

Filtering a Digital Surface Model

BADEA Dragos, JACOBSEN Karsten

Abstract: This paper describes the processing method of the LiDAR data by using the feature characteristic derived from height and position information. The most important factor that everyone care, is the similarity of digital representations with the real terrain surface. Different techniques were developed around the research groups. Now those objects not belonging to the bare earth can be eliminated through different filter methods. But in the same time other problems occur. In a flat area, an object can be detected by an algorithm which analyses the height of the points in relation to the surrounding area. But, what is happening when the terrain surface is not flat? The same algorithm is not anymore suited to filter off-terrain objects from the area with the same threshold. You can have the surprise that this filter will eliminate points from bare earth surface. And you have to find a different approach to the problem.

The LiDAR data is classified by the neighborhood height effect. The problem occurs when you try to eliminate off-terrain points like manmade objects and trees. Those objects not belonging to the bare earth can be eliminated through different filter methods. This paper-work demonstrate the benefits brought by introduction of break lines in filtering the Digital Surface Model to achieve a more accurate Digital Height Model. LIDAR data sets used for demonstrations are from Romania – Prahova Valley. The methods of filtering and generation of DHM we use, were developed, implemented in software and improved in time at Institute of Photogrammetry and GeoInformation at the University of Hannover (IPI).

Keywords: - break-lines, DHM, DSM, filtering,, Lidar, terrain model.

I Introduction

A pulsed laser ranging system (LIDAR) is mounted in an aircraft equipped with a precise kinematic GPS receiver and an Inertial Navigation System (INS). Solid-state lasers are now available that can produce thousands of pulses per second, each pulse having a duration of a few nanoseconds (10^{-9} seconds). The laser basically consists of an emitting diode that produces a light source at a very specific frequency. The signal is sent towards the ground where it is reflected back to receiver. The receiver captures the return echo. Using precise timing, the distance to the feature can be determined. Knowing the speed of light and the time for the signal takes to travel from the aircraft to the object and back to the aircraft, the distances can be calculated. Using an oscillating mirror inside the transmitter, the laser pulses can be made to sweep through and trace out a line on the ground. Reversing the direction of rotation with pre-selected angular interval, the laser pulses can be made to scan back and forth along a line. If such a system is mounted on an aircraft and if the scan line is perpendicular to aircraft, it produces a saw-tooth pattern along the flight direction.

Errors in the location and orientation of the aircraft, the beam director angle, atmospheric refraction model and

several other sources degrade the co-ordinates of the surface point to 5 to 10 centimetres. An accuracy validation study showed that Lidar has the vertical accuracy of 10-20 centimetres and the horizontal accuracy of approximately 1 meter.

After that the point coordinate X, Y, Z is obtained by analyzing the position, attitude, distance and projection transformation. Since this data includes many Non Surface Objects such as buildings, trees and cars, the classification is needed in various applications.

This classification is called the filtering process of LiDAR data.

The purpose of this research is to extract DSM (Digital Surface Model) from LiDAR data.

Sometimes the raw data itself is called DSM and sometimes not. In this paper, DSM is defined as following to eliminate complications.

$$\text{DSM} = \text{DHM} + \text{Non Surface Objects}$$

$$\text{DHM (Digital Height Model)}$$

In other words, DSM is the model that includes existing terrain and non-surface objects (e.g. trees, buildings, cars etc.).

This research proposes a method that processes the raw data itself by using the concept of combining the classification and filtering processes into one, also having the possibility to use semi-automatic detected break lines.

II Obtaining DHM from Lidar data

The advantages of using Lidar to supplement or traditional photogrammetric methodologies for terrain and surface feature mapping stimulated the development of high-performance scanning systems. Among their advantages, these systems afford the opportunity to collect terrain data about steep slopes and shadowed and inaccessible areas (such as large mud flats and tidal areas).

In addition to rapid pulsing, modern systems are able to record up to five returns per pulse, which demonstrates the ability of Lidar to discriminate not only such features as a forest canopy and bare ground but also surfaces in between (such as intermediate forest structure and understory). In urban areas, the first return of Lidar data typically measures the elevations of tree canopies, building roofs, and other unobstructed surfaces. These data sets are easily acquired, processed, and made available to support orthophoto production. High resolution contour production, and bare-earth surface evaluation determination for DHM construction do need the last pulse. A distinct advantage to Lidar is that all data are georeferenced from inception, making them inherently compatible with GPS applications.

Points located outside the bare terrain surface can be eliminated through a lot of filtering methods, but a special attention should be paid in order not to eliminate real terrain located points, which can be easily mistaken as located on man made objects. As an example, sudden change of terrain slope can be mistaken for a building roof. As a result, of the first processing of LIDAR data set, the listing is obtained :

352610.000	289170.000	126.394
352660.000	289170.000	125.820
352710.000	289170.000	125.241
352760.000	289170.000	123.333
352810.000	289170.000	123.333
352860.000	289170.000	123.267
352910.000	289170.000	123.197
352960.000	289170.000	121.470
353010.000	289170.000	121.470
353060.000	289170.000	120.748
353110.000	289170.000	120.026
353160.000	289170.000	120.412
353210.000	289170.000	120.412
353260.000	289170.000	120.412
353310.000	289170.000	120.400

10

LIDAR data set contains also a great number of points not located on real terrain surface. All these data represent the Digital Model of Reflective Surface (MDSR). In many studies we only need the Digital Height Model (DHM) which can be obtained after a filtering process. Automatic DSM filtering is an important research topic and have been studied by : Petzold et al. (1999) noted that filtering can be done by applying minimum filter iteratively by changing filter size.

Axelsson (2000) uses TIN. Lohman et al. (2000) use dual-rank-filtering. Vosselman (2000) uses slope as criteria. Briese and Pfeifer (2001) use hierarchical approach, Karsten Jacobsen is using a combination of geometric tests together with linear prediction.

General conclusion is that we need the additional terrain information. In addition to LIDAR data, all geomorphological structures are gathered through classical photogrammetric methods. These elements are considered important in modeling process for medium and small study areas. Particularly to river banks, lake beaches, dams, mountain peaks, bottom valey, etc. As a general fact, in areas where the LIDAR density is not satisfactory and such areas can not be covered by classic photogrammetric methods, topografic survey must be made. Because of high costs of such kind of surveys, we must keep this at a lower level.

Definition of a break-line: Digitized lines that define critical changes (natural or manmade) in topographical shape.

Break lines may be selected features previously collected for planimetric purposes, ie: lakes or rivers, etc. or lines specifically digitized to define the change in topography. The most important reason why break lines should be considered in global reconstruction is the demand to keep the number of unknown geometric

As in the least squares adjustment the size and the structure of the normal equation matrix depends on the

unknown quantities, and as the object surface elements can be eliminated in the matching, the amount of unknowns depends mostly on the number of DHM grid points. Beside the largest errors of the matching occur due to break lines when a continuous model is used in object surface reconstruction

Thus, if a continuous model is used without considering break lines, the result is not reliable especially at break line locations. These reasons imply that in global object reconstruction break lines should be detected at first so that break line areas could be better modelled

Break lines can be regarded as a discontinuity of the mathematical model if the object surface is modelled without considering break lines and smoothness constraints are used for reconstruction of the smooth object surface. Thus, break lines can be detected by computing one ortho-image per aerial input image and the difference (or deviation image in case of more than two input images) ortho-image at the same image pyramid level, and interpreting large differences between the ortho-images as defects in the geometric model originating, e.g., from not modelled break lines

LIDAR data is a cloud of points without structure. Without additional information, a digital height model cannot offer the certitude of a real representation. An DHM must contain in his structure information about break lines and not only. Raster data together with vector data shows the model discontinuities in areas with break lines

Among their advantages, these systems afford the opportunity to collect terrain data about steep slopes and shadowed and inaccessible areas (such as large mud flats and tidal areas). Following the initial post processing and positional assurance, the Lidar data are filtered for noise removal and prepared as a file of x,y,z points. The imagery can be used to add break lines to the Lidar data to reveal the terrain more accurately

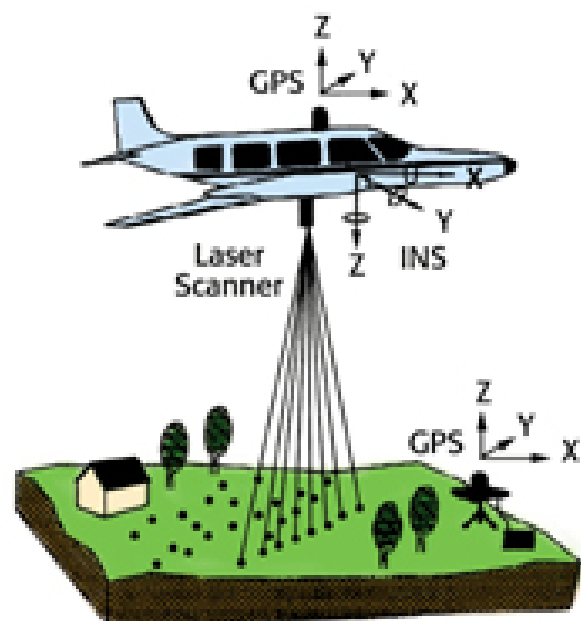


Fig. 1 Theoretical pulse emitted from a Lidar system and the components of the LIDAR.

Figure 1 illustrates a theoretical pulse emitted from a Lidar system and travelling along a line of sight through a forest canopy and recording multiple returns as various surface are "hit".

If elevation data is available then a DHM can be created as the base layer. However collecting accurate elevation data to describe the terrain can be difficult and is most often costly and time consuming by traditional methods. The Lidar DHM tends to be much denser than those available through current sources. This potentially leads to more accurate orthorectification of aerial photographs. User enjoys the benefit of high spatial resolution from the imagery and a very accurate, dense DHM from the Lidar system. The imagery can be used to add break lines to the Lidar data to reveal the terrain more accurately.

III DHM GENERATION FROM LIDAR DATA AND FILTERING

A method for the generation of DHM from airborne Lidar data presented which was developed and improved at IPI. The method distinguishes itself by using the filter in the same time with interpolation.

The original data obtained by ALS express the surface of ground objects, not only the ground surface but also trees and roofs of buildings. These data are called digital surface model (DSM). It is necessary to distinguish these ground objects and to create a digital height model (DHM) that expresses the ground elevation by removing trees and buildings from DSM. This process is called "filtering". The manual refinement is time consuming. The strategy for automatic filtering is based on a combination of geometric conditions together with Linear Prediction.

Kraus and Pfeifer (1998) developed a filtering method suitable for wooded and hilly areas. Petzold et al. (1999) noted that filtering can be done by applying minimum filter iteratively by changing filter size. Axelsson (2000) uses TIN. Lohman et al. (2000) use dual-rank-filtering. Vosselman (2000) uses slope as criteria. Briese and Pfeifer (2001) use hierarchical approach. Karsten Jacobsen is using a combination of geometric tests together with linear prediction.

The filtering was applied to photogrammetric acquired data via automatic image matching.

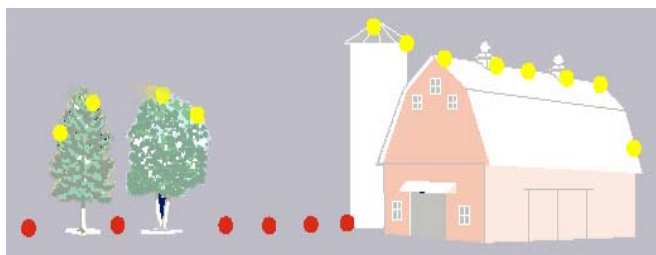


Fig. 2 DSM - Green points belonging to surface of objects; DHM - Only red points - belonging to bare earth surface

The solution found, combines filtering and interpolation of terrain. Is called a robust interpolation or robust linear prediction. The algorithm is embedded in a hierarchical approach, however, the filtering of the laser scanner data on one level will be described first. In this Algorithm a rough approximation of the surface is computed first. Next, the residuals, i.e. the oriented distances from the surface to the measured points are computed. Each (z) measurement is given a weight according to its distance value, which is the parameter of a weight function. The surface is then recomputed under the consideration of the weights. A point with a height weight will attract the surface, resulting in a small residual at this point, whereas a point that has been assigned a low weight will have little influence to the figure of the surface. If an oriented distance is above certain value, the point is classified as off-terrain point and eliminated completely from this surface interpolation. This process of weight iteration is repeated until all gross are eliminated or a maximum number of iterations is reached. Program RASCOR use maximum 2 iterations. The reason for this limitation is that more iterations will result in a very smooth earth surface due to the risk of elimination of too many points.

For the interpolation we use linear prediction. In this method the classification and DHM generation are performed in one step, there is no assumption that the terrain is horizontal. It is applied patch wise to the data, which result is an adaptive setting of the shift origin of the weight function. Furthermore, the base are determined for each patch separately, too. The process yields a smooth surface, that means the accidental (random) measurement errors have also been filtered.

However, the algorithm relies on a "good mixture" of ground and off-terrain (vegetation) points, which can also be seen as a high frequency of change from change from ground to vegetation points. This is necessary for a reliable determination of the shift value for the origin of the weight function. In this high frequency is not given, we need to provide the input data in a suitable form. This can be achieved by inserting the robust linear prediction in a hierarchic environment.

Mathematics for filters

The elimination of points not belonging to the terrain surface is known as FILTERING. There are several methods or procedures for interpolation and filtering. Among them are :

- Splines approximation
- Shift Invariant Filters
- geometric filters
- Linear Prediction
- Morphological Filters

Linear Prediction is a very robust but time consuming method for filtering of Digital Surface Models.

Let us consider the following three random functions $l(u)$, $s(u)$ and $r(u)$, such that :

$$l(u) = s(u) + r(u)$$

The observable function is $l(u)$ and $r(u)$ represents the noise, $s(u)$ is called the signal. Interpolation and filtering are

therefore the problems of finding an estimate $\hat{s}(u_0)$ of the random function $s(u)$ at $u=u_0$, when a discrete set of a function values $l(u_1), l(u_2), \dots, l(u_n)$ from a given realisation $l(u)$ are given.

The favoured estimate is such that its results from a linear combination of $l(u)$, or:

$$\hat{s}_0 = \hat{s}(u_0) = a^t l \quad \text{with}$$

$$a^t = [a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n]$$

$$l = [l(u_1), l(u_2), \dots, l(u_n)]$$

is a vector coefficients and is the vector of given data values, that means, the estimated value is a linear combination of the given data values. This is particularly important for those cases where a function can not be or it can be extremely difficult to be represented in an analytical form.

It can be proven that filtered signal value $\hat{s}_0 = \hat{s}(u_0)$ is:

$$\hat{s}_0 = \sigma_{s0l} \Sigma_n^{-1} l \quad \text{with:}$$

\hat{s}_0 = predicted or filtered value of the signal at $u=u_0$

σ_{s0l} = is a vector containing the cross covariance between signal s at $u=u_0$ (s_0)

and observations l_i

Σ_n = Covariance matrix

l = Vector of centred measurements

The covariance matrix is constructed from the covariance function that has general form:

$$COV = A * e^{-\left(\frac{P_i P_k}{B}\right)^2}$$

This expression assumes that the covariance between two points P_i and P_k is dependent on their reciprocal distance. If the points are close to each other, then the covariance is high. The covariance tends to zero with growing distance between points. A is the vertex value of the function and consequently is the covariance for zero distance. B represents the slope of the covariance function. These parameters are known or they have to be determined empirical in each case.

A fundamental prerequisite for the application of a covariance function is the removal of the trend from the given observations or signals. Only in this case the covariance between points will only be dependent on their reciprocal distances and in such a case we will be handling stationary random functions. The elimination of the trend is accomplished by using a very low degree polynomial or a moving plane. The result of this trend separation is the vector l_i that contains centered points of measurements. These values l_i describes the deviations of the sample measured points from the moving plane or the low degree polynomial.

Finally we can conclude that the elements of the covariance matrix Σ_{ij} are in fact the covariance values between the point measurements. The main diagonal elements are variances of the signals and the off-diagonal elements are the covariance values between same above signals. That is :

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} uz & t_z r & z_{tr} & z_{trr} \\ t_z r z t & r_z t & r_z t & r_z t \\ z & t & z_r & z_{tr} \\ z_{tr} & z_{tr} & z_{rz} & t \end{bmatrix}$$

The next step of Lidar data processing is filtering (elimination of vegetation and building points, generally off-terrain points) and the interpolation of the (bold earth) surface. The method, distinguishes itself in the integration of filtering and terrain interpolation in one process (advantage: even in steep terrain ground points are classified correctly) as well as in the application of data pyramids (advantage: even in very dense forest areas and on large buildings, off-terrain points are eliminated). In order to generate a terrain model with high geo-morphological quality, methods are required for deriving structural line information (e.g. break lines) from laser scanner data. The method which will be presented, proceeds by a simulation of rain fall over the preliminary DHM. This yields an identification of the pits with their pit base and the outflow (overflow) point. Subsequently, the terrain shape is changed in order to eliminate the pits. In further method break lines are derived from the original laser scanner points. The precondition is that the location of the break line is known approximately.

It will be confined to methods which have been developed at the IPI, which have been realised in software and put to the test. We will start with a contribution to the filtering of lidar data and interpolation of the terrain surface with introducing of break lines.

Program Rascor for filtering and interpolation

RASCOR is a program developed for automatic improvement of digital surface models to digital elevation models (raster data set) $\surd/2 \searrow$.

Program RASCOR can analyze, improve, smooth and interpolate a digital elevation model (DEM) which may be created by automatic image matching or laser scanning (LIDAR) in an equal spacing arrangement $\surd/2 \searrow$.

The identification of points not located on the solid ground but on topographic features like vegetation and buildings is possible by a minimal and maximal height in the area, by maximal height differences between neighbored points, by a sudden change of the height level, by a linear or polynomial interpolation in X- and Y-direction, by a minimal and maximal height difference against a local tilted plane or polynomial surface $\surd/2 \searrow$.

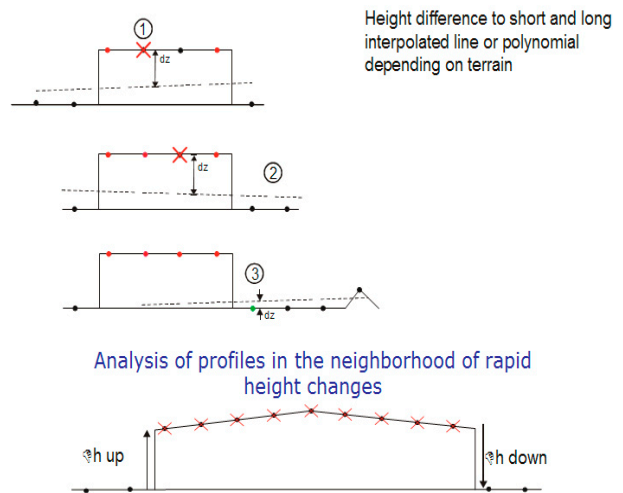


Fig. 3 Different terrain analysis $\surd/2 \searrow$

The interpolated surface in the point P_i is given by:

$$u_i = \underline{c}^T \underline{C}^{-1} \underline{z} \quad (1)$$

$$\underline{c}^T = [C(P_i P_1) \quad C(P_i P_2) \quad \dots \quad C(P_i P_n)]$$

$$\underline{C} = \begin{bmatrix} V_{zz} & C(P_1 P_2) & \dots & C(P_1 P_n) \\ C(P_2 P_1) & V_{zz} & \dots & C(P_2 P_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C(P_n P_1) & C(P_n P_2) & \dots & V_{zz} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{z} = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} \quad C(P_i P_k) = C(0) e^{-A \left(\frac{P_i P_k}{B} \right)^2}$$

- u_i predicted value
- \underline{c} covariances between point to be interpolated and measurements
- \underline{C} covariance matrix
- \underline{z} vector of centered measurements

Breaklines

Digitized lines that define critical changes (natural or manmade) in topographical shape. Break lines may be selected features previously collected for planimetric purposes, ie: lakes or rivers, etc. or lines specifically digitized to define the change in topography. The most important reason why break lines should be located in global object reconstruction is the demand to keep the number of unknown geometric, DEM parameters low so that large image areas could be processed simultaneously and as fast as possible. As in the least squares adjustment the size and the structure of the normal equation matrix depend on the unknown quantities, and as the object surface elements can be eliminated in the matching, the amount of unknowns depends mostly on the number of DEM grid points. Beside the largest errors of the matching occur due to break lines when a continuous model is used in object surface reconstruction. Thus, if a continuous model is used without considering break lines, the result of the image matching is not reliable especially at break line locations. These reasons imply that in global object reconstruction break lines should be detected at first so that break line areas could be better modelled .

Break lines can be regarded as a discontinuity of the mathematical model if the object surface is modelled without considering break lines and smoothness constraints are used for reconstruction of the smooth object surface. Thus, break lines can be detected by computing one ortho-image per aerial input image and the difference (or deviation image in case of more than two input images) ortho-image at the same image pyramid level, and interpreting large differences between the ortho-images as defects in the geometric model originating, e.g., from not modelled break lines.

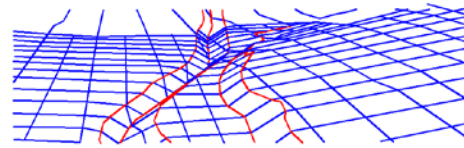


Figure 4 Terrain surface with breaklines

RASCOR can respect break lines during data handling. The break lines can be semi-automatically acquired and needs a supervisor. They also can be manually imputed or added in the iterative filtering process. Best results have been obtained with the 'LoG-Operator' within HALCON, which uses the Laplacian-Operator $\Delta g(x,y)$ and a selectable smoothing σ of the Gauss-function $\frac{1}{4\sigma^2}$.

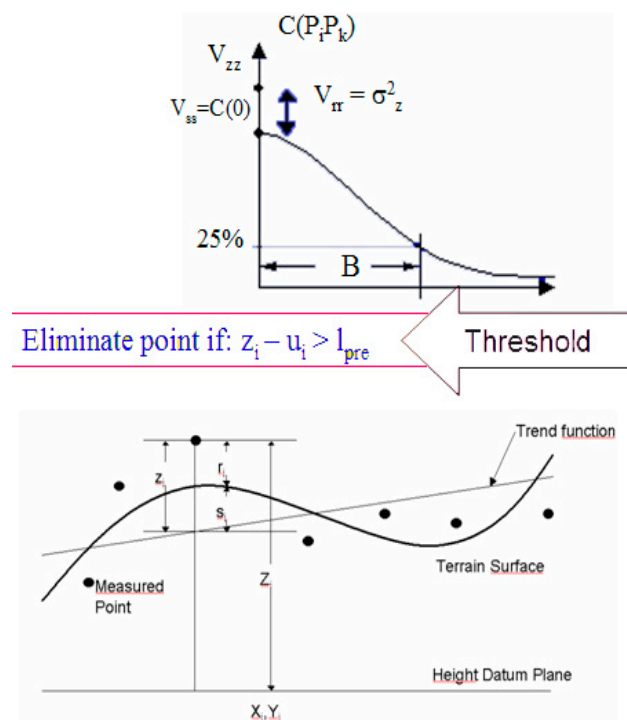


Fig. 5 Interpolation method $\frac{1}{4\sigma^2}$

Implementation:

$$\Delta g(x, y) = \frac{\partial^2 g(x, y)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 g(x, y)}{\partial y^2} \quad (2)$$

The derivatives of the LoG are approximated by derivatives of the Gauss-function $G_\sigma(x, y)$. This results in a detection of an ideal edge having a maxima and a minima and a zero crossing (steepest slope of the edge).

$$G_\sigma(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left[-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right] \quad (3)$$

and

$$\Delta G_\sigma(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^4} \left(\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2} - 1\right) \left[\exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)\right] \quad (4)$$

Top (upper) edge of dike could not be detected because segmentation via thresholds failed.

Therefore the mean curvature H is determined from the derivatives of the Gauss-function:

$$G_\sigma(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left[-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right] \quad (5)$$

$$H = \frac{a - b + c}{d}$$

$$a = \left(1 + \frac{\partial g(x, y)^2}{\partial x}\right) \cdot \frac{\partial^2 g(x, y)}{\partial y^2}$$

$$b = 2 \frac{\partial g(x, y)}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial g(x, y)}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial^2 g(x, y)}{\partial y \partial x}$$

$$c = \left(1 + \frac{\partial g(x, y)^2}{\partial y}\right) \cdot \frac{\partial^2 g(x, y)}{\partial x^2}$$

$$d = \left(1 + \frac{\partial g(x, y)^2}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial g(x, y)^2}{\partial y}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \quad (6)$$

A break line will avoid an elimination at locations with rapid change of the inclination like a dam. Program RASCOR is using a sequence of different methods for the filtering of a DSM. Only data sets with raster arrangement

are

accepted

✓2\.

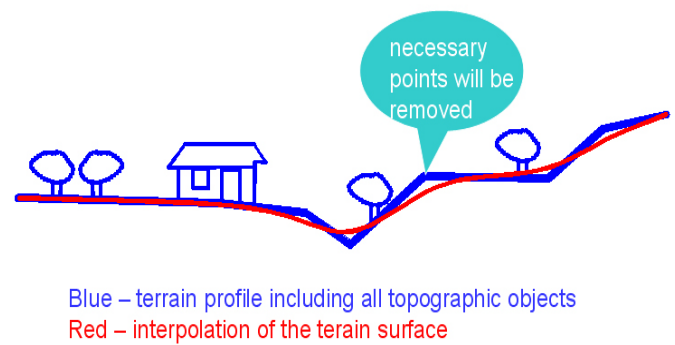


Fig. 6 Interpolation without break lines ✓8\.

RASCOR starts with an analysis of the height distribution itself. This method requires flat areas, it does not work in rolling and mountainous terrain. It is followed by an analysis of the height differences of neighbored points. The accepted height limit of neighbored points is depending upon the slope and the random errors. With this method only small objects and the boundary of larger elements can be eliminated, but it is still very efficient ✓2\.

Even large buildings can be found by a sudden change of the elevation in a profile to a higher level and a later corresponding change down if no vegetation is located directly beside the buildings. This method is used for DEMs determined by automatic image matching where the buildings are looking more like hills ✓2\.

Other larger objects not belonging to the bare ground are identified by a moving local profile analysis; at first shorter and after this longer profiles are used. The required length of the moving local profiles is identified by an analysis of a sequence of shorter up to longer profiles ✓2\.

In flat areas the individual height values are checked against the mean value of the local moving profile, in rolling areas a linear regression is used, in mountainous areas polynomials have to be used. It will be combined with data snooping taken care about a not even point distribution caused by previously eliminated points. All these methods are applied in X- and Y-direction ✓2\.

Elements which have not been removed by this sequence of tests are analysed by moving surfaces which may be plane, inclined or polynomial. The size of the moving surfaces is identified by the program itself by checking the data set with a sequence of cells with different size. As final test a local prediction can be used, but it is usually only finding few points not belonging to the surface after the described sequence of tests ✓2\.

In the case of the check for height differences of directly neighbored points, the upper point will be eliminated if the tolerance limit will be exceeded. The other methods are using a weight factor for points located below the reference defined by the neighbored points. This will keep points located in a ditch or cutting in the data set. Usually points determined by laser scanning do not have blunders causing a location below the true position, but this may happen in the

case of a DSM determined by automatic image matching, justifying a weight factor $\sqrt{2}$.

Details of the hierarchical approach, the implementation in the LISA software and the results of some examples are described in figure below. On the left we see the surface interpolated using the original data. On the right is the DHM derived by the linear prediction without any manual intervention.

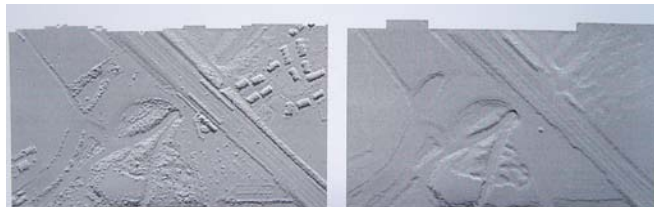


Figure 7 Surface interpolated using the original data. DHM derived by the filtered data.

Results with RASCOR

RASCOR starts with an analysis of the height distribution itself. Based on the structure of the achieved histogram of height distribution an upper and lower limit of the accepted height can be identified automatically. This method requires flat areas, it does not work in rolling and mountainous terrain. It is followed by an analysis of the height differences of neighbored points. The accepted height limit of neighbored points is depending upon the slope and the random errors. With this method only small objects and the boundary of larger elements can be eliminated, but it is still very efficient $\sqrt{3}$.

Even large buildings can be found by a sudden change of the elevation in a profile to a higher level and a later corresponding change down if no vegetation is located directly beside the buildings. This method can be used for laser scanning, but it is not optimal for DEMs determined by automatic image matching where the buildings are looking more like hills $\sqrt{3}$.

Other larger objects not belonging to the bare ground are identified by a moving local profile analysis; at first shorter and after this longer profiles are used. The required length of the moving local profiles is identified by an analysis of a sequence of shorter up to longer profiles. In flat areas the individual height values are checked against the mean value of the local moving profile, in rolling areas a linear regression is used, in mountainous areas polynomials have to be used. It will be combined with data snooping taken care about a not even point distribution caused by previously eliminated points. All these methods are applied in X- and Y-direction. Elements which have not been removed by this sequence of tests are analysed by moving surfaces which may be plane, inclined or polynomial. The size of the moving surfaces is identified by the program itself by checking the data set with a sequence of cells with different size. As final test a local prediction can be used, but it is usually only finding few points not belonging to the surface after the described sequence of tests $\sqrt{3}$.

In the case of the check for height differences of directly neighbored points, the upper point will be eliminated if the tolerance limit will be exceeded. The other methods are using a weight factor for points located below the reference

defined by the neighbored points. This will keep points located in a ditch or cutting in the data set. Usually points determined by laser scanning do not have blunders causing a location below the true position, but this may happen in the case of a DSM determined by automatic image matching, justifying a weight factor $\sqrt{3}$.

In forest areas at first only the trees are removed by the program, smaller vegetation is remaining, so a second iteration is necessary. A second iteration in other cases may remove also terrain points leading to a more generalised DEM. This may be useful for the generation of contour lines, but it is not optimal for the correct description of the terrain $\sqrt{3}$.

RASCOR can be handled in the batch mode or a sequence of batch modes. The batch-handling is based on the file rascor.dat which may include a switch for the automatic handling as batch job $\sqrt{2}$.



Fig. 8 Mosaic of images for the test area (Ialomita Valley – Romania) (Google Earth) $\sqrt{9}$

Lisa software

LISA-BASIC is a general DEM-program. Based on random or equal distributed height points, supported by break and form lines an equal distributed DEM can be created. Internally the DEM is handled as an image with grey- instead of Z-values. This has the advantage of a very fast computation of all derived products like contour lines, wire frame models or 3-D-views. The program is not limited to a simple generation of a digital height model, beside numerical results like volumes or volume differences also the basic tools for image processing are included. In general, the

graphical results can be created as image file or as plotter file. In the display mode an on-line digitizing is possible. That means, also a simple mapping based on orthophotos is possible. The result can be exported as BMP-, PCX or DXF-file.

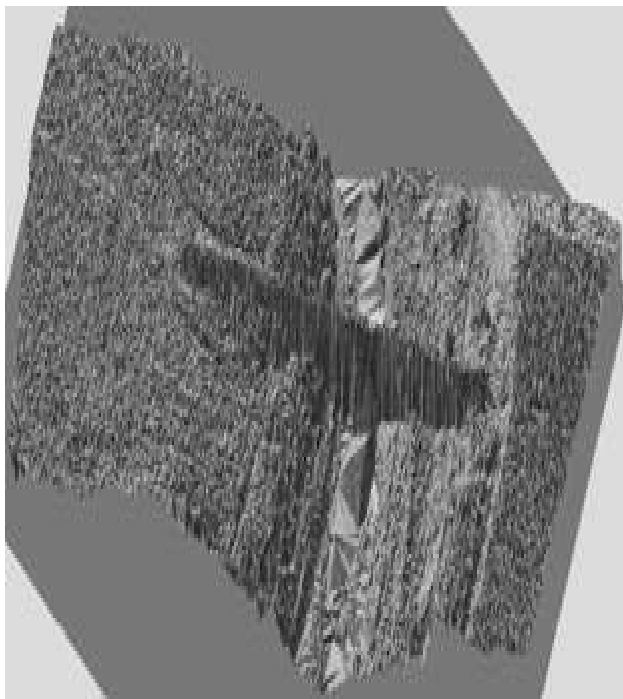


Fig. 9 DSM (Ialomita Valley – Romania) (visualisation with program LISA Basic) ✓10\.

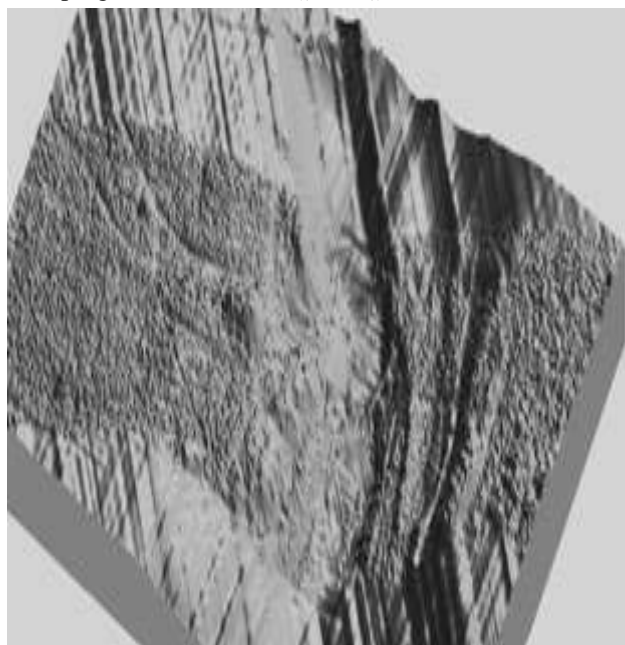


Fig. 10 DHM after filtering with program Rascor (Ialomita Valley – Romania) (visualisation with program LISA Basic) ✓9\.

IV CONCLUSION

Trying an automatic filtering of a DSM to obtain a DHM without considering the different classes of terrain, shows unsatisfactory. Especially areas of different terrain types or large buildings or forests.

The automatic filtering of a DSM to a DHM without respect of the different structure of the available classes is not leading to optimal results. Most terrain classes do show advantages if they are filtered individually ✓3\.

Very good results were achieved when using break lines for filtering the DSM to obtain DHM. Less points were removed from initial data in comparison with case in which break lines are not used ✓2\.

The example showed in this paper-work is suggestive.

The programs used (RASCOR and Lisa developed at IPI) are very good. The filtering and interpolation works very fast and in a simple to use interface. The results obtained with the programs are satisfactory when we are taking care of the above concluded listed points ✓8\.

The operator must have additional informations like an orthophoto or other aerial image of the area being filtered like, in order to set correctly the parameters for program RASCOR. Else, the results may be wrong just because of not knowing some details which are very important for the filter process ✓10\.

As a general conclusions, we must say that a Digital Height Model may be improved depending on each one imagination in mathematical methods or algoritms and additional other data or parameters joined with pure Lidar data, the procedure of filtering will remain a big topic of interest because it can never be left to complete automatisation. There will always be required the human operator to judge the result and by nature, humans will always try to improve it ✓10\.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I would like to thank to my supervisors of this project, Jacobsen Karsten and Christian Heipke for the valuable guidances advices and support. They inspired me greatly to work in this project. Their willingness to motivate me contributed tremendously to my projects.

REFERENCES:

- ✓1\ Jacobsen, K. 2001, *PC-Based Digital Photogrammetry*, UN/COSPAR ESA –Data Analysis and Image Processing Techniques, Damascus, 2001; volume 13 of “Seminars of the UN Programme of Space Applications, 2001”.
- ✓2\ Jacobsen, K. 2003, *RASCOR – Manual*, Institute for Photogrammetry GeoInformation Hannover, Germany.
- ✓3\ Jacobsen, K., Lohmann, P., 2003, *Segmented filtering of laser scanner DSMS*, ISPRS WG III/3 workshop „3-D reconstruction from airborne laserscanning and InSAR data“, Dresden 2003.
- ✓4\ Passini R., Betzner D., Jacobsen K., 2002, *Filtering of Digital Elevations Models*, ASPRS annual convention, Washington 2002.

✓5\ K. Kraus and N. Pfeifer 2002, *Advanced dtm generation from lidar data*, Institute of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing Vienna University of Technology.

✓6\ E.P. Baltsavias, 1999, *Airborne laser scanning: existing systems and firms and other resources*, Institute of Geodesy and Photogrammetry, ETH-Hoenggeberg, Zurich. ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry and Remote sensing 54, pag. 164-198.

✓7\ Yukihide Akiyama , 2000, *The advantages of high density airborne laser measurement*, Spatial Information Department, Working group V/1, International Archives of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing Vol. XXXIII, Part B4, Amsterdam 2000.

✓8\ D. Badea and K. Jacobsen 2003, Diploma thesis, *Filtering of a digital surface model with break line information*, Institut für Photogrammetrie und GeoInformation Hannover

✓9\ D. Badea 2004, Disertation thesis, *Filtering of a DSM*, Technical University of Civil Engineering Bucharest – Faculty of Geodesy

✓10\ D. Badea, K. Jacobsen, L. Turdeanu 2011, *Photogrammetric methods for obtaining the Digital Height Modell*, TUCEB – Faculty of Geodesy

Dragos Badea, Bucharest-Romania 1979, engineer from 2003 – Technical University of Civil Engineering Bucharest >Faculty of Geodesy<, Phd. from 2011 at the same university with specialisation in Photogrammetry.

He worked at the diploma thesis and Phd thesis in collaboration with Institute for Photogrammetry (IPI) Hannover. He actually occupies the position of Lecturer at Faculty of Geodesy in Bucharest. Research interests are mainly in Photogrammetry and Remotesensing.

Lecturer. Dr.-Ing. Dragos Badea is also scientific secretary of Romanian Society of Photogrammetry and Remotesensing and founding member of Geodetic Order from Romania.