Clouds 2022 – University of Rennes 1/CNRS/University of Potsdam



# Change detection on 3D point clouds

#### **Principles & Applications**

June 2022, CloudCompare V2.12.1

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# Workshop objectives

#### 1. Measuring distance betwen two point clouds

- Approaches to register point clouds & quality control (day 2)
  - $\rightarrow$  need for metrics to evaluate the distance between two point clouds (M3C2)
- Type of distance measurements
  - Feature matching (some examples but no practical)
  - Featureless distances: Cloud 2 Cloud, Difference of DEM, M3C2
- Source of uncertainties
  - Instrument, registration, method used....
  - How to include them in distance measurements ?
- Using a 3D distance field for scientific application
  - Example of automated clustering & volume calculation for landslides (day 2)

### **2.** Improving your technicity in processing point clouds

- With Cloudcompare (Rennes team)
- With Python (Potsdam team)

### 3. Try to solve some of the problems you face with your data

### Datasets used in the practical : Airborne LiDAR

### Kaikoura Earthquake Dataset used in

# Bernard, Lague and Steer, Esurf 2021 : Beyond 2D landslide inventories and their rollover: synoptic 3D inventories and volume from repeat lidar data



Note: the 2014 and 2016 surveys have been cut to not have the same spatial extent. This is to better highlight the sensitivity of various methods of change detection or registration.

	Pre-earthquake lidar	Post-earthquake lidar
Date of acquisition	13 Mar 2014–20 Mar 2014	3 Dec 2016–6 Jan 2017
Commissioned by/provided by	USC-UCLA-GNS science/NCALM	Land Information New Zealand/AAM NZ
Availability	https://doi.org/10.5069/G9G44N75	Upon request from https://canterburymaps.govt.nz/about/feedback/
Original point density (points $m^{-2}$ )	9.02	$19.2 \pm 11.7$
Number of ground points	10 660 089	63 729 096
Ground point density (points $m^{-2}$ )	$3.8 \pm 2.1$	$11.5 \pm 6.8$
Vertical accuracy (m, as $\pm 1$ SD)	0.068-0.165	0.04
Study area (m <sup>2</sup> )	5 253 133	5 2 53 1 33



### Datasets used in the practical : Terrestrial LiDAR

#### Terrestrial LiDAR data from the Rangitikey river in NZ, used in

#### Lague, Brodu and Leroux, ISPRS 2013 : M3C2 paper

Lague, Dev in Earth Surf Processes, 2021 book chapter on Terrestrial Laser scanner applied to fluvial geomorphology



#### Surveys in 2009 and 2011 Variety of processes:

- Rockfalls
- Bed aggradation/erosion
- Bank erosion

Leica Scanstation 2 (slow but accurate !) ~ 1 -2 cm point spacing Registration error ~ 3-5 mm (1 std)

Classification with Canupo, but voluntarily not perfect Version subsampled at 2 cm for

### Plan

#### 1. Type of distance measurements

- 1. Feature based change detection
- 2. Featureless distance measurement
  - 1. Cloud to cloud
  - 2. Difference of DEM
  - 3. M3C2 distance

#### 2. Sources of uncertainty

- 1. Components of uncertainty in 3D point cloud change detection
  - 1. Positional uncertainty
  - 2. Registration uncertainty
  - 3. Roughness uncertainty
- 2. Background on uncertainties
- 3. Examples

### 2 types of topographic change measurement

# Ground movements displacing topographic features



Kaikoura EQ, GNS



Chgega landslide, GEP





Geomorphic processes changing topographic features









#### Feature matching → 2D-3D displacement field

#### No features to match → distance & volume

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### Feature matching: deformation field using Particle Image Velocimetry (PIV) on DEM



- Derived from techniques of 2D image correlation but using a raster DEM
- Aryal et al., JGR, 2012: Using cross-correlation techniques developped for Particle Image Velocimetry



Figure 6. PIV estimated total displacement field and vectors (black) with error ellipses (95% significance) of CCL between June 2005 and January 2007. GPS horizontal-displacement vectors (red) and displacement vectors of features identifiable in the point cloud data (white) are plotted using the same scale as the PIV vectors. Landslide surface features (scarps, thrusts, and boundaries) are adapted from *Reid et al.* [2003].

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### Feature matching: deformatin field using Particle Image Velocimetry (PIV) on DEM



1 cm DEM. 19 july 2011 to 10 Nov 2011 Vertical registration error ~ 1.7 cm



**2D Displacement field from DEM correlation** using COSI-CORR (Leprince et al., 2007).

Vertical difference of DEM

### Feature matching on 3D point cloud change detection by piecewise ICP

#### **Piecewise ICP (Iterative Closest Point):**

- PC is divided in smaller clouds
- a registration is performed between the two epochs
- Gives a local 3D displacement vector



From Ed Nissen's course on OpenTopography

#### Airborne Lidar : tectonic displacement



Vertical displacement across a fault (Ed Nissen)



(From Krishnan et al., 2016)

#### *Teza et al., 2007,2008* **TLS : landslide displacement**



Figure 9. Summary of the results obtained at Perarolo di Cadore, in the period from December 2002 to July 2005, transformed into yearly displacements. The colours are proportional to displacement intensities.

#### **Benefits:**

- Works directly on 3D point clouds
- 3D displacement field
- Potentially very accurate

#### **Current Limits:**

- Requires a surface with topographic complexity or features (e.g., buildings)
- Features must be preserved after the event
- Range of displacement cannot be too large

### Generic approaches to detect topographic change on point clouds



From Passalacqua et al., 2015

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## **Classical approach: vertical Difference of DEM (DoD)**



- The classical approach in Geomorphology and Earth Sciences
- Very easy to perform on any GIS
- Can also be done in Cloudcompare, but not necessarily optimal
- Very advanced packages existing for fluvial analysis (Geomorphological Change Detection Toolbox, Wheaton et al. 2010)

### **Cloudcompare application**

- Kaikoura EQ Lidar dataset (2014 and 2016, ground data only)
  - Load the 2 datasets
  - Tools -> volume -> compute 2.5D volume with a step of 1 m
    - Note the added and removed volume
    - Note the % of matching cells
  - Export grid of height difference raster
  - NOTE: the height difference is automatically calculated on the same grid



### Principle of the SDDS test

- SDDS tests : Same Data Differing Sampling tests (Lague et al., 2013; Bernard et al., 2021; )
  - Same underlying surface but different sampling
  - Take into account the noise in the data and the surface roughness without the registration error
    - $\rightarrow$  no change should theoretically be measured by the change detection technique



#### **Applications:**

- Testing robustness of change detection method
- Testing robustness of cloud matching approaches (ICP,...) ٠
- Indirect validation of statistical models for significant change detection

### SDDS test with DoD

### Kaikoura 2016 EQ Lidar dataset

- Subsample with 0.5 m min distance -> 2016\_sub0.5
- Subsample randomly to have ~ 9.5 million points -> 2016\_rand
- Tools -> volume -> compute 2.5D volume with a step of 1 m
- What do you observe ?
- Compute the std deviation of the height difference (tools -> statistics -> compute stat params -> gauss)

### **Difference of DEMs : Pros an Cons**

- Pros
  - Regular sampling of topographic change
  - Compact format
  - Easy vertical differencing (Difference of DEM=DoD)
  - Simple volume calculation = sum of the vertical difference x pixel area
  - Well integrated in traditional workflow using DEM

#### • Cons

- Loss of resolution as topographic slope increases
  - Cannot represent vertical surfaces
- No oriented difference
  - E.g., bank erosion and bed aggradation correctly
- Interpolation on complex surfaces
  - "Creation" of data whose accuracy is unknown
    - You generally lose the information on where interpolation occured
- Loss of sub-pixel information
  - Did you have 100 pts in your pixel or 1?
  - Was the sub-pixel geometry flat or rough ?
- Cannot represent 3D above ground features
  - Did you have 100 pts in your pixel or 1 ?



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### 3D Cloud to cloud distances Simplest approach : nearest point distance (cloud 2 cloud aka C2C)

A: Closest point distance L<sub>C2C</sub>



For each point in the compared PC, look for the nearest neighbour in the reference PC and compute the 3D distance

#### Pro:

- A 3D measurement directly on point clouds : can be used on horizontal or vertical surfaces
- Super fast and simple (no need to rasterize)
- Highest resolution possible

#### Con:

- Underestimation of true distance due to noise
- No normal calculation
  - → Non-oriented measurement : not necessarily the orthogonal distance between two surfaces. E.g. on a river bed, not generally the vertical distance → overestimation of true distance  $\rightarrow$  Non-signed measurement : no difference between erosion and sedimentation  $\frac{\text{Ref}}{\text{Ref}} = 0.000 \text{ sedimentation}$
- Highly sensitive to missing data



### **C2C distances in Cloudcompare**

- Using the Kaikoura EQ dataset
  - Select C2C distance between 2016 and 2014, with 2014 as a reference (1st epoch)
  - Press COMPUTE
  - A new scalar field is created in the 2016 dataset





Some infos on very approximate measures. NOT TO BE USED

### Improvements on C2C

- Using a local model
  - Reduces the underestimation due to noise
  - Does not resolve the non-oriented issue
  - Does not yield a signed distance
- Using the vertical component of the distance vector
  - Signed vertical distance = erosion and sedimentation
  - Does not resolve the non-oriented issue
  - Is not accurate enough



Useful for quick & dirty exploration of data to evaluate where large vertical change occur



function within a radius  $r_m$  of the closest point

From Lague et al., 2013

### **Recommandation on using C2C**

### **Reference point cloud**:

- Ideally the initial dataset
- But sometimes choosing a dataset with much larger point densities and less missing data yield better results

### With cloudcompare:

- Check the maximum distance before launching the calculation
- Can be imposed if using command line

### Vertical C2C distances in Cloudcompare

- Using the Kaikoura EQ dataset
  - Select C2C distance between 2016 and 2014, with 2016 as a reference (as it is the denser point cloud)
  - Tick the « split X,Y,Z components »
  - Set max\_distance = 30 m
  - Select a local modeling : least square plane, 5 m radius
  - Press COMPUTE
  - 4 new scalar field are created on the 2014 dataset
  - Display the C2C absolute distance [<30] (Z) scalar field





**Tip**: because we have inverted the reference, erosion appears as positive. To change that multiply by -1 in scalar arithmetics

### SDDS test with C2C

- Perform a C2C without local modelling with the spatial subsampling as reference (with Z component)
- Display the histogram of absolute distances
  - Compute the mean of non-zero absolute distances
- Display the histogram of the vertical distance
  - Compute the std deviation of non zero absolute\_distances\_Z
  - Tricky question : why does the distribution appear discretized ?







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# Multiscale Model to Model Cloud Comparison (M3C2), Lague et al. 2012



Rangitikei river, New-Zealand





#### **Elements of M3C2**

- 1. A way to compute distances
- A model of uncertainty to compute a confidence interval for each distance accounting

### M3C2: 3D point cloud differencing (Lague et al., 2013)

2009



Normal

Scale= D

Projection

scale d

= averaging scale



CLOUD 2

**CLOUD 1** 



Search depth L<sub>max</sub>

1: Normal direction calculation on cloud 1 at scale D → Oriented difference

#### 2: Cylinder of diameter d (projection scale)

- Average position of each PC within the cylinder
- M3C2 Distance = distance between the two average position along the normal direction

#### 3: Local confidence interval calculation using

- $\rightarrow$  Local cloud roughness
- $\rightarrow$  Local point density
- $\rightarrow$  Global registration

#### 4: Distance smaller than confidence interval

ightarrow statistically not significant

#### 5: Length of the cylinder = $L_{max}$ . If no intercept with other cloud

- $\rightarrow$  no calculation
- $\rightarrow$  no need to trim the data

### M3C2 options

Option 1: Vertical mode → no normal calculation → Faster Nickname : vertical-M3C2

**Option 2: Horizontal normals** 

 $\rightarrow$  Bank or cliff retreat

 $\rightarrow$  No need to rotate the data



**CLOUD 1** 

**CLOUD 2** 

Automatically tracks bank orientation

#### Option 3: CORE POINTS

#### • Subset of points of arbitrary geometry on which the calculation is done

- ightarrow Grid of core points solve the sampling irregularity issue of 3D data
- ightarrow Spatial resampling of the data with minimum distance in 3D
- But uses the RAW DATA for underlying calculation
  - Mean point position, point density, local roughness
- → Faster
- $\rightarrow$  Generate calculation
- $\rightarrow$  Can be used for volume calculation

#### **Core point cloud**



#### Practical M3C2

### ALS data M3C2 on the Kaikoura EQ dataset

- Create a raster from the 2014 dataset with 1 m step  $\rightarrow$  core\_2014\_1m
- Select the 2014 and 2016 data and launch M3C2
- Fill the parameters as follow :

🞇 M3C2 distance	? ×	Tip : if the core_point already has		
Cloud #1 LiDAR_2014 [ID 275]		🦯 normals, you can directly ι	ISE	
Cloud #2		them for faster processing		1
Main parameters Normals Advanced Precision maps Output				
Scales Normals diameter = 10.000000 Projection diameter = 5.000000	Compute normals (on core points)       max depth = 20 000000	Calculation on all the points of cloud # 1	CLOUD 1	
Core points		On the fly minimum distance sub-sampling	Normal Scale = D	
Registration error 0.050000	Guess params	A specific core point cloud that you have created	Projection scale = d	
	OK Cancel			Max depth <sup>2</sup>



With ground-based 3D data (e.g., TLS) with overhanging parts using +Z will be incorrect (flipping of sign of the M3C2\_distance). We'll see how to deal with these limits using an « origin points file »

#### Practical M3C2



Create a copy of the core point file (without all the scalars of the core point file) with the M3C2 Scalar Fields

#### Other options (advanced use):

Project core points on « cloud #1 »

- Create a new point cloud corresponding to the average position of cloud #1 around each core point
- Records the M3C2 scalar fields on it

Tip : this will generate a smoothed version of cloud #1. I recommend to use it only if you really know what you're doing !

Project core points on « cloud #2 »

- Create a new point cloud corresponding to the average position of cloud #2 around each core point
- Records the M3C2 scalar fields on it

Tip : this will generate a smoothed version of cloud #2. I recommend to use it only if you really know what you'be doing !

### Result

- The output of M3C2 now has normals
- 7 new scalar fields :
  - M3C2 distance: signed 3D distance (grey = no intercept with cloud # 2)
  - Distance uncertainty at 95% confidence: spatially variable (will be explained later)
  - Significant change (boolean): 1= M3C2\_distance\_uncertainty; 0= M3C2\_distance<distance\_uncertainty
  - **Npoints\_cloud1** (resp 2) = nb pts intercepted by the projection cylinder in cloud #1 (resp cloud #2)
  - **Std\_cloud1** (resp 2) = detrended roughness at the projection scale of cloud #1 (resp cloud #2)



### Inspection of M3C2 field

- Split the M3C2 \_distance field in values, and NaN (min-max without changing anything)
- Inspect the NaN values



Why an M3C2 distance is not computed everywhere ?

### Missing M3C2 distances: solutions

- On the non-overlapping data, there are no correspondence in cloud #2 → expected behaviour, no need to trim the data !
- Inside the overlapping area 3 possible causes:
  - The maximum depth is not large enough
    - Increase the maximum depth
  - Data is locally missing in one of the cloud
    - e.g., below a tree, or due to water (full NIR absorption)
    - Normal behaviour
  - M3C2\_distance is frequently not calculated
    - The projection scale is too small



On this dataset 40 m would be meeded

### Choosing the projection scale d

- M3C2 « averages » the point cloud to :
  - Obtain a more accurate estimate of the mean position of the implicit surface (e.g., averaging random noise)
  - Evaluate local parameters of the uncertainty model: nb points, standard deviation
- The optimal projection scale is thus a balance between :
  - d large enough to have enough points on both clouds to compute a robust uncertainty model (typically ~ 20 pts) → function of point clouds densities
  - d small enough to resolve sharp spatial variations in M3C2 distances (i.e., avoiding a too large smoothing effect)

Choose d such that you have at least ~ 20 pts on the point cloud with the smallest point density

e.g., discussion in Lague et al. 2013 and Bernard et al., 2021

#### **Practical M3C2 : choosing the projection scale**

2014 Lidar Nbpoints





LIDAR 2014 sets the constraint on the projection scale. 5 m is a good choice, as roughly 80 % of core points have at least 20 points, but some area won't have enough points to have a robust M3C2\_distance and uncertainty

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#### 2016 Lidar Nbpoints





### Choosing the max depth

- Large enough to intercept the two point clouds = f(max topographic change)
- Vertical-M3C2: can be very large, but the larger the longer the calculation
- Standard 3D M3C2: be careful of double intercepts : cylinder crossing the same cloud twice : incorrect distance measurement



- Use the smallest max depth possible to avoid double intercepts
- Inspect your data !
- Use a SDDS test to evaluate the problem
- New version of M3C2 using a progressive cylinder search currently in beta testing !
- **Tip:** the multiscale normal tend to favor this issue, while a constant large normal reduces it (at the expense of accurate distance measurement)

### Illustrating double intercepts

### • Kaikoura 2016 EQ Lidar dataset

- Create a raster of core points with 2 m spacing -> core\_2 m
- Use subsample versions « 2016\_sub0.5 » and « 2016\_rand »
- 3D-M3C2 with core\_2m normal scale = 10 m, proj scale = 5 m, depth = 40 m
- Rename the M3C2\_distance in M3C2\_distance\_40m
- 3D-M3C2 with the previous M3C2\_result as core points, with normal scale = 10 m, proj scale = 5 m and depth = 2 m (on output, tick the box use original cloud)
- Using scalar arithmetics compare M3C2\_distance\_40m and M3C2\_distance at 2m depth
- Highlight where there are differences

### Choosing the normal scale D in M3C2

- Computing normal on rough surfaces is an extremely complex problem !
- D should be small enough to track the changes of the topography
- D should be large enough to not « flicker » due to noise
- The smaller is D, the faster is the computation of normals



Small scale compared to rougness characteristics

#### Large scale compared to rougness characteristics



### Attempt in Lague et al., 2013 to define an objective function by comparing the **distance estimation error E**<sub>norm</sub> and **normal scale/roughness**



Choose the smallest Dn such that Normal Scale  $D_N > \sim 25$  roughness $(D_N)$ 

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### Choosing the normal scale D, Kaikoura EQ



Bernard et al., esurf, 2021

- No simple a priori prediction as roughness is scale dependent
  - Roughness needs to be calculated at all scales (no automated way (yet) in M3C2)
- Bernard et al., esurf, 2021 : Using the pre-EQ with the lowest point density, a normal scale of 10 m allows for ~80% of the points to validate ζ > 25

For a given type of data (ALS, TLS,...), the normal scale is generally not depending a lot on point density but on the roughness properties of the landscape : ALS : 10-20 m seems a good range but further exploration of this parameter is needed

## What about the multiscale approach ? (the first M in M3C2)

- Developped as an attempt to automatically find the optimal scale
- Compute the normal at various scales and choose the scale at which the surface appears flatter



**Fig. 7.** Normal calculation with automatic selection of the most planar scale on the rockfall area (Fig. 1). Normal orientation is defined in a Hue Saturation Value colour wheel.  $\xi$  is an indicator of normal orientation accuracy given by Eq. (4): when  $\xi \ge 20$  error on distance calculation between two clouds due to the normal orientation inaccuracy is lower than ~2%. Points in grey correspond to  $\xi < 20$ .

#### Pros:

It better captures variations in normal orientation near edges, but appears more important for TLS than ALS

#### Cons:

It is super long, especially as we increase the largest scale -> in practive I barely use it, or with a limited range of scale It can create very large local variations which may not be desirable for data interpretation It remains to be systematically tested in more environments than Lague et al., 2013, especially for ALS 40

### Application to the Kaikoura ALS lidar data

Multiscale approach from 4 to 50 m with 2 m step. M3C2 creates a new scalar field called « normal scale » Result smoothed at 2.5 m radius



High curvature areas (channel banks, ridges...) yield small normal scales -> 4-10 m Flat areas yield very large ones, typically 20-50 m : for these surfaces, using a 10 m scale does not change the normal vector, but significantly speed up calculation

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# The impact of 3D differencing vs vertical differencing

• SDDS test : Same Data Differing Sampling test (Lague et al., 2013)

### • Kaikoura 2016 EQ Lidar dataset

- Create a raster of core points with 2 m spacing -> core\_2 m
- Subsample with 0.5 m min distance -> 2016\_sub0.5
- Subsample randomly to have ~ 9.5 million points -> 2016\_rand
- Vertical-M3C2 with projection scale = 5 m, depth = 3m
  - Compute std of M3C2\_distances
  - Optionnal: you can perform a 2.5 volume calculation on 2016\_sub0.5 and 2016\_rand
- 3D-M3C2 with normal scale = 10 m, proj scale = 5 m, depth = 3 m
  - Compute std of M3C2\_distances
- Compare the two maps with similar saturation

#### Practical on M3C2

### Benefit of 3D differencing vs vertical differencing



From Bernard et al., 2021

Increased ability to detect change on steep slopes

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### Alternatives to Difference of DEM directly on point clouds (e.g. Wagner et al., GRL, 2017)

- 1. Create a regular grid of point clouds with step dx
- 2. Vertical-M3C2 with a projection scale >  $\sqrt{2}dx$  to ensure entire sampling of the surface

 $\rightarrow$  Grid of vertical distances where it can be calculated : no computation where there is no corresponding data (i.e. wetted channels)

 $\rightarrow$  Grid of spatially variable confidence intervals

- 3. Interpolate the grid of vertical distances if needed
- 4. Compute volume and volume uncertainty

### Example of DoD workflow with M3C2



Uncertainty map combining roughness and registration effects



(Wagner, Lague, Morhig, Passalacqua, Shaw, Moffett, GRL, 2017)

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### Practical on TLS survey of the Rangitikei cliff Complex data

- Load the TLS\_Mangarere\_Rangitikei.bin file
- C2C with 2011 data as the reference
  - What do you observe ?
- Core points creation for M3C2 calculation
  - Which dataset would be best to create the core points ?
  - Create core points from spatial subsampling at 5 cm
- Perform M3C2 with the parameters of your choice
  - What do you observe ?

### Suggested parameters for the Rangitikei cliff TLS survey

- Following Lague et al., 2013
  - **Core points = 5-10 cm** (could be less with higher resolution TLS)
  - Normal scale ~ 10 m:
    - To capture large scale normal fluctuations and capture average change on rockfall deposits
    - Could be lower to capture change on individual blocs/overhangs
  - Projection scale ~ 0.5 m -> could be less with higher resolution TLS
- Try an M3C2 with a normal scale of 2 m

# Example of normal orientation issue when using +Z option on overhanging parts



With normals « on », appears black



With normals « off », appears as locally inverted change

### Dealing with normal orientation issues

Extremely complex to deal with !

Solutions:

- With M3C2 : provide a series of position towards which orienting the data
  - Fails for very complex surfaces
- Try to reorient normals within Cloudcompare or Meshlab
  - Very time consuming, not guaranteed
- Cut your core points in several bits, rotate them towards the +Z, compute the normals, and rotate back. Merge them back
  - Gives a core point file with correctly oriented normals







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### **Components of uncertainties**

#### 1. Position uncertainty of points within a given point cloud

- Dependent on the survey technique
- Can generally be assumed an uncorrelated random error = **can be reduced by averaging**
- Complex dependency with range and incidence angle that are difficult to account for

#### 2. Registration uncertainty within and between surveys

- Dependent on the survey technique TLS, ALS, SFM
- Is a systematic error that cannot be reduced by averaging
- Is generally assumed uniform and isotropic, but IS NEVER UNIFORM
  - Slight misalignment of flight lines or TLS surveys
- Extremely complex to have a spatially explicit registration error in TLS or ALS
- Not always easy to evaluate

#### 3. Surface roughness related errors

- Independent of the survey technique
- Even if rough surface does not change, a change will be measured between two point clouds taken at different times owing to the difference of sampling (cf SDDS test)
- Spatially variable

Lague et al., 2013

#### + Errors related to ground classification ! 54

### Quick & dirty reminder on statistics

#### **Uncorrelated random error**

- Standard error of the mean of  ${\bf n}$  observations from a population of standard deviation  ${\bf \sigma}$ 

$$SE = \frac{o}{\sqrt{n}}$$

- Hyp : the SE on the mean position of the surface characterized by n points from a fixed LiDAR with a ranging error σ (precision or repeatability)
  - TLS :  $\sigma$  ~ 1 mm. 100 pts gives SE ~ 0.1 mm
  - ALS : σ ~ 10 mm. 50 pts gives SE ~ 3.1 mm

#### Systematic error

- An uncertainty that cannot be reduced by averaging samples
  - E.g.: accuracy of a LiDAR system (= bias)
  - A registration error between two dataset

### **Propagation of errors**

• Two values  $X \pm SE_x$ ,  $Y \pm SE_y$ , the uncertainty of the linear combination of X and Y is :

$$SE_{X+Y} = \sqrt{SE_x^2 + SE_y^2 + 2rSE_xSE_y}$$

with r the correlation coefficient between  $SE_x$  and  $SE_y$ 

• If X and Y are **perfectly random**, r=0

$$SE_{X+Y} = \sqrt{SE_x^2 + SE_y^2}$$

• If X and Y are perfectly correlated

$$SE_{X+Y} = SE_x + SE_y$$

See Anderson, ESPL, 2019 for a study in the context of DoD

### Hypothesis behind the M3C2 uncertainty model

**SE**<sub>pc</sub> = Combined Standard Error associated to the point cloud position uncertainties and roughness

#### Hyp: Point cloud roughness can be considered an uncorrelated random noise :

- **True if the surface is flat**: point cloud roughness is the ranging noise
- **Debatable if the surface is rough**: a grabel bed is not a random surface



- True if the surface is flat
- Debatable if the surface is rough and has not changed !



Combined standard error of the two surveys at projection scale d

$$SE_{PC} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}$$

### Hypothesis behind the M3C2 uncertainty model

**reg** = registration error model between the two point clouds

Hyp 1: The registration error *reg* between the two point clouds is spatially uniform and isotropic

Hyp 2: *reg* and  $SE_{pc}$  are supposed fully correlated : sum of the standard error (conservative assumption)

$$SE_{tot} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}} + reg$$
From the standard error we build a confidence interval at 95%:
$$LoD_{95\%} = 1.96 \left( \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}} + reg \right)$$
Registration error
Registration error

at scale d

More advanced model when n1 and n2 < 20 in Bernard et al., 2021

Point cloud roughness at scale d



Statistically significant change when **Dist\_M3C2 > LoD95%** 

### How to define the registration error ?

- Super tricky !!
- TLS, Lague et al., 2013 :
  - With fixed target : mean error on fixed target position between surveys (~ 3 mm)
  - With GNSS target : combined error accounting for GNSS accuracy (i.e., 1 cm per survey, then reg =  $\sqrt{2}$  cm
- ALS, Bernard et al., 2021 :
  - Standard deviation of M3C2 distances on stable areas (after ICP on stable areas)
- ALS, Wagner et al., 2017 :
  - Standard error from 3 buildings (after removing vertical bias)

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### For SFM

Creates at local uncertainty model based on multiple SFM reconstruction.

M3C2-PM version in CloudCompare

3-D uncertainty-based topographic change detection with structure-from-motion photogrammetry: precision maps for ground control and directly georeferenced surveys

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Received 19 November 2016; Revised 6 February 2017; Accepted 9 February 2017



# Evaluation of the uncertainty budget in TLS

- Explore the values of standard deviation, point density and distance uncertainty, assuming reg=0 mm
- When is

# Self-affinity of rough natural surfaces and consequences



Roughness = detrented point cloud deviation



#### **Consequences for :**

 reduction of uncertainty by spatial averaging is limited

<sup>(</sup>Lague et al., 2013, ISPRS journal)

#### Total budget for level of change detection (LoD) at 95 % confidence (Leica Scanstation 2 or C10) Lague et al., ISPRS journal, 2013

- 1. Registration error between 2 surveys : ~ 4 6 mm
- 2. Scanner noise :  $1.41/\sqrt{n} \rightarrow 0$  mm by spatial averaging
- 3. Surface roughness effects (d=0.5 m):
  - Flat rock : 0.5 5 mm
  - Gravel bed : 1- 30 mm
  - Rockfall debris : 5-260 mm

3D map of confidence interval



# Detecting flight line overlap errors in ALS

- Extract lines using the point\_ID
- 3D M3C2 on the 2 extracted lines :
  - What do you observe ?
- Select a registration error of your choice and recompute 3D-M3C2 between 2014 and 2016
  - Check the significant change field of M3C2.