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# **Oskarshamn site investigation**

# **Aerial photography and airborne laser scanning Laxemar – Simpevarp**

## **The 2005 campaign**

Mats Nyborg, SwedPower AB

December 2005

#### **Svensk Kärnbränslehantering AB**

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Permission for distribution approved by the Security Officer, National Land Survey, Sweden 2005-12-20.

This report concerns a study which was conducted for SKB. The conclusions and viewpoints presented in the report are those of the author and do not necessarily coincide with those of the client.

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# **Abstract**

This document reports the data gained by the 2005 aerial photography and airborne laser scanning campaign of the Laxemar – Simpevarp area, which is one of the activities performed within the site investigation at Oskarshamn.

The objective of the work was to

- i) acquire aerial photographs from low flying altitude for the area in question,
- ii) acquire extremely detailed data on terrain height using airborne laser scanning technique,
- iii)using the aerial photographs to produce a digital mosaic of orthophotos of the area in question with a pixel size of 10 cm,
- iv)using the ranging data from the laser to produce a high resolution continuous digital terrain model of the area in question.

In this report the methodology and processing together with quality assessments of aerial photography and LIDAR technique is presented.

# **Sammanfattning**

SKB bedriver platsundersökning för ett framtida djupförvar för använt kärnbränsle i Oskarshamn. Undersökningarnas genomförande styrs i grunden av ett generellt program /SKB 2001a/ och platsspecifika program för Oskarshamn /SKB 2001b, 2004/. Mer detaljerad styrning av undersökningarnas genomförande och omfattning ges i projektplanen för platsundersökning i Oskarshamn. Föreliggande aktivitet tillhör WBS-nummer 1.1.2.10 i projektets operativa struktur.

Aktiviteten omfattar flygmätning med laserskanning (LIDAR) och flygfotografering över delområde Laxemar och delar av Simpevarp, se Figure 1-1. Aktiviteten har resulterat i en högupplöst terrängmodell baserad på laserdatat, orienterade flygbilder fotogrammetrisk bildtolkning och ortofoto i färg. Dessa resultat utgör tillsammans med markgeofysiska mätresultat ett detaljerat underlag för analys och beskrivning av bergmassans spröda strukturer mellan större deformationszoner. Materialet skall i ett första steg användas för fokusering i Laxemar (sommaren 2005) och därefter i den fortsatta platsmodelleringen. Det begränsade området över Simpevarp är också avsett för kommunens planarbete.

# **Contents**



# <span id="page-5-0"></span>**1 Introduction**

This document reports the data gained by the 2005 aerial photography and airborne laser scanning campaign of the Laxemar – Simpevarp area, which is one of the activities performed within the site investigation at Oskarshamn. The work was carried out in accordance to activity plan SKB AP PS 400-05-035. In Table 1-1 are all controlling documents for performing this activity listed. Both activity plan and method descriptions are SKB's internal controlling documents.

All data acquisition and processing was carried out by Swedpower AB, Sweden and BlomInfo AB, Sweden, during the spring of 2005. SwedPower AB also performed project coordination and guidance.

The primary purpose of the work was to produce terrain information for detailed lineament detection to further enhance previous work on lineament analysis. The study area is shown in Figure 1-1.

The data produced comprise topographic data as airborne-borne LIDAR data, a terrain model at 0.25 m spatial resolution, and aerial photographs as orthoimagery at 0.1 m spatial resolution.

The work was carried out in different stages. First, raw data were acquired in April 2005. Following this, each data set was processed separately producing method-specific terrain information. The third stage, which involved SwedPower in reference to data processing, involved the compilation of the LIDAR data into a high-resolution terrain model. This stage in the procedure aimed specifically to produce data suitable for further lineament studies.

### **Table 1‑1. Controlling documents for the performance of the activity.**





*Figure 1‑1. Map showing the inventory area. The area comprises about 19 km2 .*

# <span id="page-7-0"></span>**2 Objective and scope**

Lineaments are line features or patterns on earth's surface that reflect geological structure. To detect and quantify properties regarding lineaments is an important part of the SKB site investigation program since they may trace deformation zones in the bedrock. Referring to SKB Method Description for Lineament Analysis /SKB 2001c/, two data sources may serve as major input for lineament detection and analysis as complement to other geological and geophysical data.

- Optical imagery (satellite imagery or aerial imagery) for visual interpretation and ground texturing.
- Terrain models for topographical interpretation and ground texturing.

Upcoming work on detailed lineament analysis within the Oskarshamn area will focus at a scale where already available terrain models and aerial imagery /Wiklund, 2002/ cannot meet requirements regarding resolution and accuracy. In order to meet these new requirements the objective of this present work was to

- v) acquire aerial photographs from low flying altitude for the area in question,
- vi) acquire extremely detailed data on terrain height using airborne laser scanning technique,
- vii) using the aerial photographs to produce a digital mosaic of orthophotos of the area in question with a pixel size of 10 cm,
- viii) using the ranging data from the laser to produce a high resolution continuous digital terrain model of the area in question.

In this report the methodology and processing together with quality assessments of aerial photography and LIDAR technique is presented.

## **2.1 Terminology**

An orthophoto is an aerial photograph with constant scale all over the image area. In a perspective image i.e an uncorrected aerial photograph, objects closer to the camera are depicted with a larger scale than distant objects. These differences are eliminated in orthophotos by reprojecting the imagery, using a digital elevation model.

Light Detection and Ranging (LIDAR) is a scanning and ranging laser system that determines the range of the terrain from the instrument. The instrument is in this case mounted in a small airplane. This elevation data is generated at the rate of thousands of measurement points per second, with absolute vertical accuracies of up to 10 cm**.** After hitting the tree-canopy the laser beam finds a hole between the foliage and reaches the ground. The returns are registered and a dataset is created instantly.

# <span id="page-8-0"></span>**3 Equipment**

## **3.1 Description of equipment**

All acquisition of data was performed under the supervision of SwedPower AB, Sweden, and BlomInfo AB, Sweden.

Blom Geomatics AS, Norway carried out the LIDAR capture including all sub processing of the laser data to discrete data points. FM-Kartta Oy, Finland, was subcontracted for the aerial photography mission and the processing of the uncorrected imagery to orthoimagery.

FM-Kartta Oy and Blom Geomatics AS both have permission to operate aerial photography and laserscanning in Sweden. The Swedish Civil Aviation Authority has issued relevant permissions valid for mapping purposes in Sweden.

The LIDAR flight was flown with a Piper Navajo PA 310 airplane (NL-AEY). The laser used was an Optech ALTM3100 [\(www.optech.ca](http://www.optech.ca)). The Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU) used onboard the airplane was a Litton LN-200 A1 ([www.ngnavsys.com](http://www.ngnavsys.com)). The GPS used was an Ashtech Z-Surveyor 2-frequency receiver ([www.ashtech.com\)](http://www.ashtech.com).

The aerial imagery was acquired with the same type of airplane as the LIDAR acquisition (NL-NAB). The camera used was a Leica RC30 equipped with a 153 mm lens (camera id#13311).

The aerial triangulation was made using the Match-AT software (INPHO GmbH – [www.inpho.de](http://www.inpho.de)). Orthorectification and mosaicing was performed using the OrthoBox software (INPHO GmbH – [www.inpho.de](http://www.inpho.de)).

Processing of LIDAR data was made using the TerraScan 2.20 software with support of Terrasolid/Terramodel/TerraMatch (Terrasolid Oy, Finland – [www.terrasolid.fi\)](http://www.terrasolid.fi).

Transformations related to projection parameters have been performed using the Gtrans 3.51 software package [\(www.lantmateriet.se](http://www.lantmateriet.se)).

# <span id="page-9-0"></span>**4 Execution**

Light Detection and Ranging (LIDAR) is a scanning and ranging laser system that basically determines the range of the terrain or the target from the instrument. Laser radar depends on knowing the speed of light, approximately 0.3 m per nanosecond. Using that, it is possible to calculate how far a returning light has travelled to and from an object. Airborne laser mapping use a combination of three technologies; a laser rangefinder (LIDAR), a highly accurate inertial reference systems (INS), and the global positioning satellite system (GPS). By integrating these subsystems in to a single instrument mounted in a small aeroplane, it is possible to rapidly produce accurate digital topographic maps of the terrain beneath the flight path of the aircraft.

The laser scanner is mounted (in this case) in an aircraft and emits infrared laser beams at a high frequency. The scanner records the difference in time between the emission of the laser pulses and the reception of the reflected signal. A mirror is mounted in front of the laser. The mirror rotates and causes the laser pulses to sweep at an angle, back and forth along a line. The position and orientation of the aircraft is determined using a phase differenced kinematic GPS. A GPS is located in the aircraft and several ground stations (differential GPS) are located within the area to be mapped. The orientation of the aircraft is controlled and determined by the INS. The round trip travel times of the laser pulses, from the aircraft to the ground, are measured and recorded along with the position and orientation of the aircraft at the time of the transmission of each pulse. The GPS provides the coordinates of the laser system at the time the pulses are sent and the INS system basically determines the  $\omega$ , $\Phi$ ,  $\kappa$ , i.e. the aircraft tilt. After the flight the vectors from the aircraft to the ground are combined with the aircraft position at the time of each measurement and the three dimensional X, Y, Z coordinates of each ground point are computed.

A very useful feature in LIDAR ranging is the availability of multiple returns. Because the frequency of the pulses the LIDAR sends out is often in the vicinity of 100,000 pulses per second, multiple returns from the same direction is possible. The laser spot sometimes hits more than one object on its trek to the ground. For example, it may pass through a vegetation canopy, touching leaves or branches before finding its way to the ground. LIDAR systems are typically capable of delivering just the "last return" when we only need data on the ground surface. When data about tree and/or vegetation heights is required, then we can simultaneously collect all "first returns." Providing both sets of data, as in this case, allows users to view areas both with and without the existing vegetation, without having to fly projects twice.

Classification of laser data is an important processing step towards feature extraction, tree identification and 3D reconstruction. The last return is regarded to indicate ground level. In reference to present work, the laser data cloud has only been classified into ground points and non-ground points. The ground points constitute a basic class for which classification is straightforward when correctly interpreted. All points that are close to (i.e. within a given range) the surface given by the lowest terrain height are classified as ground points. Care need to be taken when analysing data related to local depressions such as trenches etc. The remaining data can be further classified as e.g. buildings, vegetation, power lines etc.

## <span id="page-10-0"></span>**4.1 Data acquisition**

### **4.1.1 The LIDAR acquistion**

The LIDAR flight was flown on April 23, 2005, with a Piper Navajo PA 310 airplane. The weather conditions were very good. The flight altitude was approximately 900 m above ground (see table below). Flight lines were in both north-south and east-west directions and separated with a distance that resulted in a number of overlaps for the same area.

As with any LIDAR system, the accuracy of range measurements decline from nadir to the outside edge of the scan line. The greater the sensor's Field of View (FOV), the greater amount of error is present. To meet the requirements of a high accuracy, the sensor field of view have therefore been limited to 17-degrees (half angle). For dense ground cover, vegetation, the flying altitude is low with a smaller FOV and a higher scan frequency. This provides denser data, a smaller laser footprint for canopy penetration (more energy per unit area) while maximizing the likelihood of laser pulses reaching the ground.

The overall accuracy of the LIDAR data will generally be a function of the system calibration, flight parameters, atmospheric conditions, and GPS satellite constellation during the actual data acquisition.



### **Table 4-1. LIDAR acquisition parameters.**

### **4.1.2 The aerial imagery acquisition**

The aerial imagery was acquired on April 27, 2005, with a Piper Navajo PA 310 airplane (NL-NAB). The weather conditions were excellent. The flight altitude was approximately 1,000 m above ground (see table below). Approximate image scale was 1:6,700. Flying direction was east-west with an overlap between imagery in flying direction corresponding to 60% and a sidelap of 30%. Each photo has an approximate coverage of  $1,500 \text{ m} \times 1,500 \text{ m}$ .

Please find camera calibration protocol attached in Appendix 3.





<span id="page-11-0"></span>

*Figure 4-1. The position of each camera exposure as sampled by the in-flight GPS system.*



*Figure 4-2. The aerial photography photoindex.*

## **4.2 Execution of field work**

On April 25, 2005 ground control checkpoints was measured by the consultant company Geocon AB. Measurements was conducted both for the acquisition of aerial imagery and for the LIDAR data collection.

The distribution of control points (GCP) in reference to the aerial photography is visualised in Figure 4-3. Each GCP have been signalled using a 0.40-m wide wooden board painted in white colour.



*Figure 4-3. Position of signals for aerial photography. Red dot indicate position of signal. The numbering is in accordance to Table 4-3 below.*

The distribution of calibration measurements regarding the LIDAR acquisition is presented in Figure 4-4.

Name	Northing	Easting	<b>Elevation</b>	<b>Feature code</b>
1	6364662.316	1549971.58	$-0.183$	<b>GCP</b>
2	6366755.794	1548977.278	13.531	<b>GCP</b>
3	6364871.714	1546374.419	17.197	<b>GCP</b>
4	6365839.996	1546484.744	7.03	<b>GCP</b>
5	6364744.044	1547003.499	9.287	<b>GCP</b>
6	6364826.278	1548871.874	6.509	<b>GCP</b>
7	6365854.828	1548839.134	13.919	<b>GCP</b>
8	6366891.118	1546438.885	24.873	<b>GCP</b>
9	6368120.567	1546397.22	16.668	<b>GCP</b>
10	6368975.868	1546439.444	11.65	<b>GCP</b>
11	6367992.463	1548774.67	9.322	<b>GCP</b>
12	6368907.975	1547030.378	16.834	<b>GCP</b>
13	6368980.596	1548811.658	3.336	<b>GCP</b>
14	6365374.894	1551728.038	0.75	<b>GCP</b>
15	6365326.026	1552329.168	2.015	<b>GCP</b>
16	6366172.658	1552779.373	1.399	<b>GCP</b>
17	6366817.532	1550597.553	0.587	<b>GCP</b>
18	6367980.752	1550830.287	0.432	<b>GCP</b>
19	6366908.324	1553031.654	5.954	<b>GCP</b>
20	6369008.005	1550648.622	3.981	<b>GCP</b>
21	6366917.409	1553290.883	4.187	<b>GCP</b>

**Table 4-3. List of ground control points in reference to aerial photography.**



*Figure 4-4. Positions of calibration measurements during field work in reference to the LIDAR acquisitions. The locations 1, 2, 4 and 5 are measurements along profiles. The approximate* length of each profile is 50 m. The number 3 location is located in a flat area where calibration measurements have been conducted on a grid basis. The size of the grid is 50  $m \times 50$  m and *contains 19 measurements.*

Mismatch between the survey data and LIDAR data can generally be attributed to either misalignments to either the inertial measurements or scanner offset or scale factors. Systematic error within the airborne GPS aircraft trajectory occasionally occurs and generally involves a vertical shift in the solution. In addition to an initial formal system calibration, field quality control measurements have been employed to verify the system pitch, roll, heading, scale, and offset calibration. Corrections for the IMU, pitch, roll, heading, and offset have been calculated and applied to the data to correct for the misalignments. By analyzing the flights over the open flat area, adjustments have been applied to the calibrated scale factor.

The ground control checkpoints were imported over the LIDAR flights to verify that the scanned data fits the terrain. After corrections the LIDAR data have been reprocessed and verified to be in calibration. For the final product, the mean difference between flight data and survey data is 0.001 m with an associated standard deviation of 0.068 m.

A detailed report regarding the LIDAR calibration results has been added in Appendix 2.

# <span id="page-14-0"></span>**4.3 Data handling/post processing**

### **4.3.1 The processing of aerial imagery to orthophoto**

The workflow of aerial photography can be summarized in three steps; image acquisition, photogrammetric processing, and product output (HMK-FO).

The aerial film must be scanned to create a digital image. Once scanned, the digital image can be imported into a digital photogrammetric system. Obtaining the optimal pixel size (or scanning density) is often a trade-off between capturing maximum image information and the digital storage burden. Within this work the aerial film was scanned using 14 microns, which results in a file size with approx 16,400 rows and 16,400 columns (for each photograph). With 24 bits per pixel and no image compression, this file occupies about 800 megabytes. There were 47 exposures during flight, which gives total amount of scanned image data to approx 37.6 gigabyte. Triangulation establishes the geometry of the camera relative to objects on the ground. Figure 4-6 illustrates the triangulation workflow.

The interior orientation establishes the geometry inside the camera or sensor. For aerial photographs, fiducial marks are measured on the digital imagery and camera calibration information is entered. The final step is to calculate the exterior orientation, which establishes the location and attitude (rotation angles) of the camera during the time of image acquisition. Ground control points aid this process.



*Figure 4-5. The workflow of aerial photography.*

An image with an orthographic projection is one for which every point looks as if an observer were looking straight down at it, along a line of sight that is orthogonal (perpendicular) to the ground. Orthorectification takes the raw digital image and applies an elevation model (DTM) and triangulation results to create an orthoimage (Figure 4-7).

Once created the digital imagery are colour and contrasted balanced and finally mosaicked with adjacent orthoimages to form the final product output.



*Figure 4-6. The triangulation workflow.*



*Figure 4-7. Orthorectification work flow.*

### <span id="page-16-0"></span>**4.3.2 The processing of LIDAR data to a terrain model**

The derived LIDAR data are to be considered as discrete data points. Hence, not forming a continuous dataset. A digital elevation model (DEM) is a continuous dataset, a grid or raster in the northing/easting plane. To each raster point (pixel), there is a height attached.

Different types of grids or "images" can be produced depending on the selection of value for the cells. The nearest neighbour method is useful for converting regularly spaced, or almost regularly spaced X,Y,Z data to a grid file. Since the laser data cloud lie on a nearly complete grid with few missing holes, this method is useful for filling in the holes.

Resampling to a continuous terrain model have been done by direct insertion of laser data in the cells of a grid structure and post-process the grid in order to fill empty cells using a nearest neighbour technique. In nearest neighbour, essentially each grid cell of estimation becomes equal in value to its nearest neighbour. In this work we have used a grid with cell size of 0.25 m  $\times$  0.25 m. The 0.25 m resolution was chosen because it gave an expected frequency of at least one measurement per cell assuming that the laser measurements were evenly distributed over the field plot. Another reason the gridsize chosen was the diameter of the laser beam.

In addition to terrain elevation modern LIDAR systems usually also measure the "intensity" of the reflected laser pulse, see Figure 4-8. The intensity means the power density within the laser pulse. As the beam widens with distance and due to attenuation of the light in the atmosphere, power density decreases with distance. This information may be used to produce a monochromatic "intensity image" of the survey area. The intensity image will typically resemble a panchromatic aerial photograph. The intensity data constitute an excellent source of additional information that together with the elevation data provides good input to feature extraction and 3D reconstruction tasks.



*Figure 4-8. To the left a LIDAR intensity image is viewed, the corresponding terrain model is viewed to the right.*

## <span id="page-17-0"></span>**4.4 Analyses**

### **4.4.1 LIDAR data**

### *Point cloud density*

One expectation of the LIDAR ranging measurements was the possibility to derive a continuous coverage of ground data not only for open areas but also in forested areas. The number of measurements per area unit to reach ground have therefore been analysed for different land cover conditions.

A simple land cover classification has been performed using the derived orthophotos, delineating the study area into two main classes (1) areas dominated by open conditions (2) areas dominated by forest conditions. A third class was also produced, because of shadowing effects within the imagery. The shadows normally indicate open conditions, ie. it may be regarded as an extension of the open land cover class. An example of this classification is shown in Figure 4-9.

The density of LIDAR measurements has been calculated on basis of number of data point per square meter.



*Figure 4-9. A classified orthophoto is shown to the lower left. The greenish colour indicates areas mainly forested. Yellow colour indicate open conditions, while brownish colour indicate shadowed areas considered as mostly open. The image in the lower right is the true-colour orthoimage of the same area.*

**Table 4-4. Number of data point per square meter.**

Open conditions	5.8 points per $m2$
Forested conditions	2.9 points per $m2$

In Figure 4-11 a plot of the distance of separation between each sample to its closest neighbour sample is viewed. All pairs of sample measurements have been counted and classified into groups dependent on the distance between the samples. Please note that already at distances less than 0.5 m an extreme amount of data pairs are present. This indicates the very high density of data points within the LIDAR data cloud.

### *Point terrain height representativity*

Two important questions regarding the data needs to be answered as part of a quality check,

- Does the acquired height data resolve major elements of the terrain i.e. from a statistical point of view; is there a remaining variability at a scale smaller than that of the sampling distance?
- Does the data show a reasonable spatial continuity?



*Figure 4-10. The LIDAR data cloud for an open area. The small black dots represents* measurements classified as ground hits. The superimposed grid (in red) has a size of 1 m  $\times$  1 m. *The number of measurements per square meter may directly be appreciated. The image in the background is a part of the produced 10 cm orthophoto.*



*Figure 4-11. In the drawing above the number of pairs of data have been plotted against the distance of separation between points. Y-axis represents the number of pairs found within a specific distance interval and the X-axis represents distance in centimetres. The input data to this plot represents a sub sample of the complete dataset and comprise 2,013,768 data points.*

First we need to emphasize some additional practical matters about laserscanning. The size of projection of the laser beam on the ground is important when discussing the spatial resolution of the data. The laser pulse is defined by three parameters; length, width (or diameter) and intensity. The width of the laser pulse (ie. the diameter of the laser beam) depends on the beam divergence and the distance from the sensor. The size of objects that is supposed to be resolved need to be in parity to this on-the-ground width. It should be noted that the diameter of the beam and the grid size of the terrain model is of the same order; 0.25 m.

Spatial patterns are very important characteristics of geographic measurements. It is the salient property for texture recognition. Spatial continuity of the terrain height observations therefore plays a key role in studying the representatives of LIDAR point observations.

Geostatistics is a collection of statistical methods for the analysis of spatially separated data. The spatial relationship between observations at the various locations can be explored by variogram analysis.

A variogram summarises the relationship between differences in pairs of measurements and the distance of the corresponding points from each other. Variogram relates variability to spatial separation and provides a concise and unbiased description of the scale (operational scale) and the pattern of spatial variability. To estimate average differences in terrain height as a function of the distance separating points, we group pairs of points by their separation distances. At very close distances variability is low, and as the separation distance increases, so does variability.

A characteristic feature of the variogram is the typical rise of variability towards some constant value, the sill. The sill is the total variability level at which the variogram value becomes constant. The range is the distance at which we reach the total amount of variability. If it appears that the variogram does not reach zero variance at zero distance, we may talk of the apparent intercept as the nugget variance. The nugget is a representation of error or variability at separations smaller than the sample distance. Further, the nugget variance of variograms may be used to estimate the uncertainty of the measurements (e.g. caused by remaining signal fluctuation not present within the data). If the nugget value approaches the sill, there is no redundancy between any of the samples, and none of the samples is any closer to the point being estimated than any other, in terms of statistical distance. The result would be a simple average of the available data with a complete lack of spatial correlation.

An example of a typical variogram showing spatial correlation has the shape shown in Figure 4-12.

From the resolution point of view the most interesting behaviour of the variogram is at short distances between data points. However, the sample variogram cannot provide direct information on distances shorter than the minimum spacing between the sample data. Of practical reasons we therefore talk about the *apparent* intercept to the ordinate, when extrapolated back to zero distance, which then indicates the variance remaining at lags smaller than that of the sampling distance. This in turn depends on variance associated to a small-scale variability not measured during data sampling.

In Figure 4-12 the spatial continuity of the LIDAR data has been plotted. The left diagram shows the overall continuity for distances up to 1,000 m of separation. The beforehand expected overall variance of the whole sample equals  $21.83 \text{ m}^2$  (Table 4-5), and represents the variability expected if all samples were independent, showing spatial correlation. The observed variability lies below the overall variance until about 600 m, thus indicating a strong spatial continuity. In Figure 4-13 the variogram to the right shows spatial continuity at close range, distance of separation less than 5 m. When extrapolated back to zero distance, the variogram clearly approach zero variance indicating that almost no variability exists at distances less than minimum sampling distance. However, this conclusion need to be related to that the footprint of the laser beam (the diameter of the laser beam on the ground) is of the same order as the gridsize of 0.25 m.



*Figure 4-12. The variogram.*

<b>Summary statistics</b>				
Number of observations	48,384			
Range	27.25			
Midrange	18.635			
Minimum	5.01			
$25%$ -tile	14.42			
Median	18.04			
75%-tile	21.2			
Maximum	32.26			
Average	17.8008			
<b>Standard Deviation</b>	4.67228			
Variance	21.8302			
Coef. Of Variation	0.262475			
Coef. Of Skewness	0.0962951			

**Table 4-5. Summary statistics of sample data.**



*Figure 4-13. The spatial continuity of the LIDAR data described using variograms. The variogram has been calculated using a total of 48,384 measurement points subsampled from the complete dataset.*

# <span id="page-22-0"></span>**5 Results**

## **5.1 Overall quality of product**

The acquisition of aerial photographs and following processing are in accordance to the recommendations stated in the notifications given by the National Land Survey of Sweden, HMK-FO, in all relevant parts.

FM-kartta Oy, Finland, who performed the actual aerial photography mission and the processing of the uncorrected imagery to orthoimagery, is certified according to ISO 9001:2000 (certificate number 161094A).

## **5.2 Aerial imagery – orthophoto**

### **5.2.1 Aerial imagery and orthophoto deliverables**

The deliverables in reference to aerial photographs and produced orthophoto mosaic comprise the following



### **Table 5-1. Aerial photography deliverables.**

The orthophoto mosaic of the complete area have, of practical reasons related to the size of the digital output, been subdivided according to Figure 5-1. After subsectioning the mosaic consist of 91 datasets, each with coverage of 800 m  $\times$  800 m.

The naming convention of all subsectioned datasets is based on the geographical position. The name of the dataset 6364850n1551850e.tif refers to the centre coordinate of the pixel situated in the southwest corner of the image, ie. a northing coordinate of 6364850 m and an easting coordinate of  $1551850$  m (RT90  $2.5gV$  0;-15).

<span id="page-23-0"></span>

*Figure 5-1. The subdivision of the orthophotomosaic superimposedon the derived mosaic.*

# **5.3 LIDAR data**

### **5.3.1 LIDAR deliverables**

The complete scanning results have been stored in Terramodel internal format.

Because LIDAR produces extremely dense data that requires a tremendous amount of storage and processing power, the data is usually reduced. However, in this present work no reduction of data has occurred.

The raw LIDAR point cloud data is derived in the SWEREF99 UTM 33 reference system using the GRS 1980 ellipsoidal model. All subsequent processing have been carried out in this projection to avoid introducing errors. Finally the data have been translated into the target map projection (RT90/RH 70 2.5 gV 0:-15) through the Gtrans software package.

The LIDAR deliverables specifically include data formatted in a space separated ASCII file column format in which all aboveground features have been removed. The complete scanning results including aboveground objects are delivered in Terramodel format (Terrasolid Oy, Finland).

The ASCII datasets delivered consist of a height reading per each measured point together with an intensity reading. Each line refers to one measurement, without any header. An example of a dataset is shown in Table 5-1. First column is the easting coordinate, second column is the northing coordinate, third column the height measurement in the Swedish RH70 height system and the fourth column is the signal strength.

1546679.300	6364989.590	13.510	10.7	
1546679.460	6364987.530	13.130	8.9	
1546679.510	6364986.840	12.940	0.3	
1546680.080	6364987.140	13.040	1.7	
1546680.010	6364987.830	13.310	8.8	
1546679.970	6364988.510	13.350	8.2	
1546679.920	6364989.190	13.490	6.2	
1546679.870	6364989.870	13.640	8.3	
1546679.820	6364990.550	13.780	8.3	
1546679.770	6364991.230	13.630	9.3	
1546679.720	6364991.910	13.680	9.2	
1546679.680	6364992.590	13.620	9.0	
1546679.620	6364993.270	13.980	6.9	
1546679.570	6364993.970	14.170	7.5	
1546679.520	6364994.650	14.240	7.9	
1546679.470	6364995.330	14.290	7.0	
1546679.470	6365005.600	14.810	0.2	
1546680.360	6364993.350	13.910	9.3	
1546680.410	6364992.670	13.740	9.9	
1546680.490	6364991.300	14.060	6.0	
1546681.600	6364985.180	11.990	2.7	
1546681.560	6364985.860	11.940	6.2	
1546681.240	6364989.290	13.760	3.0	
1546681.010	6364992.690	13.820	10.1	
1546680.970	6364993.370	13.810	9.4	
1546680.810	6364995.420	14.180	0.5	

**Table 5-1. An example of a LIDAR ASCII data set.**

The subdivision of the ASCII-datasets follows a system shown in Figure 5-2. Each data tile is numbered from west to east starting in the lower left corner of the study area. The file type is \*.enzi (enzi stands for Easting, Northing, Z terrain heght, and Intensity). The dataset naming convention used, is based on this simple numbering with the prefix oskarshamn added (example oskarshamn000042.enzi). In Appendix 1, summary statistics for each image tile is listed.

### *Terrain model*

The gridded terrain model is delivered in the same subsectioning system as the ortophoto mosaic. The terrain model together with the associated subdivion system is viewed in Figure 5-2. The naming convention of delivered datasets is identical to the delivery of the orthomosaic.

To enhance and further illustrate the very detailed texture of the terraain model derived, a shaded relief visualization have been produced.

A shaded relief image provides an illustration of variations in terrain elevation. Based on a specified position of the sun, areas that would be in sunlight are highlighted and areas that would be in shadow are shaded.

Resampling of laser data in regular grids has its pros and cons. The main pros are memory and computation efficiency. Storing rectangular grids requires only storage of cell values, information of grid dimension and position for one corner whereas storing sets of irregular points requires that the coordinates and possible optional values are stored explicitly for all points. Algorithms working on rectangular grids are in general much easier to implement and they usually also run faster then algorithms working on data structures of free points. Furthermore, using regular grids also makes it possible to utilize the vast amount of experience, methods and already existing software for analysis of data stored in regular grids. The cons are the introduction of position uncertainties and the potential loss of information. Both effects depend on the selected cell size. Position uncertainty arises since the exact position (easting, northing) of a laser point is lost when it is placed in a cell. The maximum error introduced is equal to half the cell diagonal. It arises for laser points having an exact position corresponding to cell corners. The problem of loss of information arises when there is more than one laser point in a cell and only the value from one point is used. Hence, keeping the cell size down is important in order to reduce the position uncertainties and the loss of information. On the other hand, it should be noted that the cell size should not be too small since it causes unnecessary large grids that consume memory and computational power and also give rise to lots of empty cells that complicates interpolation. It is important that the cell size is adapted to the laser point density in the raw data.



*Figure 5-2. The subdivision of the LIDAR point measurements into ASCII datasets superimposed the gridded terrainmodel. The number indicated is the file-number of each image tile.*



*Figure 5-3. Shaded relief of the derived terrain model. Light direction is 270 degrees (ie. sunlight from west).*

# <span id="page-27-0"></span>**6 References**

**Lantmäteriverket, 1994.** Handbok till mätningskungörelsen – Fotogrammetri. HMK-FO.

**SKB 2001a**. Platsundersökningar, undersökningsmetodet och generellt genomförandeprogram. SKB R-01-10, Svensk Kärnbränlsehantering AB.

**SKB 2001b.** Platsundersökning vid Simpevarp. SKB R-01-44. Svensk Kärnbränlsehantering AB.

**SKB 2001c.** Metodbeskrivning för lineamentstolkning baserad på topografiska data. SKB MD 120.001, Svensk Kärnbränlsehantering AB.

**Wiklund S, 2003.** Digitala ortofoton och höjdmodeller. SKB P-02-02, Svensk Kärnbränslehantering AB.

# **Appendix 1**

# <span id="page-28-0"></span>**LIDAR data** LIDAR data

Summary statistics for all delivered ASCII files. Z1 is the terrain height and Z2 is the Summary statistics for all delivered ASCII files. Z1 is the terrain height and Z2 is the recorded intensity. recorded intensity.





# **Appendix 2**

<span id="page-30-0"></span>Report

NO05722

# Oskarshamn







### **CONTENTS**



### Appendix:

1. Flight plan, Appendix\_1\_Flight\_plan\_NO05722.pdf.



#### **INTRODUCTION** 1.

This document summarizes the Lidar flight and the data processing of the "Oskarshamn" project. Blom Geomatics internal reference number for this project is NO05722.

#### $\overline{2}$ **FLIGHT MISSIONS**

The project was flown in one flight. The LIDAR flight was flown with a Piper Navajo PA 31 airplane (LN-AEY). Pilot was Jon Wold and operator was John Froybu.

#### **LIDAR** flights  $2.1.$

The LIDAR survey was executed on 23<sup>th</sup> April 2005 (DOY 113).



#### 3. FIELD SURVEYING OF CONTROL SURFACES

102 control points were supplied by BlomInfo AB.

#### LIDAR - DATA COLLECTION AND PROCESSING 4.

#### **LIDAR** data collection  $4.1.$

### 4.1.1. Flight - LIDAR 23.04.05, flight 11305a





#### Solutions using ground stations









#### **Solutions using all ground stations**

The solutions where made with a Multi-base technique. Two separate solutions with different kinematic ambiguity resolution were made. The "separation plot" on page 6, shows the difference between the solutions.

The solutions are combined weighted on distance and standard deviation.













### **Conclusion**

The solutions are calculated in GrafNav from Waypoint Consulting inc. The separation plot combined with the Pdop plot indicates that the GPS solution is very good.

### **GPS/INS Calculation**

The calculation was done with PosProc from Applanix.



The result is within specification of the instrument.





#### $4.2.$ **LIDAR XYZ** calculation and control



Simplified workflow diagram

### The following software has been used:



#### **Calibration**

Systematic errors were found using TerraSolid utilities, such as dRoll, dPitch, dHeading and mirror scale factor. The result was reset to the final XYZ process in Realm, according to the plot above.





### Model offset

102 control points were delivered from BlomInfo AB. These points were collected at different locations and in different types of terrain. To find a good estimate of the model offset, 52 points in areas with low angel of inclination and hard surfaces were chosen.

Height deviations Z shift analysis:



It was decided to shift the Lidar data with a constant Z shift of 0.234 meters.



The plot above shows the difference between the lidar data and the control points after Z adjustment.



#### 5. **PRODUCTS**

The following products are being delivered:

#### $5.1.$ Point cloud

Classified points are delivered as space separated ASCII (East, North, Height, Intensity). The classes are delivered in separate files. There are 3 classes:

- 1. Non ground
- 2. Ground
- 3. Low single points

Comments: The class "Low single points" contains point lying under our defined ground.<br>The reasons for the "low single points" can be; multi path, weak return signal, water reflection irregularities and depressions in the ground.

#### $5.2.$ **Coordinate System**

All points are delivered in Sweref 99 UTM 33, ellipsoidal height GRS1980.

# **Appendix 3**

## <span id="page-39-0"></span>CAMERA CALIBRATION CERTIFICATE

**CAMERA TYPE: RC30** LENS TYPE: **15/4 UAG-S** LENS NO.: 13311

Calibration date:

15.02.2005

LEICA AG, HEERBRUGG



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# Radial distortion (micrometers) referred to principal point of symmetry (PPS)<br>(Positive values denote image displacement away from center)



### Photographic resolution (line pairs per millimeter)

International 3-line test-chart, contrast (log) : 2.0



AWAR (Area weighted average resolution) in lp/mm: 113

Dies

Principal point of autocollimation (PPA) and<br>principal point of symmetry (PPS)<br>referred to central cross (FC), see diagram



#### Fiducial marks, referred to central cross (FC)









Radial distortion for semi-diagonals referred to PPS

