



1 **Rapid detection of centimeter-scale change in a Mars analog**
2 **environment using ground-based mobile LiDAR**

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11 **Abstract.** Landed missions to dynamic planetary surfaces require tools capable of measuring the small-scale
12 topographic changes driven by active surface processes. A ground-based LiDAR scanner is one of the few instruments
13 capable of detecting the centimeter-scale changes that are expected due to both natural processes such as wind erosion
14 and sedimentary reworking, as well as artificial processes resulting from robotic/human exploration. At landing site
15 scales, a ground-based LiDAR scanner on a mobile platform can collect cm-scale topographic information more
16 efficiently than using a scanner on a stationary mount. To demonstrate the viability of mobile LiDAR for planetary
17 missions, we conducted scans at a Mars analog site in central Iceland. Scans before and after a windstorm detected
18 erosion and deposition of sand on the order of a few cm, with a detection threshold of ~1 cm. The ability of the mobile
19 platform to collect data over extremely short timescales (<30 minutes) made it possible to conduct spontaneous scans
20 to record opportunistic targets after the windstorm, while maintaining cm-scale resolution. This makes a compelling
21 case for the inclusion of mobile LiDAR on future missions to explore planetary surfaces such as the Moon, Mars and
22 Titan.



23 1. Introduction

24 Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR) is a common means of acquiring high-resolution topographic data from diverse
25 surface environments (Cremons, 2022; Dong and Chen, 2017). In planetary exploration, LiDAR has largely been
26 limited to orbital-based applications (e.g., the Mars Orbiter Laser Altimeter, MOLA) for regional scale mapping and
27 surveying purposes that typically produce maps with a spatial resolution of tens to hundreds of meters per pixel
28 (Cremons, 2022). While meter-scale topography from stereo optical image pairs exists for few extraterrestrial bodies
29 (e.g., Burns et al., 2012; Sutton et al., 2022), centimeter-scale topographic data for planetary surfaces is rare. On the
30 lunar surface, cm-scale topographic data only exists for select regions at 3 of 6 Apollo sites (Helfenstein and Shepard,
31 1999), and the Chang'E 4 and 6 landing sites (Wu et al., 2021; Yan et al., 2025). These data were obtained using
32 stereo photogrammetry which, unlike LiDAR, is dependent on external illumination. Although a growing list of
33 confirmed and proposed planetary surface missions (e.g., Colaprete, 2021; Ulamec et al., 2023) aim to collect more
34 cm to sub-cm resolution stereo imagery from across the Solar System, asteroid Bennu remains the only extra-terrestrial
35 body to date with cm-scale LiDAR derived topographic data (Seabrook et al., 2022).

36 Numerous Earth-based applications have leveraged LiDAR technology to produce repeat topographic surveys with
37 ultrafine (cm to sub-cm) precision using stationary mounts (Heritage and Hetherington, 2007; Jaboyedoff et al., 2012;
38 Sutton et al., 2024). More recently, mobile LiDAR systems mounted on vehicles or backpacks have been introduced
39 (e.g., Di Stefano et al., 2021; James and Quinton, 2014; Kukko, 2013). At landing site scales (10s to 100s of meters),
40 mobile systems can capture cm to mm-scale detail up to 40 times faster than static topographic surveys, since it is not
41 necessary to continually reposition the stationary instrument to limit shadowing (Di Stefano et al., 2021; James and
42 Quinton, 2014). Rovers provide an obvious platform for the use of mobile LiDAR on planetary surfaces. Despite an
43 increasing number of planetary landers and rovers aiming to utilize LiDARs, most are primarily equipped for guidance
44 and navigation purposes (e.g., Huang and Xu, 2024; Setterfield et al., 2021), not geologic investigations. The absence
45 of science-oriented LiDARs on planetary surfaces contributes to a lack of understanding of surface processes that
46 dominate at sub-meter scales. The work presented here demonstrates the rapid survey capabilities of a ground-based
47 mobile LiDAR system in detecting cm-scale change at a large sand sheet in Iceland, while highlighting potential use
48 cases for other planetary surfaces.

49 2. Instrumentation and Methodology

50 The LiDAR system used in this study consists of a 1550 nm *Riegl VUX-1HA* sensor mounted on a backpack frame
51 along with a Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) antenna and an Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU). The
52 backpack configuration paired with a *Stonex S900* static GNSS receiver acting as a reference station allows for rapid
53 topographic data acquisition from surfaces within a few hundred meters of a traversed path, while maintaining cm-
54 level accuracy (Perkins et al., 2025). To test the utility of the mobile LiDAR system for acquiring cm-scale topographic
55 data from a landing site scale region, we conducted a study at Holuhraun (Iceland). Holuhraun refers to a fissure-fed
56 rift zone associated with the Bárðarbunga–Veidivötn volcanic system located in central Iceland (Thordarson and
57 Larsen, 2007), the latest eruption of which produced an 83.5 km² lava flow-field in 2014–2015 (Gudmundsson et al.,
58 2016; Voigt et al., 2021). Due to its Arctic location, lack of vegetation, and presence of abundant volcanic products,



59 Holuhraun is considered a high-fidelity analog for Martian terrain (Carr et al., 2024; Gwizd et al., 2024; Voigt et al.,
60 2025).

61 On July 24, 2022, an approximately 13,200 m² sand covered section along the northern margin of the Holuhraun lava
62 flow-field (Fig. 1a; hereafter referred to as “sandramp”) was scanned in <30 minutes using the backpack LiDAR.
63 Following an intense windstorm on the morning of July 31, another <30-minute scan was performed at the same
64 location on August 1, 2022. The windstorm subjected the area to gale force winds with sustained windspeeds over 16
65 m/s and gusts exceeding 20 m/s (Hadland et al., 2026), causing noticeable redistribution in sand cover (Figs. 1b, c).
66 The raw data from the mobile LiDAR surveys were processed using the Inertial Explorer and Spatial Explorer software
67 to obtain georeferenced 3-dimensional (3D) point clouds of the region before and after the windstorm. The point
68 clouds were spatially downsampled to a minimum point spacing of 5 mm using CloudCompare (cloudcompare.org,
69 v2.14) to reduce data volume. A smaller 175 m² region of interest (ROI) within the sandramp (Fig. 1a) was selected
70 for further analysis using cloud-to-cloud differencing. The ROI was selected due to the presence of stationary objects
71 (i.e., rocks and boulders), sand ripples and visually apparent topographic variations. Stationary objects within the
72 scene act as points of reference between the scans and could potentially highlight patterns in sand depth variation.
73 Both downsampled point clouds of the ROI contain over 5.2 million points with an average point density of ~31,000
74 points/m².

75 **2.1. Registration and Uncertainty**

76 For the 2022 LiDAR datasets, we registered the August 1st (‘after’) point cloud to the July 24th (‘before’) point cloud
77 by manually picking nine corresponding point pairs on the tops of rocks and boulders, which were interpreted to be
78 unchanged between the scans. The average distance between points on the undisturbed surfaces in the before and after
79 point clouds represents the registration error between the clouds. We isolated these undisturbed surfaces using the
80 Cloth Simulation Filtering (CSF) algorithm (Zhang et al., 2016) in CloudCompare. We then applied the Multiscale
81 Model to Model Cloud Comparison method (M3C2, see following section; Lague et al., 2013) to calculate the distance
82 between the isolated unchanged points in the before and after clouds. The mean vertical distance was 0.003 m (3 mm),
83 and the mean horizontal distance was 0.0004 m (0.4 mm). This demonstrates that the registration error is dominated
84 by vertical offsets with minimal impact from horizontal errors. We thus use only the vertical dimension when reporting
85 results, allowing for direct representation of erosional and depositional changes.

86 **2.2. Point Cloud Differencing**

87 The detection of surface changes caused by the windstorm was conducted by differencing the before and after point
88 clouds using the M3C2 algorithm (Lague et al., 2013). Recent studies utilized M3C2 to identify meter to cm-scale
89 changes in ground-based LiDAR data from terrestrial analog sites including Holuhraun (Bretzfelder et al., 2025;
90 Sutton et al., 2024). M3C2 operates on a reference point cloud by computing normal vectors of several surfaces at
91 local scales and measuring the movement (or lack thereof) between points in the reference cloud and points in the
92 compared cloud along each surface normal. The resulting cloud-to-cloud distances can have positive or negative
93 values, enabling detection of elevation gain or loss. M3C2 also calculates a 95% confidence interval for the distance,
94 based on the registration error of the point clouds and the local surface roughness (Lague et al., 2013).



95 We applied M3C2 to our point clouds in the vertical (z) direction using the before cloud as the reference. The normals
96 were calculated within a spherical neighborhood of 16 cm in diameter centered on each point on the reference cloud
97 and changes were identified within a cylinder of 8 cm in diameter projected around the surface normals, up to a
98 maximum column depth of 1.1 m (see Lague et al., 2013 for an explanation of parameters). We used 0.003 m as the
99 registration error and calculated the vertical distance between the clouds. Results were projected onto the July 24th
100 cloud for visualization (Fig. 1d).

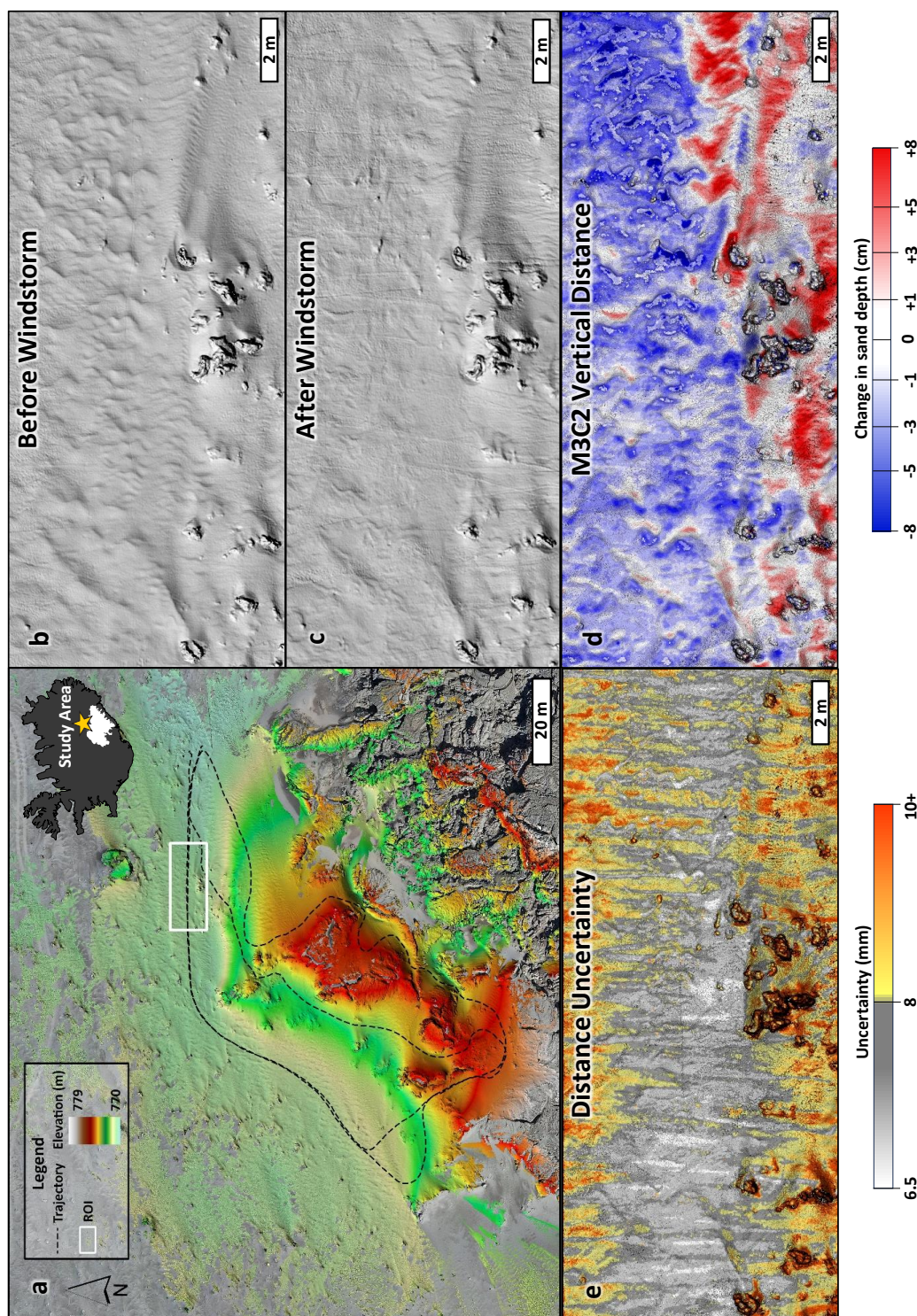


Figure 1: (a) July 24, 2022, LiDAR-derived shaded relief map of the sandramp on the northern margin of the Holuhraun lava flow-field, showing the mobile LiDAR trajectory (dashed line) and ROI (white box, centered at 64.92005°N, 16.74503°W). The shaded relief map is overlaid on a UAS-derived orthoimage obtained on July 25, 2022 (Hamilton et al., 2026). The inset on the top-right shows a map of Iceland with Holuhraun's location indicated by a yellow star. (b) July 24, 2022, hillshade of the ROI at 1 cm/pixel resolution (before windstorm) and (c) August 1, 2022, hillshade of the ROI at 1 cm/pixel resolution (after windstorm). (d) M3C2 vertical distance map of the ROI, showing erosion (blue) and deposition (red) of sand between the July 24th and August 1st scans. White corresponds to regions with little to no change (± 1 cm). The map represents change within ± 8 cm, with darker colors indicating larger values. (e) M3C2 vertical distance uncertainty map of the ROI. The values range between 6.5 mm to > 10 mm. Regions with uncertainty > 9 mm are shown in orange, with darker colors indicating larger values. Regions with 8–9 mm of uncertainty are shown in yellow, and < 8 mm are shown in grey, with lighter colors indicating smaller values.



102 **3. Results**

103 The before (Fig. 1b) and after (Fig. 1c) hillshades generated from 1 cm/pixel Digital Elevation Models (DEMs) provide
104 an overview of the effects of the windstorm on the ROI. The cm-scale DEMs were rasterized from their respective
105 point clouds by averaging height values within 0.01 m (1 cm) grids and interpolating to fill gaps. We utilized a similar
106 rasterization process using the Volume Calculation tool in CloudCompare to measure the erosion and deposition
107 volumes between the scans. We estimate the ROI experienced erosion of 2.03 m³ and deposition of 1.07 m³ between
108 July 24 and August 1, 2022, resulting in a net erosion of 0.96 m³ across the 175 m² region. Erosion within the ROI is
109 evident from many sand ripples seen before the windstorm having been completely or partially removed after the
110 windstorm (Figs. 1b, c).

111 The M3C2 vertical distance between the before and after clouds (Fig. 1d) shows the erosion of ripples in the north
112 and center of the ROI (blue, Fig. 1d) and the deposition of sediment along the lava flow margin in the south of the
113 ROI (red, Fig. 1d). Regions within ±1 cm of change are considered “no change” and are shown in white. Ripple
114 migration in the prevalent wind direction (West to East), highlighted by alternating blue and red colors, is observed in
115 the upper-left to upper-middle part of the scene. Maximum magnitudes of erosion and deposition across the ROI were
116 on the order of 5–8 cm (Fig. 1d). While a larger portion of the ROI experienced decrease in sand depth after the
117 windstorm, patterns of sand deposition appear to be more prevalent leeward of larger boulders (Fig. 1d).

118 Accounting for the vertical registration error of 3 mm, the uncertainty of the distance measurements at 95% confidence
119 (Lague et al., 2013) for most points was <1 cm, with an average value of 8 mm, representing the approximate detection
120 threshold of significant change in the ROI (Fig. 1e). Lower uncertainties (~6.5 mm) are found in the center of the ROI
121 (light grey, Fig. 1e) and the largest uncertainties (>1 cm) are found on the edges of the ROI and around boulders
122 (orange, Fig. 1e). Larger uncertainties likely stem from distance from the instrument location during the traverse (Fig.
123 1a) and the complex geometry of the rocks, causing extensive shadowing in LiDAR scans.

124 **4. Discussion**

125 Using point clouds derived from <30-minute mobile LiDAR scans, we identify cm-scale topographic changes caused
126 by a windstorm in a Mars analog region located in Iceland. We measured change in surface elevation within a 1–8 cm
127 threshold and movement of sand ripples, along a sand-covered volcanic margin within the study area. Through co-
128 registration using GNSS-based and manual registration methods, we established an average uncertainty of 8 mm for
129 the measured changes. We also calculated erosion and deposition volumes within the region of interest and identified
130 a net decrease in sand volume between the scans. Our results demonstrate that it is possible to acquire cm-scale
131 topographic data at landing site scales with a ground-based mobile LiDAR instrument in less than an hour; this is
132 more efficient than data acquisition with comparable stationary instruments. High spatial resolution topographic data
133 with well-constrained error will be instrumental to our understanding of the geologic processes occurring on other
134 planets; these processes are imperceptible to orbital instruments, especially at sub-meter scales. Our work shows that
135 the change detection methods demonstrated here can be applied to detect and quantify cm-scale change on other
136 planetary surfaces, if the appropriate data is available. Equipping rovers with a mobile LiDAR scanner would allow
137 them to efficiently acquire such data as they move about a planetary surface.



138 Combining cm-scale topographic data with existing multitemporal meter-scale remote sensing observations can help
139 track the movement of aeolian features such as ripples and dunes (e.g., Bretzfelder et al., 2026). Our observations of
140 what we perceive to be short-duration (~7 days) ripple migration identified in our scans could be particularly relevant
141 to tracking similar features on Mars and Titan (Greeley et al., 2001; Marshall and Fenton, 2025). Topographic
142 information collected at similar scales can also be useful in determining the effects of landing spacecraft on the Moon
143 and Mars, which has implications for studying landing site alteration and related impacts due to planetary surface
144 exploration (Jimenez Cuesta et al., 2025; Luo et al., 2023).

145 It is important to note that attaining cm-scale precision significantly depends on the ability to accurately register or
146 “georeference” the collected data. For terrestrial LiDAR applications, this may be achieved through utilizing a
147 combined GNSS/IMU configuration (Di Stefano et al., 2021; Pöpl et al., 2025) and use of ground control points
148 (GCPs). Although no navigation framework similar to the Global Positioning System (GPS) currently exists for other
149 planets, there are proposals aiming to change that in the near future (Esper et al., 2025; Zanotti et al., 2024). However,
150 cm-scale topographic data can and has been collected in GPS-denied settings using specialized LiDAR mapping
151 techniques (Di Stefano et al., 2021; Zanetti et al., 2022, 2023). Multitemporal data obtained through GPS-denied
152 techniques may be co-registered with one another, with existing maps or orbital remote sensing data (e.g., Sutton et
153 al., 2022) using georeferencing algorithms available in popular Geographic Information Systems (GIS) software
154 packages (Hackeloeer et al., 2014; Kumar et al., 2023). Accurate information about localized scale and position can
155 be obtained through co-registration of mobile LiDAR data collected in the absence of GNSS/GPS. This indicates that
156 a similar system on another planet would be able to characterize surface changes similarly to that done with using a
157 standard mobile LiDAR with GNSS.

158 5. Conclusion

159 The ability to accurately measure topographic features at multiple scales makes LiDAR a powerful tool for observing
160 change on planetary surfaces. However, only a limited number of spacecraft currently utilize LiDARs for geologic
161 investigations. Our work demonstrates the ability of a ground-based mobile LiDAR system to detect cm-scale wind-
162 driven change at a landing site scale region in central Iceland, while highlighting the efficiency of mobile data
163 acquisition over stationary tools. We use LiDAR-derived topographic data to identify cm-scale vertical change within
164 the study area, while constraining the error to <1 cm. This indicates that minimizing error through careful co-
165 registration would enable cm-scale change detection on planetary surfaces by LiDAR equipped landers and rovers,
166 even in the absence of GPS. Our results have direct implications for studying fine-scale natural or exploration-driven
167 phenomena encountered by landed assets on the surfaces of the Moon, Mars, and Titan. Overall, our work underscores
168 the potential for ground-based mobile LiDAR systems to enhance scientific exploration of dynamic planetary surfaces
169 by detecting change at centimeter scales in shorter timeframes than previously possible.

170 Data availability

171 LiDAR point clouds and DEMs from this study are made freely available through OpenTopography at
172 doi.org/10.5069/G92805VK (Vanga et al., 2026)



173 **Author contributions**

174 SV: Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Validation, Data curation, Formal analysis, Project
175 administration, Investigation, Methodology
176 RPP: Writing – review & editing, Investigation, Methodology, Project administration
177 CDN: Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology,
178 Investigation, Funding acquisition
179 MRZ: Formal analysis, Methodology, Supervision, Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Conceptualization
180 BBC: Methodology, Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Formal analysis, Project administration
181 CWH: Investigation, Project administration, Validation, Visualization, Writing – review & editing, Methodology,
182 Funding acquisition

183 **Competing interests**

184 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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