



1 Preliminary Results of a Low-Cost Portable Terrestrial 2 LiDAR Based on ICP-SLAM Algorithms. Application to 3 Automatic Forest Digital Inventory

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10 **Abstract.** Traditional terrestrial forest inventory methods are being replaced by
11 forest monitoring strategies closely associated with the rise of remote sensors
12 such as Portable Terrestrial LiDAR (PTL). Off-the-shelf PTL devices produce
13 high-quality point clouds by applying SLAM (simultaneous location and map-
14 ping) algorithms supported by both global navigation satellite system (GNSS)
15 and inertial navigation system (INS) data. However, they are still excessively
16 expensive to allow widespread use by many users. This work aims to develop
17 and validate a low-cost backpack PTL system based on an Ouster OS0-32™ Li-
18 DAR. A new algorithm based on the iterative closest point (ICP) method was
19 applied to obtain the final point cloud. Neither GNSS data nor INS data were
20 used to generate the reconstructed point cloud. The suitability of the point cloud
21 produced to extract significant dendrometric attributes from the forest inventory
22 was evaluated in five square plots 25 m side of reforested Aleppo pine located in
23 “Sierra de María-Los Vélez” (Almería, Spain). These plots were previously
24 scanned with a Faro Focus3D X-330™ static terrestrial laser scanner (TLS). The
25 software UALtree was used to automatically extract tree location, tree height and
26 normal diameter from the PTL-derived point cloud, yielding, as expected, less
27 accurate results than those provided by TLS, mainly due to the high presence of
28 remaining noise in the PTL point cloud. These results are promising enough to
29 continue with this line of research towards obtaining a low-cost LiDAR mobile
30 forest mapping system based exclusively on ICP-SLAM approaches.

31 **Keywords:** Forest Inventory, Portable Terrestrial LiDAR, SLAM, ICP, Individ-
32 ual Tree Detection, Dendrometric Features.

33 1 Introduction

34 The continuous development of ground-based LiDAR systems has managed to digitize
35 forests at the centimeter level, also significantly increasing the precision, efficiency,
36 and quantity of products potentially achievable compared to traditional forest invento-
37 ries based on “manual” sampling procedures [1]. These ground-based systems are clas-
38 sified into two categories: terrestrial laser scanners (TLS) and the more-recently-devel-
39 oped portable terrestrial LiDAR (PTL).

40 TLS are stationary systems fixed on a tripod that present an invariant global coordi-
 41 nate system that allows averaging the laser range of different pulses at the same target
 42 point. This technique produces very accurate and well-reconstructed point clouds (PCs)
 43 from which dendrometric features can be conveniently extracted in the context of a
 44 tree-centric approach [2]. However, the occlusion effect due to trees/shrubs continues
 45 to limit the extraction of forest attributes at the plot level, forcing a less efficient multi-
 46 scan approach subject to registration errors [3].

47 PTL devices operate mounted on mobile platforms that move through the forest,
 48 which helps reduce the occlusion problems presented by single scan TLS systems [4].
 49 They use some form of a Simultaneous Localization and Mapping (SLAM) algorithm
 50 to reference laser distance measurements in 3D space while the device is moving and
 51 without the need for a global navigation satellite system (GNSS). By integrating SLAM
 52 algorithms into PTL systems, usually supported by GNSS and inertial navigation sys-
 53 tems (INS) data to increase their accuracy and robustness, foresters can obtain PCs as
 54 they walk, enabling real-time mapping in complex and changing forest landscapes. Off-
 55 the-shelf PTL devices produce high-quality point clouds, although they are still exces-
 56 sively expensive to allow widespread use by many users. Note that SLAM algorithms
 57 perform better when applied indoors, working poorly when applied outdoors and not
 58 counting on GNSS/INS data due to the complex and irregular features detected by the
 59 laser scanner [5].

60 This work aims to test a new low-cost backpack PTL system based on an Ouster
 61 OS0-32™ LiDAR to segment trees and extract some of their key dendrometric features,
 62 avoiding resorting to the PTL systems currently in the market whose cost would be four
 63 to six times higher. The final PC was reconstructed using an innovative and pure SLAM
 64 algorithm method without the support of often very expensive GNSS/INS data.

65 2 Materials and Methods

66 2.1 Study site and field data collection

67 The test was carried out in five forest plots located in the “Sierra de María-Los Vélez”
 68 Natural Park, north of the province of Almería (Spain). The plots had a square shape of
 69 25 m side and contained reforested stands of Aleppo pine (*Pinus halepensis* Mill.) with
 70 variable density, tree height and presence of shrubs and low vegetation (Table 1). This
 71 forest typology is very representative of Mediterranean forests.

72 **Table 1.** Dasonometric characteristics of the five reference plots. Number of trees (N), tree density
 73 (D), vegetation cover (VC), plot-level uniformity index (PH³50) (from 0.37 to 0.50 for homoge-
 74 neous plots), basal area (G), Lorey’s height (L_h), and mean slope (M_{slope}). (*) Homogeneous plot.

Reference plot	N	D (trees/ha)	VC (%)	PH ³ 50	G (m ² /ha)	L _h (m)	M _{slope} (°)
18A1P	34	544	55.17	0.30	26.31	7.45	12.77
16A2P	28	448	45.4	0.30	15.33	6.65	15.92
13A3P	21	336	37.32	0.27	10.55	6.68	12.63
13A1P	23	368	40.57	0.24	8.28	5.55	16.55
10B1P	18	288	51.69	0.38 (*)	24.32	10.57	9.61

75 The traditional inventory fieldwork was carried out in June 2021. It consisted of
76 locating the position and measuring the DBH (trunk diameter at 1.3 m from the ground)
77 of each tree. A pair of Emlid Reach RS2 GNSS RTK multiband receivers allowed the
78 precise location of each tree in the field to measure its DBH using a tape measuring
79 Tree height was measured on a high-resolution canopy height model derived from ac-
80 curate UAV image-based PCs.

81 The TLS fieldwork campaign using a *Faro*TM Focus3D X-330 device was conducted
82 in July 2021, applying a workflow fully described in [6]. The TLS PCs obtained in this
83 campaign were taken as reference to test the performance of the tested low-cost PTL.

84 The PTL fieldwork was accomplished on November 29, 2023. The low-cost back-
85 pack PTL system was based on an Ouster OS0-32TM LiDAR with 32 channels, ultra-
86 wide 90° vertical FOV and range of up to 75 m at 80% Lambertian reflectivity. The
87 backpack also consisted of a harness to secure the device to the user's back, an industrial
88 computer with a 2 TB hard drive to store data, and a 12V/26Ah rechargeable gel battery.
89 The system can be managed remotely using a simple Android smartphone connected to
90 the computer's WLAN and using the free "Mobile SSH" Android app to enter command
91 lines. The PTL trajectories followed a single parallel-line pattern, also trying to produce
92 a closed loop to reduce SLAM drift. The time taken to complete each plot ranged from
93 four to eight minutes. Five white target spheres (15cm diameter) located on 1m long
94 metal rods were distributed in each plot and used to georeferencing the final PC in the
95 Spanish geodetic datum.

96 The PTL PC reconstruction from raw data was faced by using the MODular Locali-
97 zation and mApping (MOLA) framework, initially presented in [7] and recently up-
98 dated with the novel ICP-SLAM module whose structure is briefly described next.

99 Range data from the LiDAR is processed by the vendor's ROS driver, which takes
100 individual points and packs them into "scans" covering a complete 360 degrees hori-
101 zontal field of view. Scans are then processed one by one, applying to them a configu-
102 rable pipeline defined with the open-source MP2P-ICP (multiprimitive to primitive)
103 C++ library. The main steps of this pipeline include: (1) undistort the incoming scan by
104 using the per-point timestamps to extrapolate the latest estimated sensor pose and ve-
105 locity (both linear and angular); (2) selectively remove points that are too close or too
106 far in order to avoid ICP artifacts trying to match moving objects as the person who is
107 carrying the sensor; (3) downsample the point cloud (one point per 1x1x1m voxel) to
108 alleviate the strongly uneven sampling of the scene by rotatory LiDARs; (4) optimiza-
109 tion of the current sensor pose via a custom ICP point-to-point algorithm implementa-
110 tion using robust loss functions against a local point cloud map; (5) update of the local
111 PC with a different (less decimated) version of the incoming scan.

112 We save the estimated SE(3) trajectory of the carried sensor along with a selected
113 subset of all original LiDAR scans (before entering the pipeline), which we call
114 keyframes. After the mapping session ends, those keyframes can be used to reconstruct
115 a denser PC (decimation with 5x5x5cm voxels) with a different MP2P-ICP pipeline,
116 leading to the results shown in the next sections.

117

118 **2.2 Point cloud processing and dendrometric features extraction**

119 The following workflow was applied to the TLS and PTL PCs:

120 1) The TLS and low-cost PTL PCs were georeferenced using the ETRS89 coordi-
 121 nates of the target spheres measured by GPS-RTK during fieldwork.

122 2) PC was subsampled using the ‘‘Spatial’’ method implemented in CloudCompare
 123 v2.12.0 (minimum space between points of 2 cm). Next, each PC was automatically
 124 classified into ground and non-ground points applying the algorithm TIN iterative ap-
 125 proach implemented into Agisoft Metashape using the following setting parameters:
 126 cell size = 10 m, distance = 0.3 m, and angle = 30°.

127 3) UALtree, a Matlab® software developed by our research group, was used to au-
 128 tomatically obtain a prior tree segmentation from which to extract tree location, tree
 129 height and DBH. A full description of this software can be found in [6].

130 4) Tree detection accuracy was addressed by matching the trees recorded in the field
 131 to the trees extracted from each plot. The closest field tree within a 3 m search radius
 132 was matched to each UALtree detected tree. Based on the matching results, recall (r),
 133 precision (p), and F1-score ($F1 = (2*r*p)/(r+p)$) were computed. Tree height and DBH
 134 estimates accuracy were evaluated by applying some error statistics (Tables 3 and 4) to
 135 each pair of observed values (field data) and estimates (automatically extracted by
 136 UALtree) for each matched tree. Residuals were obtained by subtracting the observed
 137 H or DBH from the estimated H or DBH.

138 3 Results

139 **Table 2.** Tree detection assessment for Faro Focus3D X-330™ and low-cost PTL PCs.

Reference plot	Faro Focus3D			Low-cost PTL		
	Precision	Recall	F1-score	Precision	Recall	F1-score
18A1P	100%	100%	100%	96.55%	82.35%	88.89%
16A2P	92.31%	85.71%	88.89%	96.15%	89.28%	92.59%
13A3P	90%	85.71%	87.80%	100%	85.71%	92.31%
13A1P	90%	78.26%	83.72%	85%	73.91%	79.07%
10B1P	90%	100%	94.74%	80%	88.89%	84.21%
Average	93.59%	94.41%	93.78%	91.54%	84.03%	87.41%

140 **Table 3.** Accuracy of the estimate of tree height (H) according to Mean error, Median error,
 141 RMSE, relative RMSE (RMSE/mean observed H), and Pearson correlation coefficient (r).

Reference plot	Faro Focus3D					Low-cost PTL				
	Mean (m)	Median (m)	RMSE (m)	Relative RMSE	r	Mean (m)	Median (m)	RMSE (m)	Relative RMSE	r
18A1P	0.10	0.22	0.57	8.26%	0.8817	-0.12	0.10	0.84	11.97%	0.6153
16A2P	0.37	0.37	0.49	7.69%	0.9532	0.44	0.52	0.67	10.29%	0.8853
13A3P	0.32	0.39	0.43	6.89%	0.9750	0.25	0.46	0.79	13.04%	0.7655
13A1P	0.38	0.30	0.47	9.05%	0.9701	0.56	0.43	0.65	12.24%	0.9592
10B1P	0.21	0.27	0.55	5.25%	0.8731	-1.76	-1.84	2.12	20.31%	-0.0557

142 **Table 4.** Accuracy of the estimate of DBH (cm) according to Mean error, Median error, RMSE,
 143 relative RMSE (RMSE/mean observed DBH), and Pearson correlation coefficient (r).

Reference plot	Faro Focus3D					Low-cost PTL				
	Mean (cm)	Median (cm)	RMSE (cm)	Relative RMSE	r	Mean (cm)	Median (cm)	RMSE (cm)	Relative RMSE	r
18A1P	-0.05	-0.41	2.03	10.44%	0.9030	-2.80	-3.26	4.29	21.85%	0.6409
16A2P	0.23	0.02	2.37	14.09%	0.7562	0.86	0.04	2.76	16.44%	0.5161
13A3P	0.84	1.00	2.51	14.34%	0.8975	2.97	3.06	4.46	26.02%	0.8137
13A1P	1.71	0.75	5.81	39.36%	0.5871	4.16	3.82	6.52	41.70%	0.4703
10B1P	-0.14	-0.24	1.55	5.40%	0.9692	-0.54	0.62	4.10	14.12%	0.6714

144 **4 Discussion**

145 Faro™ Scene© software (V7.1) was unable to automatically detect the georeferencing
 146 spheres in the low-cost PTL PCs. Therefore, a Matlab code based on geometric and
 147 reflectivity features was developed to detect at least three spheres in each plot and apply
 148 a 3D rigid transformation from local system to global ETRS89. The maximum georef-
 149 erencing error (RMSE) along X, Y and Z was 11.05 cm, 19.37 cm and 12.71 cm.

150 As can be seen in Table 2, PTL PCs provided better precision than recall, i.e. 91.54%
 151 and 84.03% on average, respectively, pointing to a scenario of low over-segmentation
 152 (commission error) and slightly high under-segmentation (omission error). In any case,
 153 the results obtained from the PTL PCs were quite good compared to those provided by
 154 TLS, although the less noisy TLS PCs allowed the omission error to be significantly
 155 reduced to average values below 6%. F1-score average results for the two types of PCs
 156 were only about six percentage points apart. Plot 13A1P, with greater slope and hetero-
 157 geneity (Table 1), showed the lowest recall ratio for both kind of PCs.

158 Table 3 shows the results of tree height estimates accuracy. In this case, the results
 159 extracted from the TLS and PTL PCs were significantly different, with an average rel-
 160 ative RMSE of 7.43% and 13.57%, respectively. Note that a significant part of the error
 161 was centered on plot 10B1P (up to 20.21% of the relative RMSE), which was a fairly
 162 homogeneous plot with trees very similar in height (Table 1). These homogeneous trees
 163 caused clear occlusion problems among themselves along the PTL trajectory, causing
 164 an average error of up to -1.76 m (the apex of the tree was not visible) and a Pearson
 165 correlation coefficient of -0.05. A solution to this problem would be to resort to a tra-
 166 jectory that follows a double parallel line-pattern. This would increase to approximately
 167 double the time needed to collect data from a plot, but the area of the plot would be
 168 systematically covered and all trees in the plot would be covered on all sides.

169 It is widely known that PTL devices exhibit biases in DBH extraction. Table 4 de-
 170 picts that DBH values automatically extracted from TLS and PTL PCs presented aver-
 171 age relative RMSE of 16.73% and 24.03%, respectively, usually overestimating the
 172 actual values. This was due to the presence of low branches and understory vegetation
 173 that was not adequately filtered out by the UALtree software. This situation was very
 174 evident in plot 13A1P. Furthermore, a significant component of the error in the PTL

175 PCs can be attributed to the presence of a very strong noise that converted a ring of
 176 points (visible in TLS data) into a disk of points that it did not even define a clear circle.

177 **5 Conclusions**

178 The results presented in this work proved that the proposed ICP-SLAM algorithm and
 179 the low-cost PTL hardware system are able to construct spatially coherent point clouds
 180 from which to extract relevant forest information at tree level. The performance in seg-
 181 menting trees can be considered quite good and close to that provided by high-cost TLS
 182 systems. However, the noisy nature of the SLAM-reconstructed PTL PC made it more
 183 difficult to accurately extract tree height and DBH. While tree height estimates could
 184 be improved by simply using a denser trajectory pattern to avoid occlusions in very
 185 homogeneous forest plots, improving DBH estimates would require working in at least
 186 two directions: i) Improving the extraction algorithm by trying other approaches. ii)
 187 Reducing the noise of the point cloud reconstructed from the ICP-SLAM algorithm by
 188 exploring other local map structures, e.g. surfels (“surface elements”), which implicitly
 189 average out the noise from LiDAR points.

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