

Airborne and Terrestrial Laser Scanning: A Comprehensive Technical Guide to LiDAR Technologies

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The evolution of geospatial data acquisition has been fundamentally reshaped by the advent of Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR) technology. As a remote sensing method that uses light in the form of a pulsed laser to measure ranges to the Earth, LiDAR has bifurcated into two primary operational modalities: **Airborne Laser Scanning (ALS)** and **Terrestrial Laser Scanning (TLS)**. While both systems rely on the same fundamental physics of time-of-flight or phase-shift measurement, their applications, precision levels, and operational workflows differ significantly. This article provides an in-depth technical analysis of these technologies, exploring their mechanics, comparative advantages, and specialized roles in modern engineering, forestry, and geomorphology.

The Core Mechanics of Laser Scanning Technology

The Physics of LiDAR

At the heart of both ALS and TLS is the laser scanner, which emits thousands of laser pulses per second. These pulses travel to an object, reflect off the surface, and return to the sensor. By measuring the time it takes for each pulse to return, the system calculates the distance between the sensor and the target. This calculation is governed by the basic time-of-flight (ToF) equation: $d = (c \times t) / 2$, where d is the distance, c is the speed of light, and t is the round-trip travel time.

Beyond simple distance, modern scanners capture the **intensity** of the return signal—a measure of the reflectivity of the surface at the specific wavelength of the laser (usually in the near-infrared spectrum). This spectral information allows technicians to differentiate between materials, such as vegetation, asphalt, or concrete. Furthermore, advanced ALS systems can record **multiple returns** from a single pulse. For instance, in a forested area, a single pulse may hit the upper canopy, then some branches, and finally the ground, resulting in multiple discrete echoes that allow for the creation of both Digital Surface Models (DSM) and Digital Terrain Models (DTM).

System Components: ALS vs. TLS

While the laser engine is similar, the integration of auxiliary sensors defines the system's capability:

- **ALS Systems:** Mounted on aerial platforms (fixed-wing aircraft, helicopters, or Unmanned Aerial Vehicles), ALS requires a complex integration of the laser scanner with a Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) for positioning and an Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU) to record the platform's pitch, roll, and heading. The fusion of these data streams through a Kalman filter allows the system to determine the precise XYZ coordinates of every point in space.
- **TLS Systems:** These are typically static, mounted on a tripod. Because the scanner is stationary, it does not require an IMU or GNSS for its internal coordinate system. Instead, it relies on high-precision angular encoders to measure the horizontal and vertical angles of the laser beam, creating a local coordinate system that can later be georeferenced using ground control points (GCPs).

Airborne Laser Scanning (ALS): Large-Scale Mapping and Analysis

Operational Workflow in ALS

ALS is the industry standard for mapping vast geographical areas. The process begins with flight planning, where

parameters such as flying height, ground speed, and scan angle (Field of View) are determined. These factors directly influence the **point density** (points per square meter) and the **vertical accuracy** of the resulting dataset.

Once the flight is completed, the raw data undergoes post-processing. This involves differential GNSS processing to establish a precise trajectory and the subsequent projection of laser returns into a global coordinate system (e.g., WGS84). The resulting product is a raw point cloud that must be filtered and classified. Classification algorithms—such as the *Progressive Morphological Filter*—are used to separate ground points from non-ground points (buildings, trees, power lines).

Applications in Forestry and Carbon Sequestration

One of the most critical applications of ALS identified in recent research is the estimation of **Above Ground Biomass (AGB)** and carbon stocks. By generating high-resolution canopy height models (CHM), researchers can apply allometric equations to estimate the volume of timber and the amount of sequestered carbon over entire provinces. ALS is uniquely suited for this because it can penetrate the canopy to map the forest floor, providing an accurate baseline for tree height measurements that are impossible to achieve with traditional satellite imagery.

Terrestrial Laser Scanning (TLS): High-Precision Micro-Mapping

The Precision of Static Scanning

Where ALS offers breadth, TLS offers depth. TLS systems can capture millions of points with millimeter-level precision. This makes them indispensable for **Building Information Modeling (BIM)**, heritage documentation, and structural health monitoring. A TLS device rotates 360 degrees horizontally and up to 300 degrees vertically, capturing every visible surface within its range (which typically extends from 0.5 meters to over 2 kilometers depending on the model).

Registration and Modelling of Point Clouds

A single TLS scan is limited by occlusion (shadows created by objects blocking the laser). To map a complex environment, multiple scans must be taken from different positions. These scans are then merged into a single coordinate system through a process called **registration**. This can be achieved through:

1. Target-based Registration: Placing physical spheres or checkerboard targets in the scene that are common to multiple scans.
2. Cloud-to-Cloud Registration: Using algorithms like Iterative Closest Point (ICP) to align scans based on overlapping geometry.
3. Feature-based Registration: Identifying structural planes or edges (like walls and corners) to lock the datasets together.

Geomorphological Monitoring: Rockfalls and Landslides

In the field of geology, TLS has become a primary tool for monitoring **rockfall kinematics**. By conducting multi-temporal scans of a cliff face, engineers can perform "change detection" analysis. This involves calculating the distance between two point clouds to identify areas of deformation or volume loss. The high density of TLS allows for the detection of even centimeter-scale movements, providing early warning signs of slope failure.

Comparative Analysis: ALS vs. TLS

Choosing between ALS and TLS requires an understanding of the trade-offs between coverage, resolution, and cost. The following table provides a technical comparison of the two modalities.

Feature / Metric	Airborne Laser Scanning (ALS)	Terrestrial Laser Scanning (TLS)
Primary Platform	Aircraft, Helicopters, Drones	Tripod-mounted (Static)
Standard Range	200m - 5,000m	0.5m - 1,000m+
Precision/Accuracy	5cm - 15cm (Vertical)	1mm - 10mm
Point Density	1 - 50 points/m ²	1,000 - 10,000+ points/m ²
Coverage Area	Kilometers to Hundreds of Kilometers	Meters to Hundreds of Meters
View Direction	Nadir (Top-down)	Horizontal / Hemispherical
Occlusion Issues	High under-canopy/overhangs	High behind vertical structures
Primary Cost Drivers	Flight time, pilot, fuel, high-end IMU	Scanner rental, field labor, registration

Technical Workflow: Data Processing and Classification

Regardless of the scanning method, the utility of the data depends on the processing pipeline. A standard technical workflow follows these steps:

1. Data Pre-processing

For ALS, this includes trajectory computation and strip adjustment (aligning overlapping flight lines). For TLS, this focuses on scan registration and noise reduction (removing points caused by atmospheric dust, birds, or moving vehicles).

2. Filtering and Normalization

Filtering is the process of removing outliers. In forestry, **Normalization** is a critical step where the Z-value (elevation) of every point is adjusted relative to the ground. This transforms elevation above sea level into "height above ground," allowing for direct measurement of tree or building heights.

3. Classification and Segmentation

Classification assigns a semantic label to each point. Common classes include:

- Ground (Class 2): Used to generate DTMs.
- Vegetation (Classes 3-5): Low, medium, and high foliage.
- Buildings (Class 6): Used for 3D urban modeling.
- Water (Class 9): Often identified by low intensity or lack of return.

Machine learning models, particularly **PointNet** and other 3D convolutional neural networks (CNNs), are increasingly used to automate this classification process, significantly reducing the manual labor required by technical writers and GIS analysts.

Case Studies: Synergistic Use of ALS and TLS

Integrated Forest Management

Recent studies in silviculture demonstrate that the most accurate results are achieved by combining both methods.

In a "Seven-Year Growth Estimation" study, ALS was used to track the growth of the canopy across a 500-hectare forest, while TLS was used in select sample plots to measure changes in **Diameter at Breast Height (DBH)** and stem taper. The TLS data served as the "ground truth" to calibrate the ALS models, resulting in an unprecedented level of accuracy in carbon stock forecasting.

Infrastructure and Urban Planning

In smart city development, ALS provides the broad context (city-wide terrain and zoning), while TLS provides the detail for individual assets. For example, when retrofitting a historical bridge, ALS can map the river approaches and surrounding topography, while TLS captures the intricate masonry and structural joints of the bridge itself to create a **Digital Twin** for engineering simulation.

Troubleshooting and Operational Challenges

Atmospheric and Environmental Factors

LiDAR is an active sensor, but it is not immune to the environment. **Atmospheric refraction** can bend the laser beam, leading to positional errors, especially in ALS at high altitudes. Furthermore, moisture is a major hurdle; because LiDAR typically uses near-infrared wavelengths, water surfaces often absorb the signal, leading to "voids" in the data. Scanning during rain or heavy fog is generally avoided as the particles scatter the laser light, creating significant noise.

Multipath and Angle of Incidence

In urban environments, **multipath errors** occur when the laser pulse reflects off a highly reflective surface (like a glass building) before returning to the sensor. This results in "phantom points" appearing in incorrect locations. Additionally, if the **angle of incidence** is too shallow (the laser hits a surface at a very sharp angle), the return signal may be too weak for the sensor to record, leading to data gaps on vertical faces in ALS or horizontal floors in TLS.

Future Horizons in Laser Scanning

The industry is currently moving toward **Mobile Mapping Systems (MMS)**, which bridge the gap between ALS and TLS. MMS involves mounting a high-precision laser scanner and an IMU/GNSS suite onto a vehicle or a backpack. This allows for TLS-level density with ALS-like coverage speeds. Furthermore, the miniaturization of **Solid-State LiDAR** is bringing this technology to consumer electronics, suggesting a future where crowd-sourced point clouds could supplement professional surveys.

As we move toward more automated data processing, the role of the technical writer and strategist becomes even more vital—translating complex point cloud metrics into actionable insights for policymakers, engineers, and conservationists. The integration of **Artificial Intelligence** for automated feature extraction and the transition to **4D LiDAR** (adding the temporal dimension to track changes over time) represent the next frontiers in this indispensable field of geomatics.

Baca Juga (Artikel Terkait)

- [Advanced Aerial Mapping: Technical Methods, Analytical Frameworks, and Modern Applications](http://alaskawriters.com/advanced-aerial-mapping-methods-technical-frameworks.pdf)

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