



Different Methods of Data Capture



Map Projection & Spatial Reference



Data Preparation, Conversion & Integration



**GPS
Remote Sensing**



Quality aspects of Spatial Data

STAGES IN DATA COLLECTION PROJECTS



Establish user requirements



Gathering resources



Developing a project plan

Planning



Preparation



Obtain data/redraft poor quality map



Setup GIS h/w and s/w system



Edit scanned map images & removing noise

Evaluation



Identify project successes & failures

Digitizing



Stage where the majority of the effort will be expended

Editing



Many techniques designed to validate data



Correct errors & improve quality

DATA CAPTURE METHODS



is a technique in which the information on various map attributes, facilities, assets, and organizational data are digitized and organized on a target GIS system in appropriate layers.

Two broad types of collection

- 1 Data capture (direct collection)
- 2 Data transfer

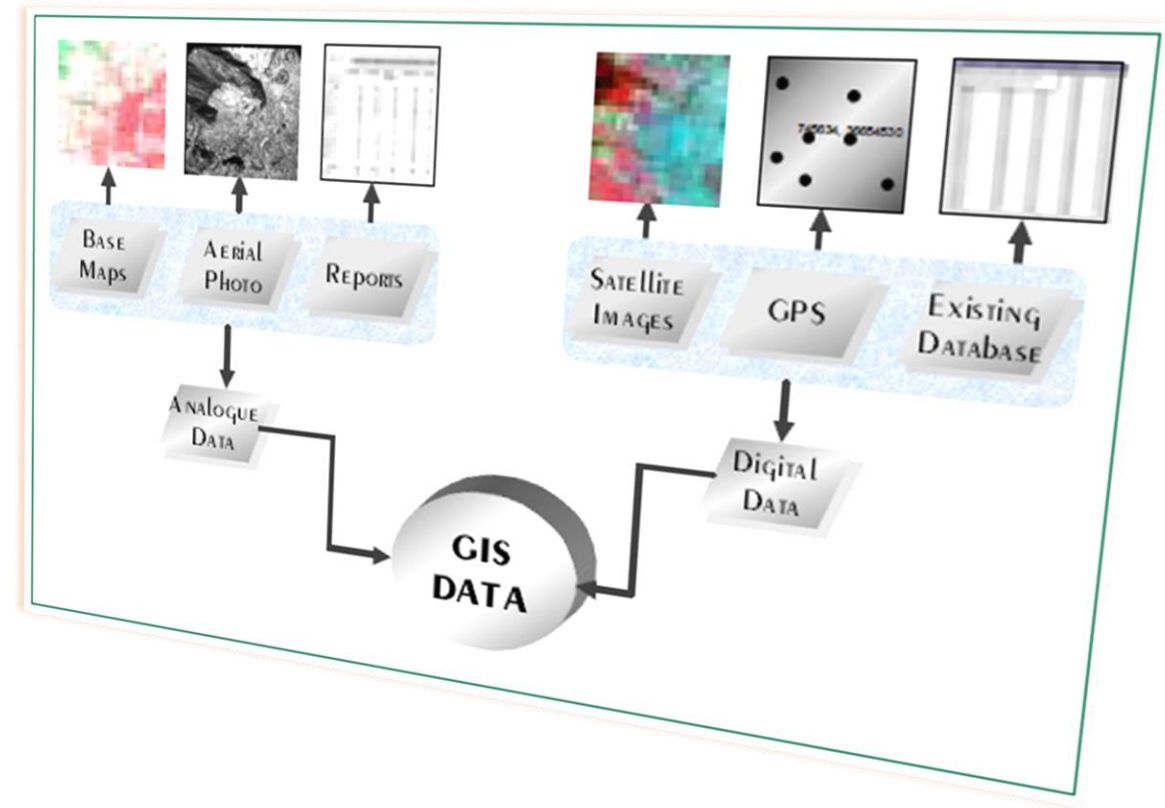
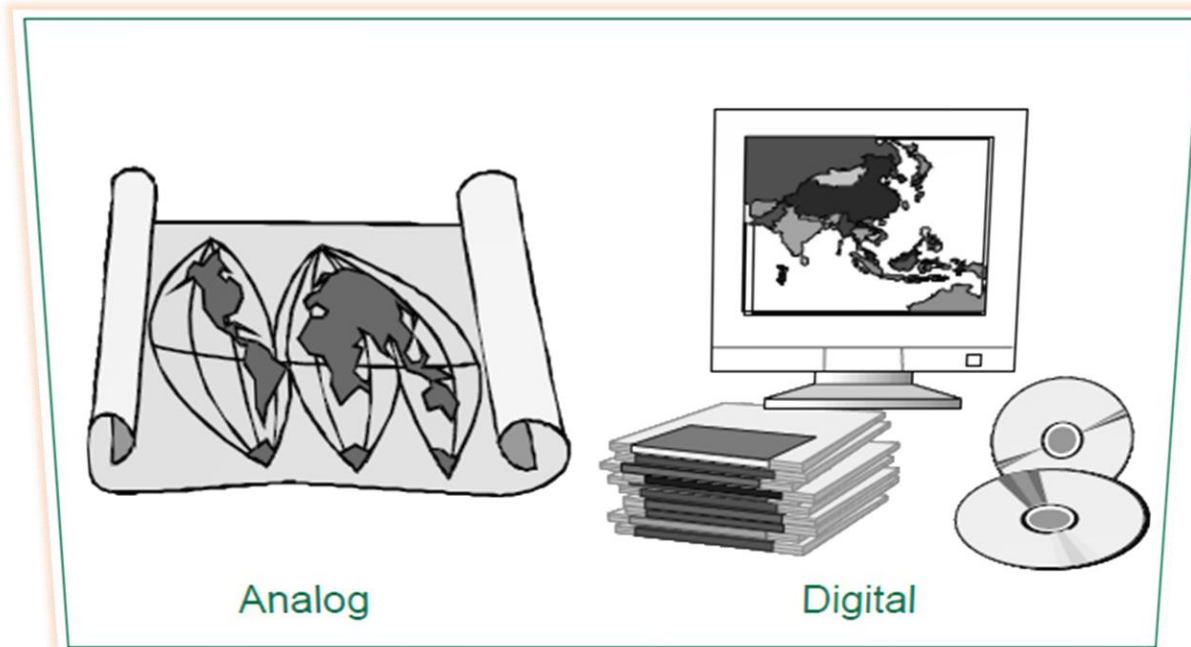
Two broad capture methods

- 1 Primary (direct measurement)
- 2 Secondary (indirect derivation)

DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

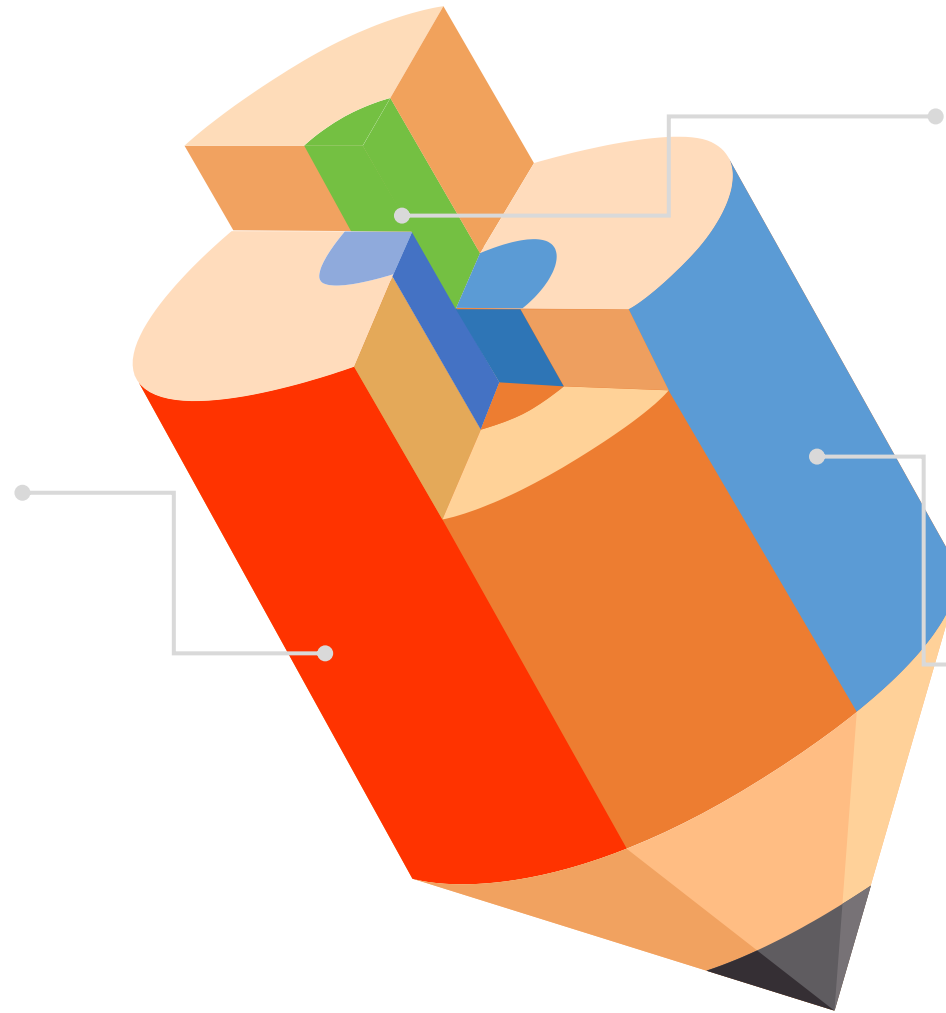
	Raster	Vector
Primary	Digital Remote Sensing images	GPS measurements
	Digital aerial photographs	Survey measurements
Secondary	Scanners	Topographic surveys
	DEMs from maps	Digitizing

DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES



RASTER DATA : REMOTE SENSING

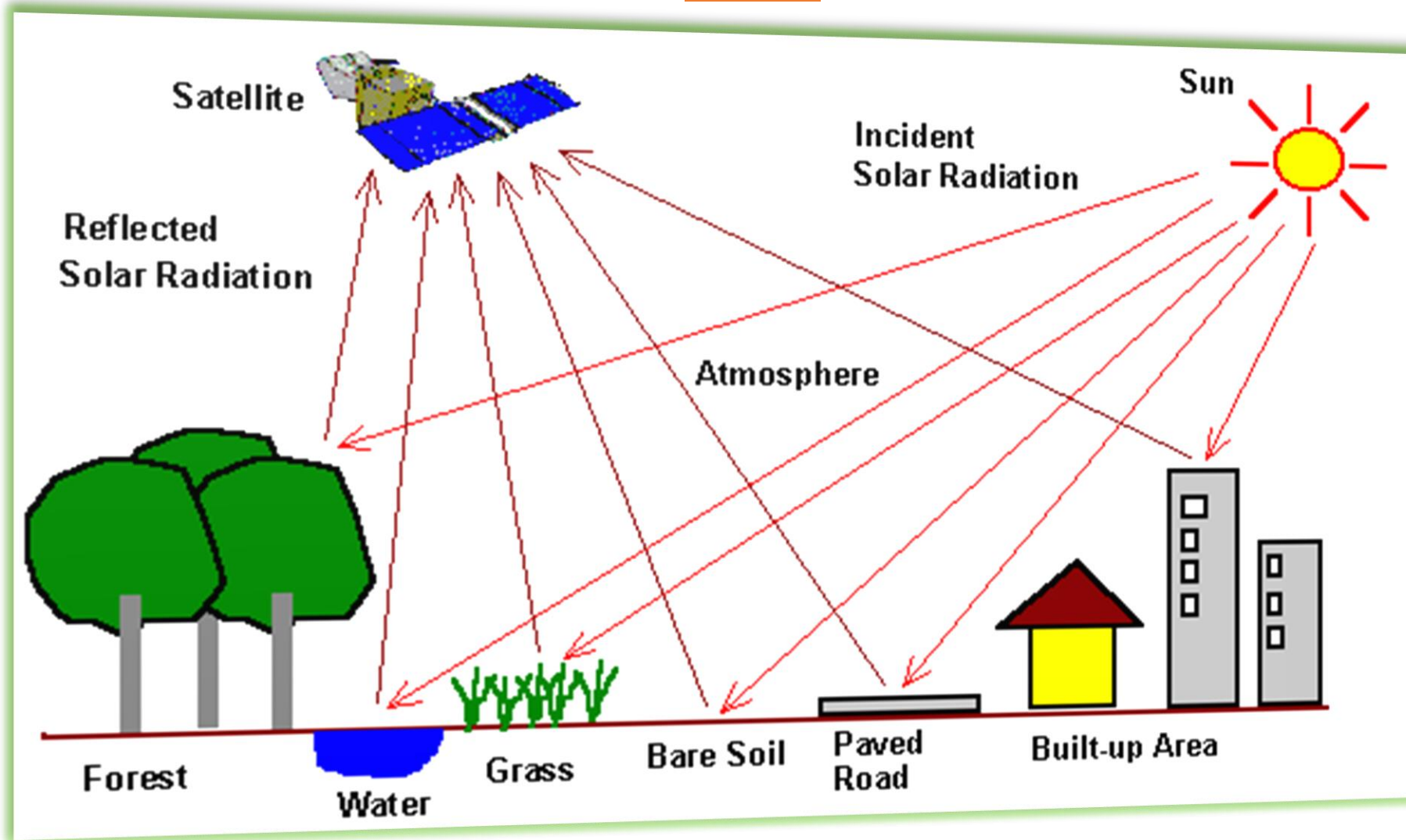
Technique used to derive information about the physical, chemical, & biological properties of objects without direct physical contact



Information is derived from measurements of the amount of electromagnetic radiation reflected, emitted, or scattered from objects.

Resolution is a key physical characteristic of remote sensing systems

RASTER DATA : REMOTE SENSING



RASTER DATA : AERIAL PHOTOGRAPHY



It is important in medium scale projects

01



Collected by analog cameras & later scanned

02



Use a stereo plotter to project overlapping aerial photos

03



This is known as photogrammetric model

04

RASTER DATA : AERIAL PHOTOGRAPHY



RASTER DATA : AERIAL PHOTOGRAPHY



ADVANTAGES

Consistency of the data

Availability of systematic global coverage

Regular repeat cycles



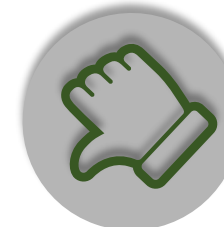
Resolution is often too coarse



Many sensors are restricted by cloud cover



DISADVANTAGES



VECTOR DATA : SURVEYING



Based on the principle: 3-D location of any point can be determined by measuring angles and distances from other known points



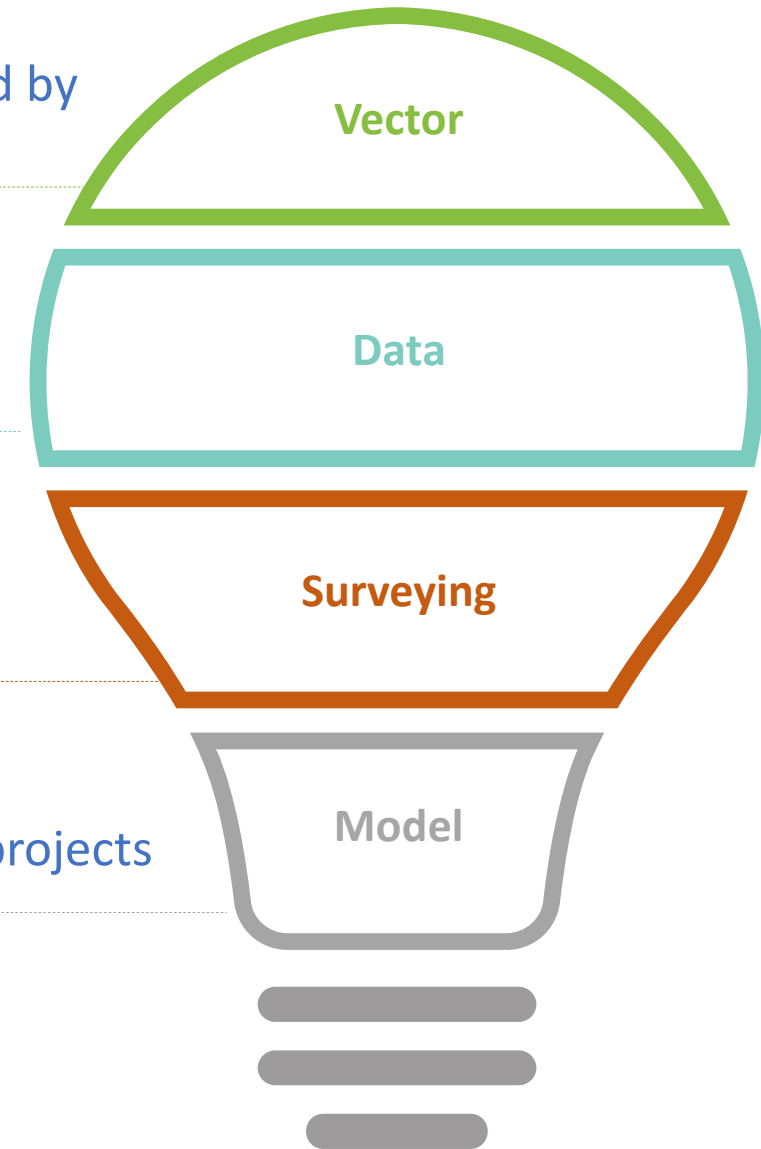
Ground survey is a very time-consuming and expensive activity



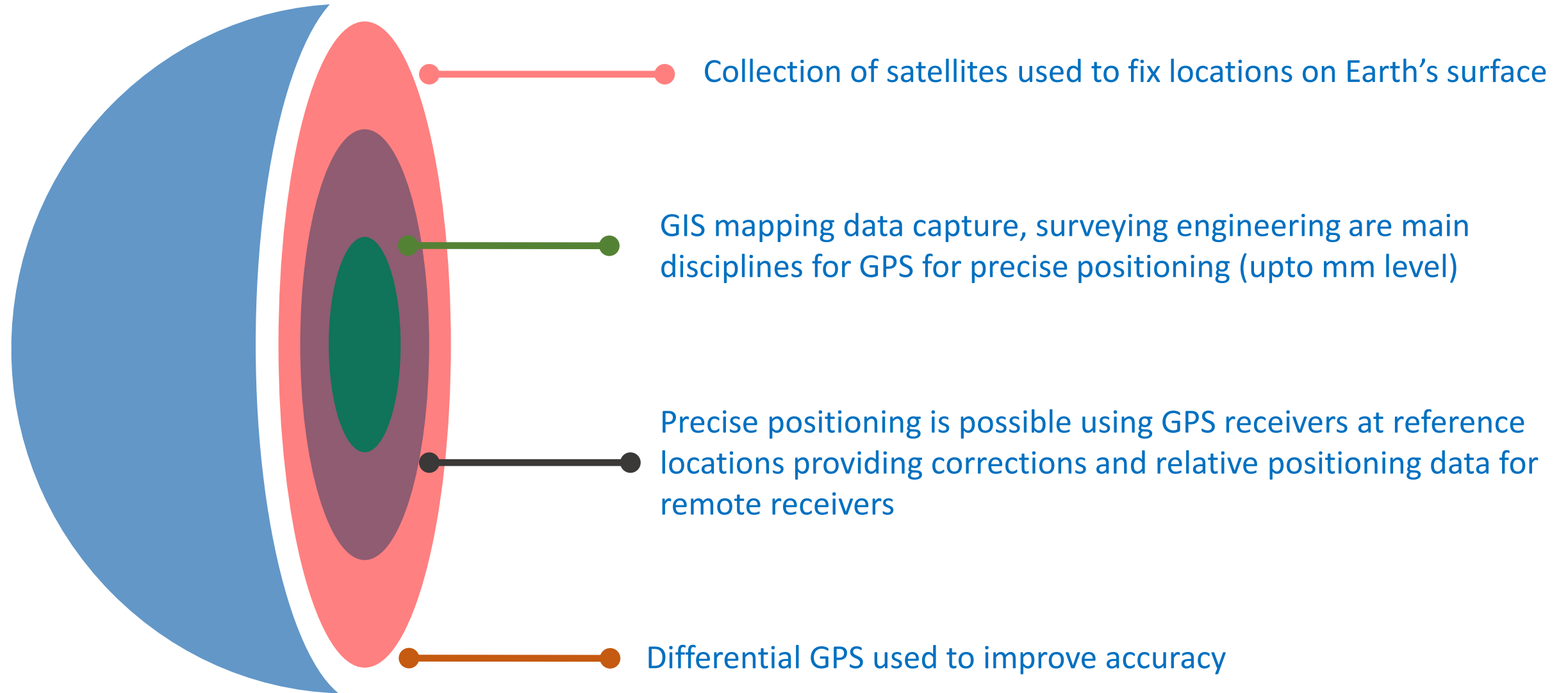
Used for capturing buildings, land and property boundaries & other objects that need to be located accurately



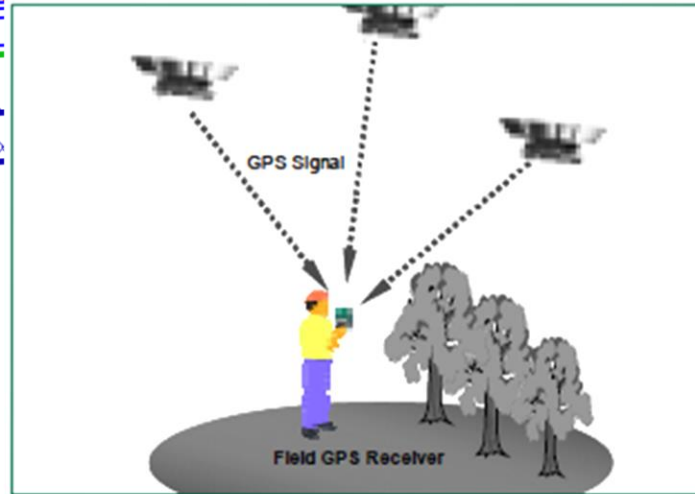
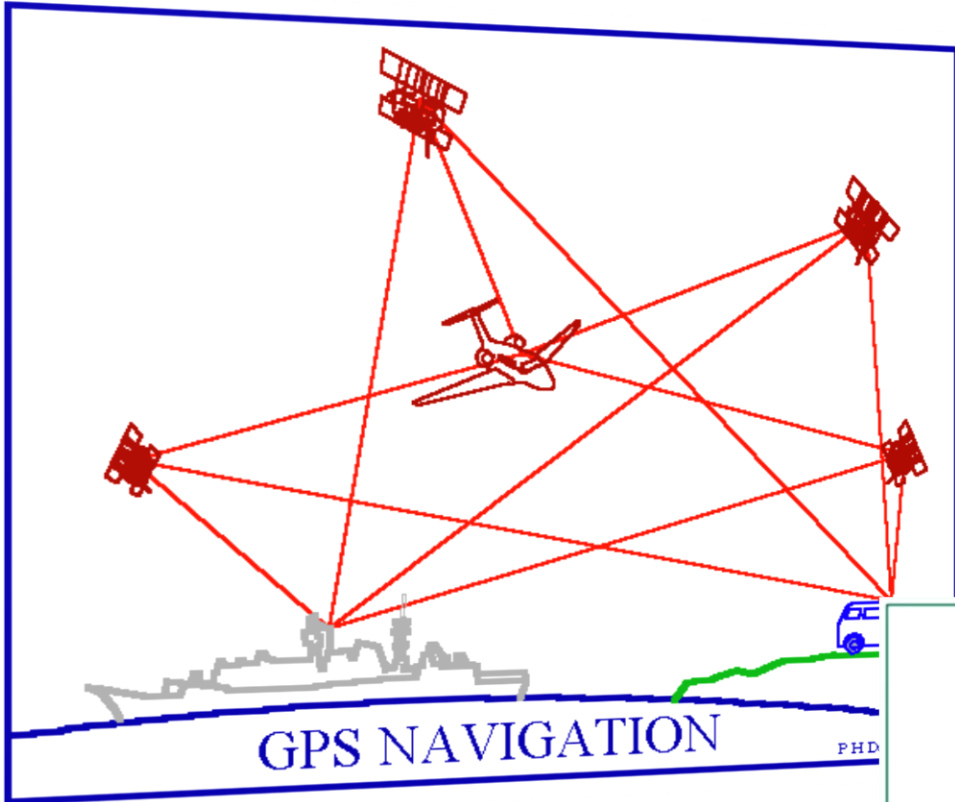
Also done to obtain reference marks for use in other data capture projects



VECTOR DATA : GPS



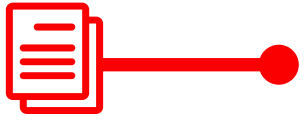
VECTOR DATA : GPS



RASTER DATA : SCANNERS



scanned to reduce wear and tear, improve access, provide integrated database storage, and to index them geographically



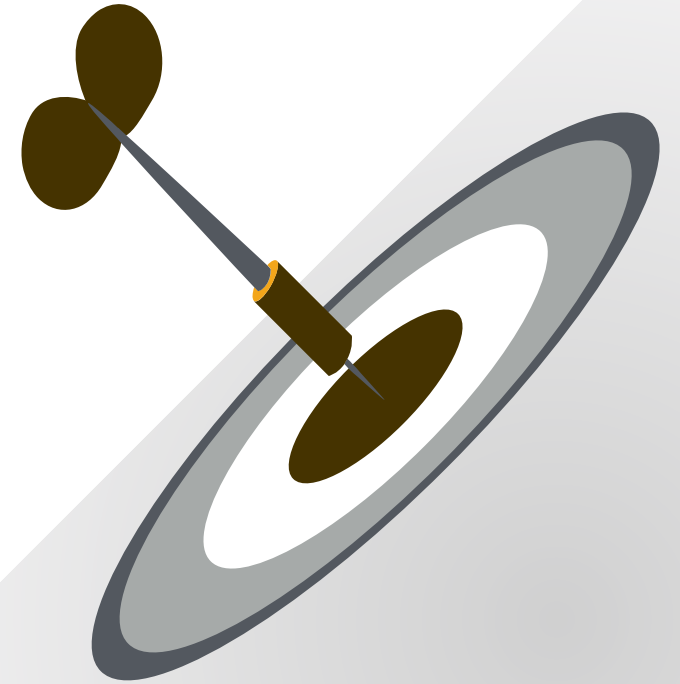
images are scanned and georeferenced so that they provide geographic context for other data



Maps, aerial photographs and images are scanned prior to vectorization



Most scanning systems provide software to convert raster data to vector format



VECTOR DATA : DIGITIZING

Both the tablet and cursor are connected to computer that controls their functions.

While digitizing; you may input separate features into map layers or attach an attribute to identify the feature.

Digitizing workstation with digitizing tablet & cursor is used to trace digitize.

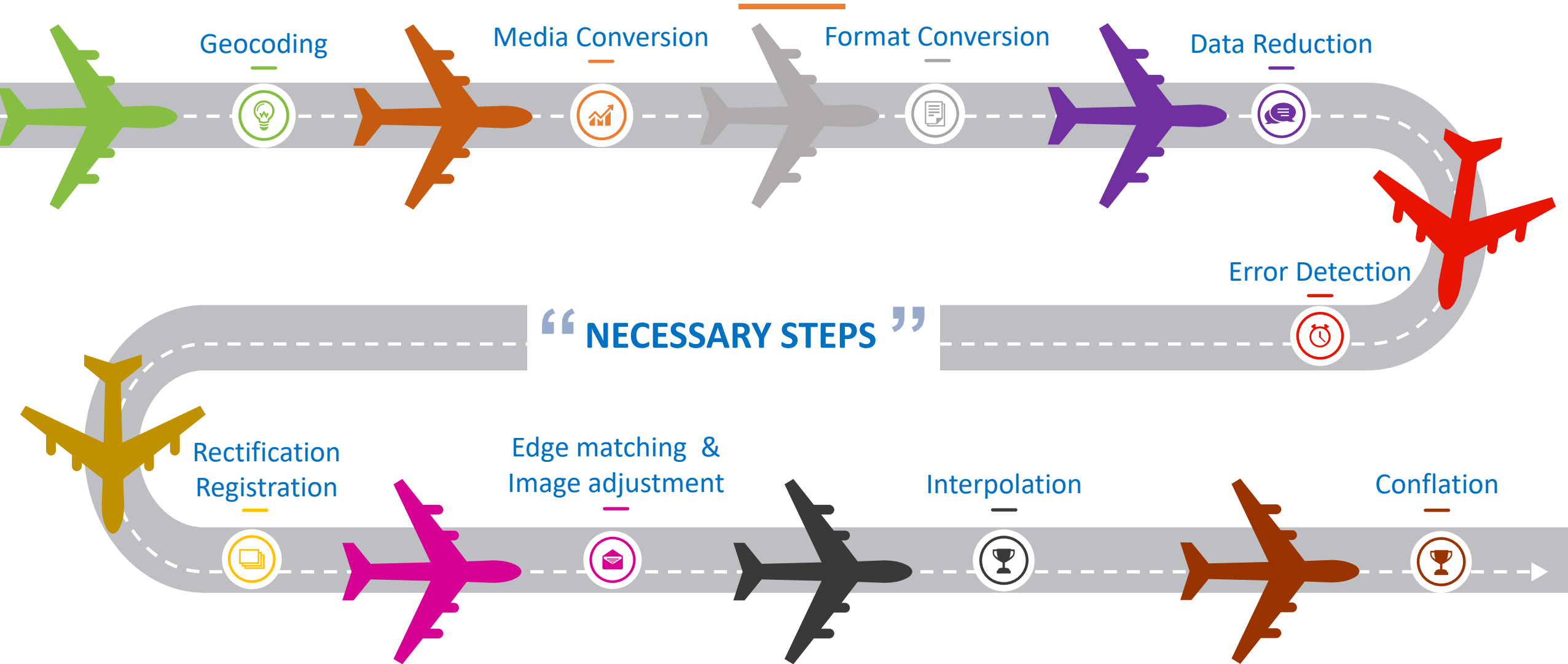


Most digitizing tables come in standard sizes that relate to engineering drawing(A-E & larger)

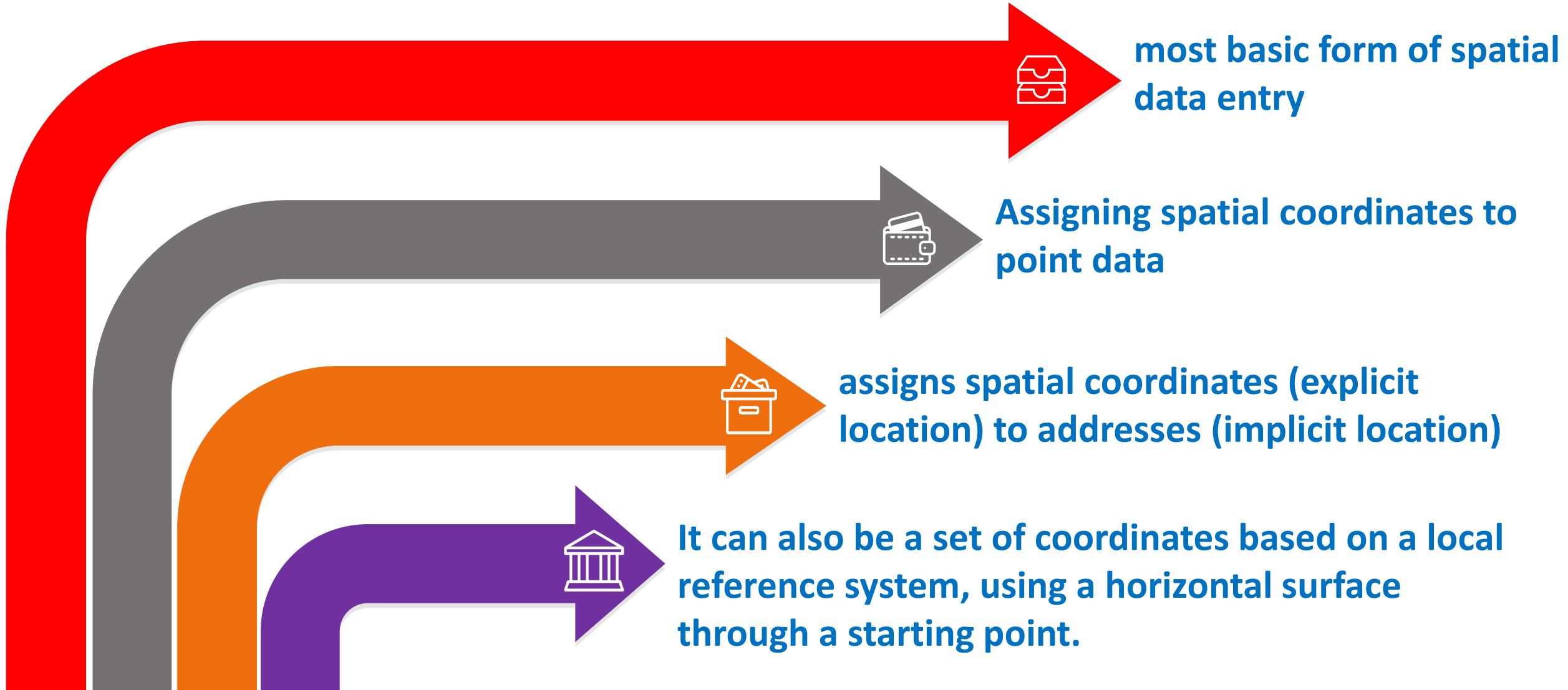
VECTOR DATA : DIGITIZING



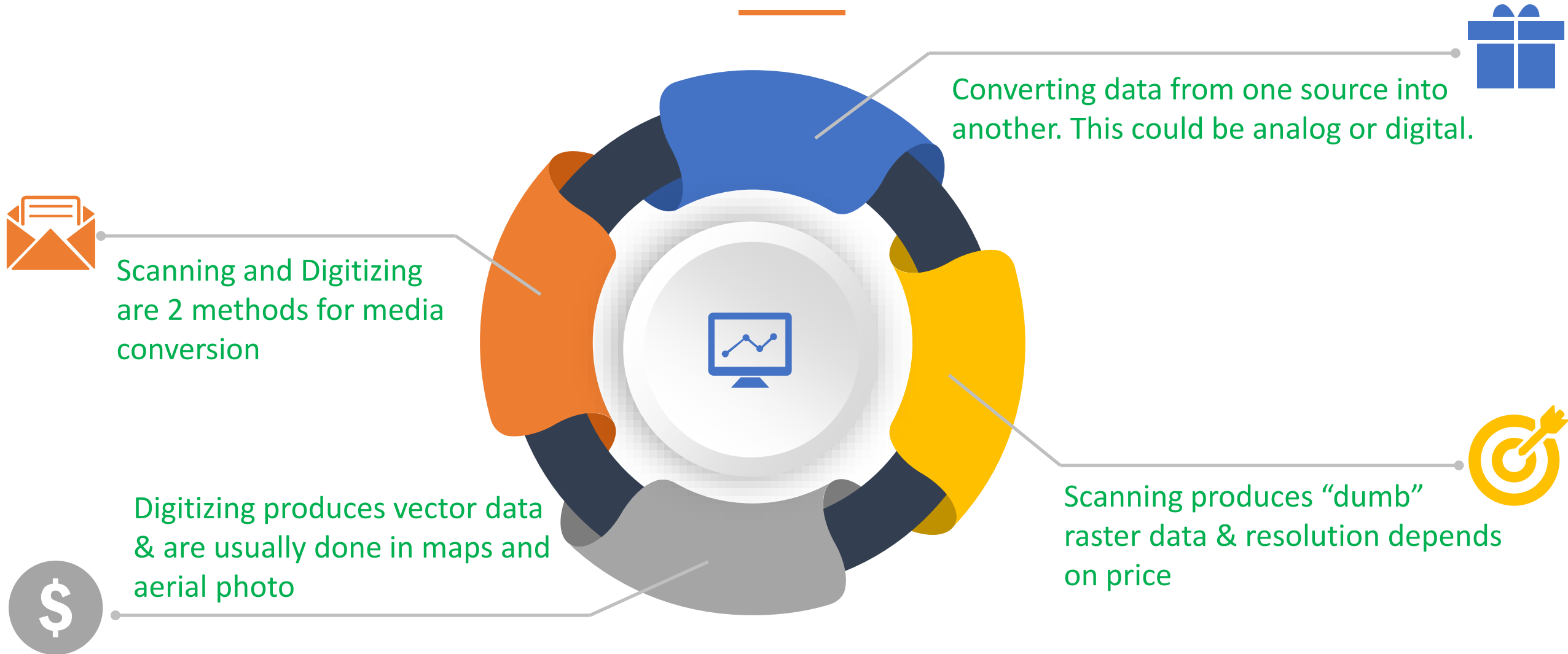
DATA PREPARATION AND INTEGRATION



GEOCODING

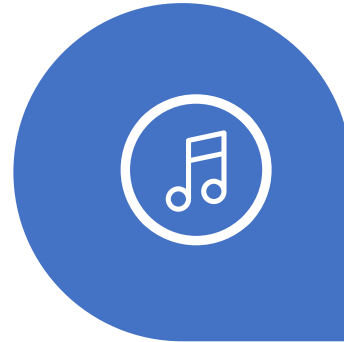


MEDIA CONVERSION



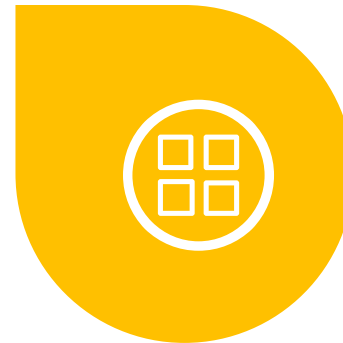
FORMAT CONVERSION

Vector to Vector



Vector to Raster

Raster to Raster



Raster to Vector

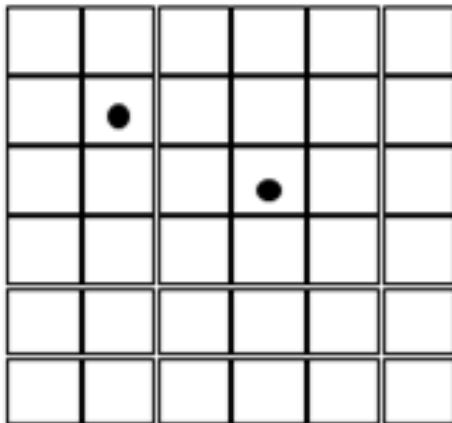
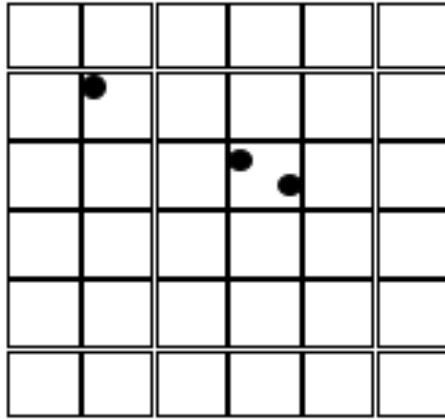
FORMAT CONVERSION

Vector

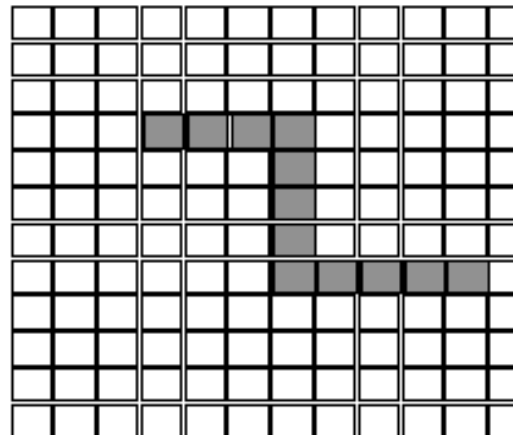
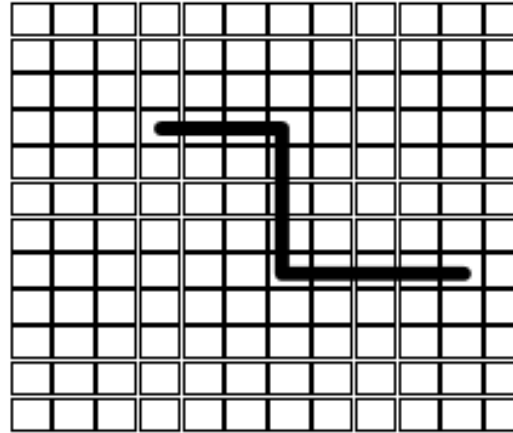
Raster



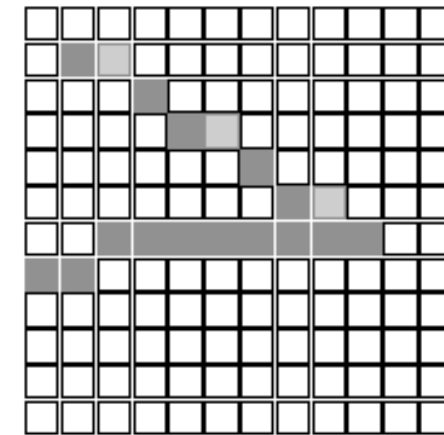
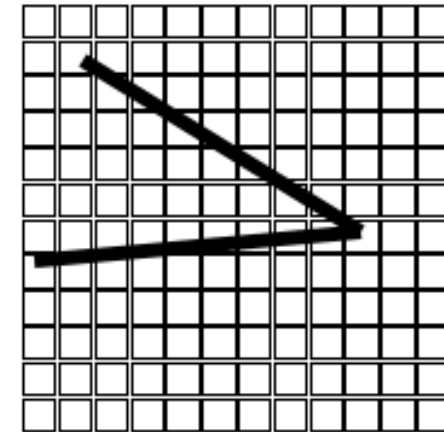
Point



Orthogonal Line



Diagonal Line
(more problematic)



FORMAT CONVERSION



Raster to Vector Conversion (*Skeletonizing*)

DATA REDUCTION

WHY ??



Conserve Space



Conserve Time

Resampling



'average' the 4 values in a 2by2 neighborhood



use 1 value in a single cell
occupying the location of 4
original cells



use mean [interval data]



not transitive!



DATA REDUCTION

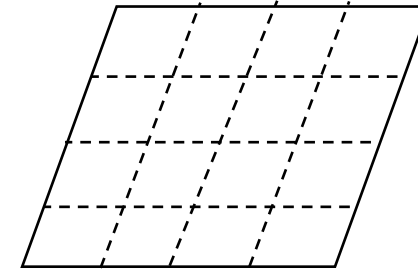
2	5	8	7
4	1	9	4
1	3	5	3
2	2	6	2



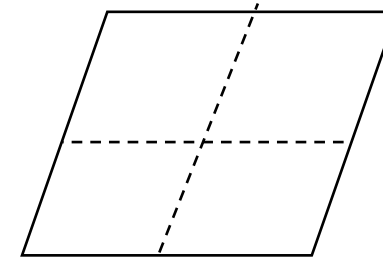
3	7
2	4



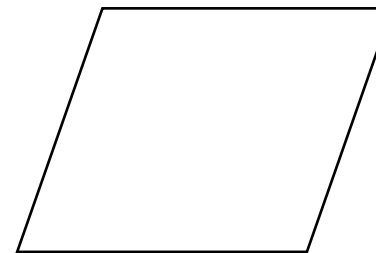
4



16 bytes



4 bytes



1 byte

ERROR DETECTION AND REMOVAL

WHY ??



Conserve Space



Conserve Time

Resampling



'average' the 4 values in a 2by2 neighborhood



use 1 value in a single cell
occupying the location of 4
original cells



use mean [interval data]



not transitive!



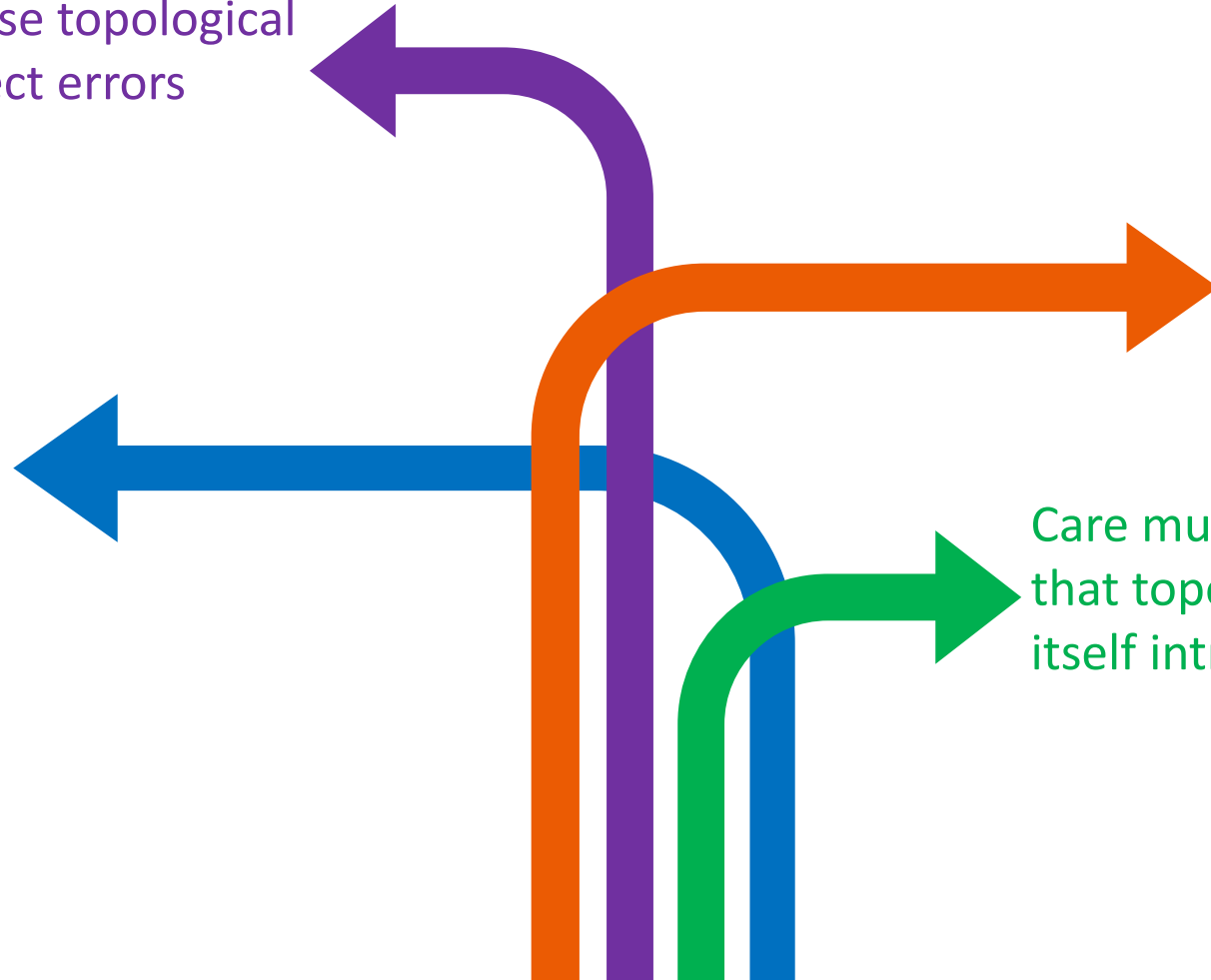
ERROR DETECTION AND REMOVAL

GIS packages commonly use topological structure checking to detect errors

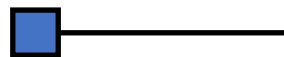
Node Snapping used to correct errors

Snapping conducted based on tolerances – e.g. snap if within 1 foot

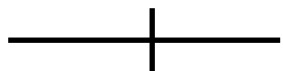
Care must always be taken to assure that topological “cleaning” does not itself introduce errors



ERROR DETECTION AND REMOVAL



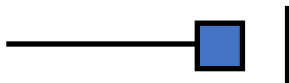
Dangling Arc (node missing at one end)



No node at Arc Intersection (Overpass?)



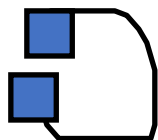
Overshoot (or missing node)?



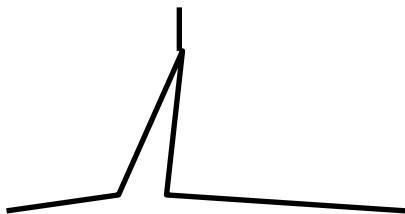
Undershoot?



Pseudo Arc (connects to itself)



Open Polygon



Gap

RECTIFICATION AND REGISTRATION

RECTIFICATION

Rearrangement of location of objects to correspond to specific reference system

REGISTRATION

Rearrangement of location of objects of one set so they correspond with those of another, without reference to a specific reference system

TWO METHODS

Homogeneous Transformation
Differential Transformation

HT: used for map projection and similar conversions
DT: used to correctly position distorted images or scanned maps

EDGE MATCHING

PROCESS

Required for Topo Map.

consistency even if features
line-up visually

ISSUES

acceptable tolerance before
'further investigation' of mismatch

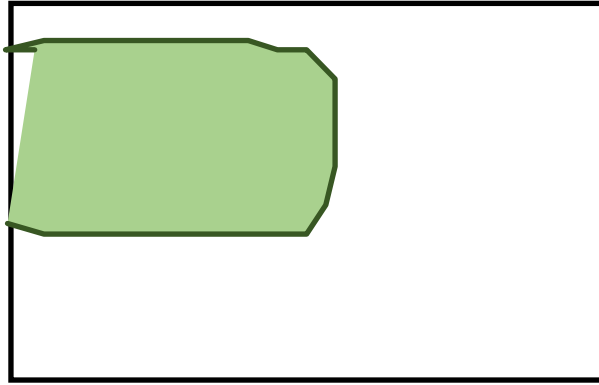
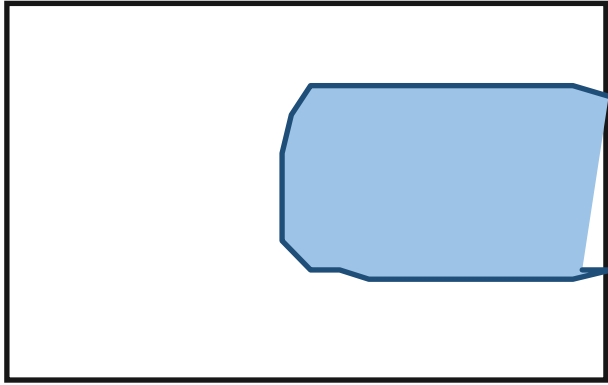
'how far back' to go on sheet(s) with
adjustments for mismatch

CAUSES OF MISMATCH

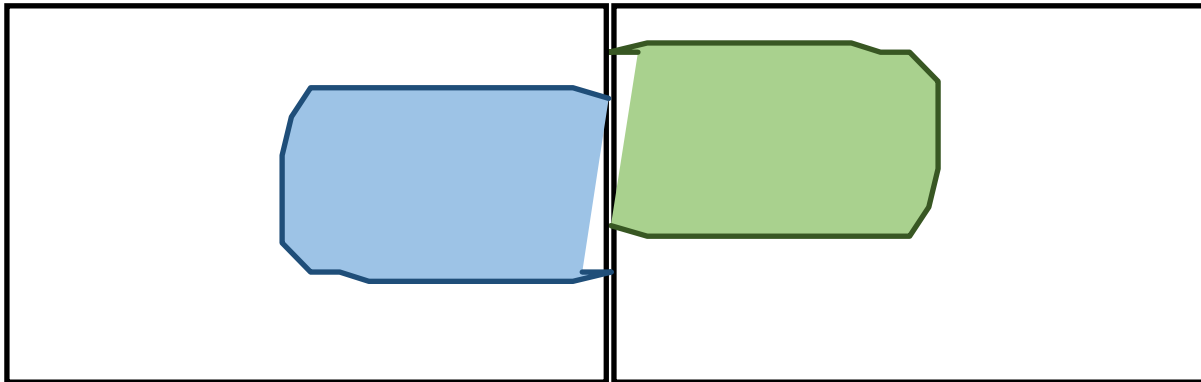
paper map shrinkage/expansion

errors from digitizing/scanning

EDGE MATCHING

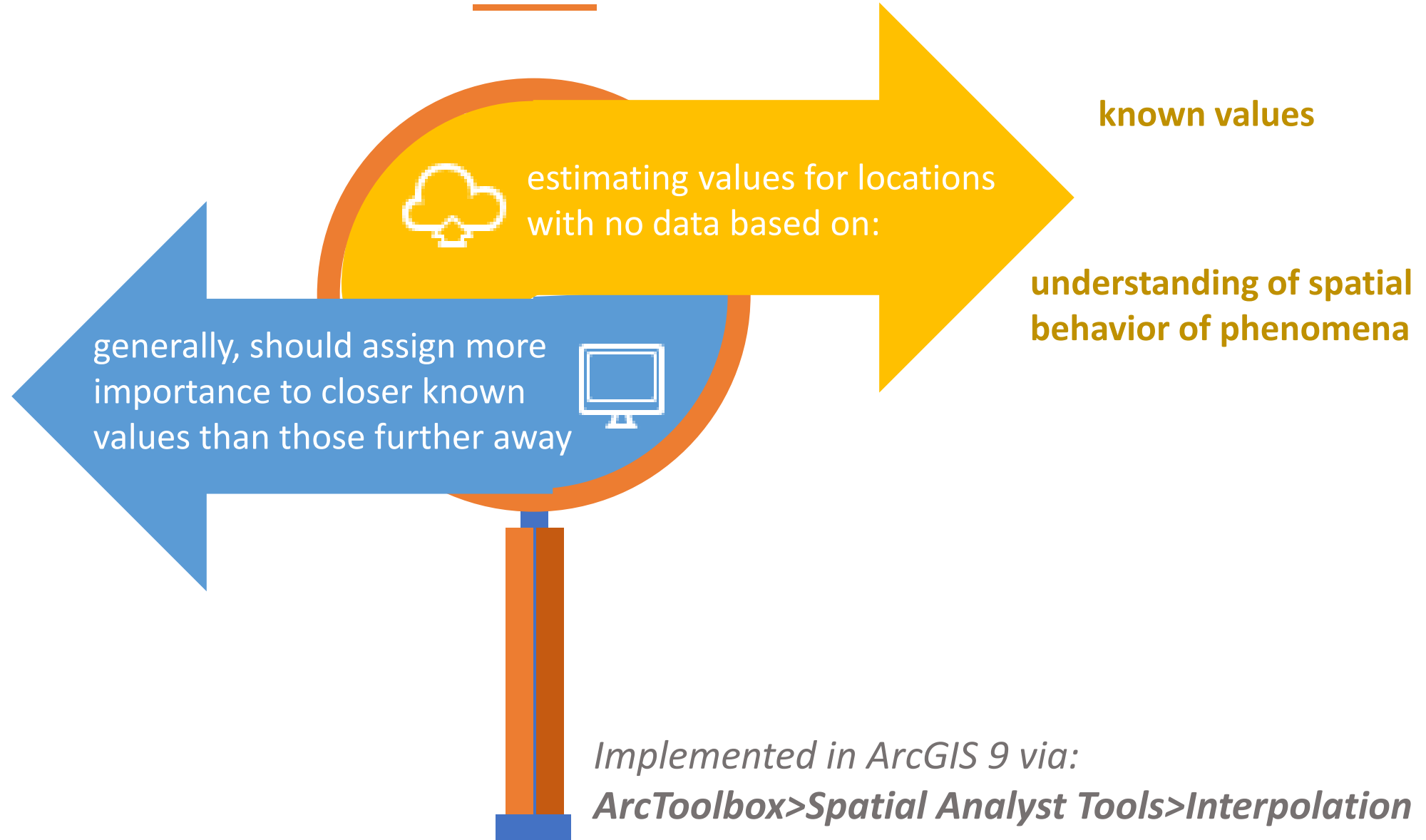


Corresponding features fail to match on two sheets

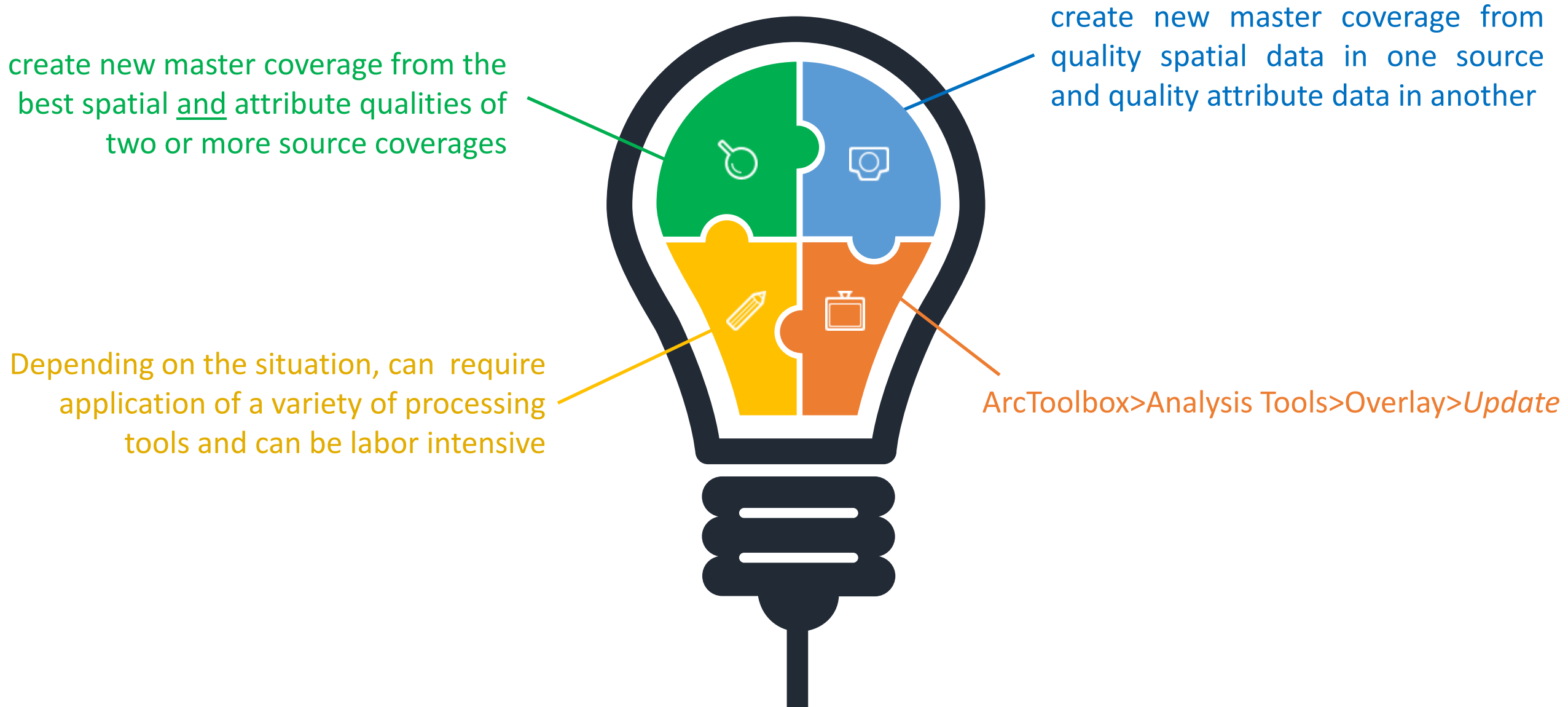


Edge matching in this example would require 'further research'

INTERPOLATION



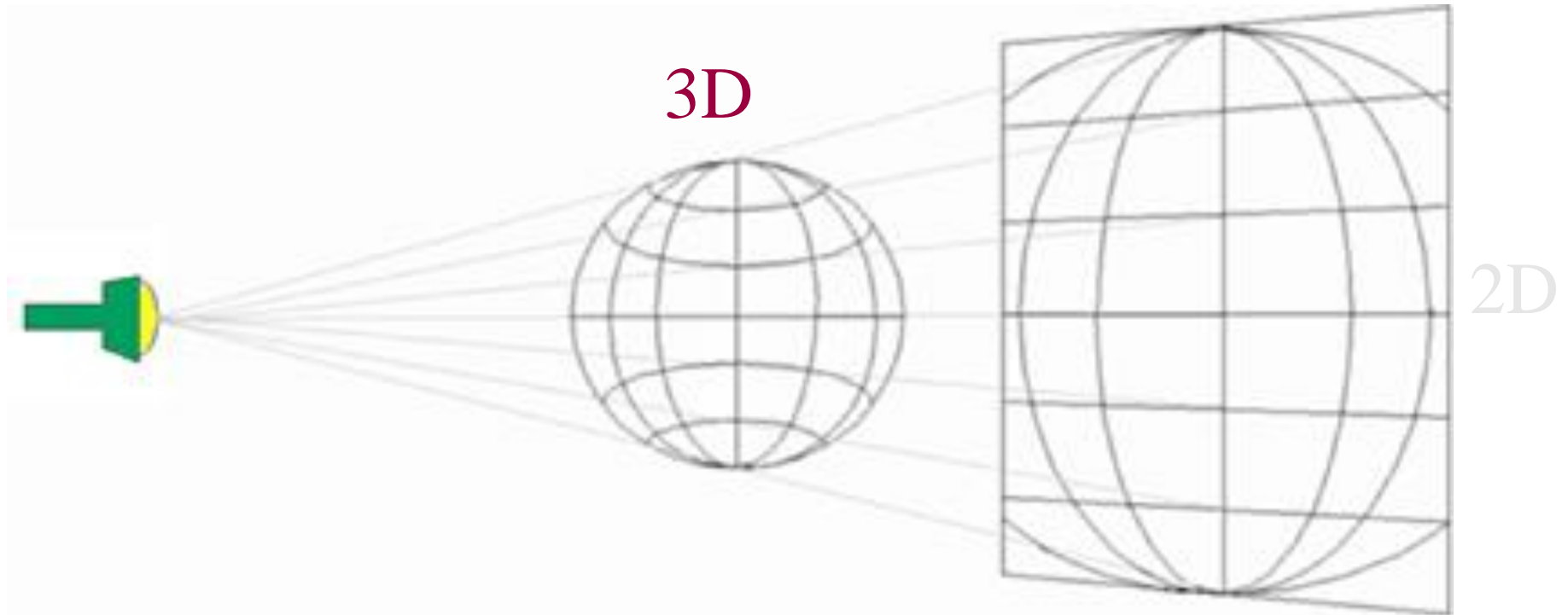
INTERPOLATION



MAP PROJECTION



This is the method by which we transform the earth's spheroid (real world) to a flat surface (abstraction), either on paper or digitally.



MAP PROJECTION

Every dataset has a coordinate system, which is used to integrate it with other geographic data layers within a common coordinate framework such as a map.

A map projection is defined by:

01 Name of Projection

03 Description

02 Type of Projection

04 Ellipsoid / Datum Parameters



MAP PROJECTION

is a mathematical formula for representing the curved surface of the earth on a flat map.

Every projection has its own set of advantages & disadvantages.

There is **no "best" projection**.

Mapmakers and mathematicians have devised almost **limitless ways** to project the image of the globe onto a flat surface (paper).



MAP PROJECTION

Selection of a model for the shape of the Earth

usually choosing between a sphere, ellipsoid, geoid.

Because the Earth's actual shape is irregular, information is lost in this step.

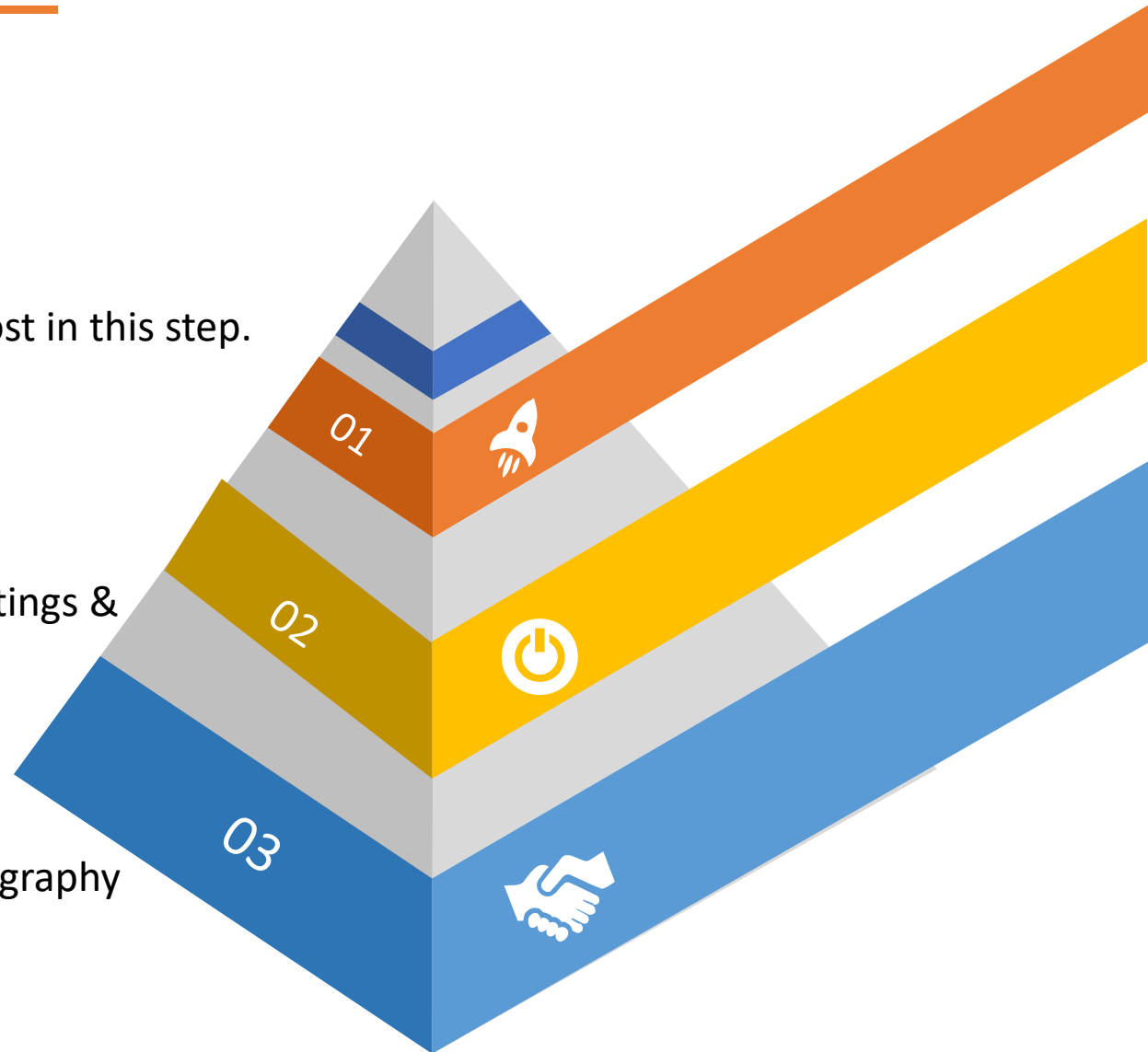
Transformation of geographic coordinates

(long/lat) to Cartesian (x, y) or polar plane coordinates.

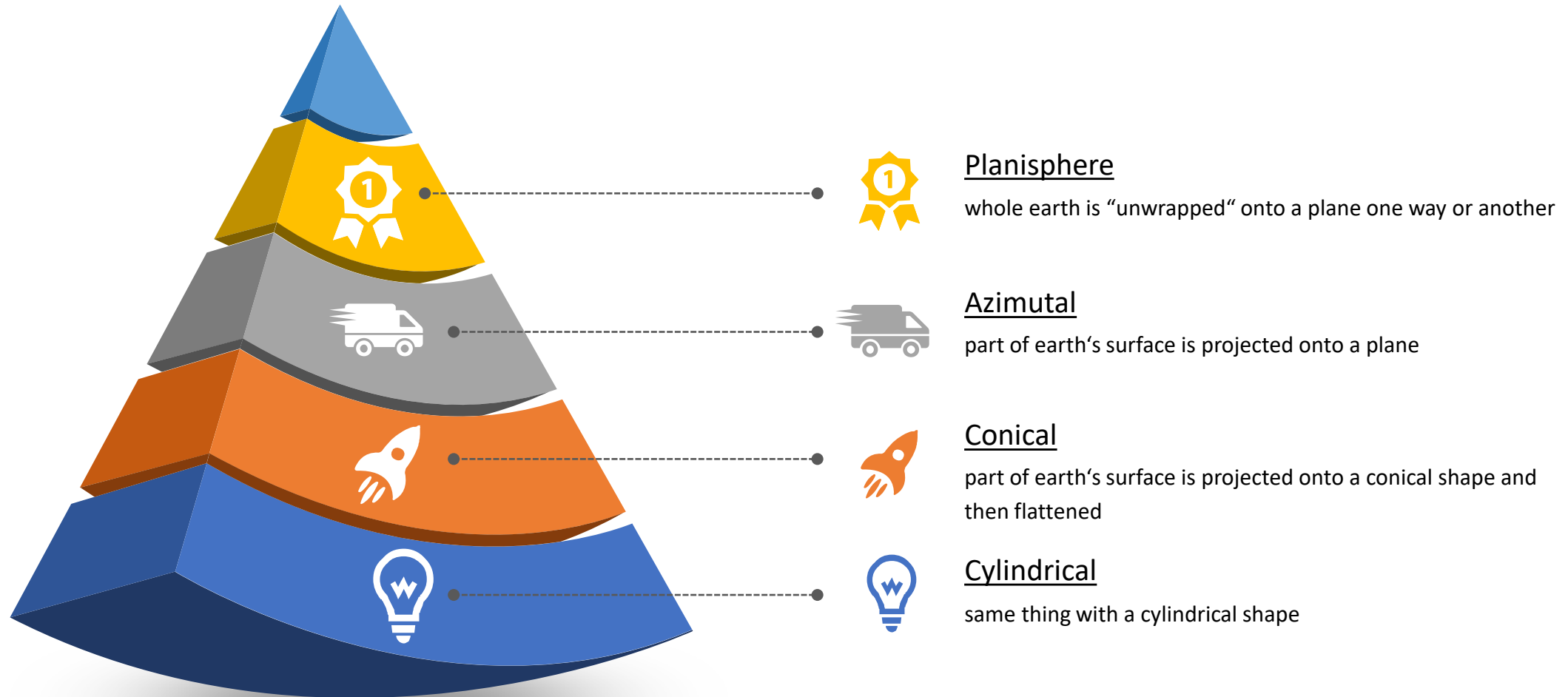
Cartesian coordinates normally have a simple relation to eastings & northings defined on a grid superimposed on the projection.

Reduce the scale

in manual cartography this step came second, in digital cartography it comes last



MAP PROJECTION: TYPES

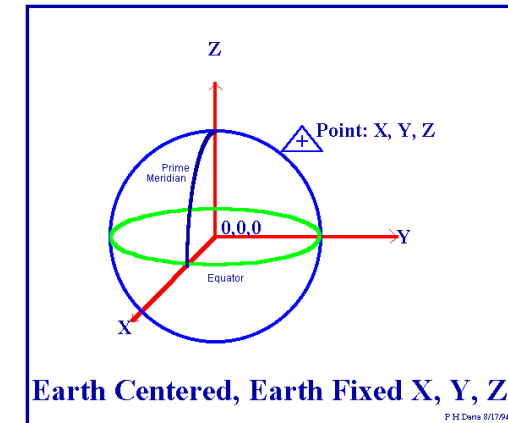
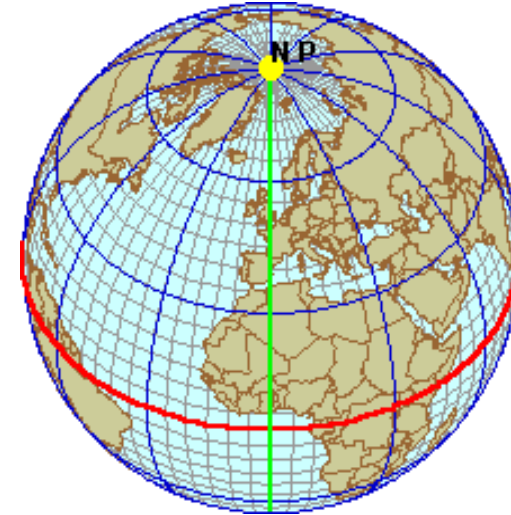


Map Projections Parameters

- Standard Line – line of tangency - where the projection surface meets the globe
 - ✓ No distortion at this point – increase distortion moving away
 - ✓ Standard Parallel
 - ✓ Standard Meridian
 - ✓ More than one standard line possible
- Central Line
 - ✓ Defines the center of the map projection
 - ✓ Central parallel - latitude of origin
 - ✓ Central meridian
 - ✓ Can be different from standard line
- False Easting – x- coordinate value
- False Northing – y- coordinate value

Spatial Reference

- Every spatial feature needs to be referenced to a location for GIS use.
- Spatial reference systems provide a framework to define positions on the Earth's surface.
- We are used to working with coordinate systems, but due to the Earth's irregular, spherical shape this can become intricate.



Spatial Reference Systems

- Clear definition scheme required for geodata exchange and interoperability
- This description needs to be coupled to geodata by sets of metadata
 - ✓ to permit flexible georeferenced visualization
 - ✓ to permit correct measurements
 - ✓ to permit operations between datasets based on different reference systems

Local vs global referencing

- Local coordinate systems used to be sufficient for some maps and plans:
 - ✓ local origin with no given global reference
 - ✓ mostly cartesian systems, no projection info
- Universal interoperability is only feasible within globally unequivocal reference systems
- DO NOT USE LOCAL SYSTEMS!

Coordinate systems

- Rules for identifying the position of each point in space by an ordered set of numbers:
- Systems:
 - ✓ Cartesian: coordinate values locate a point in relation to mutually perpendicular axes
 - ✓ Polar: coordinates locate a point by angular direction(s) and distance from center.
 - ✓ Spherical: point on surface located by angular measurements from center (latitude, longitude)

Coordinate system

- Coordinate systems are defined by:
 - ✓ number of dimensions (1, 2 or 3)
 - ✓ sequence/name of coordinate values (x, y, z)
 - ✓ unit scaling factor and system (meters)
 - ✓ origin of axes
 - ✓ direction of axes
- Coordinate systems can be based on a geodetic reference (datum) and a map projection

Direct vs. Indirect Positioning

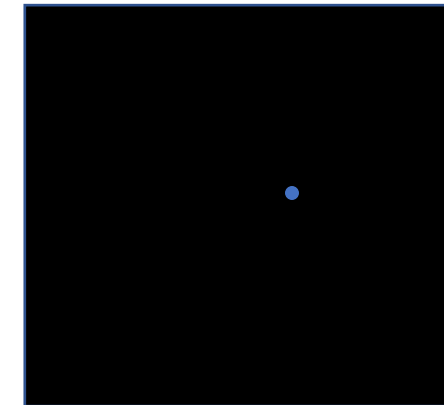
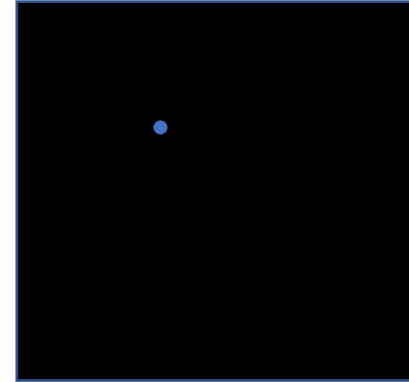
- Two methods to position points relative to the surface of the Earth:

- direct position:

- ✓ position based on coordinates

- indirect position:

- ✓ position not using coordinates (e.g. street address)

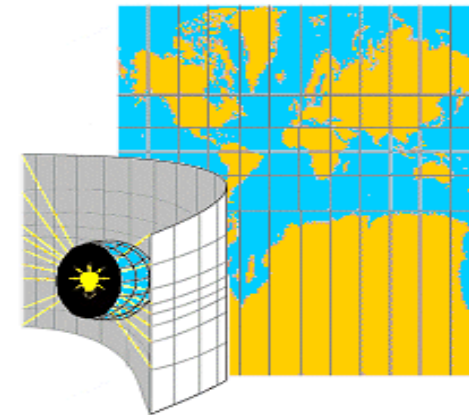
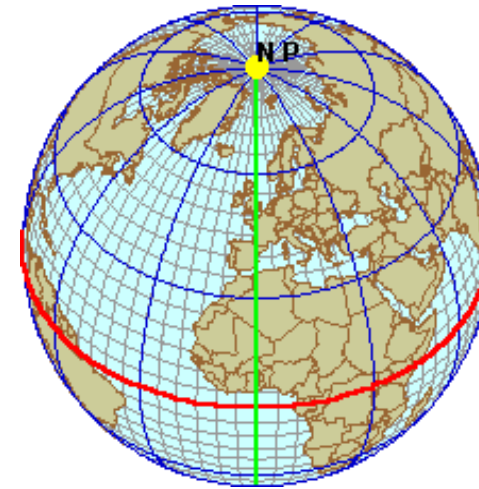


2D vs. 3D systems

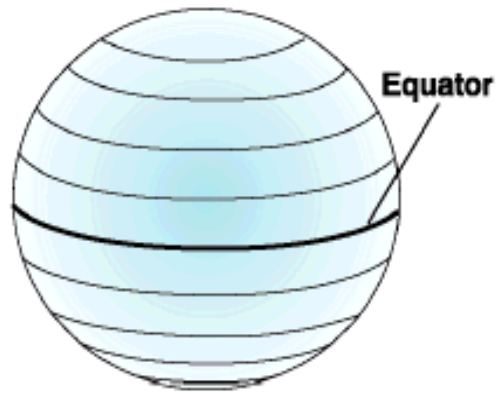
- Most GIS are 2D or 2.5D
- Many GIS operations are not defined in 3d space
- Increasingly, we need to handle 3D data, even if we don't fully use them
- Visualisation of 3D data sets is currently more important than analysis

Geographic vs. Projected Coordinate System

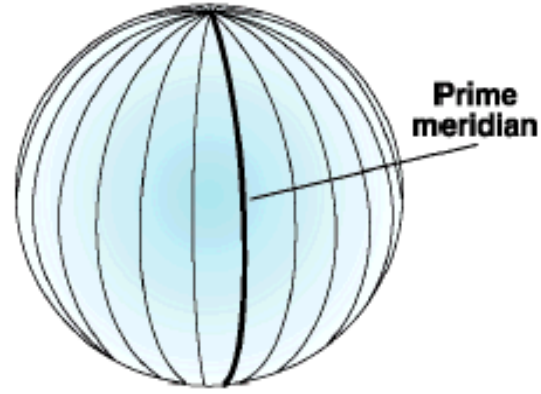
- GCS:
 - Location measured from curved surface of the earth
 - Measurement units: Lat/Lon
 - Degrees-minutes-seconds (DMS)
 - Decimal degrees (DD) or radians (rad)
- PCS:
 - Flat surface
 - Units can be in meters/feet/inches
 - Distortions will occur, except for very fine scale maps



Geographic Coordinate System



Parallels
(Lines of latitude)



Meridians
(Lines of longitude)

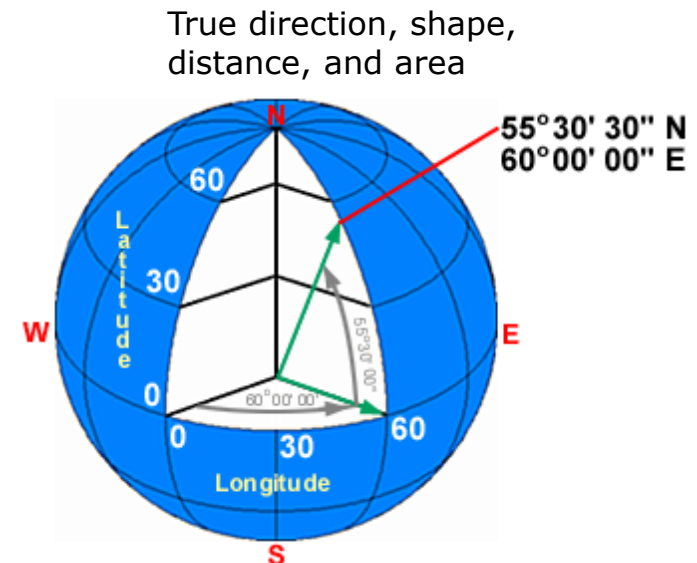
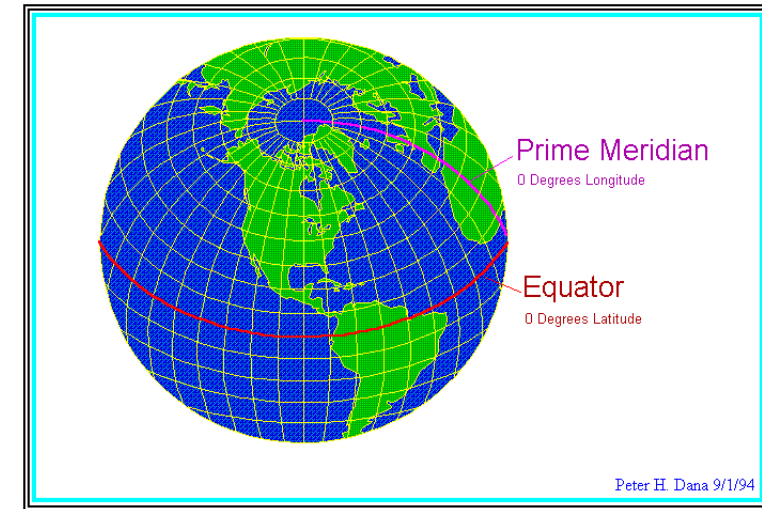


Graticular Network

- **Parallels:** east to west – 0° at the Equator (0° - 90°)
- **Meridians:** north to south – 0° at the Prime Meridian (0° - 180°)
- Latitude and longitude are angular measurements made from the center of the earth to a point on the surface of the earth

Globe

- Spherical Earth's surface
 - ✓ Radius 6371 km
- Meridians (lines of longitude)
 - ✓ Passing through Greenwich, England as prime meridian or 0° longitude.
- Parallels (lines of latitude)
 - ✓ Using equator as 0° latitude.
 - ✓ Degrees-minutes-seconds (DMS),
 - ✓ Decimal degrees (DD)



Earth Surface: Ellipsoid, Geoid, Topo

- The *reference ellipsoid* surface (a map of average sea level).
- The *reference geoid* surface (a mean sea level surface).
- The *real surface* of the Earth (the ground) also called the topographic surface.

