# Automated segmentation and reconstruction of structural elements for indoor multi-level room environment 

Amr Nabil Amer

A Thesis<br>In the Department of<br>Building, Civil, and Environmental Engineering

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements<br>For the Degree of<br>Master of Applied Sciences (Civil Engineering) at<br>Concordia University<br>Montreal, Quebec, Canada

March 2020
© Amr Amer, 2020

# CONCORDIA UNIVERSITY School of Graduate Studies 

This is to certify that the thesis prepared

By: Amr Nabil Amer

Entitled: An automatic 3D reconstruction approach for multi-level building spaces using 3D point cloud data
and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

## Master of Applied Science in Civil Engineering

complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

Signed by the final Examining Committee:

Chair
Dr. Osama Moselhi
Examiner
Dr. Arash Mohammadi
Examiner
Dr. Joonhee Lee
Thesis Supervisor (s)
Dr. Sang Hyeok Han

Dr. Zhenhua Zhu

Approved by
Dr. Michelle Nokken, Graduate Program Director
$23^{\text {rd }}$ March 2020

[^0]
# ABSTRACT <br> An automatic 3D reconstruction approach for multi-level building spaces using 3D point cloud data <br> Amr Nabil Amer 

3D laser scanners provide accurate as-built conditions for the surrounding environment in the form of 3D pointcloud data. Although this technology has hadhigh attention from the construction industry for the as-built documentation of buildings, the reconstruction process, especially identification and segmentation of the building elements, still has manual and labor-intensive tasks leading to time-consuming and human errors. In addition, it has not reconstructed the building elements successfully yet in multi-level building spaces. In an effort to address these issues, this research proposes an automatic 3D reconstruction framework that identifies, segments, and reconstructs vertical and horizontal building elements from the point clouds of multi-levelbuilding spaces. The proposed framework composes of: (1) identifying locations, diameters, lengths and the number of vertical building elements using Hough line and circle transform; (2) comparing the dimensions of the walls to determine single- or multi-level building spaces; (3) developing the region of interest defined by the building codes; (4) implementing plane RANSAC for not only segmentation of the vertical building elements but also identification and segmentation of horizontal building elements; and (5) reconstructing the segmented building elements into simple forms. The effectiveness of the proposed methodology has been validated with high accuracy and low deviation in three different building spaces at Concordia University, Montreal, Canada.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Words cannot express my love, appreciation, respect, and gratefulness I feel towards my family, supervisors, and friends.

First and foremost, I want to thank God for everything I was, am and will be. I would like to express my very great appreciation and love to my amazing family (especially Lola), and friends for their endless support and standing by my side during this long/rough journey. This could not have been achieved without them (I LOVE YOU ALL).

I would also wish to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. Zhenhua Zhu and Dr. Sang Hyeok Han my instructors and supervisors for their patient guidance, endless support, great advice, encouragement, and wisdom. I would not be here without their supervision.

My grateful thanks are also extended to my examiners, I am gratefully indebted to Dr. Osama Moselhi, Dr. Joonhee Lee, and Dr. Arash Mohammadi not only for their valuable time and effort in reviewing my thesis but also their constructive advice to improve it.

I would like to acknowledge my indebtedness and render my warmest thanks to all colleagues in the lab office especially, Xiaoning Ren, Wenjing Chu, Yusheng Huang, and Chen Chen. Thank you all for your support. It was my pleasure to work and have this amazing experience with them.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS ..... v
LIST OF FIGURES ..... viii
LIST OF TABLES ..... ix
LIST OF ACRONYMS ..... xi
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION ..... 1
1.1 Background and Motivation ..... 1
1.2 Problem Statement ..... 5
1.3 Research Hypothesis ..... 6
1.4 Objectives and Scopes ..... 6
1.5 Expected Contributions ..... 7
1.6 Thesis Organization ..... 8
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW ..... 9
2.1 Identification \& Segmentation of Building Elements ..... 9
2.1.1 General Methods ..... 10
2.1.2 Feature-Based Methods ..... 11
2.1.3 Geometry-Based Methods ..... 13
2.2 Surface Reconstruction ..... 15
2.3 Research gaps and objectives ..... 16
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY ..... 17
3.1 Pre-processing ..... 19
3.2 Transforming 3D point cloud to 2D image ..... 21
3.3 Identification and segmentation. ..... 23
3.3.1 Vertical Plane Building Elements ..... 24
3.3.2 Horizontal Plane Building Elements ..... 28
3.4 Surface Reconstruction ..... 32
3.5 Evaluation Matrix ..... 33
CHAPTER 4: IMPLEMENTATION AND RESULTS ..... 36
4.1 Implementation. ..... 36
4.1.1 Environments. ..... 36
4.1.2 Hardware ..... 39
4.1.3 Software ..... 41
4.2 Results ..... 43
4.2.1 Vertical plane building elements ..... 43
4.2.2 Horizontal plane building elements ..... 45
4.2.3 Evaluation ..... 47
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORKS ..... 51
5.1 Summary ..... 52
5.2 Future Works ..... 53
BIBLIOGRAPHY ..... 54
APPENDIX............................................................................................................................ 61

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1-1: (a) Notre-Dame de Paris, (b) Tragic accident of the Notre-Dame burning down, (c) Notre-Dame 3D model in Assassins Creed game, and (d) Notre-Dame 3D-PCD (Eric Levenson, 2019; Gilbert, 2019; Tallon, 2014; Ubisoft, 2019)..................................................................... 3

Figure 1-2: Concordia University EV building Entrance Hall 3D-PCD..................................... 4
Figure 2-1: Slicing the bridge's 3D-PCD in the X direction (R. Lu et al., 2019)...................... 10
Figure 2-2: (a) Point Cloud, (b) Feature detection, (c) Region growing, and (d) Final segmentation
(Dimitrov \& Golparvar-Fard, 2015) ....................................................................................... 12
Figure 2-3: (a) Slice from the 3D-PCD at ceiling level, (b) generating the image, and (c) Region growing output (Macher et al., 2015)..................................................................................... 12

Figure 2- 4: RANSAC family (Choi et al., 1997) .................................................................... 14
Figure 3-1: An overview of the proposed methodology .......................................................... 18
Figure 3-2:3D-point cloud data ............................................................................................ 20
Figure 3-3: (a) 3D point cloud, (b) Projecting the 3D point cloud on a 2D plane, (c) Canny edge detection, and (d) Threshold and Binary ................................................................................ 23

Figure 3-4: Identification and segmentation of a column ........................................................ 25
Figure 3-5: Identification and segmentation of walls .............................................................. 27
Figure 3-6: (a) Horizontal plane elements region of interests and (b) Pseudocode of process flow

Figure 3-7: Surface reconstruction procedure......................................................................... 33
Figure 4-1: (a) EV building, and (b)EV building location in SGW Campus (Concordia University,
$\qquad$
Figure 4- 2: (a) Lab office 3D-PCD, and (b) Lab office 2D plane and scan locations................ 38

Figure 4- 3: (a) EV entrance hall 3D-PCD, and (b) EV entrance hall 2D plane and scan locations

Figure 4- 4: (a) Auditorium 3D-PCD, and (b) Auditorium 2D plane and scan locations............. 38
Figure 4- 5: Laser scanner and spherical reference targets deployment ..................................... 40
Figure 4- 6: Registering the 3D-PCD using Trimble Real Works software............................... 42
Figure 4-7: Cleaning the 3D- PCD from outliers using CloudCompare software ..................... 43
Figure 4- 8: Applying colors to the final 3D reconstructed model using Blender software ........ 43
Figure 4- 9: Identification and segmentation of columns .......................................................... 44
Figure 4-10: Identification and segmentation of ceilings ........................................................ 46
Figure 4-11: Floors and stairs identification and segmentation................................................ 47
Figure 4-12: Reconstruction results of Lab office, EV entrance hall, and auditorium (sidewall \#4 is removed for visualization in both the lab and auditorium case studies)................................. 49

Figure 6-1: Results of each step in the Proposed methodology for the lab office case study ..... 63
Figure 6- 2: Flowchart for the case of lab office case study ..................................................... 64
Figure 6-3: Results of each step in the Proposed methodology for the EV entrance hall case study

Figure 6-4: Flowchart for the case of EV entrance hall case study .......................................... 66
Figure 6-5: Results of each step in the Proposed methodology for auditorium case study ........ 67
Figure 6-6: Flowchart for the case of auditorium case study ..................................................... 68

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1-1: Titles and summary of each chapter of this Thesis ..... 8
Table 3-1: Parameters of each building element ..... 35
Table 4-1: Case study information. ..... 39
Table 4- 2: Technical specifications for the laser scanner (Faro Inc., 2020; Lafi, 2017) ..... 41
Table 4- 3: Technical specifications for the Laptop (Inc., 2020; Lafi, 2017) ..... 41
Table 4-4: Results of the evaluation matrix ..... 49
Table 4-5: Results of the size difference and deviation ..... 51
Table 6-1: Software results in the reconstruction process. ..... 62
Table 6-2: Building elements characteristics ..... 69
Table 6- 3: Building Code of Ontario (ONTARIO, 2017). ..... 69

## LIST OF ACRONYMS

| RANSAC | Random sample consensus |
| :---: | :---: |
| CHT | Circle Hough transform |
| LHT | Line Hough transform |
| 3D-PCD | Three-dimensional point cloud data |
| I\&S | Identification and segmentation |
| RGB | Red-Green-Blue |
| STL | Standard Triangle Language (stereolithography) |
| DWG | AutoCAD Drawing Database |
| HPE | Horizontal Plane Elements |
| VBE | Vertical Building Elements |
| TOF | Time of Flight |
| FOV | Field of View |
| MLESAC | Maximum Likelihood Estimation Sample and Consensus |
| EV Building | Engineering, Computer Science and Visual Arts Integrated |
|  | Complex |
| BIM | Building Information Modeling |
| 2D | Two dimensional |

USD

LIDAR

BE

HT

AEC

HVAC

Voxel

United States dollar

Laser identification detection and ranging

Building elements

Hough Transform

Architecture, engineering, and construction

Heating, Ventilation, and Air Conditioning

Volume Pixel

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This research aims to propose a framework to automatically identify, segment and reconstruct building elements such as columns, walls, ceilings, floors, and stairs from 3D point cloud data (3D-PCD) using multiple algorithms such as Hough transform and RANSAC. The upcoming sections in this chapter describe the research background, motivation, objectives, contribution, and the organization of the thesis.

### 1.1 Background and Motivation

According to the investigation reported by Canadian home builders' association in 2017, the building renovation and remodeling projects in Canada are total $\$ 77.9$ billion and $\$ 41.3$ billion USD in wages (association, 2019). A significant amount of these wages is attributed to reworks (e.g., building drawings) due to the lack of an accurate representation of the existing buildings at the early stage of projects. In addition, these challenges lead to exposing workers into hazard risks which are the main cause to record over 1,000 deaths and 800,000 injuries in the European Union (Rwamamara, Norberg, Olofsson, \& Lagerqvist, 2010). Yet to date, all types of building spaces have not been rebuilt as 3D models yet since the labor-intensive, time-consuming and costly process is required. As a result of missing 3D representation of the buildings, especially the aged buildings which undergone multiple renovations and/or remodeling have a high probability of misrepresenting building elements due to the loss of building information and/or omitting the building elements. In this respect, there is a need to develop an efficient and effective way to obtain the geometrical information of building elements in a timely manner (Huber et al., 2011).

An example of these aged buildings that were in dire need for 3D documentation is the Notre Dame Cathedral de Paris as shown in (Figure 1-1-a). The tragic accident of this 850 -year-old
beautiful structure burning down rendered the world speechless (Figure 1-1-b) (Eric Levenson, 2019). After the accident France's precedent Emmanuel Macron quickly vowed to rebuild the Notre Dame, moreover, multiple companies announced their support to aid this project (Lyons, 2019). A detailed 3D model of the Notre Dame could help speed up the process of drafting, drawing, planning, and construction process. Luckily, the 3D model of the Notre Dame Cathedral was captured by Ubisoft to create a location in their published video game "Assassin creed unity" illustrated in (Figure 1-1-c). The game artists designed the 3D model with immaculate attention to details for the interior and exterior of the building (Gilbert, 2019; Ubisoft, 2019). Another 3D model of the entire structure of the Cathedral is captured extensively in 2010 by Andrew Tallon, an Architectural historian and associate professor of Art at Vassar College using a 3D-laser scanner as shown in (Figure 1-1-d) (Tallon, 2014). These models provide accurate recreation of all the cathedral's dimensions and surfaces. Notre Dame de Paris is lucky to have these models. However, this is not the case for all historical buildings, that might suffer a similar fate.



Figure 1-1: (a) Notre-Dame de Paris, (b) Tragic accident of the Notre-Dame burning down, (c) Notre-Dame 3D model in Assassins Creed game, and (d) Notre-Dame 3D-PCD (Eric Levenson, 2019; Gilbert, 2019; Tallon, 2014; Ubisoft, 2019)

3D laser scanner technology attracts the interest of the construction community due to its clear edge over manual or electronic measurement devices in terms of time requirement spent on-site and accuracy (Azhar, Khalfan, \& Maqsood, 2012; S. Li, Isele, \& Bretthauer, 2008; Wang, Tan, \& Mei, 2019). Moreover, its versatility to work under different site conditions such as the levels of lightness and occlusion, the sizes of space areas, and complex space layouts is merit in the construction industry. The aforementioned reasons make the 3D laser scanner the preferred choice for heavily operated buildings (e.g., hospitals) and infrastructures (e.g., tunnels) that are not allowed to stop temporarily or have disturbances for a long period of time (Chida \& Masuda, 2016; Wang et al., 2019). The information (e.g., dimensions and locations) of the building elements scanned by the 3D laser scanner is represented by a set of millions of data points formed as $X, Y$, $Z$ coordinates in 3D space as shown in Figure 1-2. As a result, the 3D-point cloud data (3D-PCD) highly represents the detailed 3D geometric information of the as-is state for the surrounding environment of the scanned locations.


Figure 1- 2: Concordia University EV building Entrance Hall 3D-PCD

However, 3D-PCD usually involves: (1) unorganized, noisy and missing data due to occlusion and reflective or transparent surfaces of the building elements; and (2) the large volumes of the files required high computation processing performance to reconstruct accurate as-built 3D models. In this respect, manual processing procedures (also called as a reconstruction phase), which are mostly tedious, error-prone and time-consuming, are needed to develop the 3D building elements and associated properties based on the 3D-PCD. To eliminate these limitations, an automated approach is highly sought from both commercial software and academia (Pătrăucean et al., 2015). However, available commercial software such as CloudCompare and 3DReshaper is not able to identify, segment and reconstruct automatically the building elements such as walls, columns, and stairs yet (3DReshaper, 2019; Compare, 2019). In addition, researchers in the past
few years have been successful to reconstruct planar building elements such as walls, ceilings, and floors in single-level spaces based on approaches that involve two steps: 1) identification and segmentation of building elements; and 2) surface reconstruction. At this junction, it should be noted that the main focus of this research is to improve upon the identification and segmentation step, which is still a manual and labor-intensive task with high computation costs, to establish the automated reconstruction process using 3D-PCD. In this respect, previous researchers have introduced different methods of utilizing techniques such as region growing, RANSAC and machine learning algorithms to implement the identification and segmentation step (Chen, Cho, \& Kim, 2018; Franz, Irmler, \& Rüppel, 2018; M. Li, Wonka, \& Nan, 2016; R. Lu, Brilakis, \& Middleton, 2019; Macher, Landes, \& Grussenmeyer, 2015, 2017; Murali, Speciale, Oswald, \& Pollefeys, 2017; Oesau, Lafarge, \& Alliez, 2014; Qi, Su, Mo, \& Guibas, 2017; Tatarchenko, Dosovitskiy, \& Brox, 2017; Thomson \& Boehm, 2015). Based on the previous studies, it has been noted that RANSAC is one of the most commonly used techniques for the identification and segmentation of the building elements for its various benefits such as the ability to be applied for multiple types of the targeted building elements, fast processing time compared to region growing and p-linkage techniques when applied on huge data sets, and easy implementation (M. Li et al., 2016; Murali et al., 2017).

### 1.2 Problem Statement

Previous approaches suggested by researchers utilizing RANSAC still have the following challenges: (1) RANSAC is inefficiently utilized, due to the arbitrary number of iterations defined by the user leading to the creation of 3D models that misrepresent the as-built conditions due to the over-segmentation, which segments 3D-PCD that do not belong to the building elements, or under-segmentation, which misses 3D-PCD belonging to the building elements; (2) lack of
consideration for RANSAC's feature to tend to estimate over or under-estimate the dimensions and orientations of the building elements when it is applied on large datasets; and (3) the proposed methods are limited in applicability since multi-level building spaces such as auditoriums and halls with multiple horizontal building elements are not considered.

### 1.3 Research Hypothesis

Several questions have arisen in this research hypothesis and they require to be resolved within this research, these questions are as follows:

1. Is it possible to make RANSAC more efficient? In addition, How?
2. Is it possible to make RANSAC more accurate andresilient to outliers? Moreover,How?
3. Is it possible to make the reconstruction of point cloud more flexible to adapt to multilevel rooms?
4. Can we expand on the reconstructed elements existing in multi-level rooms? If yes, which elements are important? And How?

### 1.4 Objectives and Scopes

The main objectives of this research are to:

1. Fully automate the process of identification, segmentation, and reconstruction of the building elements form 3D-PCD.
2. Improving the efficiency of the utilization of RANSAC.
3. Reducing errors and enhancing the accuracy of the reconstruction process.
4. Expanding upon the applicability of the reconstruction process and creating a more accurate representation of the as-built condition, by not only taking into consideration multi-level space but also including more building elements such as columns and stairs.

Accordingly, to accomplish these objectives, this research overcomes these challenges and achieves these objectives by the proposed methodology involving the following procedures:

1. pre-processing to prepare the 3D-PCD by removing outliers and transforming the coordinates of 3D-PCD.
2. Transformation of the 3D-PCD to 2 D images to identify the locations and numbers of the vertical building elements such as columns and walls automatically by implementing Hough circle and line transforms.
3. Development of standard exploring areas to avoid identifying and segmenting the outliers of 3D-PCD when RANSAC is implemented.
4. Reconstructing the 3 D surface models of the building elements.

As a validation, the proposed framework is tested on three cases, a multi-ceilings and columns entrance hall and a multi-floor auditorium with stairs, and the results are analyzed and assessed using an evaluation matrix that composes of seven parameters to evaluate the performances of the proposed method in reconstruction processes of 3D-PCD.

### 1.5 Expected Contributions

To overcome these limitations, this research proposes an automated reconstruction approach that encompasses the following features:

1. Automatic identification and segmentation of the building elements with high accuracy and low interference by users;
2. Competitive computation cost by defining the optimal number of iterations which is used to determine the number of runs for RANSAC.

| Chapter Titles | Summary |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1. Introduction | This chapter provides the background and a summary of this <br> thesis, also covers the hypothesis, the intended objectives and <br> the expected contribution of this thesis. |
| 2. Literature Review | This chapter discusses the recent studies, algorithms, and <br> methods for each of the main steps of this Thesis. |
| 3. Methodology | This chapter explains the proposed framework to achieve the <br> objectives discussed in the introduction. |
| 4. Implementation | This chapter discusses the equipment used for this framework, <br> the three test cases used to validate the proposed framework, <br> the results, and evaluation for the results. |
| 5. Conclusion | This chapter summarizes the final output of the proposed <br> framework and discusses the future works for it. |

3. The standard regions developed based on the building codes to prevent the use of the outliers and misrepresentation of the building elements during the identification and segmentation process during the implementation of RANSAC.
4. Extensibility of the 3 D point cloud-based reconstruction process based on the consideration of the multiple building elements in multi-level building spaces.

### 1.6 Thesis Organization

Table 1-1: Titles and summary of each chapter of this Thesis

## CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a comprehensive review of recent studies and techniques used to automatically identify, segment, and reconstruct building elements from 3D-PCD and their limitations. Reconstruction of 3D point clouds can be categorized mainly by two steps:

1. Identification and segmentation of building elements.
2. Surface reconstruction.

Thus, this section discusses the recent studies in both areas to identify the state-of-art in 3D point cloud-based reconstruction. In the end, the research gaps identified will be discussed.

### 2.1 Identification \& Segmentation of Building Elements

Automatic reconstruction of a building's 3D-PCD is a valuable goal sought after by researchers, as the reconstruction process is a manual, tedious, time consuming and error-prone procedure. As discussed earlier the first step for the reconstruction process is the identification and segmentation of these structural building elements such as columns, walls, etc. from the 3D-PCD. In this respect, various techniques were utilized to located and segment these building elements from the 3D-PCD, such as Slices Comparing (R. Lu et al., 2019), Deep Learning (Qi et al., 2017; Tatarchenko et al., 2017), Region Growing (Dimitrov \& Golparvar-Fard, 2015), p-linkage (X. Lu et al., 2016), Hough transform (Díaz-Vilariño, Conde, Lagüela, \& Lorenzo, 2015), and RANSAC (Schnabel, Wahl, \& Klein, 2007). These identification and segmentation techniques can be classified by general methods, feature-based methods, and geometric based methods.

### 2.1.1 General Methods

General methods are broad techniques thatcan be adapted to work for indoor environments. An example of this method, Lu et al. have introduced a method to identify structural members in bridges such as columns and slabs. The proposed method is to take multiple slices through the height of the bridge in both directions ( $X$ and $Y$ ), compare the heights of the slices to identify the locations of slabs and piers as shown in Figure 2-1. Although this method is introduced for the bridges, this technique could be adopted to identify slabs and columns in one-level rooms (R. Lu et al., 2019). However, this method is not efficient to identify the slabs and columns in the multilevel rooms which have various heights of the building spaces since it is difficult to compare the lengths of the multiple slices.


Figure 2-1: Slicing the bridge's 3D-PCD in the X direction (R. Lu et al., 2019)

Like other efforts, some researchers (Chen, Kira, \& Cho, 2019; Qi et al., 2017; Tatarchenko et al., 2017) have used deep learning and neural networks techniques to identify different types of building elements and pieces of furniture from point clouds and voxels acquired in the indoor environment. Although these techniques provide robust and accurate results, they require high computational performance to train the model with large periods of time. Moreover, some of the proposed deep learning techniques suffer from over-segmentation. Furthermore, it is difficult to get annotated data to train the classification algorithm properly. Deep learning is a promising method for the identification and segmentation of building elements from the $3 \mathrm{D}-\mathrm{PCD}$ since it is quite robust. However, to this point, there is not enough research done to optimize the usage of this method, since 3D-PCDs are large in storage size and require a long time to be annotated to train the models. Moreover, requires high computational time and effort to process.

### 2.1.2 Feature-Based Methods

In other efforts, some researchers have turned to feature-based methods. This method assesses some attributes such as surface normal and density of 3D-PCD to identify the building elements. These methods have two popular algorithms, namely Region Growing and p-linkage.

Region growing starts selecting one or more points, also called as seed points, which are used to identify the characteristics of the selected points such as normal and curvature. Then, it explores to find the neighbor points which have the same features as ones in the seed points (Grilli, Menna, \& Remondino, 2017). Based on this concept, the region growing algorithm is used to not only identify structural members and elements of mechanical, electrical and plumbing (MEP) systems but also segments rooms as the 2D image slices retrieved from the 3D-PCD as shown in Figure 22 and Figure 2-3 respectively (Dimitrov \& Golparvar-Fard, 2015; Macher et al., 2015). On the other hand, p -linkage is a novel clustering algorithm that behaves similarly to the region growing
algorithm but considers the densities of the point clouds instead of the features of the points (X. Lu et al., 2016).


Figure 2-2: (a) Point Cloud, (b) Feature detection, (c) Region growing, and (d) Final segmentation (Dimitrov \& Golparvar-Fard, 2015)


Figure 2-3: (a) Slice from the 3D-PCD at ceiling level, (b) generating the image, and (c) Region growing output (Macher et al., 2015)

However, these techniques may have lower accuracy and efficiency than other techniques since they tend to not only use the outliers leading to segment the wrong 3D-PCD called oversegmentation but also miss the data related to the building elements called as under-segmentation.

In addition, both algorithms require high computational costs in terms of performance and time when the feature-based methods are applied using a high volume of the point cloud data.

### 2.1.3 Geometry-Based Methods

Another approach explored by researchers is geometry-based methods. In comparison to the other two methods, this method usually exhibits the lowest computational time and most commonly used, therefore, it is the base for this research's suggested framework. Since, almost all building elements (e.g., walls and columns) boil down to simple geometrical shapes consisting of planes and cylinders in 3D space or lines and circles in 2D space, researchers utilized this concept to locate the building elements (Chen et al., 2018). Previous works have used mainly Hough transform and RANSAC to identify the geometrical shapes of building elements in either 2D or 3D space. Hough transform is a feature extraction method to find specific shapes such as circles, elapses and lines and their locations on the 2D images in computer vision and image processing (Díaz-Vilariño et al., 2015). Furthermore, the Hough transform detects multiple building elements in a single run without the influences of the occlusion (Grilli et al., 2017). Based on these benefits, researchers have expanded the utilization of Hough transform which is to identify the locations of building elements (Díaz-Vilariño et al., 2015; Oesau et al., 2014).

RANSAC algorithm is an iterative technique used by researchers for the segmentation of building elements (i.e., walls) from the 3D-PCD based on the following procedures: (1) select subsets of points randomly associated with a building element from the 3D-PCD; (2) attempt iteratively to fit a 3D model such as planes or cylinders into the selected subset data; and (3) detect the outlier points that do not fit the model and remove them from the selected subset data. RANSAC has many descendants such as MILESAC and AMILESAC. Some of the descendants have improved the accuracy and others focus mainly on improving the robustness of RANSAC as
shown in Figure 2-4 (Anagnostopoulos, Pătrăucean, Brilakis, \& Vela, 2016; Choi, Kim, \& Yu, 1997; Grilli et al., 2017; Hong et al., 2015; Jung et al., 2014; Tarsha-Kurdi, Landes, \& Grussenmeyer, 2007).


Figure 2-4: RANSAC family (Choi et al., 1997)

To address this limitation, previous researchers have introduced RANSAC-based methods with the Manhattan world assumption, in which all building elements are orthogonal to each other. In this respect, RANSAC is used as one of the steps to extract as many plane surfaces as possible that are perpendicular to each other (M. Li et al., 2016; Murali et al., 2017). As a result, this assumption reduces not only the computational time but also the viability of the proposed methods since not all building elements are perpendicular to each other (Delage, Lee, \& Ng, 2007; Furukawa, Curless, Seitz, \& Szeliski, 2009). In an effort to increase the viability and robustness of RANSAC, some researchers do not adhere to the Manhattan World assumption. These efforts utilized RANSAC or one of its descendants in a similar approach to the aforementioned method by giving them numerous iterations to detect as many walls, ceilings, and floors, as possible
without adhering to a specific orientation. this approach detects elements that are not orthogonal to each other, however, these approaches are more time consuming (Macher et al., 2015, 2017; Ochmann, Vock, \& Klein, 2019; Schnabel et al., 2007; Thomson \& Boehm, 2015).

It is clear that the utilization of RANSAC so far still has some limitations such as: (1) the arbitrary number of iterations, which not only leads to the inefficient implementation of RANSAC in terms of computational time and performance but also, might lead to over or under segmentation; (2) RANSAC is affected by false data causing segmenting false 3D-PCD that do not belong to the targeted building element when applied in large 3D-PCD; and (3) inability to fit multiple types of 3D models such as cylinders and planes at the same time (Pérez-Sinticala et al., 2019; Tarsha-Kurdi et al., 2007; Zhang, Huang, Zhang, \& Luo, 2017). It should be noted that, based on the benefits exhibited by Hough transform and RANSAC, this research suggests a procedure that uses a Hough transform, Region of interest (ROI) and RANSAC in a manner to overcome RANSACS limitations mentioned earlier.

### 2.2 Surface Reconstruction

Surface reconstruction of building elements 3D-PCD is the second step for the automatic reconstruction of 3D-PCD. It is the creation of smooth surfaces and shapes that have the same size and location as the building element found in the point cloud (Berger et al., 2017). There are various efforts introduced in recent years to reconstruct indoor environments either after the segmentation step of the point cloud or straight forward from the original point cloud. Oesau et al. (Oesau et al., 2014) partitioned the bounding box of the 3D-PCD into volumetric cells and labeled these cells either full or empty spaces based on the locations of the building elements. Next, the reconstructed model is developed from these labeled volumetric cells. As a different effort, Thomson et al. (Thomson \& Boehm, 2015) proposed a method in which relevant points that
represent the coordinates of the boundaries are collected, and used to reconstruct walls, ceilings and floors. The second method is the reverse of the aforementioned method. This method loads objects bounding boxes to the memory, then use these bounding boxes to reconstruct the point cloud. On the other hand, Macher et al. (Macher et al., 2017) exported the planes that represent walls, ceilings, and floors to OBJ format. Similarly to Oesau et al., Murali et al. (Murali et al., 2017) used information gathered from the segmentation step to fit cuboids that represent rooms and find connections between them and cluster them together. Recently, Franz et al. (Franz et al., 2018) suggested a novel method to reconstruct point cloud in real-time. The processing is done on the 2 D horizontal section of the point cloud. The reconstruction process of the outer and inner walls takes place by using boundaries gathered from 2D horizontal sections.

### 2.3 Research gaps and objectives

The automatic reconstruction of $3 \mathrm{D}-\mathrm{PCD}$ is supposed to improve efficiency, costeffectiveness and reduces the time compared to manual processing. Therefore, it has been the interest of many researchers to study this area. However, on the basis of the literature review, and to the best knowledge of the author, previous studies still need to be improved due to the following challenges: (1) manual tasks with high computation cost and error-prone in identification and segmentation process since RANSC is implemented by a random number of runs determined by users or a large number of experiences which may lead to failure to segment 3D-PCD belonging to the building elements by either over-segmenting the 3D-PCD or under-segmenting it; (2) a lack of considering a feature of RANSAC which tends to estimate over-or under-estimate dimensions and orientations of the building elements when it explores to identify and segment 3D-PCD of the building element in large areas; and (3) the lack of applicability in 3D reconstruction process for
multiple-level building spaces involving ceilings, floors, and stairs corresponding to the as-built conditions.

Accordingly, this research study aims to overcome these challenges and fill these gaps by proposing a framework to automatically identify, segment and reconstruct building elements from 3D-PCD. The objectives are achieved by the proposed methodology which can improve upon the efficiency of utilization of RANSAC by specifying the number of iterations instead of being given an arbitrary number of iterations. Moreover, the proposed method reduces the effect of outliers on RANSAC by specifying locations and areas where RANCAC will be utilized, which leads to a reduction in errors and an improvement to accuracy. Finally, widen the scope of applicability of the reconstruction process by adding more building elements such as stairs and columns, and considering multi-level space such as cinemas and auditoriums with multi-ceiling and/or floors, creating a more accurate representation for the as-built conditions. CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the proposed method to automatically identify, segment and reconstruct the building elements from the 3D-PCD. Figure 3-1 presents the suggested framework, and the evaluation approaches used for the output. The framework consists of the following four steps: (1) pre-processing as 3D point cloud preparation; (2) transforming 3D point cloud to 2D image preparing for vertical building elements identification; (3) identification and segmentation of the building elements; and (4) surface reconstruction to develop a 3D model adopted by multiple software. It should be noted that the proposed method is fully automated after the Pre-processing step. The input of the proposed framework is the 3D-PCD obtained by multiple scans which are implemented by a 3D laser scanner to reduce the blind spots and increase the accuracy of 3D-PCD. The framework is developed in MATLAB and CloudCompare(Compare, 2019; The MathWorks, 2019) to reconstruct a 3D model that can be adopted into Revit. To evaluate the proposed framework, the evaluation matrix including accuracy, difference, recall, deviation, processing time, precession and F1 score is developed and applied.


Figure 3-1: An overview of the proposed methodology

### 3.1 Pre-processing

The objective of the pre-processing in this research is to ensure that 3D-PCD has sufficient quality before the transformation, Identification and segmentation, and surface reconstruction. In this respect, the targets of this step are: (1) prevention of blind spots; (2) outlier removal; and (3) 3D-PCD leveling. It is important for the proposed method to capture building elements by multiple scans on different locations of the observation space (i.e., room) to not only ensure all sides of vertical building elements (e.g., columns) are visible but also minimize the loss of 3D-PCD. In this respect, the multiple scans are conducted and their 3D-PCD are combined using Trimble RealWorks 10.0 (Trimble, 2019) which is software associated with the 3D scanner used. Although the combination of multiple scans provides better quality of 3D-PCD, the other aspect of this work is to generate a large volume of the 3D-PCD size which leads to increase the processing time with the low computational performance. Therefore, it is necessary to downsize and clean the 3D-PCD by manual intervention using CloudCompare. The reduction of 3D-PCD size is achieved by subsampling the 3D-PCD randomly and outlier removal. The subsampling is accomplished by CloudCompare arbitrarily picking a specified number of points from the 3D-PCD, this number is defined by the user based on the processing capabilities of the user's computing device. However, the number defined by the user should not be too low that it affects the quality of the 3D-PCD causing data loss and reduction in the accuracy of the proposed method.

The existence of reflective or transparent objects such as windows and mirrors generally produce the outliers and false data in 3D-PCD which causes a reduction in the accuracy of the proposed method, especially in the identification and segmentation of building elements step. Removing the outliers caused by these transparent surfaces is done manually by trimming the bounding box to get only the 3D-PCD of the observation space based on visual inspection. Outlier
detection was done manually through visual inspections. Figure 3-2 illustrates the 3D point cloud data before and after removing outliers. For successful transformation 3D-PCD to a 2D image, the coordinate transformation is implemented to identify the suitable dimension (length and width) of the 2D image which is determined by calculating the differences between the highest and lowest points in 3D-PCD. After filtering the 3D-PCD by removing the outlier, leveling it might be needed to ensure that the vertical elements are not tilted. This is to ensure the vertical elements are visible in the 2D images in the upcoming step. The leveling of the 3D-PCD is done manually utilizing CloudCompare, by defining three points on the surface by the user and cloud compare will use a transformation matrix to change the coordinates of the 3D-PCD. At this junction, it should be noted that the loss of 3D-PCD may occur when the suitable dimension of the 2D image is not designed since the 3D-PCD is projected to the 2D image in the transformation process. Furthermore, to reduce the computational times for the transformation process, the $X, Y$, and $Z$ coordinates of the 3D-PCD are required to move into the positive region in the three-dimensional space so that all of the coordinates have positive values.


Figure 3-2: 3D-point cloud data

### 3.2 Transforming 3D point cloud to 2D image

After pre-processing, 3D-PCD is required to transform into a 2D image which is an essential input to identify and segmentation of the vertical elements (e.g., columns and walls). For the successful transformation and column segmentation, this research uses a method proposed by Vilarino et al. (Díaz-Vilariño et al., 2015) since it provides high accuracy and time-efficiency. However, previous research proposed the method to identify and segment only the columns. In this respect, this research needs to modify the selected method to improve the extensibility which is required to identify all of the vertical building elements. As illustrated in as shown in Figure 33, the transformation of 3D-PCD into the 2D image has the following procedures: (1) project 3DPCD on a 2D plane; (2) apply threshold and binary; and (3) conduct canny edge detection (Ding \& Goshtasby, 2001).

To project 3D-PCD on a 2D plane with short computational time based on preventing the loss of the data, proper width and height of the 2D plane are determined by identifying and calculating the differences between the maximum and minimum values of the $X$ and $Y$ coordinates. As shown in (Figure 3-3-b), 3D-PCD is projected on the 2D plane, also called as the histogram including a number of points at each pixel, after eliminating $Z$ values of the points. Since all of the points, which represent vertical and horizontal building elements, are projected on the 2 D plane, some pixels including vertical building elements have a large number of points compared to other pixels that involve the horizontal building elements such as floors and ceiling. Since the objective of transforming 3D-PCD into the 2D image is to identify the vertical building elements, the points related to the horizontal building elements must be removed from the 2 D image. In this respect, a threshold depending on the size of $3 \mathrm{D}-\mathrm{PCD}$ is defined by 30 points for small spaces such as the rooms, labs, washroom and 60 points for large areas such as entire houses and office buildings.

These thresholds are determined based on the experiments in this paper. That is, when the number of points at the pixels is less than the threshold, the number of points is defined as zero to remove the undesired building elements from the 2D image. Otherwise, as shown in (Figure 3-3-c), the number of points at the pixels is not changed and these pixels are considered as the vertical building elements which are columns represented as circles and walls represented as the straight lines. To illustrate the vertical building elements clearly in the 2 D image for the shape identification algorithm (i.e., Hough Transform), an edge detection technique such as Canny, Prewitt, Roberts, and Sobel should be implemented to extract, smoothen and filter the edges in the binary image. In this respect, the 2D image is converted as a binary image which the white pixels regard as potential vertical elements and black pixels are the locations of no interestobjects. At this junction, it should be noted that the canny edge detection technique provides the smoothest, single-pixel thickness and well-connected edges for lines and circles based on the experiments in this paper. Furthermore, the Canny edge detector is the best technique to collaborate with circle and line Hough transform in terms of accuracy of the shape identification. As shown in (Figure 3-3-d), the Canny edge detector produces the smooth 2D image by removing the noise using a Gaussian filter and fixing and improving the edges using a hysteresis threshold. More details could be found in Vilarino et al. (Díaz-Vilariño et al., 2015).

(a)
(b)


Figure 3-3: (a) 3D point cloud, (b) Projecting the 3D point cloud on a 2D plane, (c) Canny edge detection, and (d) Threshold and Binary

### 3.3 Identification and segmentation

The identification and segmentation are implemented based on the types of building elements which are horizontal and vertical elements. Furthermore, preliminary surfaces of segmented building elements are developed as a pre-requisition step for 3D model reconstruction. At this junction, it should be noted that to complete the identification and segmentation successfully, this research adopts a few algorithms: (1) Hough circle and line transform to identify vertical building elements, such as columns and walls; and (2) RANSAC cylinder and plane to not only identify and segment vertical and horizontal building elements such as walls, floors, and ceilings but also develop preliminary surface models for all types of building elements. In this respect, the main resources for this step are the 2D images for the identification of the vertical building elements and 3D-PCD for the segmentation of the building elements.

### 3.3.1 Vertical Plane Building Elements

Based on the 2D image, Hough circle transform (HCT) identifies the column information including locations, number of columns, and radii from the 2 D image. In terms of radii computation for columns, HCT assumes the radii as the range of 9 to 50 cm since circular concrete columns usually have radii of 10 cm or more (Giakoumelis \& Lam, 2004). Since all points on the 2D image are represented as $X$ and $Y$ coordinates, as shown in (Figure 3-4- a), the radius $\left(r_{j}\right)$, which is $j$ th of the columns, is computed by the following procedures: (1) identify the center of the circle $\left(\mathrm{C}_{x}, \mathrm{C}_{y}\right)$; (2) calculate the distances between $\left(\mathrm{C}_{x}, \mathrm{C}_{y}\right)$ and the points $\left(P_{x}^{i}, P_{y}^{i}\right)$; and (3) select the maximum value among the distances resulted by the step (2). Based on these procedures, the radii of the identified columns are determined satisfying Eq. (1). The number of columns is determined by the number of circles found by the HCT in the 2D image.

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{j}=\operatorname{Max}\left[\sqrt{\left(\left(P_{x}^{i}-C_{x}\right)^{2}+\left(P_{y}^{i}-C_{y}\right)^{2}\right)}\right] \quad i=1,2 \quad j=1,2 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where $i=$ a number of points in $j$ th of columns; $j=$ a number of columns.
As a conservative process to prevent the loss of 3D-PCD, the region of interest (ROI) is defined as the structures located within a rectangular box centered on the center of the column, the length ( $L_{R O I}$ ) and width ( $W_{R O I}$ ) of which are made 3D PCD-specific according to the relationship, $L_{R O I}$, $W_{R O I}=\left(1.3 \times 2 \times r_{j}\right)($ Figure 3-4-b). Once the locations, ROIs, and the number of columns is identified by HCT, this information projects into 3D-PCD for the segmentation of the columns. However, as shown in (Figure 3-4- c), the segmented column has an uncompleted shape of the column which may lead to failing 3D model reconstruction. In this respect, the surface models illustrated in (Figure 3-4-d), which are used as input for 3D model reconstruction is fitted utilizing cylinder RANSAC, are developed to recover uncompleted parts of the columns. It should be noted
that the height of the column is determined by measuring the distance between the maximum and minimum of $Z$ coordinates on the ROI in 3D-PCD.


Figure 3-4: Identification and segmentation of a column

As a continuous work to reconstruct the vertical plane elements in the building, Hough line transform (HLT) is used to identify wall information such as the locations, lengths, and the number of lines in the 2D image. In terms of lengths and the number of lines for walls, HLT assumes that
the lengths of the walls should be at least 100 cm as a conservative measure since the minimum wall length in rooms (bathrooms) should not be less than 120 cm in the building code in Ontar io (Giakoumelis \& Lam, 2004). Since all points on the 2D image are represented as $X$ and $Y$ coordinates, as shown in (Figure 3-5-a), the number and lengths of the lines are computed by the following procedures: (1) calculate the distances $\left(d_{k}^{l}\right)$ using Eq. (2) from the origin point $(0,0)$ to the closest points $\left(p_{x}^{l, k}, p_{y}^{l, k}\right)$ on potential lines $(k)$ generated by angles $\left(\theta_{k}^{l}\right)$, which is a range $[-90$, 90]. The potential lines must pass through pixels ( $l$ ) located on a wall line; (2) map $d_{k}^{l}$ and $\theta_{k}^{l}$ on 2D graph which x -and y -axis are $\theta$ and $d$, respectively; and (3) identify the points which have the same values of the $\theta$ and $d$. These points become wall lines that are used to determine the number, locations, and lengths of walls.

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{k}^{l}=p_{x}^{l, k} \cos \theta_{k}^{l}+p_{y}^{l, k} \sin \theta_{k}^{l} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Unlike the segmentation of columns, the identified walls are segmented by utilizing plane RANSAC algorithm instead of ROI to prevent to involve outliers and false data such as furniture into the wall dataset. However, one of the shortcomings commonly associated with using RANSAC is the arbitrary number of iterations for RANSAC given by the users, this might cause over or under segmentation of the given data leading to wastage of computational effort and time. Therefore, this research overcomes these issues by defining the number of iterations of RANSAC as the number of walls identified from HLT. RANSAC segments the 3D-PCD of walls based on the following procedures: (1) randomly selecting a subset of points of the 3D-PCD; (2) fitting a vertical plane model in the selected subset; (3) finding the number of inliers and outliers of the plane model based on a threshold defined by the user equal to 0.04 cm ; (4) repeating the previous steps till finding the plane model with the most inliers. Once the vertical plane models with most inliers are located by RANSAC illustrated in (Figure 3-5-b), the inlier points are segmented and
labeled as walls represented in (Figure 3-5-c). Information about the dimensions of the segmented walls and their plane models are used not only to identify the ceiling, floors, and stairs but also in surface reconstruction steps.


Wall Plane \#1

(c)

Figure 3- 5: Identification and segmentation of walls

### 3.3.2 Horizontal Plane Building Elements

For the identification and segmentation process of horizontal plane elements such as ceilings, floors, and stairs, this research uses a heuristic approach which implements plane RANSAC iteratively in the ROIs defined in the 3D-PCD. The proposed heuristic approach is implemented by the following procedures: (1) the heights of the walls segmented in the previous step are identified and compared; (2) when there are different heights on the walls, there are multiple floors and connected by stairs; (3) the wall with the lowest height is used as a datum for defining the ROIs of the horizontal plane elements; (4) the ROIs are subdivided into sub-ROIS, the sizes of the sub-ROIs are determined based on the height of the ROI and the type of the horizontal plane elements; (5) horizontal and vertical plane RANSAC is utilized in each sub-ROI to identify, segment and create preliminary surface for the horizontal plane elements in it; and (6) the $x, y, z$ coordinates of the segmented 3D-PCD are compared in each iteration of RANSAC to the predecessor iteration to eliminate the repeated 3D-PCD which have the same values of the coordinates.

The ROI is the area where the targeted horizontal plane elements may exist in the 3D-PCD. In this respect, according to the types of horizontal building elements, defining these ROIs is crucial to not only improve the accuracy butalso reduce the computationtimes in the identification process. The ROIs are determined based on the types of the horizontal plane elements, Zcoordinates of the 3D-PCD, and the logical locations of the building elements. For example, the floors are logically located in the lowest level of the building and connected to the bottom of the walls. Therefore, the ROI of the floors is defined from the minimum Z coordinate $\left(Z_{\text {min }}\right)$ of the 3DPCD to the lowest Z coordinate ( $W_{\text {min }}$ ) among the walls adding 25 cm . At this junction, it should be noted that this research uses 25 cm for a safety measure. To identify potential locations of the
ceilings in the 3D-PCD, the ROI is defined from 200 cm above the $W_{\text {min }}$ to the highest Z coordinate $\left(Z_{\max }\right)$ among the 3D-PCD. This research uses 200 cm as the starting level for the identification of the ceilings to satisfy the following requirements: (1) the minimum height of a room which is 210 cm in the building code, Ontario in Canada (ONTARIO, 2017); and (2) a conservative process to prevent the loss of the 3D-PCD. At this junction, it should be noted that the ROIs of the ceilings and floors are defined by a location of a wall, which is the lowest height among the walls segmented by the previous step in order to ensure the robustness of the proposed method in the multiple-level building spaces. In addition, comparing the heights of walls provides whether there are multiple floors in the building space or not. For instance, the proposed method considers that there are multiple floors in the space which requires the stairs to allow people to access to the floors when the heights of the walls are different. Depending on the number of different wall heights, the number of floors is determined. That is, as shown in (Figure 3-6-a), the proposed method compares the heights of the walls and identifies that there are two different wall heights. Due to these different wall heights, this space requires two floors and one staircase to build one single space.

Based on this information, the staircase ROI is defined between these two floors. However, in the multi-level building cases, the ROIs are generally large areas involving multiple ceilings and/or floors which lead to not only reduce the accuracy but also increase the computation times in the reconstruction process since the RANSAC tends to identify and segment the incorrect horizontal plane elements using outliers and false 3D-PCD which are not parts of the target horizontal building elements. To address this limitation for the accuracy improvement and the reduction of the computation times, this research divides these ROIs into sub-ROIs to reduce the area in which the horizontal plane RANSAC is applied to identify and segment the multiple ceilings and floors.

These sub-ROIs are defined using an interval that is 200 cm for the ceiling and floors based on the number of experiments implemented by authors. At this junction, it should be noted that the subROIs are not necessary when the ROI dimension (e.g., heights and lengths) is less than 200 cm . On the other hand, the interval for the staircase sub-ROI is 20 cm which is determined based on the maximum height of the rise in the building code, Ontario (ONTARIO, 2017).

Horizontal plane RANSAC is implemented at each of the sub-ROIs to identify, segment and construct the preliminary surfaces of the ceilings and floors. In the case of stairs, horizontal and vertical plane RANSAC are used to identify, segment and construct the preliminary surfaces of the stairs including the run and rise components. However, this heuristic approach might segment the same 3D-PCD multiple times during the iterations when the ceiling and floors 3D-PCD are located in the multiple sub-ROIs. To prevent this multiple uses, the proposed method compares the $x, y$, and $z$ coordinates among the 3D-PCD identified and segmented by plane RANSAC at each of the sub-ROIs in order to ensure the only one single use of the 3D-PCD by eliminating the other 3D-PCD which has the same values of the coordinates. Identification and segmentation of the horizontal building elements such as floors, ceilings, and stairs provide the following outputs: (1) the segmented 3D-PCD; (2) plane models which are mainly used in the reconstruction process; and (3) the region between the multiple floors in one single space to identify the stairs rise and run. As a result, the process flow of identifying and segmenting the horizontal building elements is described as the pseudo-code presented in (Figure 3-6-b).

(a)

```
A: Original 3D-PCD
\(\mathrm{W}_{\text {min }}\) : Min (Z-coordinates of walls)
\(Z_{\text {max }}=\) Max (Z-coordinate of A)
\(\mathrm{Z}_{\text {min }}=\mathrm{Min}\) (Z-coordinate of A )
C \(=[] / *\) Empty list for surface models of ceilings */
\(\mathrm{F}=[] / *\) Empty list for surface models of floors */
\(\mathrm{S}=[\) ]/* Empty list for surface models of stairs */
IF the identification and segmentation of ceilings
    FOR \(\mathrm{R}=\left(\mathrm{W}_{\text {min }}+200 \mathrm{~cm}\right)\) to \(\mathrm{Z}_{\text {max }}\) :
        CeilingExploring \(=\mathrm{R}+200 \mathrm{~cm}\)
        If CeilingExploring \(\neq \mathrm{Z}_{\text {max }}\)
            Implement RANSAC planes horizontally between R and CeilingExploring
            Develop the surface model of ceiling (SPC)
            Append SPC to C
Elseif the identification and segmentation of floors
    FOR \(Z_{\text {min }}\) to \(\left(\mathrm{W}_{\text {min }}+25 \mathrm{~cm}\right)\) :
        FloorExploring \(=Z_{\text {min }}+200 \mathrm{~cm}\)
        If FloorExploring \(\neq\left(\mathrm{W}_{\text {min }}+25 \mathrm{~cm}\right)\)
            Implement RANSAC planes horizontally between \(\mathrm{Z}_{\text {min }}\) and FloorExploring
            Develop the surface model of floor (SPF)
            Append SPF to F
Elseif a number of different wall heights \(>1\) for the identification and segmentation of stairs
    \(\mathrm{F}_{\text {min }}=\operatorname{Min}(\mathrm{Z}\)-coordinates of F\()\)
    \(\mathrm{F}_{\text {max }}=\mathrm{Max}\) (Z-coordinates of F )
    FOR \(\mathrm{F}_{\text {min }}\) to \(\mathrm{F}_{\text {max }}\)
        StairsExploring \(=\mathrm{F}_{\text {min }}+20 \mathrm{~cm}\)
        If StairsExploring \(\neq \mathrm{F}_{\text {max }}\)
            Implement RANSAC planes vertically and horizontally between \(\mathrm{F}_{\text {min }}\) and StairsExploring
            Develop the surface model of the stair (SPS)
            Append SPS to S
END
```


## (b)

Figure 3-6: (a) Horizontal plane elements region of interests and (b) Pseudocode of process flow

### 3.4 Surface Reconstruction

Since columns might have different diameters and heights in the buildings, an automated model-fitting algorithm is needed to reconstruct the columns from the 3D-PCD. In this respect, RANSAC is deployed to fit cylinder models in the segmented 3D-PCD belonging to the columns from step 3.3. The cylinder models created by RANSAC can adapt the heights and diameters of the columns' 3D-PCD. The cylinder models created in this step with the plane models developed in previous steps are used to develop stereolithography (STL) models. The STL file format is chosen as an exporting format for the 3D models, as it can be imported by many software and flexible to be converted to other formats. To create an STL file for a model, a triangulated mesh grid is used to represent it. Therefore, the suggested method uses the plane and cylinder models created in previous steps as a base to fit a triangulated mesh grid shown in (Figure 3-7-a). These mesh grids create the STL files for each of the building elements a shown in (Figure 3-7-b) which are able to be transformed as a DWG file format using CloudCompare a shown in (Figure 3-7-c) to establish the flexibility so that reconstructed models can be imported into CAD software such as Autodesk AutoCAD and Revit a shown in (Figure 3-7-d).

(a) Mesh Surfaces Creation
(b) STL Files Creation

(c) Transforming STL Files to DWG

(d) Importing to Revit

Figure 3-7: Surface reconstruction procedure

### 3.5 Evaluation Matrix

In terms of identification and segmentation of the building elements, the proposed methodology is evaluated by the following four criteria: accuracy, recall, precision, and F1 score. In addition, the capability of the proposed methodology to reconstruct suitable and accurate 3D representations for the building elements is evaluated by calculating the difference and deviation between the reconstructed models and the original 3D-PCD. Before explaining the identification and segmentation evaluation matrix, the parameters as input in the evaluation matrix are defined: (1) true positives (TP) are the number of building elements which are identified correctly; (2) false negatives (FN) are the number of existing building elements which are existed but not identified; (3) false positives (FP) are the number of building elements which do not exist but identified; and (4) total number (TN) is total number of each type of the building elements. It should be noted that the results for accuracy, recall, precision, and F1 range from 0 to 1 where 0 is a failure and 1 is a total success. Accuracy is the ratio between the correctly identified building element and the total number of building elements satisfying Eq. (3). Accuracy is the simplest measure of performance since it provides a general overview of how the proposed method is performing. However, it does not provide important information in which the proposed methodology misidentifies the building elements.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Accuracy }=\frac{T P}{T N} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Precision calculated by Eq. (4) is the ratio between the correctly identified building elements and the summation of both the correctly and incorrectly identified building elements. The precision indicates the capability of the proposed methodology which is to reconstruct the number of the building elements without the reconstruction of the false-positive building elements.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Precision }=\frac{T P}{T P+F P} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The recall satisfying Eq. (5) represents the ability of the proposed methodology which identifies the same number of the building elements as ones existed in the building. That is, this criterion is reduced when the proposed methodology does not identify the existing building elements.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Recall }=\frac{T P}{T P+F N} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

F1 score calculated by Eq. (6) is to measure the overall accuracy of the proposed method based on the consideration of FP and FN building elements. In other words, it is a more detail level of accuracy whether or not the proposed methodology misidentifies and/or misses the building elements.

$$
\begin{equation*}
F 1=2 \times \frac{\text { Precision } \times \text { Recall }}{\text { Precision }+ \text { Recall }} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

To evaluate the capability of the proposed methodology to develop suitable and accurate 3D representations for the building elements, this research uses two criteria which are size differences and deviations (i.e., orientation and location) between the 3D-PCD of the building elements and the reconstructed 3D model. The 3D-PCD was used as the ground truth in this comparison since

| Building element |  | Size Difference |  |  | Deviation |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Height | Diameter | Length | Width | Location |
| Columns | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ | Orientation |
| Walls | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Ceilings |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Floors |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Staircase (Runs) |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Staircase (Rises) | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | CHAPTER 4: IMPLEMENTATION AND RESULTS

This chapter describes the application, validation and evaluation results of the proposed methodology in the previous chapter. To do so, three different real-life cases were chosen to validate the effectiveness of the proposed methodology. The proposed methodology implementation and results will be presented in the upcoming sections.

### 4.1 Implementation

To achieve the targeted objectives by this research and to test the validity of the proposed method, the case studies, equipment and software used, need to be defined. This section will describe the chosen cases to test the proposed method, the equipment used for data collection and the required software for processing the 3D-PCD.

### 4.1.1 Environments

The proposed method is validated using three different sites at Gina Cody School of engineering and computer science building, Concordia University, Sir George Williams Campus, Montreal, Quebec, Canada (see Figure 4-1). Each site is chosen to test a certain aspect of the framework: (1) the lab office to test the proposed method in small simple spaces with low number of features as shown in (Figure 4-2-a); (2) the EV building entrance hall to test its ability to work with multiple ceilings and columns with different dimensions and locations as shown in (Figure 4-3-a); and (3) an auditorium to validate its capability to work with multiple floors and the stairs illustrated in (Figure 4-4- a). Table 4-1 summarizes the number of scans and reference targets required, information about the 3D-PCD and the existing building elements, and the processing time spent to run the proposed method. A different number of scans were required to generate the 3D-PCD for each of the 3 case studies and the reasons as follows: (1) for the lab, it is a small
confined space with only one column, therefore, only two scans were required at both sides of the column to minimize the blind spots caused by the column preventing loss of 3D-PCD. (2) for the entrance hall, it is a larger space with 6 columns, therefore, five scans were required from different angles in the space to minimize the blind spots caused by the columns preventing loss of 3D-PCD. (3) for the auditorium, three scans were required from different angles and elevations in the space to minimize the blind spots caused by the chairs preventing loss of 3D-PCD. For visualization, (Figure 4-2-b), (Figure 4-3-b), and (Figure 4-4-b) show the locations of setting up the 3D Laser scanner to capture the as-built condition for the spaces and acquire the 3D-PCD that the proposed method will be validated and evaluated by, more details about the laser scanner will be discussed in the upcoming section.


Figure 4-1: (a) EV building, and (b) EV building location in SGW Campus (Concordia University, 2019)


Figure 4-2: (a) Lab office 3D-PCD, and (b) Lab office 2D plane and scan locations

(a)

(b)

Figure 4-3: (a) EV entrance hall 3D-PCD, and (b) EV entrance hall 2D plane and scan locations


Figure 4-4: (a) Auditorium 3D-PCD, and (b) Auditorium 2D plane and scan locations

Table 4-1: Case study information

| Location | \# of | \# of |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| walls | \# of | \# of | \# of stairs | \# of | \# of | \# of reference |  |  |
| ceilings | floors | steps | Points | Scans | spheres |  |  |  |
| Lab | 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | $4,658,215$ | 2 | 3 |
| EV Hall | 3 | 6 | 2 | 1 | 0 | $4,568,841$ | 5 | 5 |
| Auditorium | 6 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 9 | $9,364,616$ | 3 | 5 |

### 4.1.2 Hardware

This section will discuss the equipment required for data collection of the as-built conditions of the three test cases in the form of 3D-PCD, and for 3D-PCD processing and applying the proposed methodology. These pieces of equipment are as follow:

1. Equipment used for 3D-PCD collection:

To generate the 3D-PCD for the three test cases, a laser scanner "Faro Focus 3D x 130" was used. This laser scanner was chosen to collect the $3 \mathrm{D}-\mathrm{PCD}$ as it was available in the lab. The accuracy of the scans collected by this laser scanner was compared to other 3D-PCD collection methods (i.e., stitching images). It was clear that the accuracy of the laser scanner was higher than the other methods. Therefore, it was chosen as the data collection method for the proposed method since it was important to accurately collect the dimensions of the building elements. The laser scanner was deployed to scan the three test cases and collect 3D point clouds by scanning multiple times in each case to cover the whole scanned space. To combine these multiple scans (also called as registration process) reference targets were needed, therefore spherical targets were utilized in the test cases to combine and align the 3D-PCDs. It is important to note that the spherical reference
targets should be on different planes and at least three of them are visible by the scanner in each scan, this is for the alignment and combination process of the 3D-PCD (Faro Inc., 2020).

Technical specifications for the laser scanner that affected this research are available in Table 4-2 (Faro Inc., 2020; Lafi, 2017). The range of the laser scanner is 130 m which is the reason for the naming, which was sufficient for the chosen case studies spaces, however, it was noticed in the case of EV entrance hall, columns at larger heights had sparse 3D-PCD. The ranging error of the laser scanner is $\pm 2 \mathrm{~mm}$, which is enough to measure the dimensions of the building elements existing int the 3D-PCD. The field of view (FOV) of the laser scanner covers the entire horizontal angles. however, the FOV for the vertical angle is $300^{\circ}$ the missing part is in the form of the circular hole beneath the laser scanner, therefore, to fill these holes, multiple scans in the spaces.


Figure 4-5: Laser scanner and spherical reference targets deployment

| Laptop | Razer Blade 15 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Processor | Intel Core i7 CPU @ 2.20 GHz |
| RAM memory | $16.0 \mathrm{~GB}(2 \times 8.0 \mathrm{~GB})$ DDR4 |
| Storage space | $512 \mathrm{~GB}(\mathrm{SSD})$ |
| Graphics Card | NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1070 Max-Q Design |
| Operating system | Windows 10 Home 64-bit operating system |

### 4.1.3 Software

To align and combine (register) all the scans gathered by the laser scanner and create the 3DPCD, Trimble Real works 10.0.4 was used since it was the software associated with the laser scanner (Trimble, 2019). CloudCompare 2.10.2 was used for a multiple of reasons throughout the research: (1) Downsizing and cleaning the 3D-PCD as mentioned in the methodology chapter, (2) measuring the dimensions of the building elements in the 3D-PCD for evaluation; and (3) calculating the mean distances between the reconstructed model and the 3D-PCD (Compare, 2019). The methods introduced in this research are developed and applied using MATLAB R2017a, using some toolboxes and functions available in the MathWorks library (The MathWorks, 2019). Finally, Blender 2.81 was used to give thickness and colors to each of the building elements for better visualization as shown in Figure 4-8 (Blender Org., 2020).


Figure 4-6: Registering the 3D-PCD using Trimble Real Works software


Figure 4-7: Cleaning the 3D- PCD from outliers using CloudCompare software


Figure 4-8: Applying colors to the final 3D reconstructed model using Blender software

### 4.2 Results

This section will discuss the application, results, and evaluation of the proposed method on the three test cases. It should be noted that this research does not represent the procedures for the transformation of the 3D-PCD to 2D image and 3D reconstruction since this research follows the common procedures in 3D reconstruction studies.

### 4.2.1 Vertical plane building elements

EV building entrance hall is used to test the capability of the proposed method to identify, segment, and reconstruct columns involving different dimensions. Based on the 2 D image, as shown in (Figure 4-9- a), Hough circle transform (HCT) captures the column information such as the number of columns which are six columns, their locations and center points, and radii. This information is used to define the region of interests (ROIs) located on the center points of the columns in order to not only prevent the loss of 3D-PCD but also facilitate the segmentation of the columns. In this respect, since the ROIs are represented as rectangular boxes, the dimensions of the ROIs (the lengths and widths) are $78 \mathrm{~cm} \times 78 \mathrm{~cm}$ and $104 \mathrm{~cm} \times 104 \mathrm{~cm}$ when the radii of the columns are 30 cm and 40 cm , respectively. These ROIs are projected into the 3D-PCD to identify
and select the columns-related 3D-PCD as shown in (Figure 4-9-b) and to segment them illustrated in (Figure 4-9-c). Instead of the number of iterations defined by users manually for the segmentation, this study uses six times determined by the number of columns resulted from the HCT. In this respect, as illustrated in (Figure 4-9- d) RANSAC is deployed six times to fitcylinder surface models in the segmented 3D-PCD of columns adapting to the dimensions of the columns.


Figure 4-9: Identification and segmentation of columns

As one of the vertical plane building elements, the walls in the auditorium are identified, segmented, and reconstructed. Since the walls are represented as lines in the 2D image, Hough line transform (HLT) is implemented to identify the wall information including the number of walls where are six, locations, and the lengths which are from 160 cm to 1480 cm . To develop the automated segmentation of the walls using the vertical plane RANSAC, the number of iterations is defined as six which are the same as the number of walls identified by the HLT. As a result, plane RANSAC segments and build wall plane models that involve the same dimensions and locations as ones in real. However, walls \#5 and \#6 were segmented together, and the last iteration of RANSAC segmented the screen in the auditorium.

### 4.2.2 Horizontal plane building elements

EV building entrance hall is used to validate the capability of the proposed method to identify, segment, and reconstruct multiple ceilings, while the auditorium case was utilized for multiple floors and stairs. As discussed earlier, the horizontal plane building elements are identified and segmented by a heuristic approach that implements vertical and/or horizontal plane RANSAC iteratively on the ROIs of the 3D-PCD in accordance with the types of the building elements. In this respect, the ceiling ROI is defined from 200 cm above the lowest Z coordinate among the walls, which is $W_{\min }=0 \mathrm{~cm}$, to $Z_{\max }=1640 \mathrm{~cm}$ which is the highest $Z$ coordinate among the 3DPCD. As a result, the height of the ceiling ROI is 1440 cm which is relatively a large area including two ceilings. As represented in (Figure 4-10-a), the ROI of the ceilings is subdivided by 200 cm . In this respect, there are a total of seven sub-ROIs that have the same height but the last one is 40 cm . In addition, the number of the sub-ROIs is used to determine the number of iterations to run the horizontal plane RANSAC (eight iterations) in order to not only identify and segment multiple ceilings but also constructing preliminary surface models utilized for the reconstruction process.
(Figure 4- 10-b) represents a result of ceiling identification, segmentation and surface development.


Figure 4-10: Identification and segmentation of ceilings

The identification and segmentation of the floors are implemented based on similar procedures to ones used in the ceiling identification and segmentation. However, the auditorium case involves six walls which are used to determine whether or not there are multiple floors and staircase based on the comparison of the wall heights. Since there are different wall heights, 800 cm , and 450 cm , the auditorium space has two floors and one staircase. In this respect, the floor ROI is defined from 0 cm which is the lowest $Z$ coordinate of the 3D-PCD to 375 cm which is calculated by adding 25 cm from the lowest Z coordinate among six walls $\left(W_{\text {min }}=350 \mathrm{~cm}\right.$ ). As shown in (Figure 4-11-a), this ROI is subdivided into two sub-ROIs which have 200 cm and 175 cm heights. The horizontal plane RANSAC has been run twice in accordance with the number of the sub-ROIs to identify and segment the floors represented in (Figure 4-11-b). To allow people access to these floors, the stairs consisting of the nine runs and rises, illustrated in (Figure 4-11-c), are identified and
segmented by the vertical and horizontal plane RANSAC running eighteen times each which are a number of the staircase sub-ROIs divided the staircase ROI ( 0 cm to 350 cm ) by 20 cm .


Figure 4-11: Floors and stairs identification and segmentation

### 4.2.3 Evaluation

Although the proposed method identifies, segments and reconstructs the building elements successfully, the reconstructed models are shown in Figure 4- 12 should be evaluated by the proposed matrix to validate the effectiveness of the proposed method. In terms of the total computation time, the proposed method takes approximately 125,130 , and 500 seconds to reconstruct 3D models for lab office, EV entrance hall and auditorium cases respectively. The increase in the processing time for the case of the auditorium is due to the existence of stairs which requires to run vertical and horizontal plane RANSAC eighteen times, respectively. To evaluate
the performance of the proposed identification and segmentation, four criteria, which are accuracy, recall, precision, and F1 score, are measured based on one column, ceiling, floor and four walls in the lab office, six columns and two ceilings in the EV entrance hall and two floors, six walls and a staircase with 9 stairs in the auditorium. As shown in Table 4-4, columns, ceilings, stairs, and floors have the highest scores among the four criteria in which the proposed method is implemented efficiently and effectively without identification and segmentation of false positive and negative building elements. However, the walls in the auditorium have 0.83 in precision since plane RANSAC recognizes wall \#5 and \#6 as one wall and the screen (vertical planar shape) as the other wall even though the Hough line transform identifies six walls accurately. Due to the reconstruction of the false-positive wall, the F1 score is reduced as 0.91 . However, the recall and accuracy are not affected by the precision and F1 score since all the walls are identified, segmented and reconstructed.


Figure 4-12: Reconstruction results of Lab office, EV entrance hall, and auditorium (sidewall \#4 is removed for visualization in both the lab and auditorium case studies)

Table 4-4: Results of the evaluation matrix

| Test Case | Building Element | Accuracy | Precision | Recall | F1 score |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Lab Office | Column | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|  | Floor | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|  | Ceiling | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|  | Walls | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| EV Entrance | Column | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Auditorium | Sailing | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|  | Floor | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|  | Walls | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|  |  | 0.83 | 1 | 0.91 |  |

Although the performance of the proposed methodology is evaluated by the criteria described above, there is not sure whether or not the 3 D reconstructed models are built corresponding to the building elements in 3D-PCD in terms of dimensions, locations, and orientations. In this respect, the size differences and deviation are measured based on the result of the 3 D reconstruction process and the 3D-PCD. The different types of size differences are used in accordance with the types of building elements. As a result, the size differences and deviation are represented in Table 4-5. The positive values indicate that the building elements in 3D-PCD are larger than the reconstructed 3D model while the negative values are vise versa. The minimum size differences are represented in
the diameters of the columns and heights and lengths of the walls. In this respect, the size difference ranges between 1 cm and 10 cm which are relatively lower than 90 cm in other studies (Franz et al., 2018; Murali et al., 2017; Valero, Adán, \& Bosché, 2016). Even though the size difference exhibited by the proposed method is an improvement compared to previous approaches, to the best knowledge of the author, there is no standardized threshold or a technique that can be used to know whether this size difference is acceptable or not. Other size differences of the building elements are measured largely with high variances even though the type of the building elements is the same and located in the same building space. For example, the height differences of the columns are varied from 4 cm to 45 cm in the case of the EV entrance hall due to the large scale of the building space and occlusion during the scanning. However, in the lab office which is smaller and more confined space compared to the EV entrance hall, the column exhibited a low size difference of less than 1 cm . Moreover, although the floor \#1 is reconstructed successfully with low size differences, 5 cm in length and 13 cm in width, the floor $\# 2$ has high size differences, 93 cm in length and 36 cm in width, due to the chairs shown in Figure 4-11 leading to consider as a part of the floor by the planar RANSAC. Within this reason, the size differences of the runs and rises in the staircase range from 0 cm to 45 cm . In terms of the deviation, the proposed methodology reconstructs the 3D building elements with a relatively low deviation ranging from 0.6 cm to 9 cm . Based on the consideration of the multi-level building spaces, the proposed methodology has a lower location (LOC) and orientation (ORI) deviation in the ceilings, floors, and runs and rises in the staircase than ones in the columns and walls.

Table 4-5: Results of the size difference and deviation

| Test Case | Building element | Size Difference |  |  |  | Deviation |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{cm})$ | D (cm) | L (cm) | W (cm) | LOC (cm) | ORI (cm) |
| Lab office | Ceiling | - | - | -3 | -2 | 0.8 | - |
|  | Floor | - | - | -6 | -6 | - | 0.6 |
|  | Column | -0.3 | -0.5 | - | - | 2.8 | - |
|  | Wall \#1 | -1 | - | -5 | - | - | 2.1 |
|  | Wall \#2 | 4 | - | -9 | - | 3.2 | - |
|  | Wall \#3 | 3 | - | -5 | - | 1.8 | - |
|  | Wall \#4 | -3 | - | 1 | - | 0.9 | - |
| EV | Column \#1 | 15 | 3 | - | - | 7.7 | - |
| Entrance | Column \#2 | 4 | 1 | - | - | 7.0 | - |
| Hall | Column \#3 | 35 | -1 | - | - | 6.0 | - |
|  | Column \#4 | 45 | 2 | - | - | 3.0 | - |
|  | Column \#5 | 30 | 1 | - | - | 6.0 | - |
|  | Column \#6 | 34 | -1 | - | - | 9.0 | - |
|  | Ceiling \#1 | - | - | -27 | -7 | 3.0 | - |
|  | Ceiling \#2 | - | - | 18 | 38 | 1.8 | - |
| Auditorium | Wall \#1 | -4 | - | 3 | - | - | 2.8 |
|  | Wall \#2 | 3 | - | -8 | - | 0.5 | - |
|  | Wall \#3 | 2 | - | -4 | - | - | 2.4 |
|  | Wall \#4 | 6 | - | -6 | - | 0.6 | - |
|  | Wall \#5 \& \#6 | 7 | - | -10 | - | 2.8 | - |
|  | Floor \#1 | - | - | 5 | 13 | 0.3 | - |
|  | Floor \#2 | - | - | -93 | 36 | 0.4 | - |
|  | Staircase (Rise) | 4 (0) * | - | 45 (1) * | - | - | 5.0 (1.0) * |
|  | Staircase (Run) | - | - | 30 (2) * | 10 (1) * | 0.6 (0.3) * | - |

*The values of the staircase indicate the maximum and minimum

## CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORKS

### 5.1 Summary

Accurate 3D representation for as-built conditions of buildings is essential in the renovation and remodeling industry to develop as-built 3D models used to generate the shop drawings with time and cost-saving. In this respect, the reconstruction procedures generally consist of: (1) identification and segmentation of building elements; and (3) reconstructing the segmented building elements 3D-PCD. However, these procedures, especially identification and segmentation, tend to be tedious, manual, error-prone and time-consuming tasks due to the perception-basednumber of iterations, over- or under-segmentation of the building elements from 3D-PCD, and uncertainty to reconstruct the 3D building elements in multi-level building space. In this respect, this research proposes an automatic 3D geometric reconstruction approach which mainly focuses on developing the efficient and effective identification and segmentation process using Hough circle and line transform techniques, region of interest, and plane RANSAC. The proposed 3D-PCD reconstruction system consists of the following steps: (1) cleaning and preparing the $3 \mathrm{D}-\mathrm{PCD}$; (2) transforming 3D-PCD to a 2 D image; (3) identification and segmentation of building elements; and (4) reconstructing the segmented building elements 3DPCD into simple forms such as planes and cylinders. The proposed method offers the following benefits: (1) the fully automated process with very little input by the user, able to identify, segment and reconstruct building elements such as columns, stairs, walls, ceilings, and floors.; (2) efficiency improvement by defining the number of iterations for RANSAC, instead of being arbitrarily given by the user while retaining high accuracy in terms of identification and segmentation; (3) error reduction and accuracy improvement of the reconstruction process by
defining the locations and small areas where RANSAC will be implemented, reducing the effect of outliers on it; and (4) expanding upon the applicability of the reconstruction process by taking into consideration multi-level space such as cinemas and auditoriums with multi-ceiling and/or floors, stairs and columns. The end-user for the proposed method is expected to be the modeling architect who is tasked to construct a 3D model that represent the as-built conditions and later on use it for remodeling or apply changes to the scanned environment. The effectiveness of the proposed framework is evaluated in accuracy, precision, recall, and F1 score. The proposed method was able to identify and segment almost all targeted building elements in the three cases studies used to test the proposed method. In the detail level of the evaluation, the ceilings, floors, and stairs in multi-level building spaces are reconstructed successfully with low location and orientation deviation.

### 5.2 Future Works

In the future, the proposed methodology could be improved by: (1) reconstruct window walls such as glass facades in the building; (2) improve the size difference and deviation between the 3D-PCD and the reconstructed model are required to improve caused by furniture existing in the scanned space; (3) investigate different 3D scanners and/or methods to improve the quality of the scanned 3D-PCD; (4) taking into consideration slanted ceilings, walls, columns, and floors would improve the applicability of the proposed method; (5) expanding on the identified elements by adding openings such as windows and doors for better representation of the as-built conditions of the scanned environment; (6) creating connections between building elements and creating the IFC models for the development of the building information modeling (BIM); (7) identifying the materials of the building elements based on the RGB information of the 3D-PCD ; (8) exploring the benefits of combining multiple data acquisition methods such as stitching digital images and

905
laser scanner; and (9) exploring the possibility of adding structural information such as steel rebars existing in the concrete building elements.

## REFERENCES

3DReshaper. (2019). 3DReshaper. Retrieved 20 October, 2019, from https://www. 3 dreshaper.com/fr/

Anagnostopoulos, I., Pătrăucean, V., Brilakis, I., \& Vela, P. (2016). Detection of walls, floors, and ceilings in point cloud data. Paper presented at the Construction Research Congress 2016.
association, C. H. b. (2019). Economic Impacts of the Housing Industry. Retrieved 2 August, 2019, from https://www.chba.ca/CHBA/Housing in Canada/Information and Statistics/Information Statistics.aspx

Azhar, S., Khalfan, M., \& Maqsood, T. (2012). Building information modeling (BIM): now and beyond. Construction Economics and Building, 12(4), 15-28.

Berger, M., Tagliasacchi, A., Seversky, L. M., Alliez, P., Guennebaud, G., Levine, J. A., . . . Silva, C. T. (2017). A survey of surface reconstruction from point clouds. Paper presented at the Computer Graphics Forum.

Chen, J., Cho, Y. K., \& Kim, K. (2018). Region proposal mechanism for building element recognition for advanced scan-to-BIM process. Paper presented at the Construction Research Congress 2018.

Chen, J., Kira, Z., \& Cho, Y. K. (2019). Deep learning approach to point cloud scene understanding for automated scan to 3D reconstruction. Journal of Computing in Civil Engineering, 33(4), 04019027.

Chida, A., \& Masuda, H. (2016). Reconstruction of polygonal prisms from point-clouds of engineering facilities. Journal of Computational Design and Engineering, 3(4), 322-329.

Choi, S., Kim, T., \& Yu, W. (1997). Performance evaluation of RANSAC family. Journal of Computer Vision, 24(3), 271-300.

Compare, C. (2019). CloudCompare 3D point cloud and mesh processing software Open Source Project. Retrieved 20 October, 2019, from https://www.danielgm.net/cc/

Delage, E., Lee, H., \& Ng, A. Y. (2007). Automatic single-image 3d reconstructions of indoor manhattan world scenes Robotics Research (pp.305-321): Springer.

Díaz-Vilariño, L., Conde, B., Lagüela, S., \& Lorenzo, H. (2015). Automatic detection and segmentation of columns in as-built buildings from point clouds. Remote Sensing, 7(11), 15651-15667.

Dimitrov, A., \& Golparvar-Fard, M. (2015). Segmentation of building point cloud models including detailed architectural/structural features and MEP systems. Automation in Construction, 51, 32-45.

Ding, L., \& Goshtasby, A. (2001). On the Canny edge detector. Pattern Recognition, 34(3), 721725.

Eric Levenson, M. B. a. E. G. (2019). A fire gutted parts of Notre Dame Cathedral and altered the Paris skyline. Retrieved 18 February 2020, from https://www.cnn.com/2019/04/15/world/notre-dame-cathedral-fire/index.html

Franz, S., Irmler, R., \& Rüppel, U. (2018). Real-time collaborative reconstruction of digital building models with mobile devices. Advanced Engineering Informatics, 38, 569-580.

Furukawa, Y., Curless, B., Seitz, S. M., \& Szeliski, R. (2009). Manhattan-world stereo. Paper presented at the 2009 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition.

Giakoumelis, G., \& Lam, D. (2004). Axial capacity of circular concrete-filled tube columns. Journal of Constructional Steel Research, 60(7), 1049-1068.

Gilbert, B. (2019). As France rebuilds Notre-Dame Cathedral, the French studio behind 'Assassin's Creed' is offering up its 'over 5,000 hours' of research on the 800 -year-old monument. Retrieved 18 February 2020, from https://www.businessinsider.com/notre-dame-fire-assassins-creed-maxime-durand-ubisoft-interview-2019-4

Grilli, E., Menna, F., \& Remondino, F. (2017). A review of point clouds segmentation and classification algorithms. The International Archives of Photogrammetry, Remote Sensing and Spatial Information Sciences, 42, 339.

Hong, S., Jung, J., Kim, S., Cho, H., Lee, J., \& Heo, J. (2015). Semi-automated approach to indoor mapping for 3D as-built building information modeling. Computers, Environment and Urban Systems, 51, 34-46.

Huber, D., Akinci, B., Oliver, A. A., Anil, E., Okorn, B. E., \& Xiong, X. (2011). Methods for automatically modeling and representing as-built building information models. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the NSF CMMI Research Innovation Conference.

Inc., F. T. (2020). Faro Focus 3D x 130. Retrieved 22 February, 2020, from https://www.faro.com/

Jung, J., Hong, S., Jeong, S., Kim, S., Cho, H., Hong, S., \& Heo, J. (2014). Productive modeling for development of as-built BIM of existing indoor structures. Automation in Construction, 42, 68-77.

Lafi, G. A. (2017). 3D thermal modeling of built environments using visual and infrared sensing. (Masters of applied sciences ), Concordia University.

Li, M., Wonka, P., \& Nan, L. (2016). Manhattan-world urban reconstruction from point clouds. Paper presented at the European Conference on Computer Vision.

Li, S., Isele, J., \& Bretthauer, G. (2008). Proposed methodology for generation of building information model with laserscanning. Tsinghua Science and Technology, 13(S1), 138144.

Lu, R., Brilakis, I., \& Middleton, C. R. (2019). Detection of structural components in point clouds of existing RC bridges. Computer-Aided Civil and Infrastructure Engineering, 34(3), 191-212.

Lu, X., Yao, J., Tu, J., Li, K., Li, L., \& Liu, Y. (2016). PAIRWISE LINKAGE FOR POINT CLOUD SEGMENTATION. ISPRS Annals of Photogrammetry, Remote Sensing \& Spatial Information Sciences, 3(3).

Lyons, K. (2019). Notre Dame fire: Macron promises to rebuild cathedral within five years. Retrieved 18 February, 2020, from https://www.theguardian.com/world/2019/apr/17/notre-dame-fire-macron-promises-to-make-cathedral-more-beautiful-than-before

Macher, H., Landes, T., \& Grussenmeyer, P. (2015). Point clouds segmentation as base for asbuilt BIM creation. ISPRS Annals of the Photogrammetry, Remote Sensing and Spatial Information Sciences, 2(5), 191.

Macher, H., Landes, T., \& Grussenmeyer, P. (2017). From point clouds to building information models: 3D semi-automatic reconstruction of indoors of existing buildings. Applied Sciences, 7(10), 1030.

Murali, S., Speciale, P., Oswald, M. R., \& Pollefeys, M. (2017). Indoor scan2bim: Building information models of house interiors. Paper presented at the 2017 IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems (IROS).

Ochmann, S., Vock, R., \& Klein, R. (2019). Automatic reconstruction of fully volumetric 3D building models from oriented point clouds. ISPRS journal of photogrammetry and remote sensing, 151, 251-262.

Oesau, S., Lafarge, F., \& Alliez, P. (2014). Indoor scene reconstruction using feature sensitive primitive extraction and graph-cut. ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing, 90, 68-82.

ONTARIO, Q. S. P. F. (2017). THE ONTARIO BUILDING CODE ONLINE. Retrieved 14 January, 2020, from http://www.buildingcode.online/

Org., B. (2020). Open source 3D creation. Free to use for any purpose, forever. Retrieved 22 February 2020, from https://www.blender.org/

Pătrăucean, V., Armeni, I., Nahangi, M., Yeung, J., Brilakis, I., \& Haas, C. (2015). State of research in automatic as-built modelling. Advanced Engineering Informatics, 29(2), 162171.

Pérez-Sinticala, C., Janvier, R., Brunetaud, X., Treuillet, S., Aguilar, R., \& Castañeda, B. (2019). Evaluation of Primitive Extraction Methods from Point Clouds of Cultural Heritage Buildings Structural Analysis of Historical Constructions (pp. 2332-2341): Springer.

Qi, C. R., Su, H., Mo, K., \& Guibas, L. J. (2017). Pointnet: Deep learning on point sets for $3 d$ classification and segmentation. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition.

Rwamamara, R., Norberg, H., Olofsson, T., \& Lagerqvist, O. (2010). Using visualization technologies for design and planning of a healthy construction workplace. Construction Innovation, 10(3), 248-266.

Schnabel, R., Wahl, R., \& Klein, R. (2007). Efficient RANSAC for point-cloud shape detection. Paper presented at the Computer graphics forum.

Tallon, A. (2014). Divining Proportions in the Information Age. Architectural Histories, 2(1).
Tarsha-Kurdi, F., Landes, T., \& Grussenmeyer, P. (2007). Hough-transform and extended ransac algorithms for automatic detection of 3 d building roof planes from lidar data. Paper presented at the ISPRS Workshop on Laser Scanning 2007 and SilviLaser 2007.

Tatarchenko, M., Dosovitskiy, A., \& Brox, T. (2017). Octree generating networks: Efficient convolutional architectures for high-resolution $3 d$ outputs. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision.

MathWorks. (2019). MATLAB. Retrieved 31 December, 2019, from https://www.mathworks.com/products/matlab.html

Thomson, C., \& Boehm, J. (2015). Automatic geometry generation from point clouds for BIM. Remote Sensing, 7(9), 11753-11775.

Trimble. (2019). Trimble RealWorks. Retrieved 31 December, 2019, from https://geospatial.trimble.com/products-and-solutions/trimble-realworks

Ubisoft. (2019). Supporting Notre-Dame de Paris. Retrieved 18 February 2020, from https://news.ubisoft.com/en-us/article/2Hh4JLkJ1GJIMEg01k3Lfy/supporting-notredame-de-paris

University, C. (2019). Venue. Retrieved 21 February, 2020, from https://www.concordia.ca/events/conferences/plundered-cultures/venue.html

Valero, E., Adán, A., \& Bosché, F. (2016). Semantic 3D reconstruction of furnished interiors using laser scanning and RFID technology. Journal of Computing in Civil Engineering, $30(4), 04015053$.

Wang, Q., Tan, Y., \& Mei, Z. (2019). Computational Methods of Acquisition and Processing of 3D Point Cloud Data for Construction Applications. Archives of Computational Methods in Engineering, 1-21.

Zhang, Z., Huang, Y., Zhang, W., \& Luo, J. (2017). Comparisons of planar detection for service robot with RANSAC and region growing algorithm. Paper presented at the 2017 36th Chinese Control Conference (CCC).


Figure 6-1: Results of each step in the Proposed methodology for the lab office case study


Figure 6-2: Flowchart for the case of lab office case study


Figure 6-3: Results of each step in the Proposed methodology for the EV entrance hall case study


Figure 6-4: Flowchart for the case of EV entrance hall case study


Figure 6-5: Results of each step in the Proposed methodology for auditorium case study


Figure 6-6: Flowchart for the case of auditorium case study

| Room | Area | Walls | Height |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Main Bedroom | 9.8 m 2 (with Closets) | 2.7 m | 2.1 m |
|  | 8.8 m 2 (without) |  | 2.1 m |
| Secondary Bedroom | 7.0 m 2 (with Closets) | 2.0 m | 2.1 m |
|  | 6.0 m 2 (without) |  | 2.1 m |
| Dining room | 3.25 m 2 | 2.3 m | 2.1 m |
| Living room | 13.5 m 2 | 3.0 m | 2.1 m |
| Bathroom | - | 1.2 m | 1.98 m |
| Kitchen | 4.2 m 2 | - | 0.76 m (width) |
| Doors | - |  |  |


[^0]:    Dr. Amir Asif, Dean, Gina Cody School of Engineering and Computer Science

