzed in Section 2.2, there are areas in which the trace of tie-rod hole and the trace of formwork are falsely recognized as the crack. This is because, by dividing the original image into small areas, the trace of tie-rod hole and the trace of formwork in the images after division were seen in a form close to that of the crack.

Therefore, using the results of the detected trace of tie-rod hole and the trace of formwork, falsely detected trace of tie-rod hole and trace of formwork are excluded from the crack detection results; the crack detection accuracy is improved. Here, the areas judged as crack that exist in areas detected as being the trace of tie-rod hole and the trace of formwork areas were considered to
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Fig. 7 Example of the crack detection results.
formwork, may be falsely recognized as the trace of formwork. In order to prevent such false recognition, 45 images with linear cracks were also prepared in addition to the 105 images used in the previous study. Additionally, by making it possible to detect regions with both the trace of formwork and the crack, it is possible to ensure that the trace of formwork is not confused with the crack. In this study, a total of 150 of these images were used to perform the detection of the trace of formwork.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Crack detection results

The effectiveness of the proposed method in this study was confirmed using K-fold cross-validation. With the K-fold cross-validation, all of the data sets are divided into K items, and learning is performed on K-1 items from among these, and the remaining data is used for evaluation purposes, repeating the process K times. Here validation is performed as K = 5. That is to say, when learning crack images, the 45 images prepared are divided into 4:1, and an equivalent of 36 were used for learning, and an equivalent of 9 were used for evaluation. At this time, as each image is divided into small regions, the 24336 subdivisions of the 36 images were used as images for learning, and the 6084 subdivisions of the 9 images were used as images for evaluation.

In Fig. 7, using the example of the six of the picked-up captured images, the captured image and ground truth image, as well as the crack detection results using the method shown in this study were shown. From the image shown in Fig. 7, it can be seen that whereas all of the images contain many factors that may cause the false detection, such as shadow and dirt, the method of detecting the crack shown in this study is generally able to classify these well.

The first and second images from the top of Fig. 7 are images that include many regions for which the brightness is low, due to shadow. However, using the method in this study, the crack could be detected with an extremely high level of accuracy. Additionally, in the second captured image, it was confirmed that there were coloring stains on the right side of the image, but these were not seen as affecting the detection results.

The third image from the top in Fig. 7 is an image that includes an exceptionally large number of detailed cracks. The width of these cracks are extremely fine, between 1 and 3 pixels, but it was seen that these kinds of the cracks too are extremely well detected. Additionally, in the central area of this diagram, there are thin water stains in the vertical direction, but these were also not falsely detected.

The fourth image from the top in Fig. 7 is an image containing a large amount of dirt. In this image as well, whereas several partially blackened areas were detected as the crack, many other areas where there was a lot of dirt were not falsely detected, and it was confirmed that the areas where there are the crack were detected well.

The 5th and 6th captured images from the top in Fig. 7 are images that include the trace of tie-rod hole and the trace of formwork. As in the diagrams shown up to this point, the crack area can be detected well, but the trace of tie-rod hole and the trace of formwork are misdetection as the crack. Therefore, the elimination of these false detections caused by the detection of the trace of tie-rod hole and the trace of formwork is shown in the following.

3.2 Trace of tie-rod hole and trace of formwork detection results

When learning the trace of tie-rod hole and the trace of formwork as well, as when learning the crack, learning was performed using 80% of the prepared images, and overall analysis was performed by repeating analysis of the remaining 20% of images five times.

In Fig. 8 three images among the captured images of the trace of tie-rod hole were used as examples, and those captured images and the detection results of using the method described in this study are shown. It can be seen that the traces of tie-rod holes were detected with high level of accuracy in all images shown in Fig. 8.

In the second captured image from the top, there are multiple instances of the trace of tie-rod holes, but all of these traces of tie-rod holes were detected with high level of accuracy.

Furthermore, in the third captured image from the top, only a part of the trace of tie-rod hole is shown on the bottom right on the image, but this could also be detected here with good accuracy.

Next, three of the captured images are shown as the examples of the trace of formwork detection results in Fig. 9. The part shown with red is the area judged to be the trace of formwork. From Fig. 9, it can be seen that the area in which the trace of formwork exists can be detected accurately nearly all of the time. Furthermore,
there is a tendency in the detection results to recognize
the trace of formwork to be rather large, but if it is con-
sidered that the aim is to eliminate misdetection areas, it
can be said that it is providing effective detection.

In the top image in Fig. 9, there is a crack in the ver-
tical direction near the center. It was confirmed that this
was not recognized as the trace of formwork, and only
the trace of formwork on the left was correctly detected.
This is because not only the trace of formwork, but also
the crack areas are detected at the same time, as consid-
ered in Section 2.3.2. From this, its effectiveness can be
confirmed. Further, in the third image from the top, the
trace of formwork exists in the extremely dark area of the
image, but this is also detected without any problem.

In the second and third image, there are various areas
where the crack are not detected, but this is caused by the
fact that most of the images of the crack used when
learning the trace of formwork were linear the crack for
preventing false detection at the time of form detection. It
is considered that the detection accuracy could be im-
proved by increasing the types of crack image learning
data, but as the objective is clearly to detect the trace of
formwork, it is considered that the current detection
accuracy is not problematic. Additionally, even in regard
to the trace of formwork that are partially undetected, it is
considered, in the same way that the detection accuracy
could be further improved by increasing the learning data.

3.3 Results excluding falsely detected areas in
the crack results
Three examples, from the 45 images used when detecting
the crack, of falsely detected the trace of tie-rod hole and
the trace of formwork excluded from the crack detection
results are shown in Fig. 10. From Fig. 10, it can be seen
that virtually all of the areas where the trace of tie-rod
hole and the trace of formwork were falsely detected
could be excluded, and that this greatly contributes to the
detection accuracy for the crack.

Table 1 Class classification confusion matrix.

| Detected results | Cracked | Not cracked |
|------------------|---------|-------------|
| Cracked          | TP      | FP          |
| Not cracked      | FN      | TN          |

Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TF + TN + FN} \quad (1)

Sensitivity = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (2)

Specificity = \frac{TN}{FP + TN} \quad (3)

Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \quad (4)

F-measure = \frac{2 \times \text{Sensitivity} \times \text{Precision}}{\text{Sensitivity} + \text{Precision}} \quad (5)

Furthermore, the crack detection accuracy before and
after the exclusion of the falsely detected areas was
evaluated based on five indicators, i.e., accuracy, sensi-
tivity, specificity, precision, and F-measure. These indi-
cators are defined according to equations (1) through (5)
shown below. In the formulas, TP, TN, FP, and FN are
abbreviations for true positive, true negative, false pos-
tive, and false negative, respectively, and are the number
of pixels is when the pixels were classified based on
Table 1.

Fig. 9 Example of trace of formwork detection results.

Fig. 10 (a) Images before excluding falsely detected
areas; (b) Images after excluding falsely detected areas.
That is to say, the accuracy is the ratio of pixels for which, in relation to the total number of pixels for the image as a whole, have the same labels in the analysis results and the ground truth data. Additionally, sensitivity is the ratio, in relation to the pixels in the images of the crack among the ground truth images, recognized as the crack in the analysis results as well. The specificity is ratio, in relation to the pixels in the images of not of the crack among the ground truth images, recognized as not of the crack in the analysis results as well. The precision is ratio, in relation to the pixels in the images of the crack among the analysis results, recognized as the crack in the ground truth images as well. Further, the F-measure evaluates both the precision and sensitivity, which generally are in a trade-off relationship.

Table 2 takes the 45 images used for crack detection and shows the mean value for each indicator before and after excluding the falsely detected areas. From Table 2, it can be seen that these values are improved for virtually all indicators. With regard to the fact that the sensitivity value is slightly decreased, this is mainly due to the fact that crack images adjacent to the trace of tie-rod holes and the crack occurring inside the trace of tie-rod holes are excluded. However, from the fact that the F-measure that is the harmonic mean of the sensitivity and precision is increased, it may be considered that the detection accuracy as a whole is increased. Furthermore, the level of improvement in the detection accuracy is affected by the number of the trace of tie-rod holes and the trace of formwork included in the image. In this study, of the 45 images, there were 15 images including the trace of tie-rod holes, and 6 images including the trace of formwork prepared, but in images where there were many trace of tie-rod holes and trace of formwork, it is considered that there is a greater level of detection accuracy improvement due to the greater false detection area exclusion.

Table 3 shows the various values when evaluating the same indicators for detection accuracy of the trace of tie-rod hole and the trace of formwork. Here the 100 images for which the trace of tie-rod hole analysis was performed and 105 images for which the trace of formwork analysis was performed included images for which the calculation equations (1) through (5) could not be applied. For example, in the case of images that did not contain the trace of tie-rod hole or the trace of formwork that were targeted, the sensitivity, precision, and F-measure could not be calculated. For this reason, Table 3 shows the mean values for only the evaluation values that could be calculated. From Table 3, regarding the trace of tie-rod hole, it can be seen that the detection occurs with an exceptionally high level of accuracy. As for the trace of formwork, the level of detection accuracy was not as high as that of the trace of tie-rod holes. However, the F-measure indicated that the detection accuracy was greater than that of the crack, and it can be said that the method in this study is sufficiently effective in the removal of the false detection.

4. Conclusion

In this study, we proposed a method of detecting the crack in concrete surfaces using semantic segmentation through deep learning, and verified its detection accuracy. In addition to the crack, we also detected the trace of tie-rod holes and the trace of formwork that can easily become the cause of false detection, and by excluding these from the detection results, it was possible to detect the crack with greater accuracy.

Additionally, by applying the crack results using the methods shown in this study to the actual maintenance and management fields, it was not only possible to calculate the crack width based on the capture distance, but by thinning the crack detection results and creating a vector data, it is also considered possible to manage these as CAD data.

Some issues moving forward are described below. When detecting the crack, cutout images are overlapped to prevent detection leaks at the edges, but there is a possibility that a small number of edges of the original image may not be detected. This problem can be resolved if the images can be overlapped, so it is considered that one solution may be to pad the near of the boundary of the original image with a mirror image.
Additionally, by applying semantic segmentation in this study, it may be possible to propose a new direction in the evaluation of damage based on the image. For example, it is considered possible to obtain more information from images such as those after SIFCON blast obtained from the author’s study (Chun et al., 2013), and we are currently prompting the study of these.

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