# SEGMENTATION OF LIDAR DATA USING MEASURES OF DISTRIBUTION

Marc Bartels and Hong Wei

School of Systems Engineering, Computational Vision Group The University of Reading Whiteknights, Reading RG6 6AY, UK m.bartels@reading.ac.uk, h.wei@reading.ac.uk http://www.cvg.reading.ac.uk/projects/LIDAR

#### **Commission III/3**

KEY WORDS: LIDAR, point cloud, object, ground, unsupervised segmentation, skewness

#### **ABSTRACT:**

In the past decade, LIght Detection And Ranging (LIDAR) has been recognised by both the commercial and public sector as a reliable and accurate technique for land surveying. However, the analysis of Digital Surface Models (DSMs) from complex LIDAR data is still challenging. Commonly, the first task to investigate LIDAR data point clouds is to separate ground and object points as a preparatory step for further object classification. In this paper, the authors present an unsupervised *skewness balancing* segmentation algorithm to separate object and ground points efficiently from high resolution LIDAR point clouds by exploiting measures of distribution. The results presented in this paper have shown that the proposed algorithm is robust and has potential for commercial applications.

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

LIght Detecting And Ranging (LIDAR) for terrain and land surveying has made significant contributions to many environmental, engineering and civil applications. It is therefore not surprising that LIDAR data is being used more and more by the public sector and commercial world since the early 1990s (Maas, 2005). Applications such as forestry, building reconstruction, flood modelling and corridor mapping are based on post processing of LIDAR data point clouds as they are accurate for less hilly terrain (Huising and Pereira, 1998). Often, the very first task is to separate ground and objects from a Digital Surface Model (DSM). This process often yields the generation of a Digital Terrain Model (DTM) and a normalised DSM (nDSM) which are complementary to the DSM (Elberink and Maas, 2000). As pointed out recently, DTM generation prior to further segmentation is still a challenge (Vu et al., 2004).

In one of the early investigations (Weidner and Förstner, 1995), ground and object points were separated in estimating an nDSM by subtracting a morphologically filtered DSM from the original data. Buildings were then extracted using parametric and prismatic models based on the minimum description length (MDL) principle (Weidner, 1996; Weidner, 1997). An approach to model buildings from LIDAR data in a less sloped area was developed by (Maas and Vosselman, 1999) and was sub-divided into two parts: texture based segmentation as proposed in (Maas, 1999b; Maas, 1999c) and the actual building modelling from the point cloud (Maas, 1999a). Realistic 3D city models from LIDAR data were presented (Haala and Brenner, 1997; Haala and Brenner, 1998) by reconstructing buildings, facades and vegetation using multiple data sources, such as colour infra-red (CIR) and terrestrially captured digital images (Haala et al., 1998b). The building ground planes were estimated with a 2D Geographical Information System (GIS) map complemented with a cadastral map. Geometric primitives were estimated based on histogram analysis of surface normals (Haala and Brenner, 1997; Haala et al., 1998a). Vosselman assumed that buildings consist of planar faces which can be recognised by applying the Hough transform (Vosselman, 1999). The slope based algorithm (Vosselman, 2000) employed morphological filtering and has been further improved in (Sithole, 2001) with an adaptive terrain slope algorithm. Working with ungridded LIDAR data, ground points were estimated with the maximum height difference between two points in (Roggero, 2001). The author then classified objects into buildings and vegetation using a Laplacian of Gaussian (LoG). A DTM using convex-concave hulls was generated in (Vögtle and Steinle, 2003). In order to classify objects with fuzzy logic, an nDSM from the difference of the DSM and the generated DTM was calculated. A DTM was also first identified using active shape models before object points are further classified using slope and second derivative with a Maximum Likelihood classifier (Elmqvist et al., 2001). A grid based DTM generation approach has been developed in (Wack and Wimmer, 2002) who found ground points by estimating gradients and the objects via LoG. A DTM was generated in a first step by finding ground points using active contours (Ahlberg et al., 2004). In the second step, the authors estimated high buildings and high vegetation 2m above the ground by exploiting multiple returns of LIDAR data. A hierarchical rule-based filtering has been presented in (Nardinocchi et al., 2003). Gridded data was processed using region growing to find connected discontinuities for estimating ground, buildings and vegetation. Building reconstruction fusing LIDAR data and aerial images was presented in (Rottensteiner and Briese, 2003). First, the authors detected building regions in ungridded data. Then, roofs were detected using a curvature-based segmentation technique and additional planar faces were estimated with aerial images. For flood modelling, rural area was segmented from LIDAR point clouds and vegetation was classified into three height classes (Cobby et al., 2001; Cobby, 2002). The authors first separated the slightly hilly terrain from the objects using detrending (Davenport et al., 2000). The obtained bilinear interpolated surface formed a DTM for a hydraulic flood model (Cobby et al., 2002). For measuring the height of forest canopies, LIDAR data are superior than aerial photos (St-Onge and Achaichia, 2001). Vegetation height can be estimated by taking the difference between first echo (canopy) and last echo (ground) into account (Maas, 2005; St-Onge and Achaichia, 2001; Kraus and Pfeifer, 1998). A wavelet approach to separate ground and object points on gridded LIDAR data has been proposed by (Vu and Tokunaga, 2001). The authors used K-

means on height to assign pixels to buildings, motorway, boundary and two tree types. A noise robust texture-based segmentation approach using wavelet packets, co-occurrence matrices and normalised modified histogram thresholding has been proposed in (Bartels et al., 2005) who partitioned ground and objects into rivers, fields and residential areas.

To summarise, most authors first separate ground and object points in LIDAR data before further post-processing. This paper addresses this task according to the following definitions. Ground points include the top layer soil, thin man-made layering such as asphalt or tarmac as defined as *bare earth* in (Sithole and Vosselman, 2003). At this stage, grass and low vegetation are also considered as ground points. Object points including *detached objects* (buildings, trees and bushes) and *attached objects* (bridges and ramps) as described in (Sithole and Vosselman, 2003) are segmented, too. The paper is organised as follows: In Section 2, the theoretical background and approach of the unsupervised segmentation algorithm is derived. Section 3 presents results on real data and discusses them. The paper concludes and gives possible future avenues in Section 4.

## 2 SEGMENTATION ALGORITHM

#### 2.1 Theoretical Background

Naturally measured samples will lead to a normal distribution due to the *central limit theorem* (Duda et al., 2001). Assumption is also made that object points may disturb the normal distribution, and by removing those from the raw point cloud, normal distributed ground points are obtained. Thus, the principle of this segmentation algorithm using measures of distribution is the successive removal of those object points from the point cloud until a normal distribution is achieved. For this, meaningful measures are required to describe the point cloud distribution sufficiently.

An important measure of asymmetry of a distribution in a sample is the skewness sk (Davies and Goldsmith, 1984), often referred as the third moment about the mean (David, 1953).

$$sk = \frac{1}{N \cdot \sigma^3} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{N} (s_i - \mu_a)^3 \tag{1}$$

where N is the total number of the LIDAR points  $s_i$ , with  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., N\}$ ,  $\sigma$  the standard deviation and  $\mu_a$  the arithmetic mean as defined in Equations (2) and (3), respectively:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(s_i - \mu_a\right)^2} \tag{2}$$

$$\mu_a = \frac{1}{N} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{N} s_i \tag{3}$$

Another measure of distribution is the kurtosis ku (Davies and Goldsmith, 1984), also called the fourth moment (David, 1953). It is a measure of the size of a distribution's tail and is a degree of the dominance of peaks in a distribution.

$$ku = \frac{1}{N \cdot \sigma^4} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^N (s_i - \mu_a)^4 \tag{4}$$

Characteristic of distribution	Dominance of peaks	Dominance of valleys	Normal distribution
Skewness	sk > 0	sk < 0	sk = 0
Kurtosis	ku > 3	ku < 3	ku = 3

Table 1: Measures of distribution of different characteristics

Table 1 lists skewness and kurtosis of different distribution's characteristics. For a normal distribution, ku is three and sk is zero; if peaks dominate a sample, ku is greater than three and sk is greater than zero; if a sample is characterised by valleys, ku is less than three and sk is less than zero (Davies and Goldsmith, 1984).

## 2.2 Proposed Algorithm

The proposed algorithm works on balancing the distribution of points in LIDAR data. Statistical measures of distribution are independent from the relative position of the points. That is why they do not have to be regularly arranged in a DSM. Therefore, the proposed technique works on both gridded data and point clouds. As kurtosis and skewness both express the characteristics of the point cloud distribution, they can equally be treated as termination criteria in a segmentation algorithm. In this unsupervised segmentation algorithm, skewness is chosen as a measure to describe the point cloud distribution. Thus, this algorithm is called skewness balancing as shown in Figure 1 and works as follows. First, the skewness of the point cloud is calculated. If it is greater than zero, peaks dominate the point cloud distribution as shown in Table 1. Thus, the highest value of the point cloud is removed by classifying it as an object point. To separate all ground and object points, these steps are iteratively executed while the skewness of the point cloud is greater than zero. The remaining points in the point cloud finally belong to the ground.

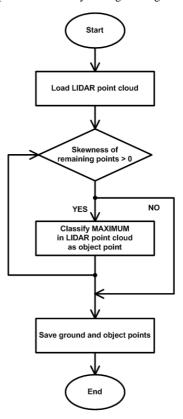
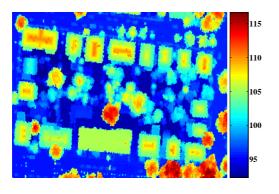


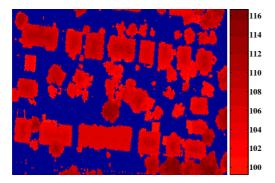
Figure 1: Proposed *skewness balancing* algorithm for object and ground point separation from LIDAR point clouds

#### **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

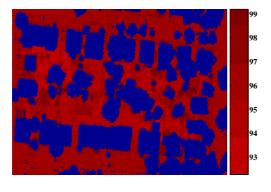
The test results, gridded for visualisation purposes only, are depicted in Figure 2 with height bars measured in metres. Figure 2(a) shows a part of a first echo DSM of Neuostheim in Mannheim, Germany, representing an urban area with both buildings and vegetation of different height. This LIDAR data tile consists of 75, 051 measured points and is part of the DSMs recorded with the TopoSys Falcon II LIDAR system in 2004. The data were kindly provided by TopoSys GmbH, Germany, by courtesy of the Stadt Mannheim, Germany, the copyright holder ©. As depicted in Figures 2(b) and 2(c), respectively, object and ground points have been successfully separated using the *skewness balancing* algorithm as illustrated in Figure 1.



(a) DSM (92.27*m* - 116.67*m*)



(b) Object points (99.20m - 116.67m)



(c) Ground points (92.27m - 99.19m)

Figure 2: Ground and object separation using skewness balancing

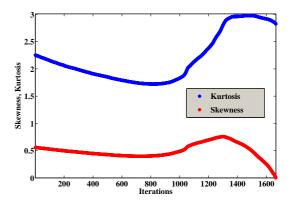


Figure 3: Skewness and kurtosis vs. iterations

As shown in Figure 3, the skewness converges to zero after 1665 iterations and by then, as expected, the kurtosis to about three. Noteworthy also is the histogram of the LIDAR data tile in Figure 4 showing both classified ground (blue) and object (red) points. One can easily imagine that finding a height threshold directly from the non-parametric histogram would not have been straightforward for the purpose of ground and object separation. However, applying the *skewness balancing* algorithm, the boundary between object and ground points is found.

The skewness balancing algorithm is applied to two further point clouds gridded for visualisation. The LIDAR data tile in Figure 5(a) shows a first echo DSM of Oststadt in Mannheim, Germany, generated from 5,730,946 measured valid points. This DSM represents a challenging urban area with mixed detached objects (buildings and vegetation of different height), various attached objects (bridges and motorway junctions) and a river. As depicted in Figures 5(b) and 5(c), respectively, detached objects were clearly detected, however, a few of the attached objects were not due to the complex scene. The first echo DSM of parts of Neuostheim, Mannheim in Germany, in Figure 6(a) is constructed from 2, 748, 790 LIDAR points. It shows a highly dense urban area with mostly detached objects, both with building and vegetation of various height. Nearly all detached object points are correctly classified and removed from the ground as shown in Figures 6(b) and 6(c), respectively.

The segmentation results of the *skewness balancing* algorithm were validated with simultaneously recorded aerial and colour infra-red photos which were kindly provided by TopoSys GmbH, Germany, by courtesy of the Stadt Mannheim, Germany.

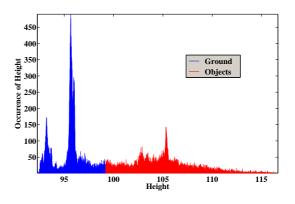
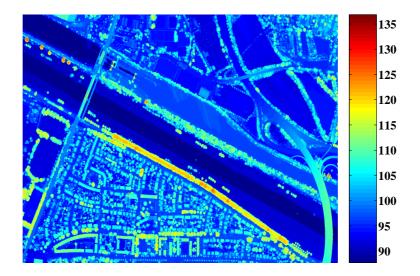
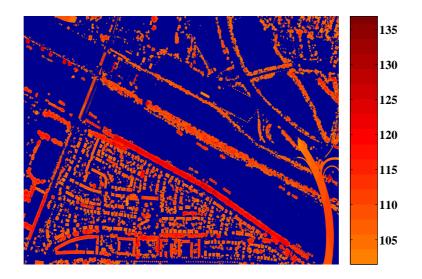


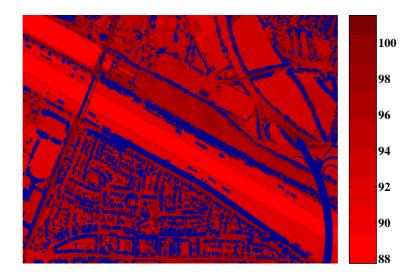
Figure 4: Histogram of classified points



(a) DSM (87.72*m* - 136.85*m*)

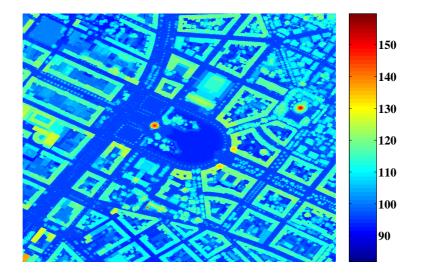


(b) Object points (101.51m - 136.85m)

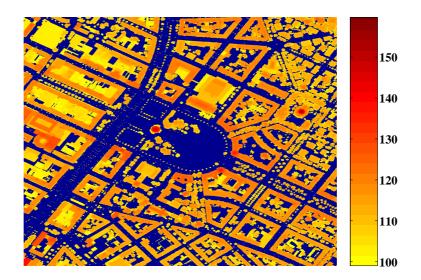


(c) Ground points (87.72m - 101.50m)

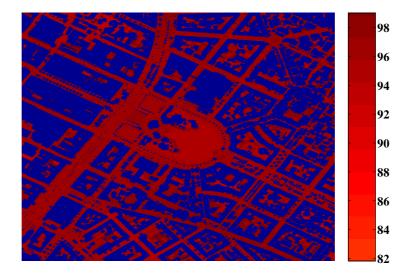
Figure 5: Separation of ground and object points from DSM of Neuostheim in Mannheim, Germany



(a) DSM (81.83*m* - 159.71*m*)



(b) Object points (99.03m - 159.71m)



(c) Ground points (81.83m - 99.02m)

Figure 6: Separation of ground and object points from DSM of Oststadt in Mannheim, Germany

#### **4** CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, a robust *skewness balancing* algorithm for object and ground point separation from first echo LIDAR data in less hilly terrain is presented. Working on the original, ungridded point cloud, measures of distribution have been used to characterise the point cloud distribution and subsequently to filter it. The results presented in this paper have shown a clear separation of detached and most of the attached objects from the ground. The *skewness balancing* algorithm therefore has potential for commercial applications as it is efficient and straightforward to implement.

For future work, the *skewness balancing* algorithm will be extended to even more complex scenes in order to make it robust against very sloped areas. The issue of detecting all attached objects will be addressed, too. It is also planned for further research to classify the detected object points into finer categories. A data fusion approach with further features derived from different bands such as first and last echo LIDAR, intensity data, aerial and colour infra-red photos will be taken into account.

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The project is RETF funded by the University of Reading. The authors would like to thank TopoSys GmbH, Germany, and the Stadt Mannheim, Germany, for LIDAR data supply.

## REFERENCES

Ahlberg, S., Söderman, U., Elmqvist, M. and Persson, Å., 2004. On modelling and visualisation of high resolution virtual environments using lidar data. 12th International Conference on Geoinformatics pp. 299 – 306.

Bartels, M., Wei, H. and Mason, D. C., 2005. Wavelet packets and cooccurrence matrices for texture-based image segmentation. IEEE International Conference on Advanced Video and Signal-Based Surveillance 1, pp. 428–433.

Cobby, D. M., 2002. The use of airborne scanning laser altimetry for improved river flood prediction. PhD thesis, University of Reading.

Cobby, D. M., Mason, D. C. and Davenport, I. J., 2001. Image processing of airborne scanning laser altimetry data for improved river flood modelling. ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry & Remote Sensing 56, pp. 121–138.

Cobby, D. M., Mason, D. C., Horritt, M. S. and Bates, P. D., 2002. Two-dimensional hydraulic flood modelling using a finite-element mesh decomposed according to vegetation and topographic features derived from airborne scanning laser altimetry. Hydrological Processes 17(10), pp. 1979 – 2000.

Davenport, I. J., Bradbury, R. B., Anderson, G. Q. A., Hayman, G. R. F., Krebs, J. R., Mason, D. C., Wilson, J. D. and Veck, N. J., 2000. Improving bird population models using airborne remote sensing. International Journal of Remote Sensing 21(13 & 14), pp. 2705–2717.

David, F. N., 1953. A statistical primer. London: Griffin.

Davies, O. L. and Goldsmith, P. L., 1984. Statistical methods in research and production, with special reference to the chemical industry, 4th rev. ed. London: Longman.

Duda, R. O., Hart, P. E. and Stork, D. G., 2001. Pattern classification. New York: Wiley.

Elberink, S. O. and Maas, H.-G., 2000. The use of anisotropic height texture measures for the segmentation of laserscanner data. International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing B3, pp. 678–684.

Elmqvist, M., Jungert, E., Lantz, F., Persson, Å. and Söderman, U., 2001. Terrain modelling and analysis using laser scanner data. International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing 34(3/W4), pp. 219 – 226.

Haala, N. and Brenner, C., 1997. Generation of 3D city models from airborne laser scanning data. EARSEL Workshop on LIDAR remote sensing of land and sea pp. 105–112.

Haala, N. and Brenner, C., 1998. Fast production of virtual reality city models. International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing 32(4), pp. 77–84.

Haala, N., Brenner, C. and Anders, K.-H., 1998a. 3D urban GIS from laser altimeter and 2D map data. ISPRS Congress Commission III, Working Group 4 32(3/1), pp. 339–346.

Haala, N., Brenner, C. and Staetter, C., 1998b. An integrated system for urban model generation. Proceedings ISPRS Congress Commission II, Working Group 6 pp. 96–103.

Huising, E. J. and Pereira, L. M. G., 1998. Errors and accuracy estimates of laser data acquired by various laser scanning systems for topographic applications. ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry & Remote Sensing 53, pp. 245–261.

Kraus, K. and Pfeifer, N., 1998. Determination of terrain models in wooded areas with airborne laser scanner data. ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry & Remote Sensing 53, pp. 193–203.

Maas, H.-G., 1999a. Closed solutions for the determination of parametric building models from invariant moments of airborne laserscanner data. ISPRS Conference on Automatic Extraction of GIS Objects from Digital Imagery.

Maas, H.-G., 1999b. Fast determination of parametric house models from dense airborne laserscanner data. International Workshop on Mobile Mapping Technology.

Maas, H.-G., 1999c. The potential of height texture measures for the segmentation of airborne laserscanner data. Fourth International Airborne Remote Sensing Conference and Exhibition / 21st Canadian Symposium on Remote Sensing.

Maas, H.-G., 2005. Akquisition von 3D-GIS Daten durch Flugzeuglaserscanning. Kartographische Nachrichten 55(1), pp. 3–11.

Maas, H.-G. and Vosselman, G., 1999. Two algorithms for extracting building models from raw laser altimetry data. ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry & Remote Sensing 54, pp. 153–163.

Nardinocchi, C., Forlani, G. and Zingaretti, P., 2003. Classification and filtering of laser data. International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing 34(3/W13), pp. 0-0.

Roggero, M., 2001. Airborne laser scanning: Clustering in raw data. International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing 34(3/W4), pp. 227 – 232.

Rottensteiner, F. and Briese, C., 2003. Automatic generation of building models from lidar data and the integration of aerial images. International Archives of the Photogrammetry, Remote Sensing and Spatial Information Sciences of the ISPRS 34(3/W13), pp. 174 - 180.

Sithole, G., 2001. Filtering of laser altimetry data using a slope adaptive filter. International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing 34(3/W4), pp. 203 - 210.

Sithole, G. and Vosselman, G., 2003. Automatic structure detection in a point cloud of an urban landscape. Proceedings of 2nd Joint Workshop on Remote Sensing and Data Fusion over Urban Areas (Urban 2003) pp. 67–71.

St-Onge, B. A. and Achaichia, N., 2001. Measuring forest canopy height using a combination of lidar and aerial photography data. International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing 34(3/W4), pp. 131 - 137.

Vögtle, T. and Steinle, E., 2003. On the quality of object classification and automated building modelling based on laserscanning data. International Archives of Photogrammetry, Remote Sensing and Spatial Information Sciences 34(3/W13), pp. 149-155.

Vosselman, G., 1999. Building reconstruction using planar faces in very high density height data. International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing 32(3/2W5), pp. 87 - 92.

Vosselman, G., 2000. Slope based filtering of laser altimetry data. International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing 33(B3/2), pp. 935 – 942.

Vu, T. T. and Tokunaga, M., 2001. Wavelet and scale-space theory in segmentation of airborne laser scanner data. 22nd Asian Conference on Remote Sensing.

Vu, T. T., Tokunaga, M. and Yamazaki, F., 2004. LiDAR signatures to update japanese building inventory database. 25th Asian Conference on Remote Sensing.

Wack, R. and Wimmer, A., 2002. Digital terrain models from airborne laser scanner data a grid based approach. International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing 34(3B), pp. 293 – 296.

Weidner, U., 1996. An approach to building extraction from digital surface models. International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing 31(B3), pp. 924 – 929.

Weidner, U., 1997. Digital surface models for building extraction. Automatic Extraction of Man-Made Objects from Aerial and Space Images.

Weidner, U. and Förstner, W., 1995. Towards automatic building extraction from high resolution digital elevation models. ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry & Remote Sensing 50(4), pp. 38 - 49.