

# **Site Mapping Guide**

International Organisation for Migration (IOM)

# Table of contents

<b>Introduction</b>	<b>4</b>
What is a Site Map? . . . . .	5
Audience . . . . .	5
When and how can site maps be used . . . . .	5
Acknowledgments . . . . .	6
Feedback . . . . .	7
<b>I Part 1 - Preparation</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>1 Identifying requirements</b>	<b>9</b>
1.1 Stakeholders . . . . .	9
1.2 General Requirements . . . . .	10
1.2.1 Personnel . . . . .	10
1.2.2 Context . . . . .	10
1.2.3 Time . . . . .	10
1.2.4 Funding . . . . .	10
1.2.5 Hardware and Software . . . . .	11
1.2.6 Connectivity . . . . .	11
<b>2 Deciding on an approach</b>	<b>12</b>
2.1 Information needs . . . . .	12
2.2 Conflict and Data Sensitivity . . . . .	12
2.3 Data Security and Responsibility . . . . .	14
2.4 Regulatory environment . . . . .	14
2.5 Organizational requirements . . . . .	15
<b>II Part 2 - Obtaining imagery</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>3 Using satellite imagery</b>	<b>17</b>
3.1 Types of satellite imagery . . . . .	17
3.2 Cloud cover . . . . .	18
3.3 Spatial resolution . . . . .	18
3.4 Imagery sources . . . . .	19
<b>4 Using UAV imagery</b>	<b>20</b>
4.1 Obtaining a drone kit . . . . .	20

4.2	Pre-flight . . . . .	20
4.2.1	Flight plan, nadir vs oblique images . . . . .	20
4.2.2	Ground control points . . . . .	22
4.2.3	Community engagement . . . . .	22
4.2.4	Path and image overlap . . . . .	22
4.2.5	Altitude Ground sampling distance . . . . .	22
4.3	Flight . . . . .	22
4.4	Post-Flight . . . . .	22
4.5	Post-Flight processing . . . . .	22
4.5.1	Orthomosaics with WebODM . . . . .	22
<b>III</b>	<b>Part 3 - Developing Maps</b>	<b>23</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>Tracing and labelling</b>	<b>24</b>
5.1	Manual tracing . . . . .	25
5.2	Automatic tracing . . . . .	25
<b>6</b>	<b>Composing site maps</b>	<b>26</b>
6.1	Examples . . . . .	26
6.2	Working in GIS . . . . .	26
6.2.1	Loading data layers and verifying projections . . . . .	26
6.2.2	Layers and elements of a site map . . . . .	27
6.2.3	Visualizing data layers . . . . .	29
6.2.4	Print Layouts and Using Templates . . . . .	29
6.2.5	Saving the data layers and styles into a Geopackage . . . . .	29
<b>7</b>	<b>Collaboration</b>	<b>30</b>
7.1	Information and knowledge management . . . . .	30
7.2	Generating geoPDFs . . . . .	30
7.3	Reading and annotating geoPDFs . . . . .	31
7.4	Gathering feedback and map iteration. . . . .	31
<b>IV</b>	<b>Annexes</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>Acknowledgements</b>		<b>33</b>
<b>Glossary</b>		<b>34</b>
<b>Further reading</b>		<b>35</b>

# Introduction

Welcome to *SiteMapping.Guide*, an online guidance for the production of site maps in humanitarian response. Site maps are a key resource at all stages of a camp lifecycle; from the site planning of empty or partially settled land; the coordination and management of services on a site; the development and improvement of a sites' infrastructure; to the site closure/handover/decommissioning stage.

The aim of this guidance is fourfold:

1. **Broaden the development of site maps to more humanitarian actors** and profiles, mainstreaming the skills required and reducing reliance on a limited pool of specialized profiles.
2. **Increase the speed at which site maps are developed.** The shorter the lead time for creating site maps, the more useful they are for planning activities and coordinating partners in site, especially in sudden onset contexts.
3. **Scale the availability of site maps** to increase their benefit to responses in a wider number of sites as well as in a wider number of countries.
4. Encourage the creation of **consistent site map products**, in terms of visuals, quality and process that are affected population-centric and that adhere to data responsibility and safeguarding standards.

## Warning

This guidance is in draft-stage, much of the content is missing and its structure may be subject to change.

The Site Mapping Guide provides a full step-by-step workflow to develop site maps. It also outlines key considerations and data protection risks associated with the management of drone captured imagery, as well as the responsible dissemination of related information products produced in the process.

This guide presents two different approaches to developing site maps. The first approach uses existing satellite imagery and the second uses drones to capture aerial imagery of sites when and where satellite imagery is not available or not suitable.



Figure 1: The Site Mapping Workflow *Source: IOM*

## What is a Site Map?

While no strict definition of a site map exists, this guidance considers site maps to be physical or electronic maps of IDP displacement sites that use imagery (aerial or satellite), along with the tracing and labelling of infrastructure (current or planned) as a tool for planning, coordination and risk analysis.

### **i** Note

Infographics or maps, which focus on needs or activity/output-level indicators are, for the purpose of this document, considered as Site Profiles rather than Site Maps and are beyond the scope of this guide.

## Audience

This guide is for any Camp Coordination Camp Management, Shelter, or assessment actor, working in humanitarian contexts, requiring site maps to do site planning, camp coordination or risk analysis and working at either agency or inter-agency level.

While some prior knowledge of GIS software is beneficial for those who plan to use this guide, it is not a prerequisite. We hope that the steps documented in the below chapters are sufficient in detail and clarity for first-time users and will accompany new and experienced site mappers through the process of making site maps, from creating and visualising spatial data to exporting and disseminating standardized site maps.

## When and how can site maps be used

Site maps can illustrate camp settings in both sudden-onset disasters as well as protracted emergencies. They can be used to support the following activities:

- **Site planning** during sudden-onset emergencies or protracted crises.
- **Site improvements** - using site maps to plan improvements to infrastructure and site layout for disability and inclusion, GBV and fire hazard risk mitigation.

- **Site-level camp coordination** amongst service providers and ensuring coordination in the establishment of essential site infrastructure and camp services.
- CCCM coordination at the Cluster-level.
- GBV/ Protection **Safety Audits** conducted through direct observation, key informant interviews, focus group discussions.



Figure 2: Rehabilitation of Wau PoC site *Source: IOM*

## Acknowledgments

This guide was developed by IOM, with considerable inputs, support and feedback by many experts in fields such as site planning, GIS, CCCM and GBV. Financial support for this guide was generously provided by United States Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration (BPRM) through the Safe From the Start Initiative. A full list of names of those who contributed or support to this guide can be found in the [acknowledgements annex](#).

## **Feedback**

Many of the approaches and software/hardware tools are quickly evolving and improving. As such, we consider this guide to be a living document. If you have any suggestions on how we can improve this guide, please reach out to majones@iom.int and bmcdonald@iom.int.

## **Part I**

### **Part 1 - Preparation**

# 1 Identifying requirements

Producing site maps requires a significant investment of personnel, time, software and hardware. In addition to these, the political/security/conflict context of the area, as well community acceptance and regulatory framework are factors to consider in whether or not site maps can be developed in your context and if so, which approach is most feasible.

Before jumping into **how** to develop site maps, it is important to first assess **if they can or should** be developed:

1. Are site maps needed in your context and what activities or decisions will they inform?
2. What stakeholders need to be involved, both in the development of the site maps (affected population, local and national authorities, staff, etc) and in their use (CCCM actors, local authorities, etc)? *How will buy in from these stakeholders be ensured?*
3. What is required to develop site maps in your context? Regardless of the chosen approach, the development of site maps requires funding, personnel, time, hardware, software, and connectivity. A shortcoming on any of these may affect the feasibility or timeline of the development of site maps.
4. What red-line contextual challenges, risks and sensitivities exist or may arise during the development of the site maps that could affect the overall feasibility or appropriateness of their development?

## 1.1 Stakeholders

Whilst the development of site maps should be approach and context dependent, typically the following stakeholders will be involved:

- **Affected population in sites.** These need to be consulted before collecting drone-captured imagery to make sure they are informed and consent to the activity in order to minimize risks associated with this approach and prevent any misunderstandings.
- **Humanitarian actors.** These can help inform which and how many sites need to be mapped. Humanitarian actors, especially those on the ground, will also feed into the iteration process of the site maps, in order to validate geographic information and keep the maps and the underlying data layers up to date.

- **Authorities.** The authorities are a crucial interlocutor for approvals. In addition, their engagement can promote the use of the site maps in decision making processes. The participation of authorities in the site mapping process will also facilitate the handover and long term management of information, expertise and equipment, as well as support capacity development initiatives for future scenarios.
- **Legal team.** IOM Legal colleagues will provide any additional guidance on data collection, processing and sharing related to your specific context and are responsible for providing the final approval on the use of drones.

## **1.2 General Requirements**

Developing site maps typically requires the following:

### **1.2.1 Personnel**

Staff with relevant skills and expertise. Support staff such as drivers and procurement support will also be needed. Depending on the number of sites and how quickly the site maps are needed, the site mapping team may need to be scaled up.

### **1.2.2 Context**

The security, political and regulatory environment play a large role in determining the approach to site mapping in a country but also whether or not the process is feasible at all. Identification of such challenges and potential risks is best done as early as possible to avoid wasting resources or to allow sufficient time to mitigate them.

### **1.2.3 Time**

Developing site maps can be a time-intensive process, requiring prior consultations with various stakeholders, lead-time for procurement of equipment, travel time for site visits, time for collecting and processing the imagery, composing the site maps and collaboratively iterating and updating their content. These are important factors to consider when looking at the time frame of their intended use.

### **1.2.4 Funding**

There are a series of financial costs involved in the development of site maps that need to be taken into account. Annex 4 provides a table with indicative figures for the purpose of costing a site mapping exercise.

### **1.2.5 Hardware and Software**

Depending on the chosen approach, not all items in the below table will be required. Highlighted are items which are required regardless of the chosen approach:

Hardware	Software
<b>Laptop</b>	<b>QGIS</b> (or other GIS software)
Drone kit	WedODM
Android Tablet	<b>Avenza maps</b>

### **1.2.6 Connectivity**

In situations of sudden onset disasters, connectivity can be very challenging and quite often can lead to bottlenecks and delays. While connectivity requirements vary depending on the chosen approach, a minimum degree of connectivity should be assumed for the initial gathering the required geographic information and data layers.

## **2 Deciding on an approach**

There are two approaches to making sites maps presented in this guide. The main difference between the two is in how aerial imagery is obtained:

- 1. Using high-resolution satellite imagery.**
- 2. Using drones to capture aerial images of the site.**

Each of these approaches have pros and cons and it is important to evaluate each approach against the following criteria before assessing which approach to take in your context:

### **2.1 Information needs**

It is important to be clear on what images you want to collect and for which specific purpose. Consider whether you need only an image/orthomosaic or whether you are look to create a Digital Elevation Model, a 3D model, a NDVI index etc. as this will affect your flight plan. Think about whether there are others applications outside of site mapping that you are in need of, such as drainage analysis, slope analysis, landslide risk analysis or vegetation cover analysis. Consider what area needs to be covered whilst bearing in mind that larger areas require longer flight times, more storage etc.

You should not be flying the drone above as many areas as possible to collect as many images as possible and then decide what to do with them. The data collection must be adequate, relevant and not excessive in relation to its purpose (only collect data which is needed).

### **2.2 Conflict and Data Sensitivity**

Due to protection risks, the humanitarian use of drones in conflict settings is strongly discouraged. The term “dual-use technology” is commonly used to describe a technology with both civilian and military applications. With the rise of the use of drones for military use, there is a risk that the use of drones for humanitarian purposes in sites may be perceived as a security threat by the site population or cause trauma due to an association of drones with their military uses. In conflict settings armed actors or authorities are likely to perceive the flying of drones as both a security and informational risk. This means that the importation

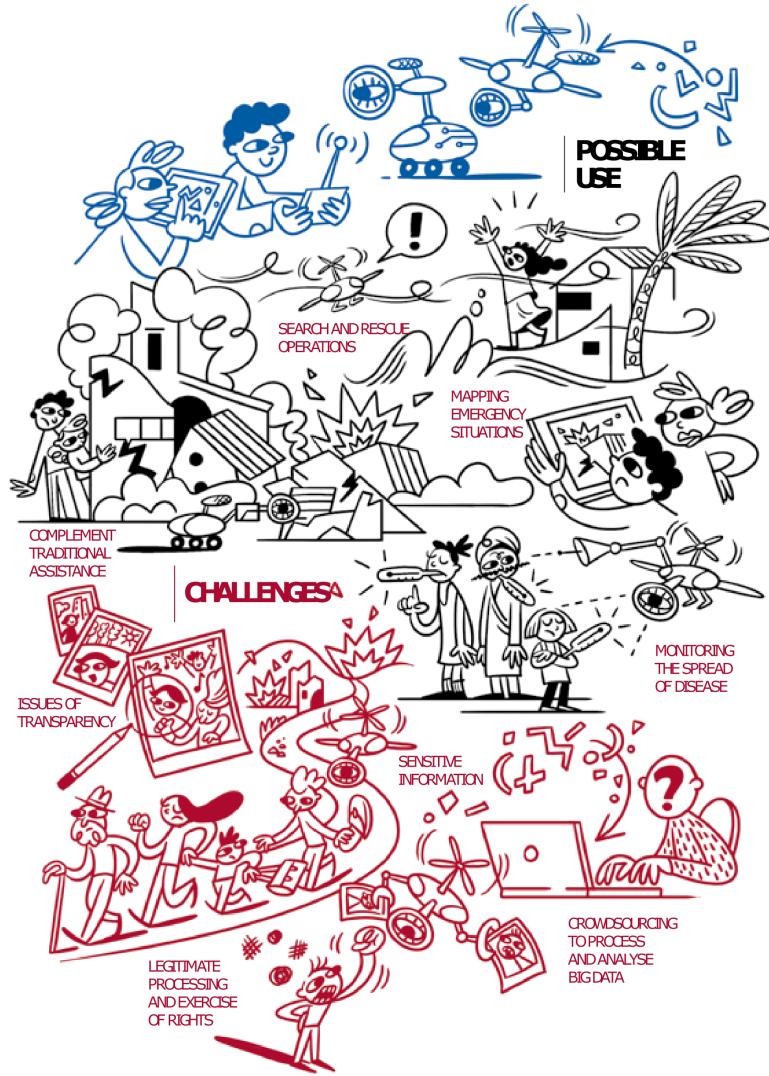


Figure 2.1: Uses and challenges of drone use *Source: ICRC*

of drone equipment and/ or the request for flight approvals will likely be denied, or that their use in a site risk being perceived as a security threat.<sup>1</sup>

There are **key considerations to take into account when collecting, processing and sharing any type of data**. These considerations determine the degree of sensitivity applied throughout the data life cycle and include:

- The potential to harm data subjects and others;
- The potential to discriminate;
- The potential to harm IOM staff and individuals representing authorized third parties.

In addition to the data risks and concerns outlined in the [IOM Data Protection Manual](#), there are additional specific concerns and risks associated with the use of drones.<sup>2</sup>

Once your flight area is identified, a risk-benefit assessment should be conducted prior to using drones. The assessment will evaluate the risks and benefits associated with collecting and processing drone captured imagery and determine whether flying a drone for the collection of aerial imagery is the best approach in your context.

## 2.3 Data Security and Responsibility

The use of drones to capture aerial images for site mapping does not require the collection of personal data. **Individuals must not be identifiable** from captured images. Ensure that the flight settings (altitude, angle etc.) eliminates or reduces as much as possible the likelihood that the captured imagery may directly or indirectly identify an individual. If, by mistake, you collect images in which people can be identified, you should immediately delete them. However, if the image taken must really be used, you can either crop the image or blur the faces of people who could be identified. While collecting the data or shortly thereafter, check whether any of the images captured contains sensitive data and therefore should be deleted or otherwise removed from/made unrecognizable in the image (for example, a group of individuals that could be identified as part of a specific group, image of illegal crops or settlement).

## 2.4 Regulatory environment

It is crucial to be aware of and fully understand the laws at both national and local-levels, as well the regulatory procedures and norms related to the use of UAVs, as these can vary significantly between contexts. The regulatory environment can refer to import procedures and restrictions; limitations on size and types on drones; pilot qualification requirements; and geographic limitations for UAV flight.

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<sup>1</sup>Chapter 7 of [ICRCs Handbook on data protection in humanitarian action](#) examines the use of drones and remote sensing.

<sup>2</sup>[IOM Data Protection Manual](#)

The [Global Drone Regulations Database](#) keeps an updated collection of country-specific regulations. It can be used to better understand the source of legal information, find relevant contact information, operating rules, as well as licensing and approval procedures.<sup>3</sup>

## 2.5 Organizational requirements

Many organizations have internal rules and guidance governing the use of technologies such as Drones. Donors may also have their own rules around their uses and the use of data resulting from the exercise. During the planning stage, it is important to contact the relevant organisation focal-point to ensure compliance with these rules.

**i** Note for IOM staff

During the planning phase, it is important that IOM staff reach out to IOM's Office of Legal Affairs (LEG) [leg@iom.int](mailto:leg@iom.int). They will provide legal and compliance guidance, as well as the latest version of the *Drone usage checklist* and *Risk-benefit analysis template*.

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<sup>3</sup>[DroneRegulations.info](#) launched by the UAViators network in 2014, is a database of national-level UAV regulations.

## **Part II**

### **Part 2 - Obtaining imagery**

# 3 Using satellite imagery

The choice of using satellite imagery, instead of capturing aerial imagery using drones, may be due to the need for rapid mapping turnaround time, lack of direct access to the area of interest or limitations to flying a drone listed in the previous chapter.

This section introduces the different types of satellite imagery, what to consider when choosing imagery most appropriate for your use case and where to source the imagery.

## 3.1 Types of satellite imagery

There are different types of satellite imagery. The types of imagery generated from a satellite depends on the kind of image-capturing method (remote sensing technology) it uses: active or passive sensors. Active sensors emit radiation towards the Earth's surface and collect the reflected radiation. Lidar and Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) are both example of active sensors. SAR emits electromagnetic pulses whereas Lidar emits light pulses towards the Earth surface, both measuring the reflection. Passive (or Optical) sensors detect radiation naturally reflected from the Earth's surface and are dependent on the day-night cycle.

For the purpose of site mapping, **satellite imagery sourced using Optical satellites is most prevalent and useful** (as these typically produce imagery with colour similar to how the human eye perceives color).

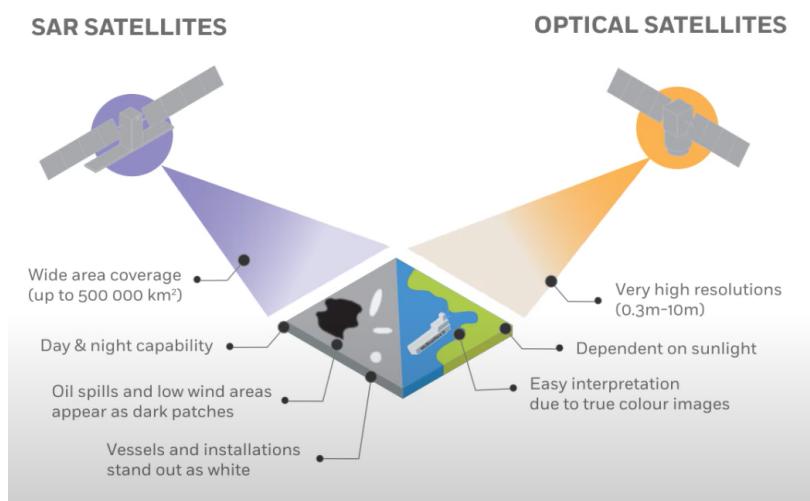


Figure 3.1: Synthetic Aperture Radar(active) vs Optical(passive) sensors *Source: ESMA Lisbon*

### **i Note on Colour bands**

Satellites produce a range of different visual outputs. These visual outputs differ in their color combinations. Wavelengths detected by the satellites are translated into color bands then can be combined to form an Index. This allows further analysis to be conducted. **True-color images**, as produced by Optical satellites and often used for mapping purposes, are a combination of the red, green and blue bands which results in a visual output similar to how we see color with our eyes. Other types of outputs include the **Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI)**, which can be used to monitor changes in vegetation, or the **False Color Infrared** combination, which can be used in water detection during the heavy rain seasons or in the event of flooding.

## **3.2 Cloud cover**

Passive satellites are not able to capture through clouds and therefore can be limited when observing certain areas with dense cloud coverage.

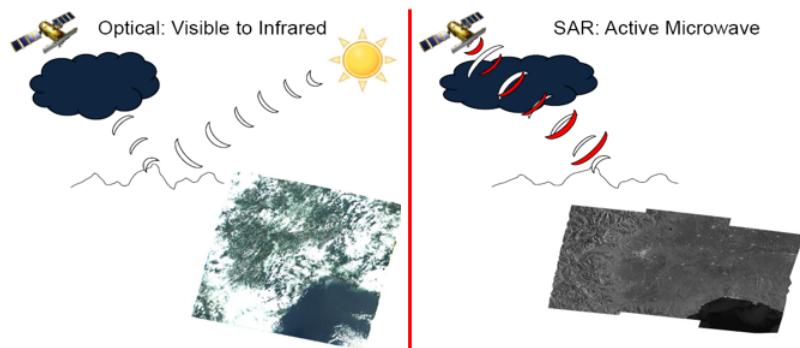


Figure 3.2: Optical imagery sources are affected by cloud cover *Source: Harris Geospatial*

## **3.3 Spatial resolution**

The resolution of a satellite image is categorized as follows:

- High resolution: 30cm-5m/pixel
- Medium resolution: 10-30m/pixel
- Low resolution: over 60m/pixel

A 10m resolution means that each pixel represents a 10m x 10m area on the ground. The smaller the spatial resolution, the higher the level of detail.

Depending on the user's needs, different image resolutions can be used:

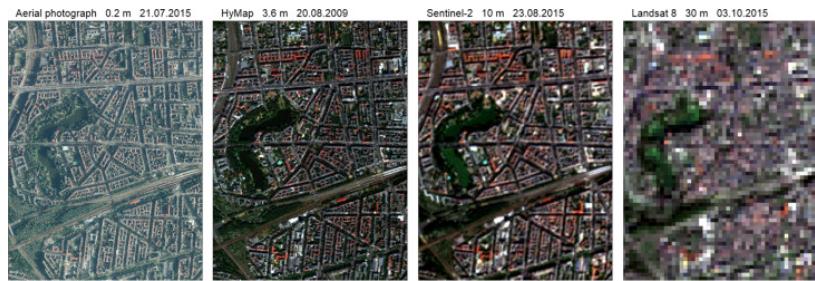


Figure 3.3: Comparison of different spatial resolutions *Source: X. Yao*

- High resolution images are used in scale analysis or monitoring since a smaller area is often covered. The level of detail at such spatial resolution allows for small and individual objects to be identified. High resolution images are ideal for humanitarian aid applications, detailed mapping, urban planning, as well as infrastructure, forestry and agriculture monitoring. However, high-resolution imagery is expensive and as a result, less of it is openly accessible. **For the purposes of creating site maps, high resolution imagery is preferable.**
- Low to Medium resolution images are useful for understanding the bigger picture, whether that is looking at historical trends or deriving insights from spectral analysis. For example, ESA's Sentinel and NASA/USGS Landsat data provide historical data at this resolution.

## 3.4 Imagery sources

Some free data sources for low to medium resolution imagery include USGS/NASA's [Land-sat](#) and [ESA's Sentinel series](#).

High-resolution imagery can be sourced from [UNOSAT](#). Some satellite image providers also provide imagery for certain select disasters. An example of this is [Maxar's Open Data Program](#). [OpenAerialMap](#) can also be a useful source, where open licenced aerial imagery is made available for download.

**i** Note for IOM staff

High-resolution Satellite imagery can be requested from IOM DTM GIS unit [dtmgis@iom.int](mailto:dtmgis@iom.int)

## 4 Using UAV imagery

After conducting a risk-benefit assessment and consing collect aerial imagery using drones, the following section outlines the steps for engaging with the community, obtaining a drone kit, planning and carrying out the flight and processing the capture images.

### 4.1 Obtaining a drone kit

### 4.2 Pre-flight

Go through the [Humanitarian UAV Network | Operational Check List](#).

#### 4.2.1 Flight plan, nadir vs oblique images



Figure 4.1: An example of an *oblique* angle image of Bakassi Camp, northeastern Nigeria. *Source: IOM*



Figure 4.2: An example of a *nadir* angle image of Wau PoC, in South Sudan *Source: IOM*



Figure 4.3: An example Ground Control Point *Source: Pix4d*

#### **4.2.2 Ground control points**

#### **4.2.3 Community engagement**

#### **4.2.4 Path and image overlap**

A minimum of 16-31 images are needed to create an orthophoto from drone captured imagery with WebODM. Images should overlap by 70-72%.

- Minimum number of images captured: 16-32
- Minimum image overlap: 70-72%
- Minimum image overlap for 3D: 83%

#### **4.2.5 Altitude Ground sampling distance**

### **4.3 Flight**

...

### **4.4 Post-Flight**

...

### **4.5 Post-Flight processing**

Drone captured images then need to be stitched together into one image or *orthomosaic*. Here we recommend using WedODM and take you through software installation, creating a new project, uploading the images, creating a task, and downloading the orthomosaic.

#### **4.5.1 Orthomosaics with WebODM**

To install WedODM manually, follow the steps outlined [here](#).

Create a new project, upload drone captured images to create a task and download the orthomosaic. After the task has been successfully processed, select orthophoto.tif in the list of available

**Part III**

**Part 3 - Developing Maps**

## 5 Tracing and labelling

Once the aerial imagery has been obtained, a series of post-processing options are involved to extract geographic information from the imagery. The site features to be extracted from the aerial imagery will depend on the needs, audience and objective of the site map. For instance, the site mapper may look to map the location and configuration of shelters . Post-processing of the image therefore will include generating a new data layer of shelter outlines.

The site mapper can either **manually** or **automatically** trace and label these features. In order to determine which options to use, let's look at the advantages and disadvantages of both.

Manual	Automatic
<b>Advantages</b> Tracing and labeling manually requires only basic GIS skills. Can be done offline in contexts with limited connectivity. Allows for medium to high accuracy tracing of shelters and buildings with irregular or non-rectangular geometry.	High number of shelters and buildings can be traced and labelled in a small amount of time, relative to manual tracing.
<b>Disadvantages</b> Time intensive, relative to automatic tracing.	Some tools may require basic to advanced understanding of machine learning principle. This is required with most open-source tools. Most low-code tools are not open source or free and may incur additional costs Depending on how much training data is available, the type and accuracy of the tool used,(amongst other factors), there may be errors or inaccuracies in the outlines and labels generated.

Note: If there is high cloud or tree coverage, some features may not be visible in the aerial imagery and thus will not be detected by the site mapper or the machine learning model. Therefore, it is crucial to validate the generated outlines and labels with inputs from colleagues in the field.

## **5.1 Manual tracing**

Manual tracing can be done in GIS or AutoDesk software. QGIS can be downloaded for free [here](#). Once the software download is complete, [georeference](#) the aerial imagery into a new workspace. Create a [new vector layer](#) and [toggle edit](#) to trace the required features. Untoggle edit to save your edits.

## **5.2 Automatic tracing**

Here are some open source tools which can assist you in creating a workflow for automatic shelter detection:

- Create a training data set from aerial imagery with [Groundwork.azavea](#). Upload orthophoto to Groundwork, label features and export training data in .json format.
- Extract shelter outlines from aerial imagery using Mapflow's built in deep learning and semantic segmentation models. Mapflow can be used as a plugin in QGIS and can be downloaded from [here](#). Further guidance on how to install the Mapflow QGIS plugin is available [here](#).
- Analyse and conduct image segmentation on aerial or satellite imagery using the [UP42 platform](#).

# 6 Composing site maps

Site maps are composed of layers of geographic information/ data. These data layers are loaded and manipulated in a Geographical Information System (GIS) such as QGIS, ArcGIS and others. After layers are correctly projected onto their corresponded geographic location and different visualization settings are applied, a layout is composed (either from scratch or from an existing site map template) with the elements listed below such as the site map, legends, scale bars, text. The layout is then exported to PDF or geoPDF. The layout can be saved.

## 6.1 Examples

A number of site map examples are available [here](#).

## 6.2 Working in GIS

### 6.2.1 Loading data layers and verifying projections

To prepare the site map, [load the data layers](#) into a GIS workspace. QGIS can open different file types: Vector files (which use points, line segments and polygon objects to identify geographic information), Raster files/images (which use cells/ pixels to represent geographic information), and Delimited text files (such as .csv file types). For example:

Data Layer Example	File Type
Aerial Imagery	Raster file
Location of healthcare facilities or service providers	Vector file
Population per block	Delimited Text file

Most publicly available geographic information datasets are projected in a world Coordinate Reference System (CRS) (WGS 84). When loading a layer projected in a whole world CRS, the layer will look slightly distorted in the workspace. Therefore, all layers need to be checked and [projected](#) where needed, according to the [Project CRS](#) set to the area of your site location. You can use the [epsg.io](#) database of coordinate systems to know the coordinate system you should be using for your context.

## 6.2.2 Layers and elements of a site map

This guide is accompanied by a site map template which can be loaded into QGIS's Print Composer. Below is a dummy example of a site map produced using this template.

### Note

For the purposes of supporting a **standardized approach to the production of static site maps**, and ensuring new **site maps can be compared and used alongside existing maps**, the template provided in this Site Mapping Guide is one approach to laying out a site map, however this can and should be adapted based on the context and it's audience.

The following list of layers and elements can be included in the final output:

- **Title and Subtitle**

- Country
  - State
  - Site Name
  - Thematic Title
  - Date site map was last updated
- Site map audience/ permission/ sharing restrictions
  - Production date and version number of site map
  - Agency/ NGO Logos
- **Inset maps**
- At Country/ Regional level
  - At Regional/ Area level

- **Notes**

- Data sources
- Satellite Imagery source
- Imagery Resolution
- Coordinate system
- Site GPS coordinate points
- IOM CCCM Logo (or other)
- Contact
- Link to Geodatabase/ corresponding data layers
- Disclose limitations regarding accuracy of site map

- **Map**

- Base Map (satellite/ aerial imagery)
- Scale bar

- Orientation indicators
- Legend
- Camp Infrastructure:
  - \* Shelters
  - \* Shelter blocks
  - \* Zones
  - \* WASH facilities
  - \* Water points
  - \* Education facilities
  - \* Health Facilities
  - \* Distribution points (Food/ NFI)
  - \* Markets(s)
  - \* Information desks
  - \* CFM desks
  - \* Other camp facilities
  - \* Movement network (Roads, pathways)
  - \* Community areas/ centre
  - \* Religious buildings/ spaces
  - \* Site Entrance(s)
  - \* Site boundary
  - \* Security facilities or guard points
  - \* Fences/ Camp Boundaries

- **Environment**

- Host community
- Green belt
- Trees/ Vegetation
- Agricultural land

- **Optional additional labels:**

- Functioning/ non-functioning facilities
- Male/ female latrines
- Unusable area
- Summary information/ figures
  - \* Site population (households and individuals)
  - \* Site area
  - \* Total no. of shelters
  - \* Shelter type and size
  - \* Quantity of sanitation blocks/ latrines/ showers
  - \* Type of water supply
  - \* Total no. of water points

### 6.2.3 Visualizing data layers

Once the files are opened in QGIS, they will appear as layers. These layers can be duplicated in order to [show different visualisations](#) of the same file.

#### Warning

Any saved changes made to a data layer in QGIS will also change the source file. If you wish to edit/ delete or add features to a layer but do not want to edit the original source file, [save the layer as a separate file before](#) making your edits. Additionally, removing a layer will remove it from the work space but will not delete it from your source folder.

### 6.2.4 Print Layouts and Using Templates

With QGIS's layout composer, you can [create layouts](#) or use existing layout templates. The template file can be downloaded [here](#). Once the layout is complete, [save and export the print layout](#) as an image, an svg (for future editing in other software such as Adobe Illustrator or Inkscape, select [export as vectors](#)), or as a PDF. If saving as a PDF, consider saving the layout as a GeoPDF by selecting 'Create Geospatial PDF (GeoPDF)' in the export PDF settings (refer to *Section 7: Collaboration* for more on GeoPDFs)

### 6.2.5 Saving the data layers and styles into a Geopackage

Data layers are saved on your local computer. However, to share all data files, it is recommended to compress these into a Geopackage. The QGIS project and all the data used in the project can be saved using the [Package Layers tool](#) and easily shared and stored as such for future use.

# 7 Collaboration

Throughout the development cycle of site maps, involving the stakeholders identified earlier in this guide is key to producing high quality, user-centered site maps.

The main outputs of this workflow is the static PDF site map. However, in the process of making these - it is important to recognise the following products are also created:

- Aerial/ Satellite imagery of sites in which CCCM, shelter or other humanitarian activities are being carried out.
- Geodatabase containing data layers of shelters and other camp infrastructure
- Site map Templates
- GeoPDFs and PDF

These are valuable information products which can be used by colleagues and other humanitarian actors to conduct thematic analysis as well as serve as an evidence base for advocacy, planning and decision making. More importantly, these products are tools to collaborate with stakeholders and actors on the ground to:

1. Verify and validate the information,
2. Feedback and suggest modifications
3. Update the data when changes occur on the ground.

Therefore, the manner in which this data is stored, presented and shared is crucial to both allow for and promote the use of site maps.

- *Insert Reference to camp lifecycle*

## 7.1 Information and knowledge management

Strategy of site information management - save and share data with the CCCM cluster so their is longer term management of site data the CCCM cluster can play a role in facilitating this

## 7.2 Generating geoPDFs

In the previous section, we looked at exporting print layouts as GeoPDFs. GeoPDFs are PDFs with embedded georeferenced location information.

## **7.3 Reading and annotating geoPDFs**

GeoPDFs can be imported into Avenza maps. The app uses the built in GPS in a tablet or smartphone to locate users when out of range of a network or internet connection. Users can mark points of interest, attach photos with exact location, and add annotations to existing features.

## **7.4 Gathering feedback and map iteration.**

... - site walks - annotate maps

## **Part IV**

## **Annexes**

## **Acknowledgements**

We would like to thank the following people for their support during all stages of the development of this guidance:

# Glossary

A glossary of terms used throughout this guide:

**Drone** Common term for unmanned or remotely-piloted aircraft.

**Georeferencing** The act of aligning geographic data (such as a map) to a known coordinate system.

**GIS** Geographic information system. In general terms, a system that is designed to manipulate, store, analyze, and manage spatial and geographic data.

**GSD** Ground sample distance. The resolution of an aerial image

**IOM** International Organization for Migration.

**Nadir** In aerial photography, the point on the ground that lies directly below the perspective center of the camera lens; also, images taken from this perspective (i.e., straight down).

**Orthomosaic** A two-part process in which a number of images are combined together or “stitched” into a single image and also corrected for distortion.

**Orthorectification** A process of removing the effects of image perspective and relief effects by using camera model information and elevation data, creating a final image that has a constant scale.

**RTK** Real time kinematic. A technique used to extract more-precise-than-normal position data from global satellite navigation timing signals.

**UAV** Unmanned Aerial Vehicle, commonly known as a drone. Radio controlled fixed-wing or rotorcraft.

## **Further reading**

[DRONES AND AERIAL OBSERVATION: New Technologies for Property Rights, Human Rights, and Global Development](#)

[UNICEF Drones for Sustainable Development Goals Toolkit](#)

[HOT OSM UAV Mapping Guidelines](#)

[IASC Operational Guidance on Data Responsibility in Humanitarian Guidance](#)

[ICRC Handbook on Data Protection in Humanitarian Action](#)