

L3: Basic Analysis Tools

Thomas Gumbricht
thomas@karttur.com
www.karttur.com

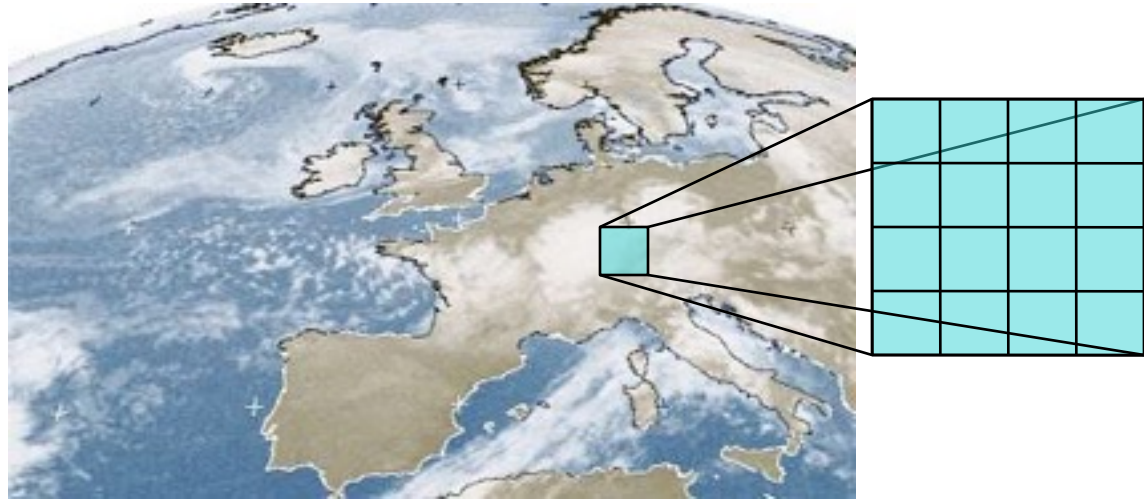
Georeferencing

- how data are linked with their geographic locations

Basic Spatial Analysis methods

- queries in geospatial databases
- transformations
 - buffering
 - point in polygon
 - polygon overlay
 - spatial interpolation
- raster analysis
 - map algebra
 - DEM, slope and aspect

Georeferencing



linking information to the Earth's surface ———> essential in GIS

Georeferencing must be:

- **unique**, linking information to exactly one location
- **shared**, so different users understand the meaning of a georeference
- **persistent through time**, so today's georeferences are still meaningful tomorrow

Types of georeferencing

- Some georeferences are **metric**
 - They define location using measures of distance from fixed places
 - e.g., distance from the Equator or from the Greenwich Meridian
- Others are **based on ordering**
 - e.g. street addresses in most parts of the world order houses along streets
- Others are only **nominal**
 - Placenames do not involve ordering or measuring

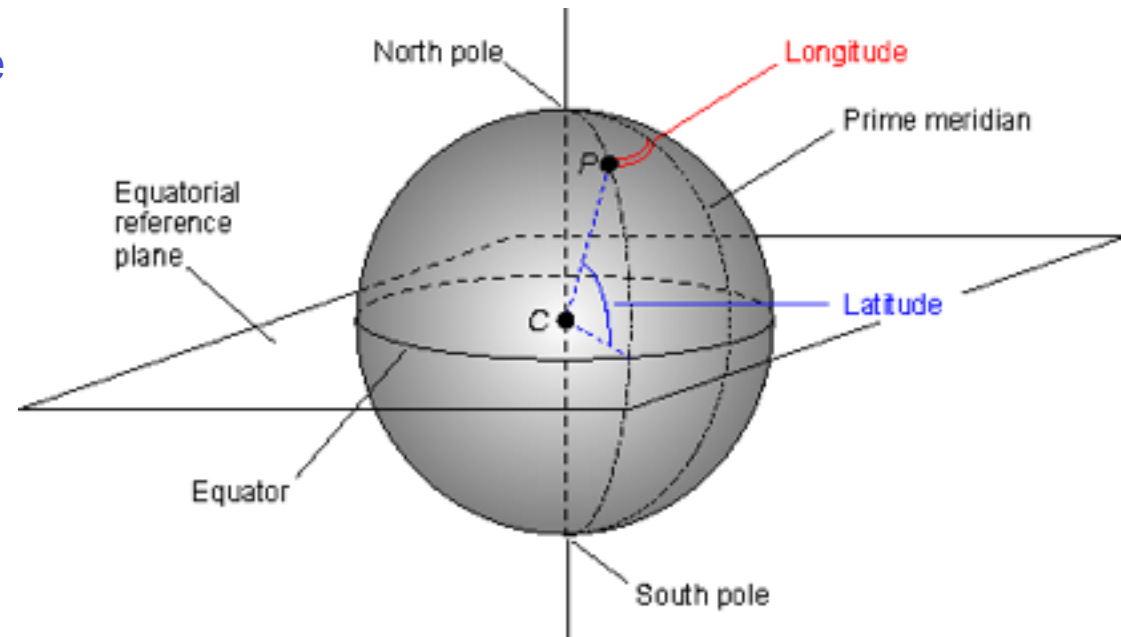
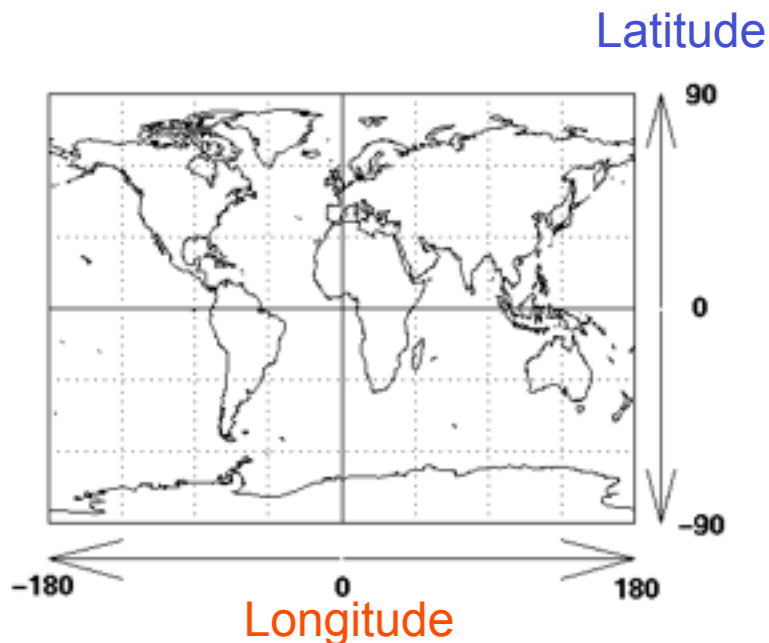
Metric georeferencing by latitude and longitude

The most comprehensive and powerful method of georeferencing

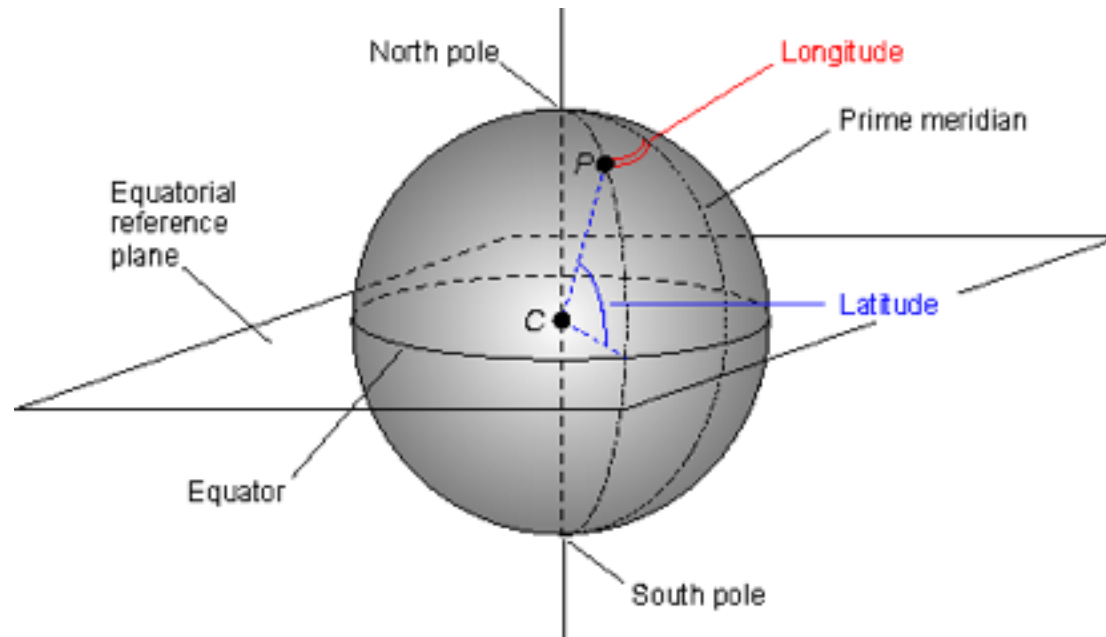
Metric, standard, stable, unique

Uses a well-defined and fixed **reference frame**

Based on the Earth's rotation and center of mass, and the Greenwich Meridian




Definition of longitude



The location of Greenwich defines the Prime Meridian. The **longitude** of the point P is determined by drawing a plane through it and the central axis, and measuring the angle between this plane and the Prime Meridian.

Definition of latitude

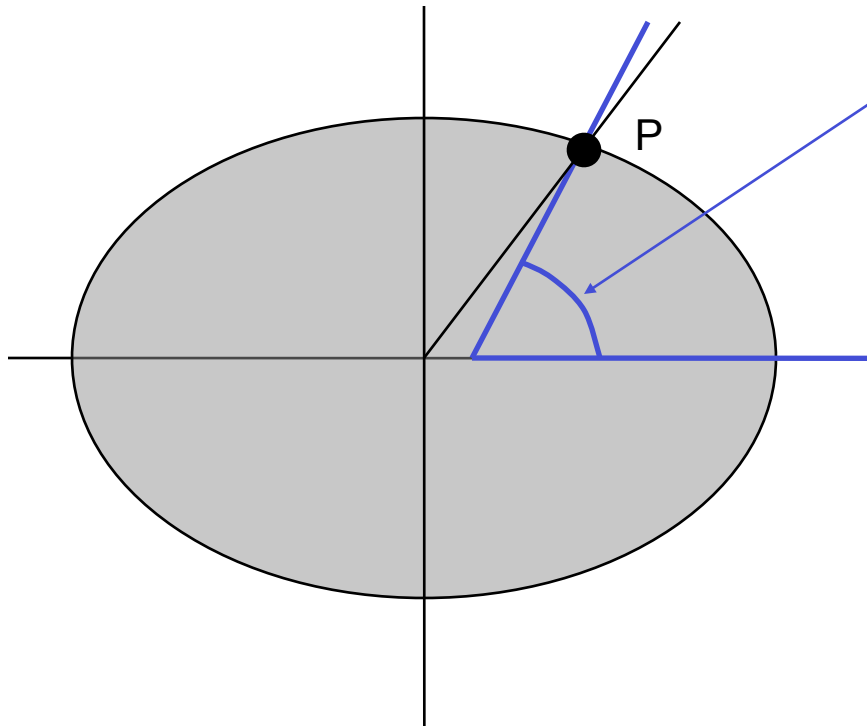
- Requires a **model of the Earth's shape**
- The Earth is somewhat **elliptical**
 - The N-S diameter is roughly 1/300 less than the E-W diameter
 - More accurately modeled as an ellipsoid than a sphere
 - An **ellipsoid** is formed by rotating an ellipse about its shorter axis (the Earth's axis in this case)



National ellipsoids – each country has its own best approximation of the Earth's surface



An international standard ellipsoid (WGS 84)



Latitude (of the point P) is the angle between a line that is perpendicular to the surface of the ellipsoid and the plane of the Equator

WGS 84 ellipsoid

- radius of the Earth at the Equator 6378.137 km
- flattening 1 part in 298.257

Measuring the longitude/latitude:

GNSS (Global Navigation Satellite Systems)

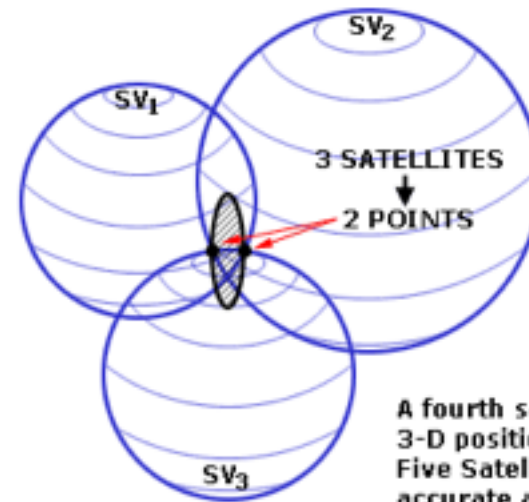
Collections of satellites:

GPS (USA) – Global Positioning System

GLONASS (Russia)

Galileo (EU) – under development

Direct, accurate measurements
of latitude and longitude



GPS: 10m accuracy from a simple, cheap unit

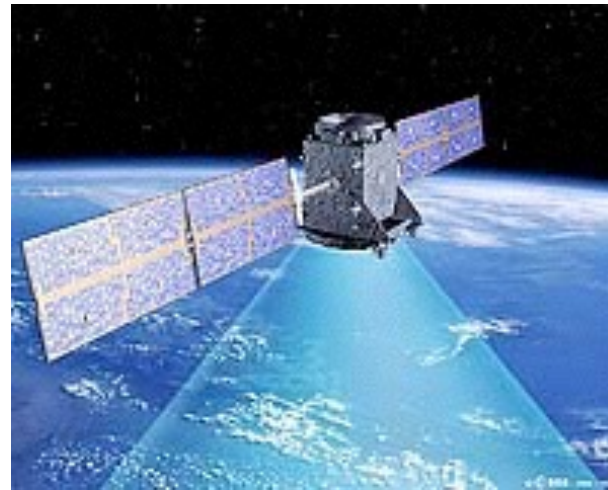
- differential GPS capable of sub-meter accuracy
- Sub-centimetre accuracy if observations are averaged over long periods





Field data collection with a GPS and external antenna

Constellation of GPS satellites



Galileo satellite

Georeferencing by place names

the earliest form
of georeferencing

the most commonly used
in everyday activities

Many names of geographic
features are **universally
recognised**,
others may be understood
only by locals.

Stockholm, London,
New York

Lill-Jansskogen,
Uggleviken, Siska

Names work **at many different scales**.

From continents to small villages and neighborhoods

Names may **pass out of use** in time

Where is **Östra Aros**?

Renamed to **Uppsala** in 1273, when the seat of the
archbishop was moved there from Gamla Uppsala.

Different names in different languages for the same place



Beč (Croatian, Serbian)
 Bécs (Hungarian)
 Dunaj (Slovenian)
 Vena (Russian)
 Vídeň (Czech)
 Viena (Portuguese, Spanish)
 Vienna (Italian, English)
 Vienne (French)
 Wiedeń (Polish)
 Wien (German, Swedish)

Benátky (Czech, Slovak)
 Benetke (Slovenian)
 Velence (Hungarian)
 Venecia (Spanish)
 Venedig (Danish, German, Swedish)
 Venezia (Italian)
 Venise (French)
 Wenecja (Polish)

Georeferencing by postal addresses and postal codes

Why are postal addresses and codes useful:

- Every dwelling and house is a potential destination for mail
- Dwellings and houses are usually arrayed along streets, and numbered accordingly
- Streets have names that are unique within local areas
- Local areas have names that are unique within larger regions



If these assumptions are true, then a postal address is a useful georeference

Lakes, mountains, and rivers cannot be located using postal addresses

Urban-style addresses have been extended recently to many rural areas

For **natural features**

In **rural areas**

**When does georeferencing
by postal addresses
and codes fail?**

When **numbering on streets is not sequential**

Japan

Venice

Venice



divided into **six districts = sestieri**

The word is from *sesto*, or sixth; and is used only for Italian towns divided into six districts.

house-numbering
by district

only six series of numbers for the entire city

Each house has a unique number in the district, from one to several thousand, generally numbered in the order of time when the house was built, which means that the numbers are not distributed in a readily understandable manner.

Basic Spatial Analysis

Spatial Analysis → Turns raw data into useful information

Reveals patterns, trends, and anomalies that might otherwise be missed

Helps the human intuition in situations where the eye might deceive

A **method of analysis** is **spatial** if the results depend on the **locations** of the objects being analysed:

- the results change if you move the objects (results are not invariant under relocation)

necessary attributes

non-spatial

geometric

location

Spatial analysis using queries

Querying databases → Structured Query Language - SQL

Column = property

SQL is a standard language used to analyse relational databases.

Row = object

Table = relational database = Object Class

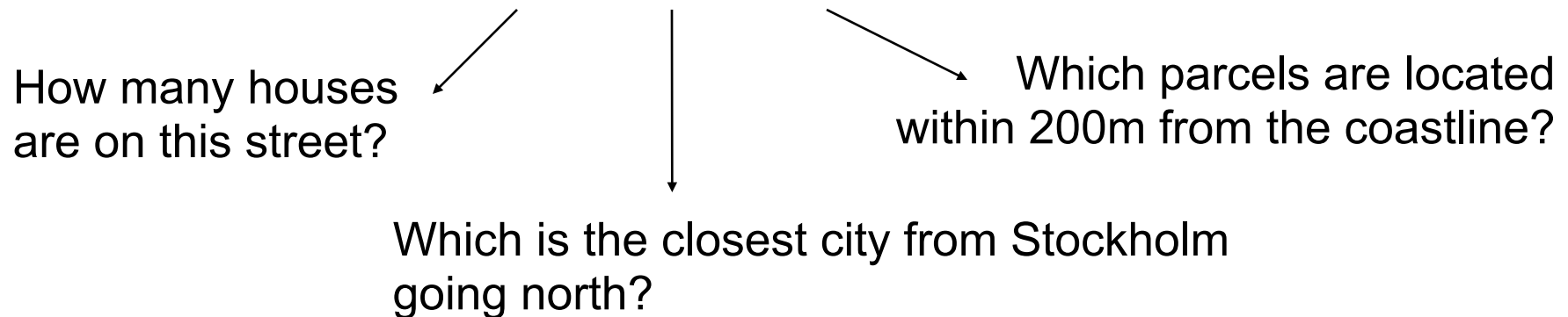
add Geometry

Feature Class = geospatial database

FID	Shape*	AREA	STATE_NAME	STATE_FIPS
41	Polygon	51715.656	Alabama	01
49	Polygon	576556.687	Alaska	02
35	Polygon	113711.523	Arizona	04
45	Polygon	52912.797	Arkansas	05
23	Polygon	157774.187	California	06
30	Polygon	104099.109	Colorado	08
17	Polygon	4976.434	Connecticut	09
27	Polygon	2054.506	Delaware	10
28	Polygon	56.063	District of Columbia	11
47	Polygon	55815.051	Florida	12
43	Polygon	58629.195	Georgia	13
48	Polygon	5381.435	Hawaii	15
7	Polygon	83340.594	Idaho	16
25	Polygon	56297.953	Illinois	17
20	Polygon	96399.516	Indiana	18
12	Polygon	56257.219	Iowa	19
32	Polygon	82195.437	Kansas	20
31	Polygon	40318.777	Kentucky	21
46	Polygon	45835.898	Louisiana	22
2	Polygon	32161.664	Maine	23
29	Polygon	8739.753	Maryland	24
13	Polygon	8172.482	Massachusetts	25
50	Polygon	57898.367	Michigan	26
9	Polygon	84517.469	Minnesota	27
42	Polygon	47618.723	Mississippi	28
34	Polygon	69831.625	Missouri	29
1	Polygon	147236.031	Montana	30

Queries:

- the most basic analysis operations
- used to **select information** from one or several tables.



SQL examples using a list of student names:

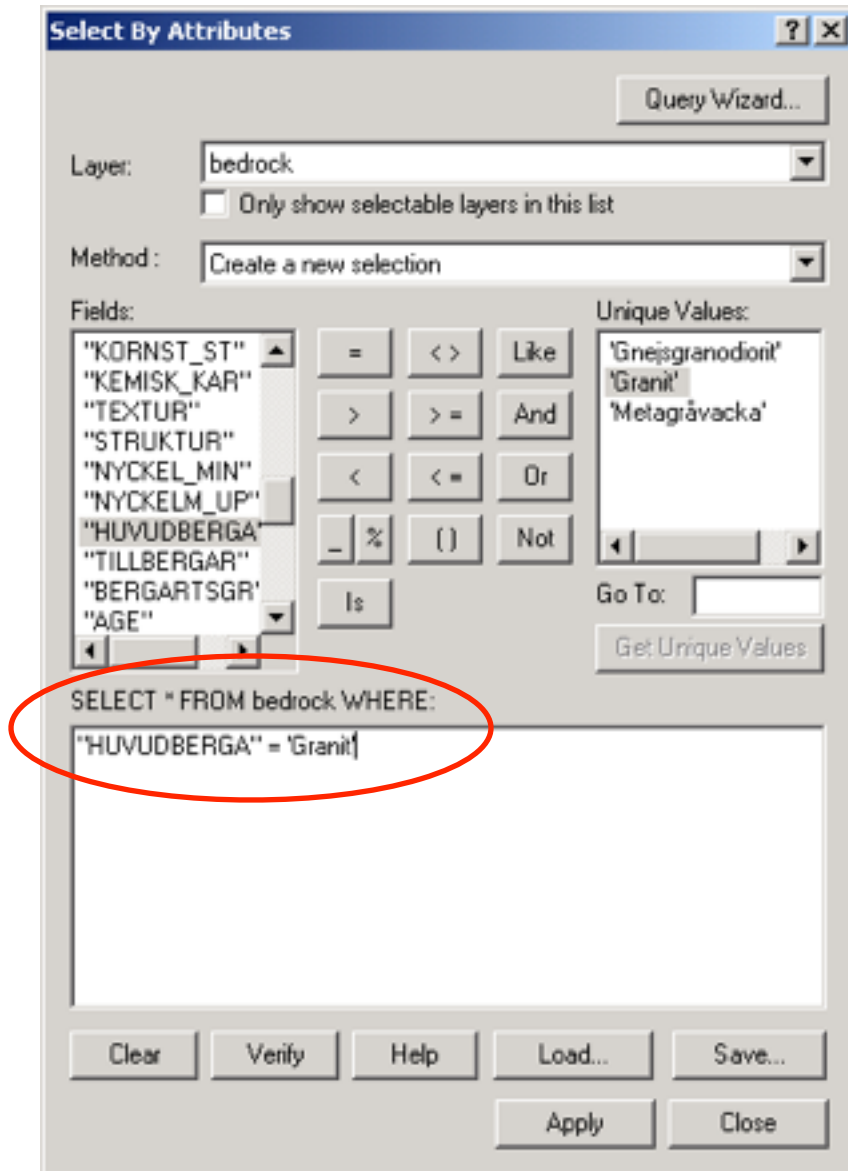
SELECT name FROM list
(selects all names)

SELECT name FROM list WHERE university = "KTH"
(selects names of students studying at KTH)

SELECT name FROM list WHERE grade > 3.0
(selects names of students with a grade greater than 3.0)

SQL example in ArcGIS:
selecting the bedrock
polygons according to
attribute value

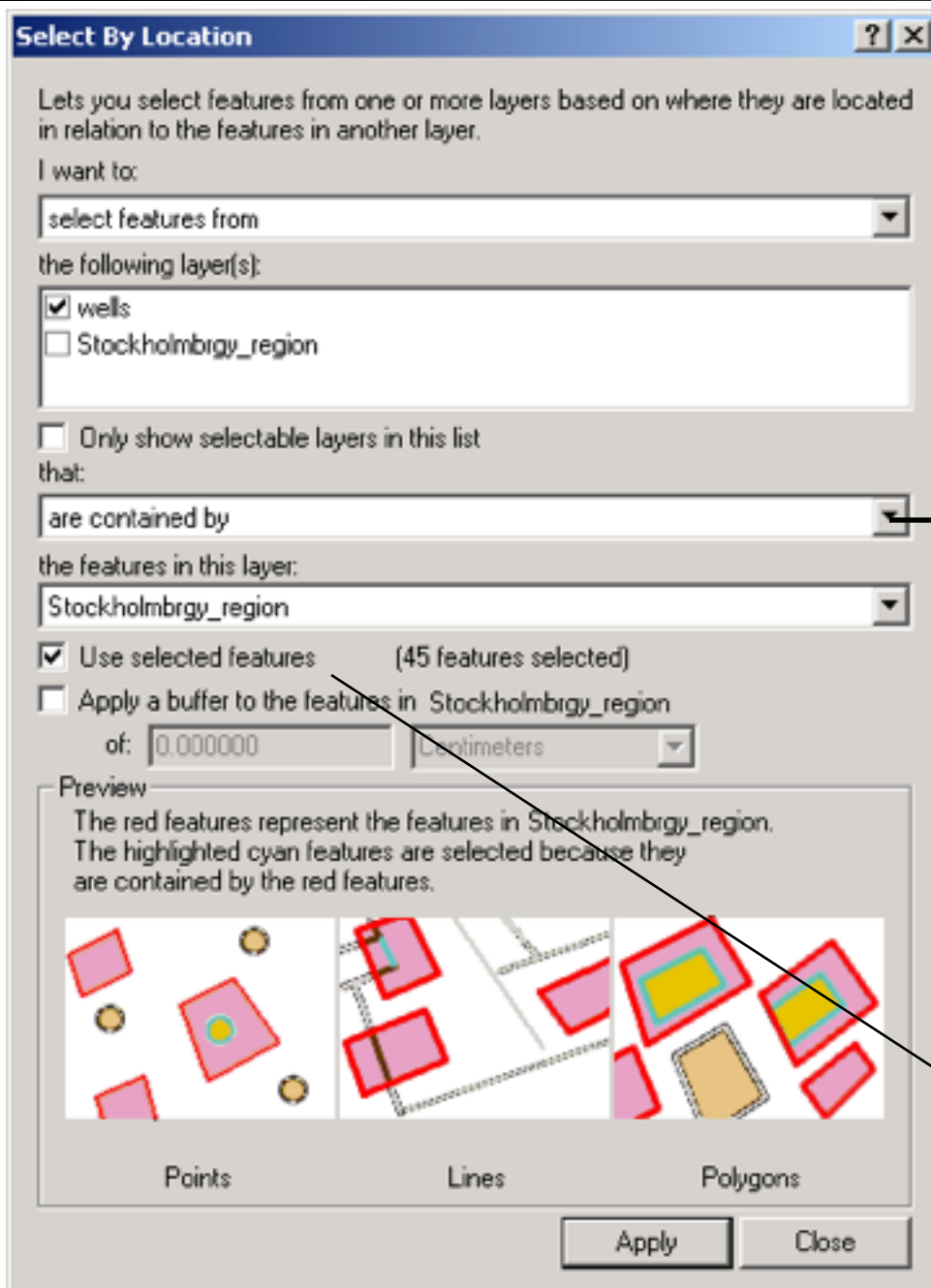
SELECT * FROM bedrock WHERE:
"HUVUDBERGA" = 'Granit'



Spatial queries

SQL can be extended with **spatial requirements** such as:

- Intersect
- Contain
- Have their centre in
- Are within a distance of ...
- Touch the boundary of ...
- etc.



Spatial requirements

intersect

intersect

are within a distance of

completely contain

are completely within

have their center in

share a line segment with

touch the boundary of

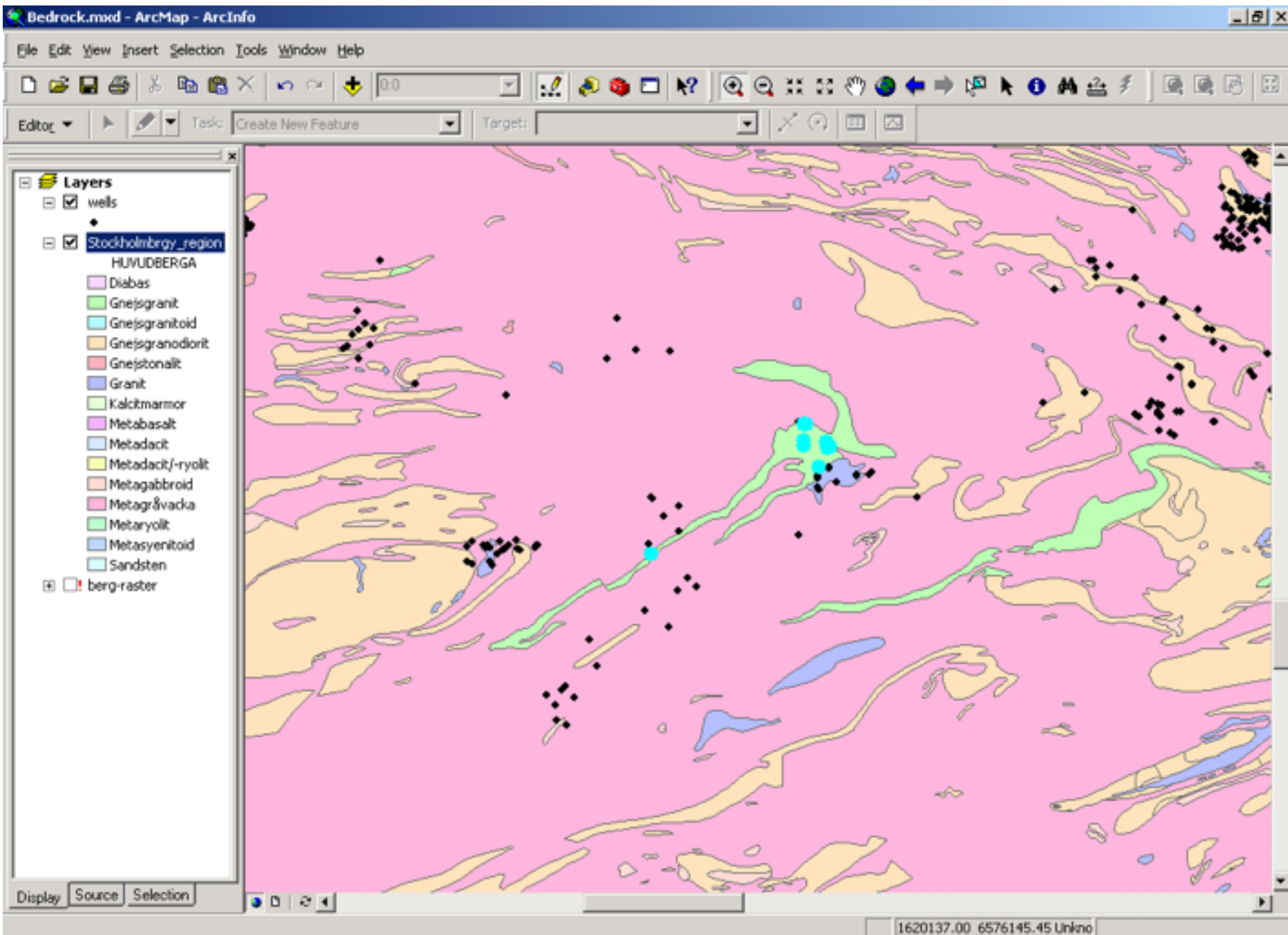
are identical to

are crossed by the outline of

contain

are contained by

SELECT * FROM bedrock WHERE:
"HUVUDBERGA" = 'Gnejsgranit'



Geometrisk vektoroperationer

Beräkning av avstånd

Euklidiskt avstånd

$$d(1,2) = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2}$$

där

$d(1,2)$ är avståndet mellan punkterna 1 och 2
punkt 1 har koordinaterna (x_1, y_1) och,
punkt 2 har koordinaterna (x_2, y_2) .



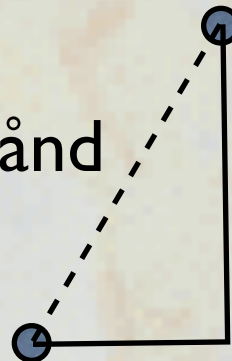
Geometrisk vektoroperationer

Beräkning av avstånd

Manhattan avstånd

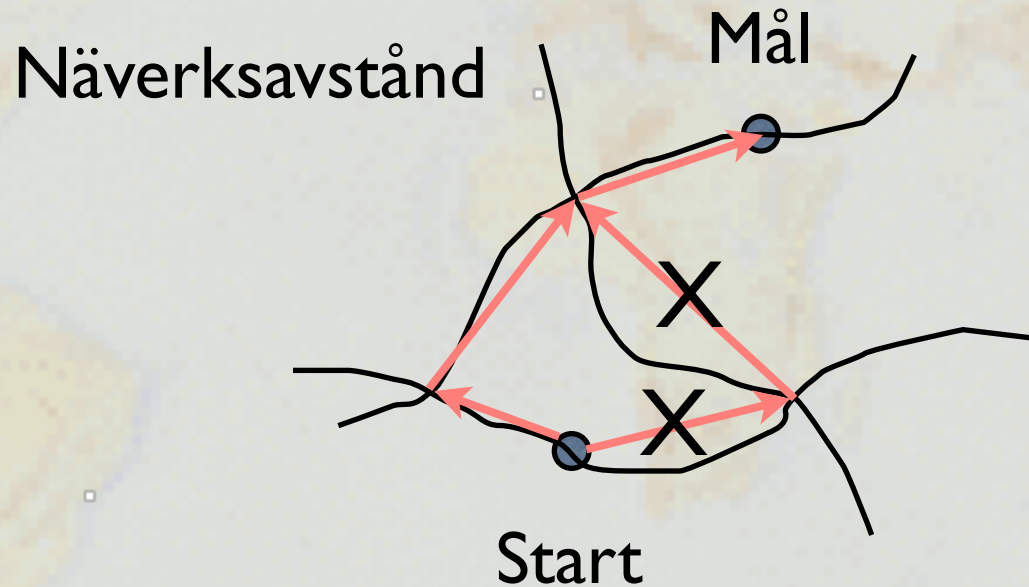
Euklidiskt avstånd

Manhattan avstånd



Geometrisk vektoroperationer

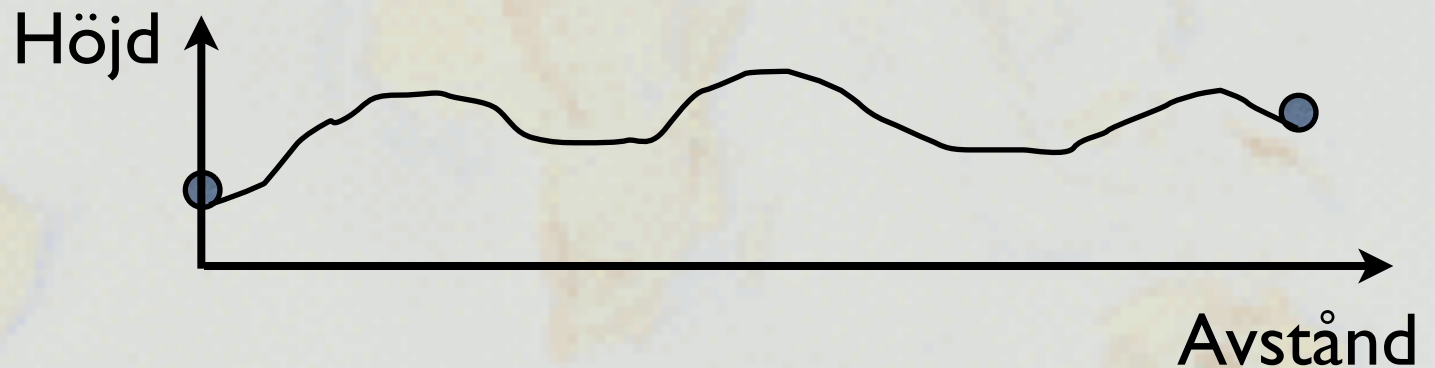
Beräkning av avstånd



Geometrisk vektoroperationer

Beräkning av avstånd

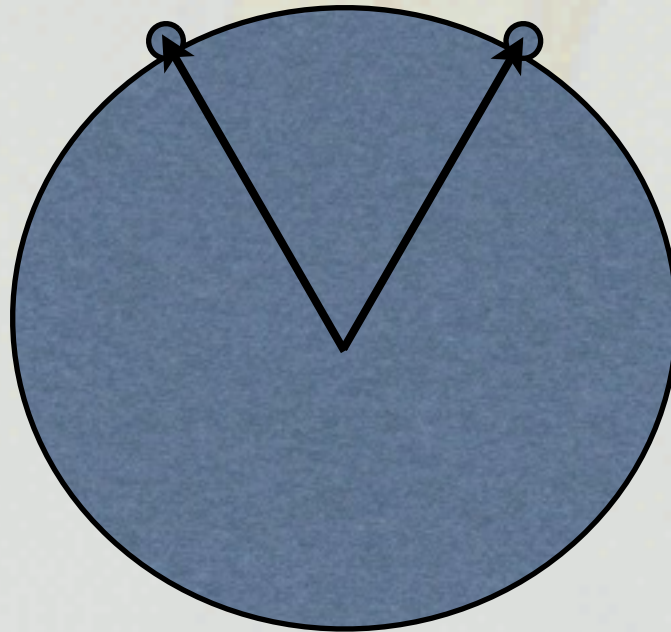
Topografiskt avstånd (över 3D yta)



Geometrisk vektoroperationer

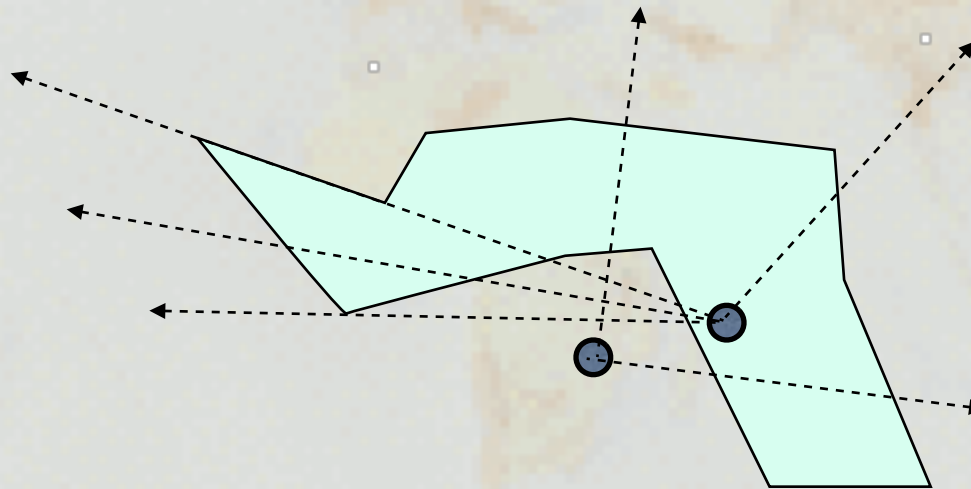
Beräkning av avstånd

Sfärsikt avstånd (med hänsyn till jordans rundning)



Geometrisk vektoroperationer

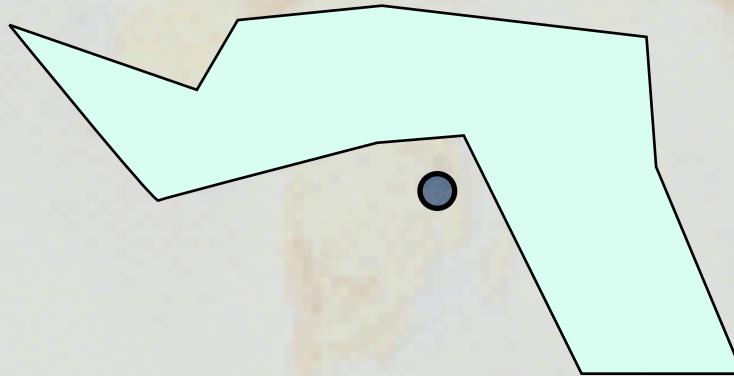
Polygontillhörighet



Om antalet passager genom polygonens begränsning =
ojämnt antal, då ligger punkten inuti polygonen

Geometrisk vektoroperationer

Beräkning av en polygons tyngpunkt eller centroid



Överlagring i vektordata

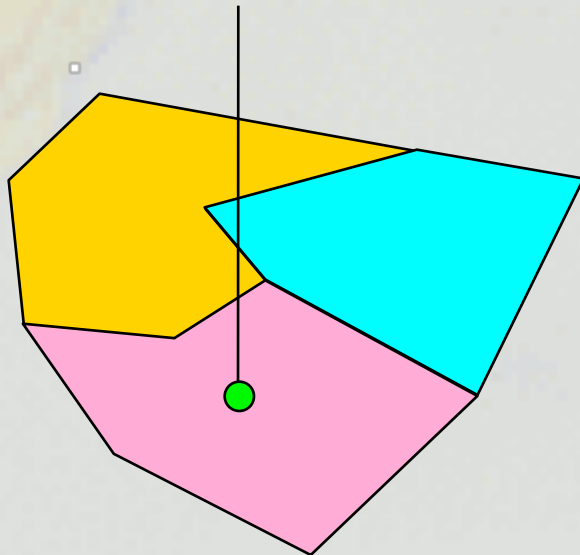
Överlagring av punkter på polygoner

Först analyseras polygontillhörighet.

Sedan extraheras valda polygon attribut till punktens attributdata.

Exempel:

- hänföra kriminella aktiviteter till rätt polisdistrikt
- hänföra röstberättigade till rätt valdistrikt



Överlagring i vektordata

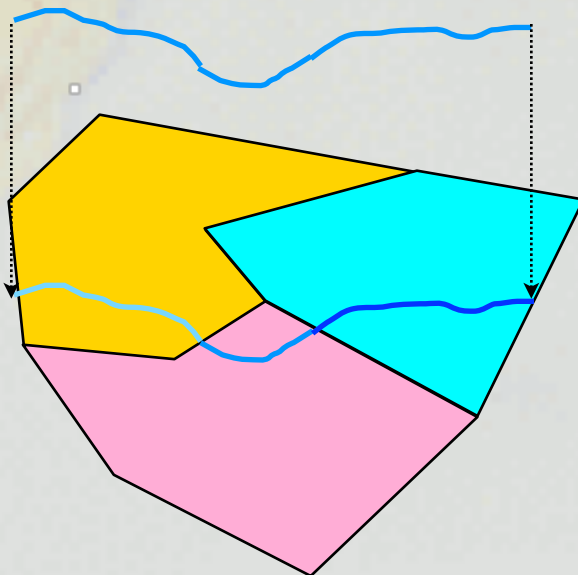
Överlagring av linjer på polygoner

Först klipps linjeobjektet där det delas av polygonskiktet, och nya start- och stoppunkter läggs in. Till skillnad från överlagring av punkter måste en ny linjevektor skapas.

Sedan extraheras valda polygon attribut (eller linje attribut) till det nya linjeobjektets attribut-tabell.

Exempel:

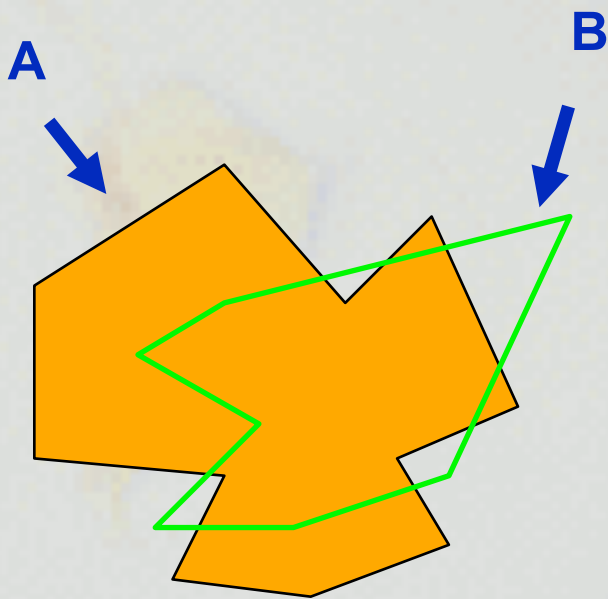
- Vattendragslängder i olika fastigheter
- väglängder i olika län



Överlagring i vektordata

Överlagring av polygoner på polygoner

Överlagring med diskreta objekt hittar inersektioner mellan två polygoner och skapar en ny polygon



I exemplet uppstår **9 new polygons** vid intersektionen av polygon A och B.

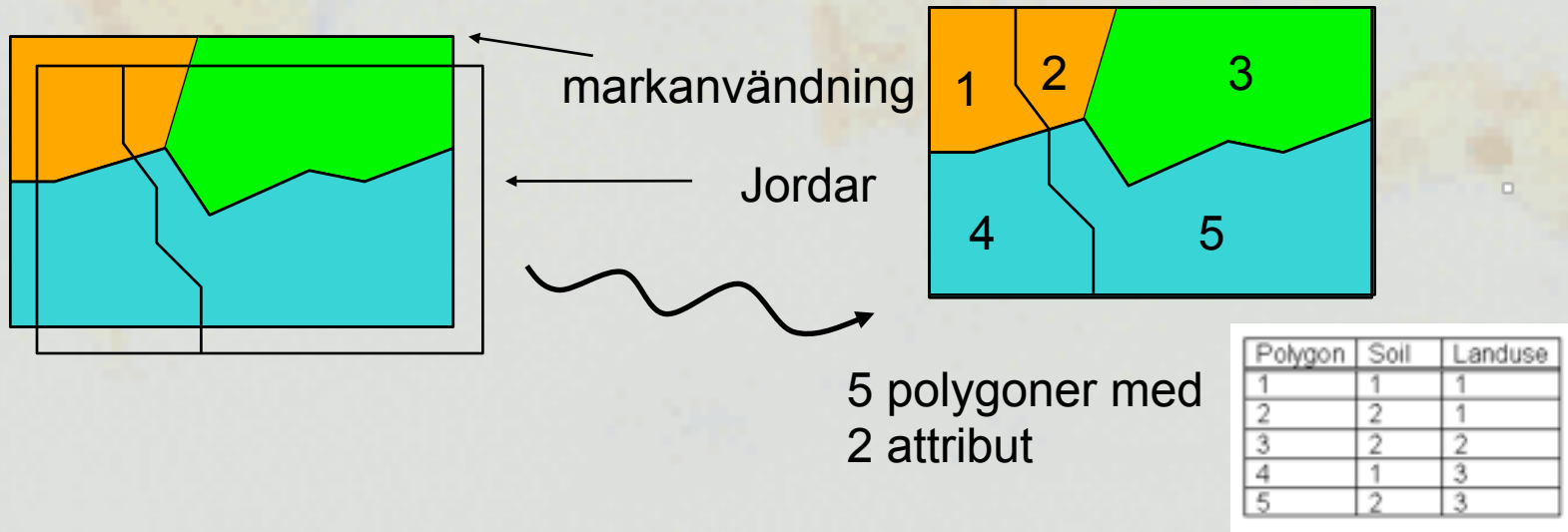
- En bildas gemensamt från A och B.

- Fyra bildas från polygon A men inte Polygon B.

- Fyra bildas från polygon B men inte polygan A.

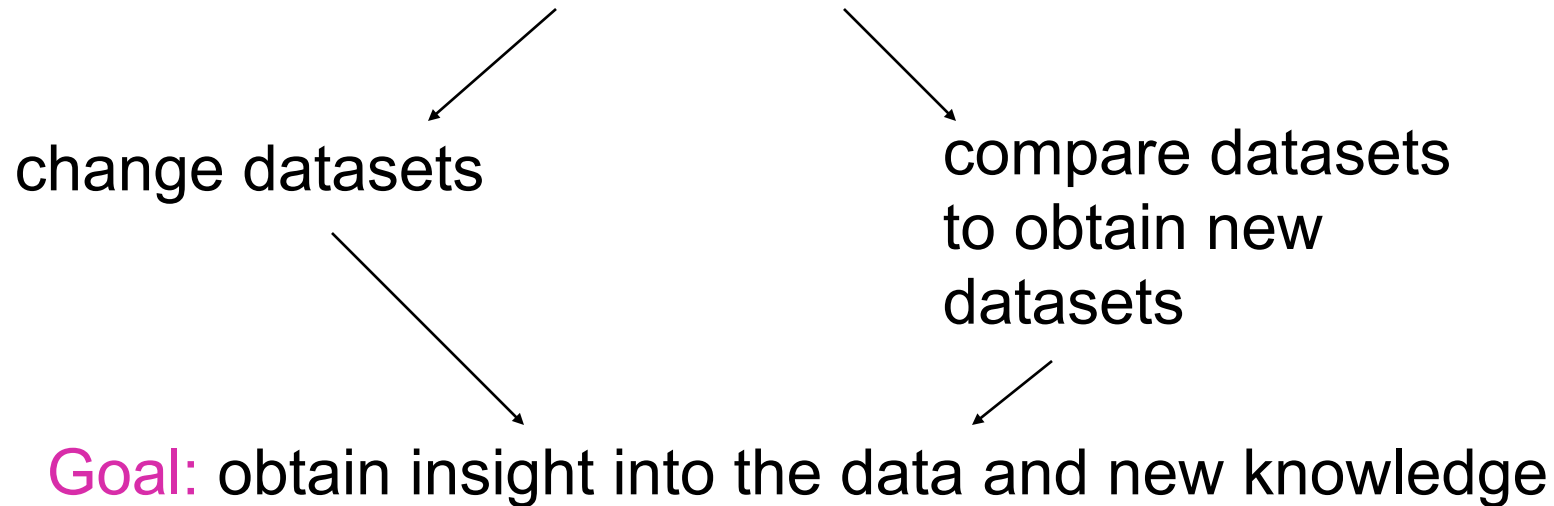
Överlagring i vektordata

- Två överlappande polygon-lager, som representerar två klassificeringar över samma område (jordarter och land markägare)
- Överlagringen skapar nya lager från alla kombinationer av intersektioner.
- Varje polygon i det nya lagret har både en jordart och en markägare (konkatenerade attribut).
- Kan utföras i både raster och vektor



Transformations

Transformations – simple methods of spatial analysis



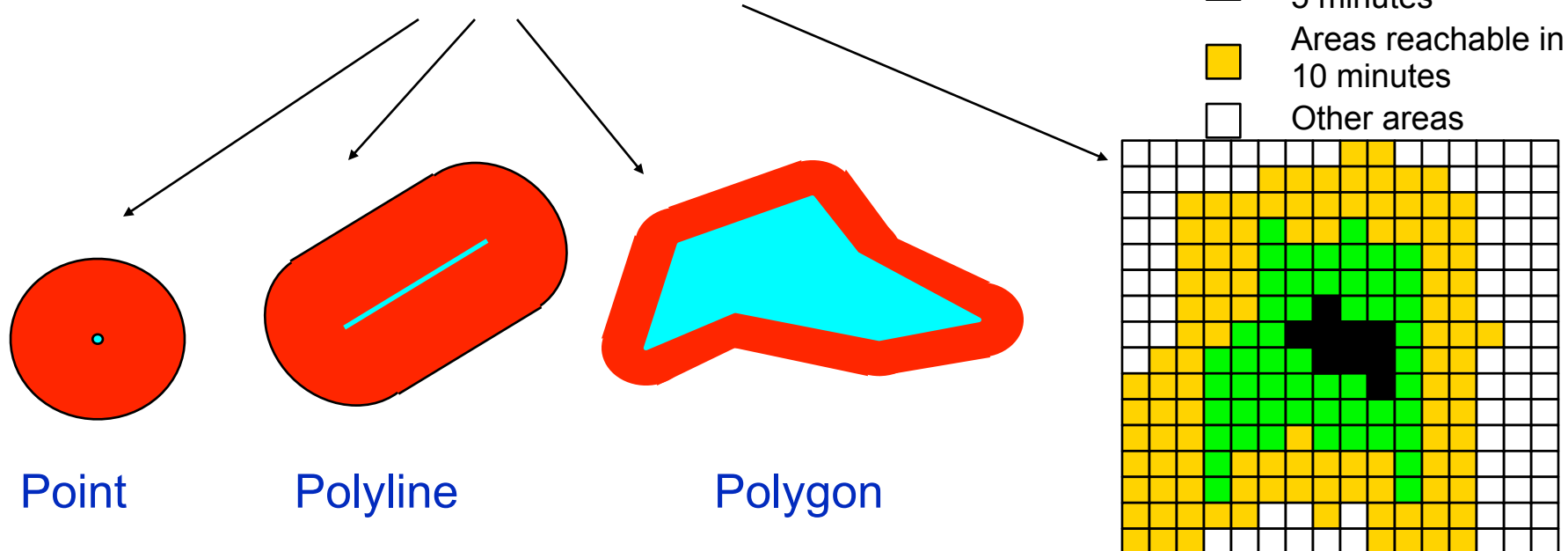
Buffering

Buffer operation builds a new object consisting of areas within a user-defined distance of an existing object.

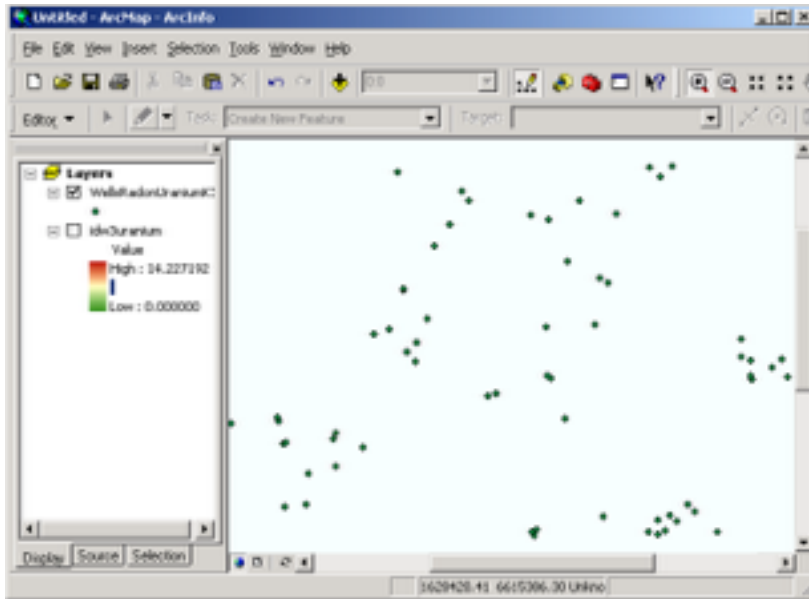
Why is this useful?

- to determine areas impacted by a noise pollution
- to determine the areas that would be affected by a flood

Feasible in either **vector** or **raster** mode



Spatial interpolation



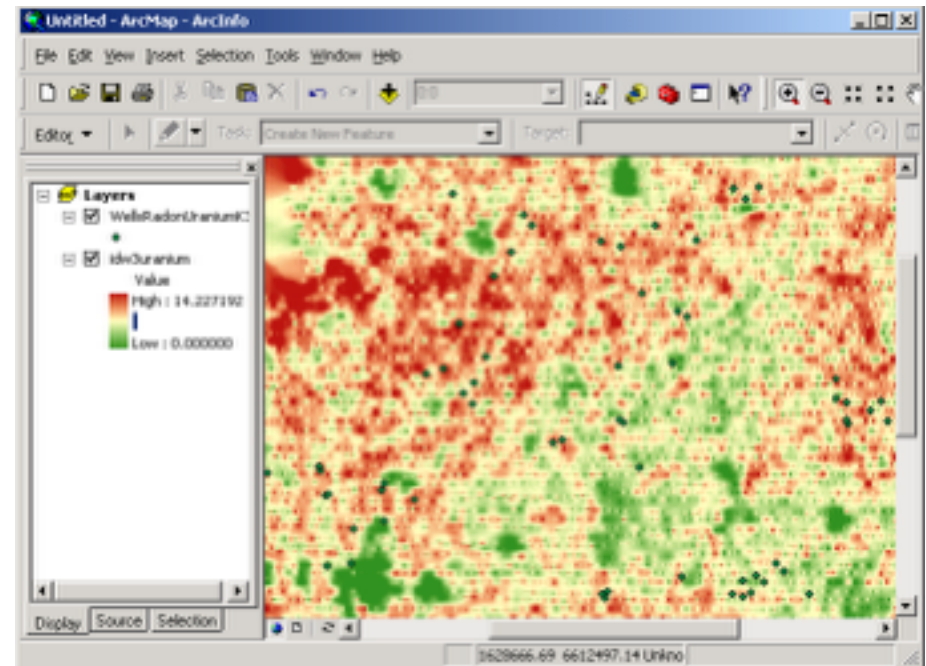
Values of a field have been measured at a number of sample points

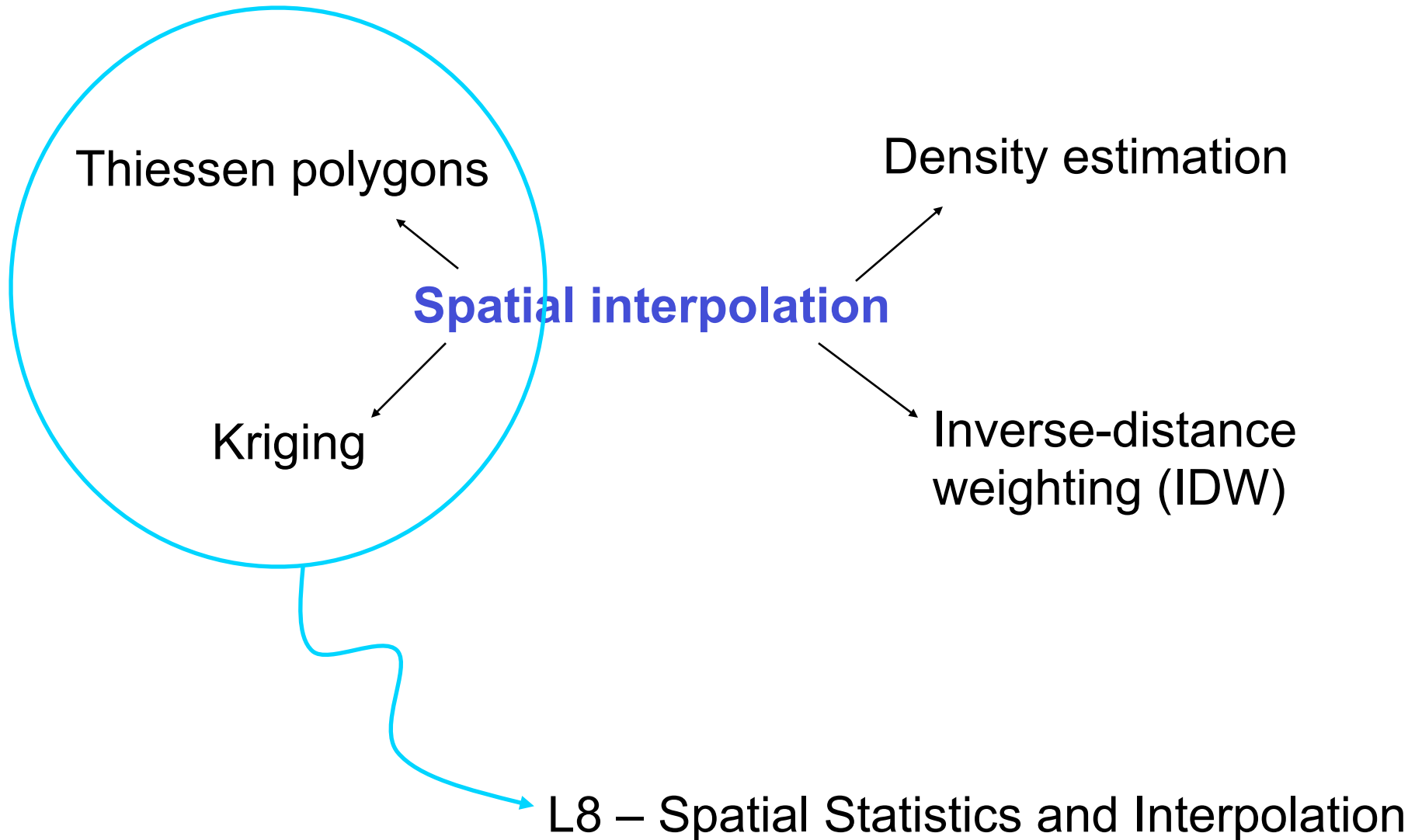
Why do we need this?

- to estimate values at points where the field was not measured
- to create a contour map by drawing isolines between the data points

How to estimate the complete field?

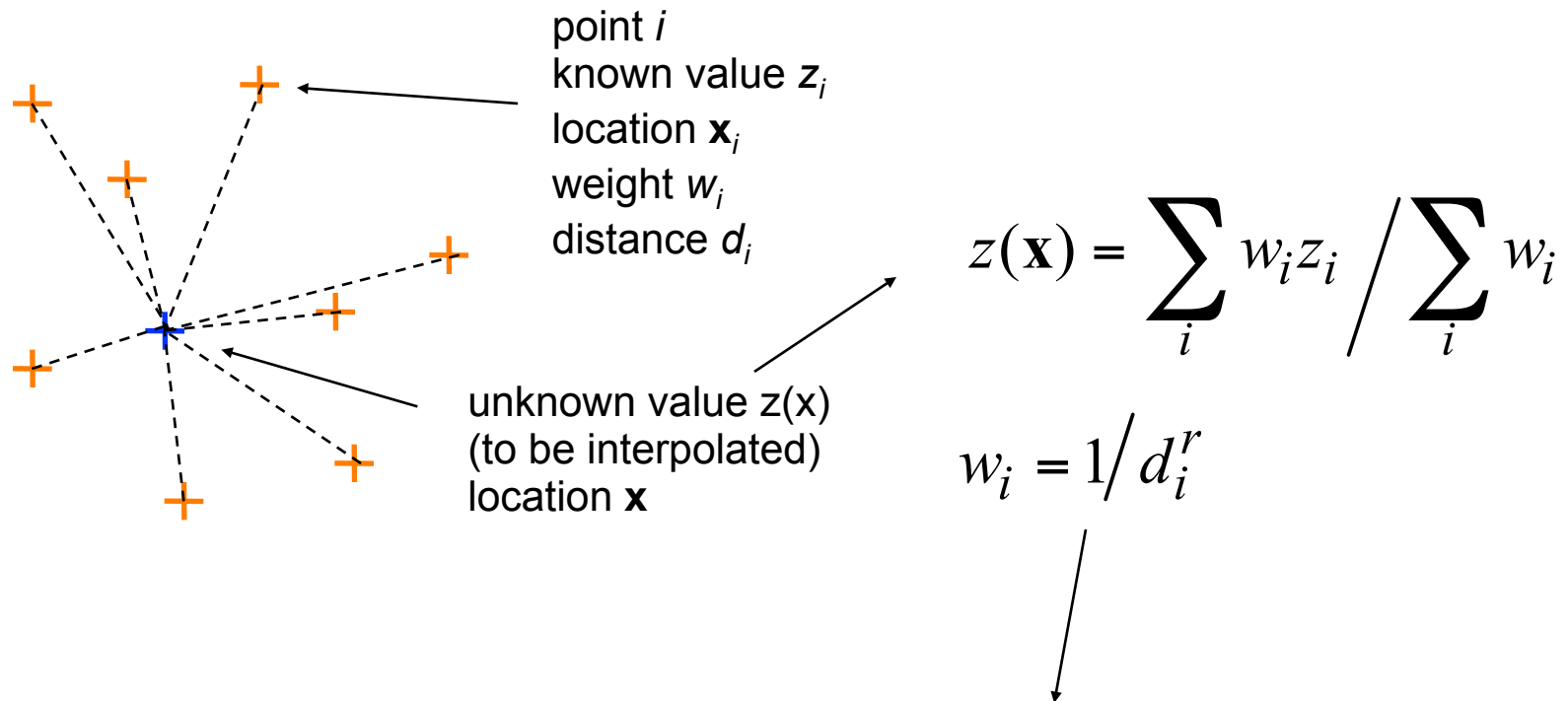
Spatial interpolation





Spatial interpolation by **Inverse-distance weighting (IDW)**

The unknown value of a field z at a point x is estimated by taking a **weighted average** over the known values:

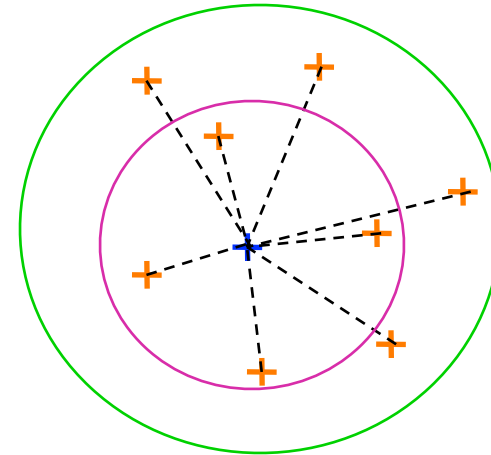


Each known value is weighted by its **distance from the point x** : weights decrease with the r^{th} power of distance (usually $r=2$).

IDW issues

-What is a reasonable size of the search radius?

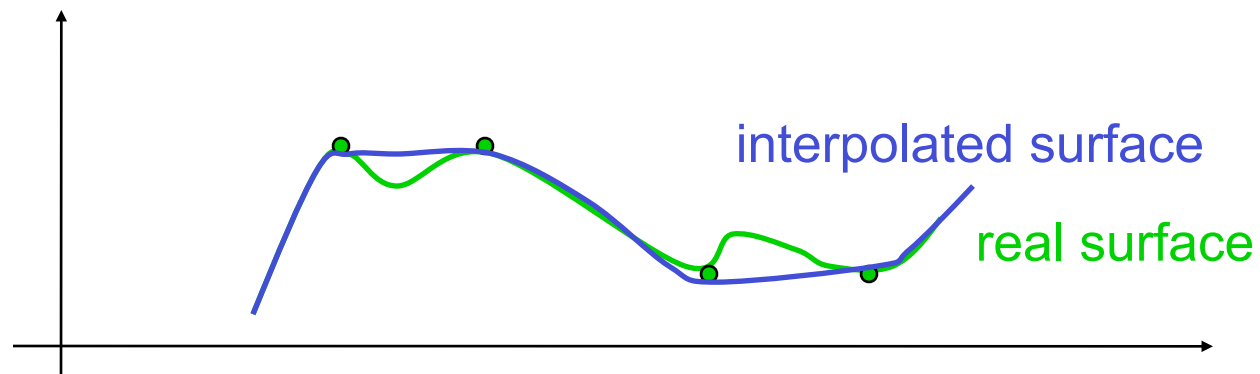
I.e. how many neighbouring known points should be included in the calculation?



- The range of interpolated values cannot exceed the range of observed values:

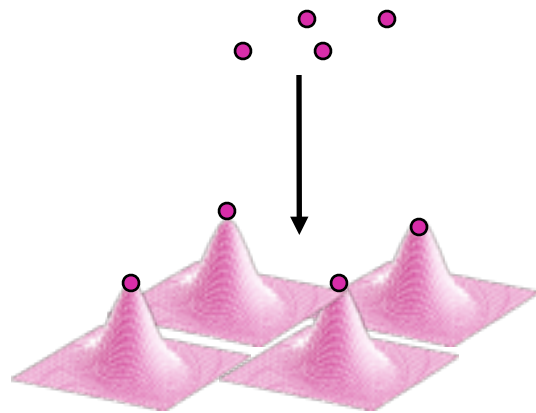
sample points should include both min and max value.

-The method misses small peaks and pits:

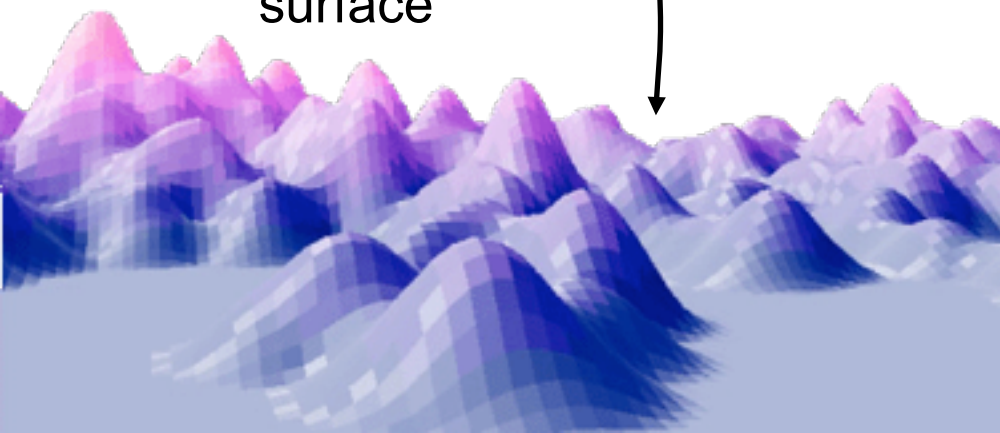


Density estimation

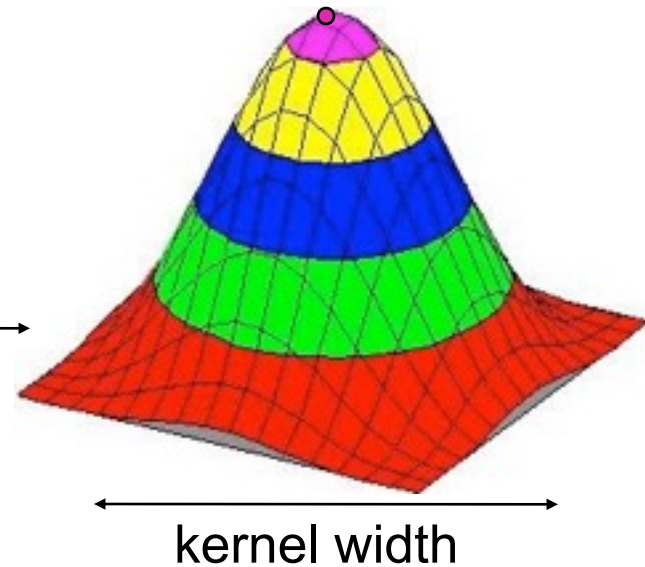
Density estimation creates a field from discrete point objects: the field's value at any point is an estimate of the density of discrete objects at that point.



Add up kernels
into a density
surface

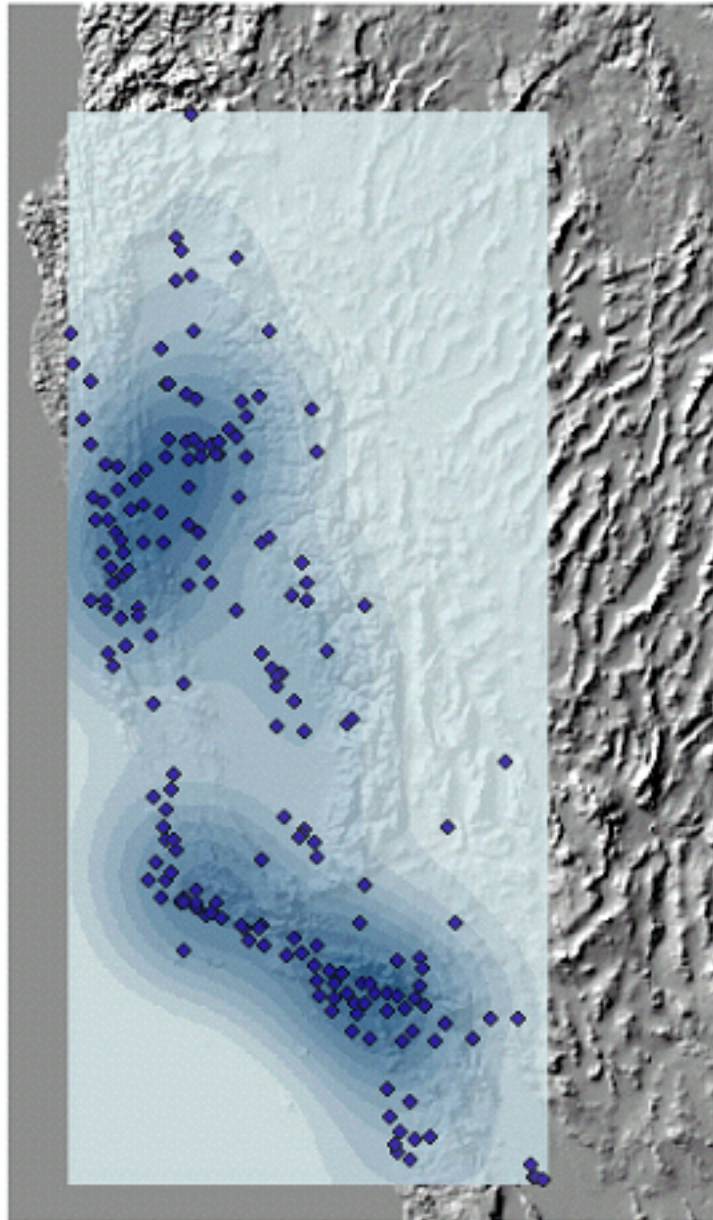


Substitute
each known
point with a
kernel
function



Why can this be used:
- produce a map of population density (a field) from a map of cities with a given population number (discrete objects)

The result of
applying a
150km-wide kernel
to points distributed
over California



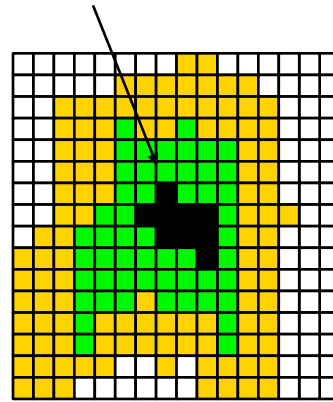
When the kernel width is too small (in this case 16km, using only the S California part of the database) the surface is too rugged, and each point generates its own peak.



Travel time from the urban area

Cell value:

a_{ij} = travel time
to the city

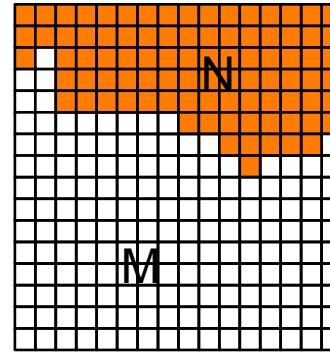


A

A raster map of two municipalities, M and N

Cell value:

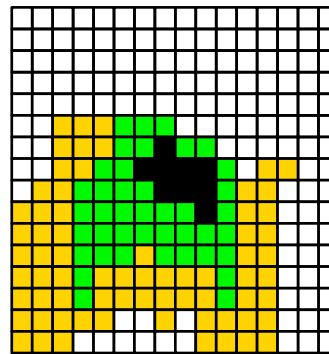
b_{ij} = 1 if the cell belongs to municipality M and 0 if it belongs to Municipality N



B

Cellwise-multiplication

$$C = A * B$$



C

Cell values in the resulting raster:

$$c_{ij} = a_{ij} * b_{ij}$$

Result: a map showing travel time to the city inside municipality M

Raster Analysis

Map algebra

Map algebra involves combining raster maps cell by cell using:

- **boolean operators**

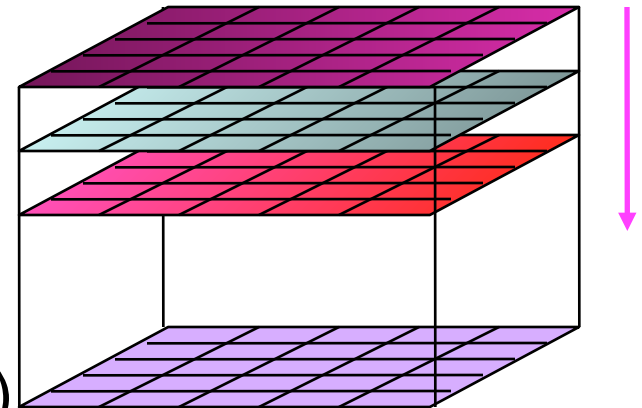
 - Where is both A and B

 - Where is A or B

 - Where is B but not A

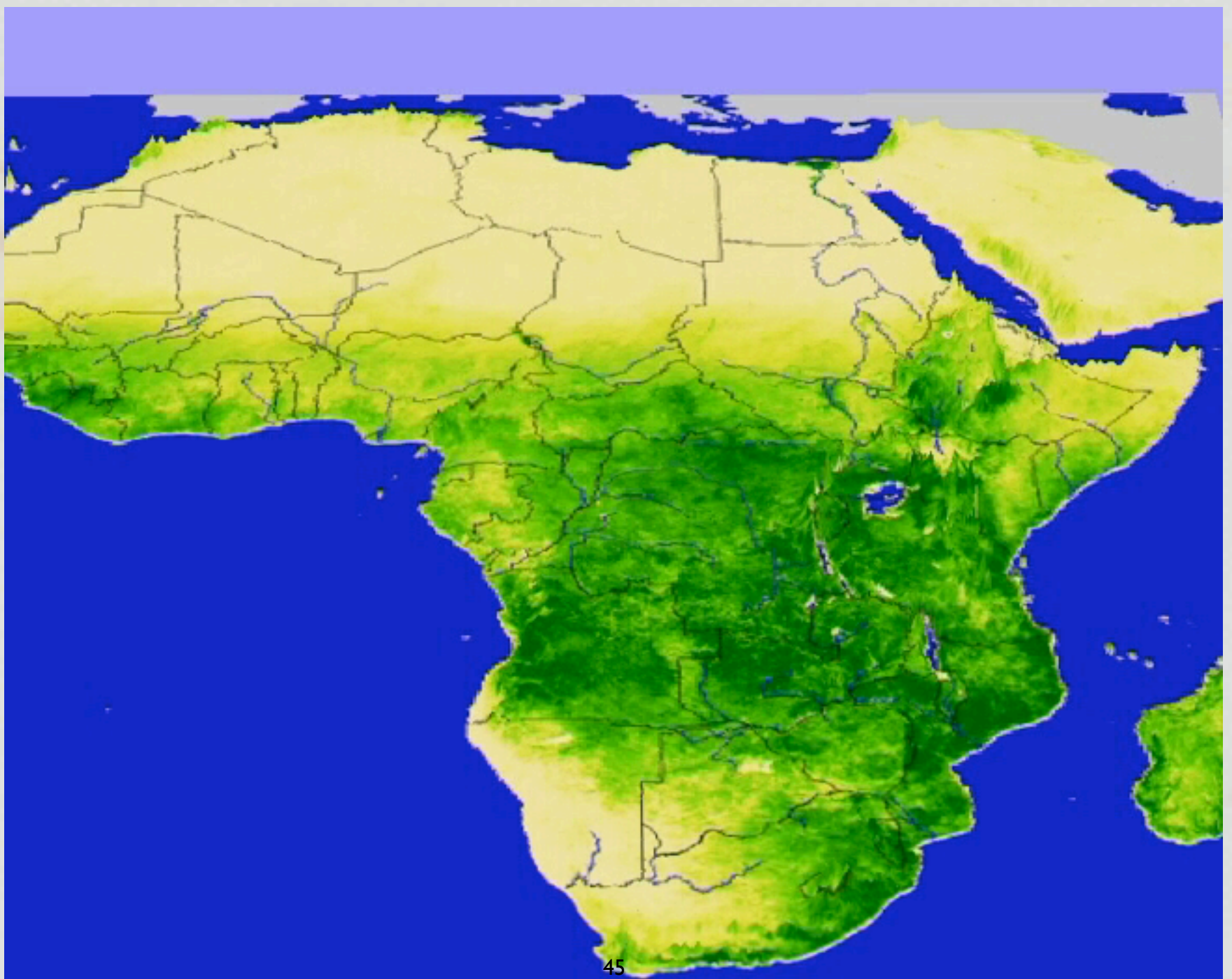
 - Where is neither A nor B

- **algebraic operations** (+, -, *, /, log, etc)

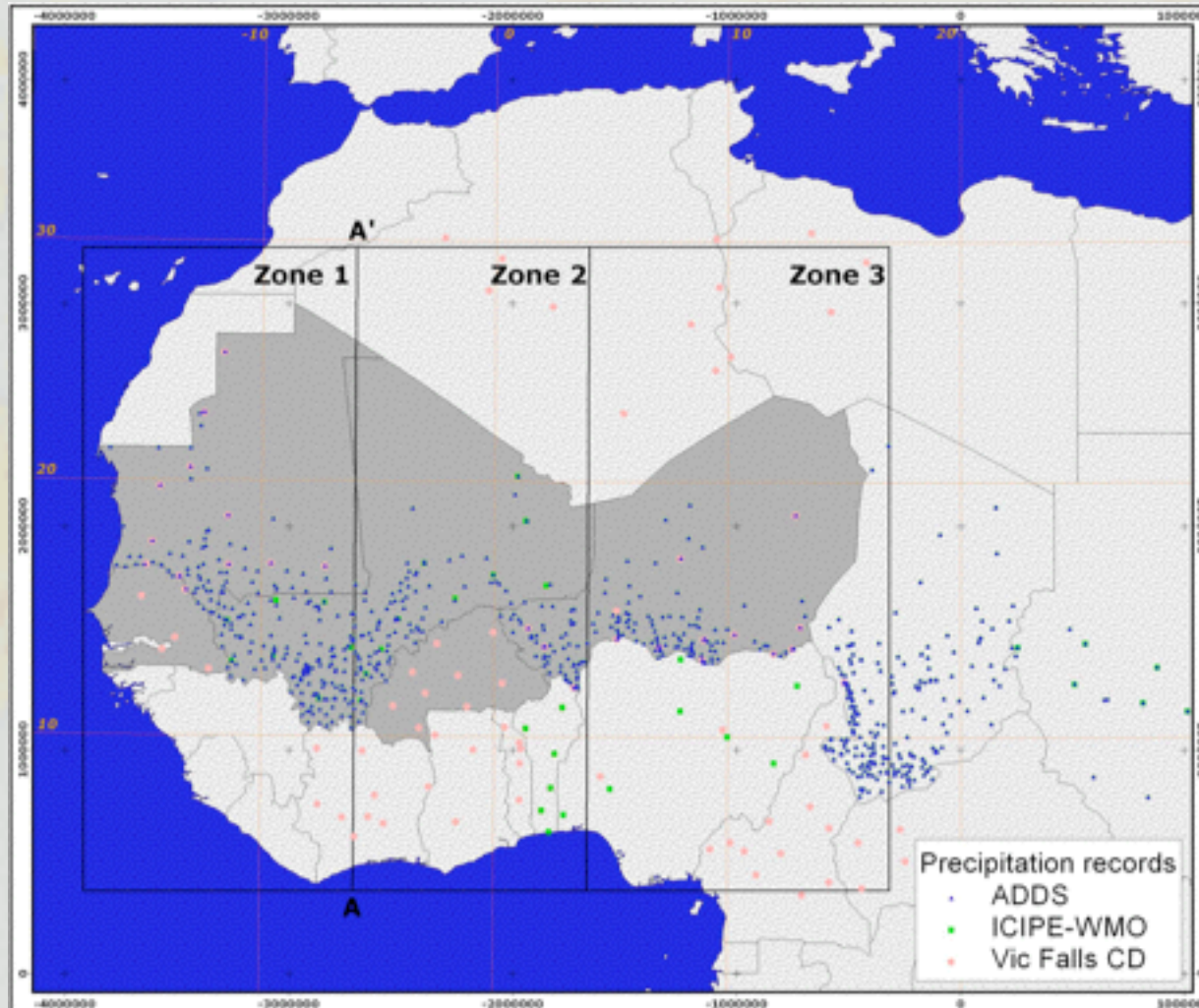


To create the desired map you may need to combine a large number of maps together. Some examples:

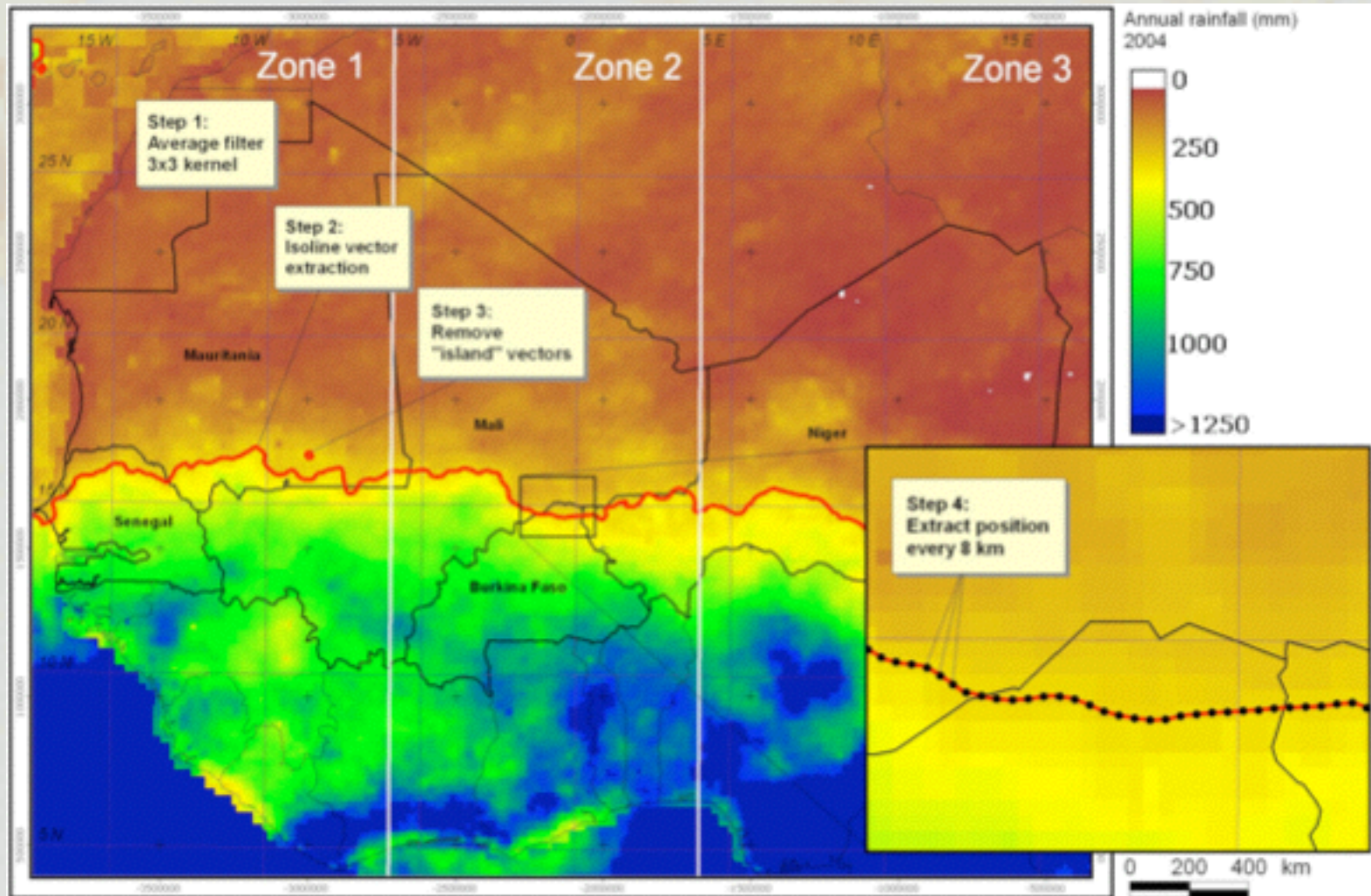
- elevation, slope and aspect
- areas to be excluded or included
- shortest distance to a certain location
- cost of travelling to a certain location
- qualitative data, such as soil, landuse, bedrock
- etc.

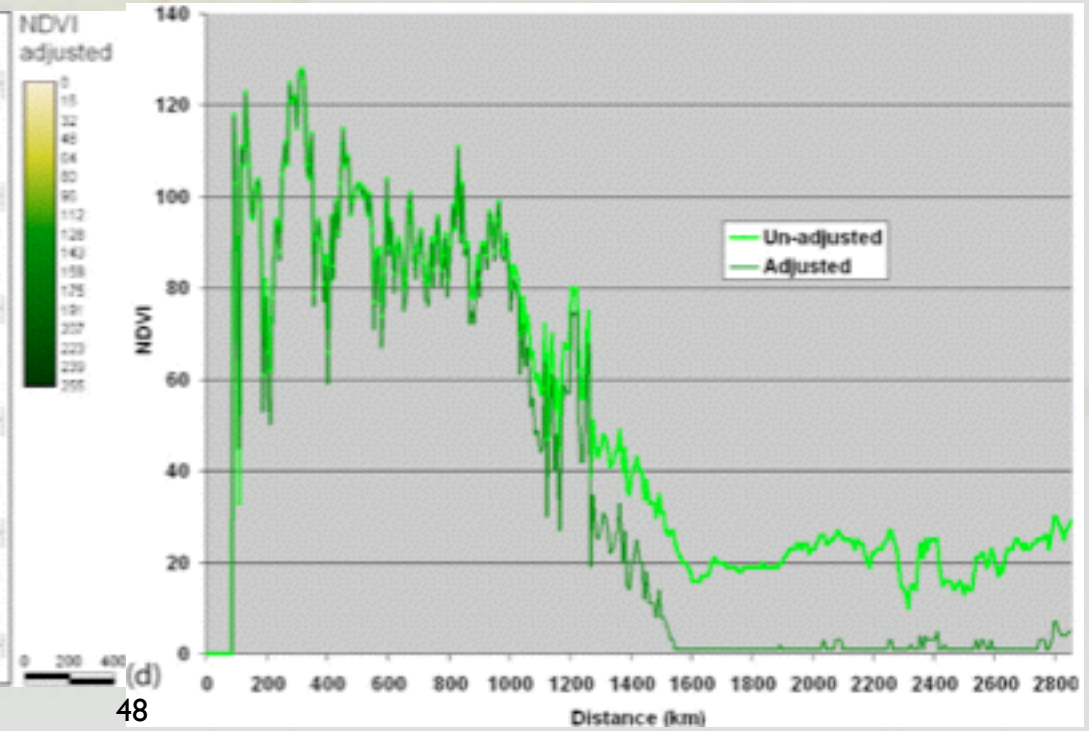
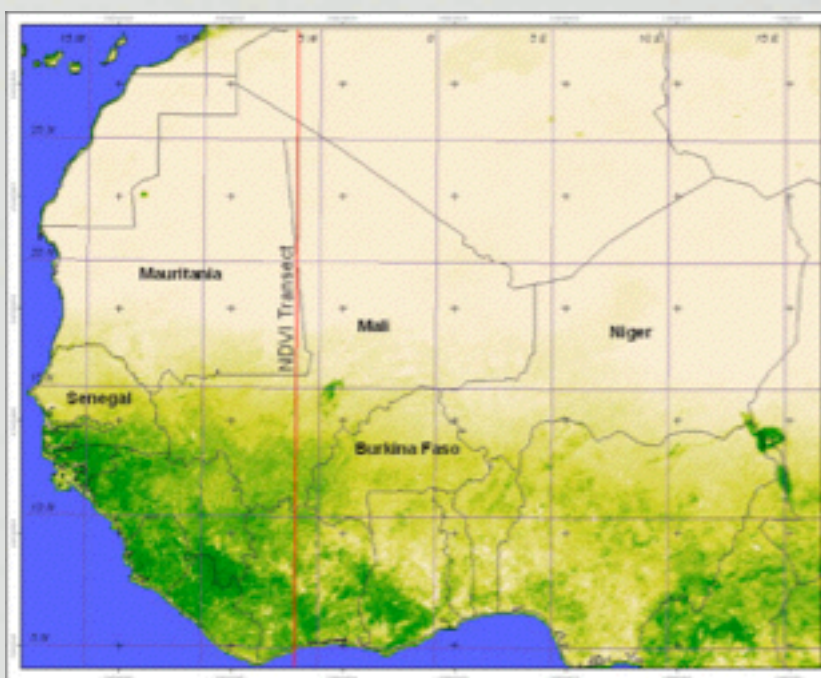
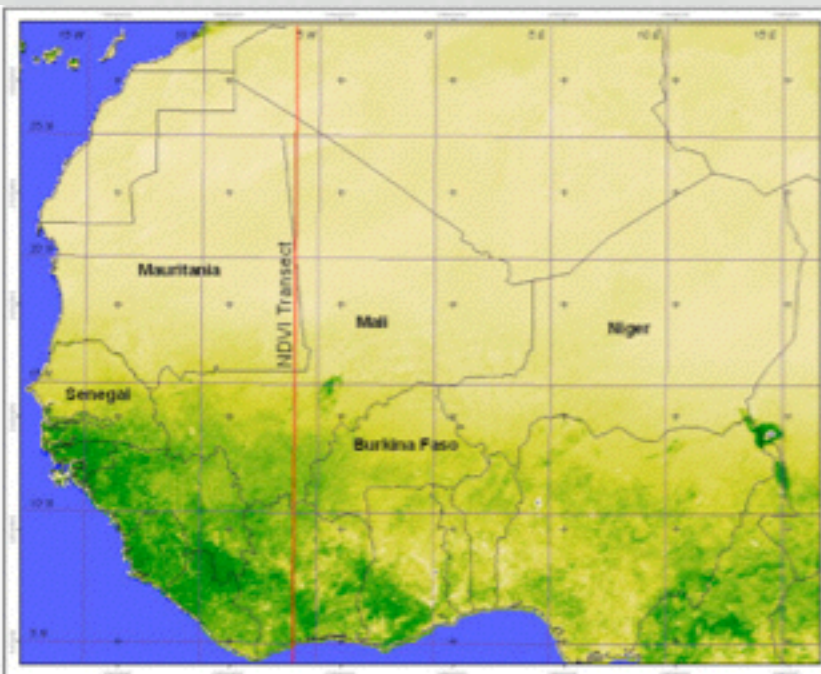


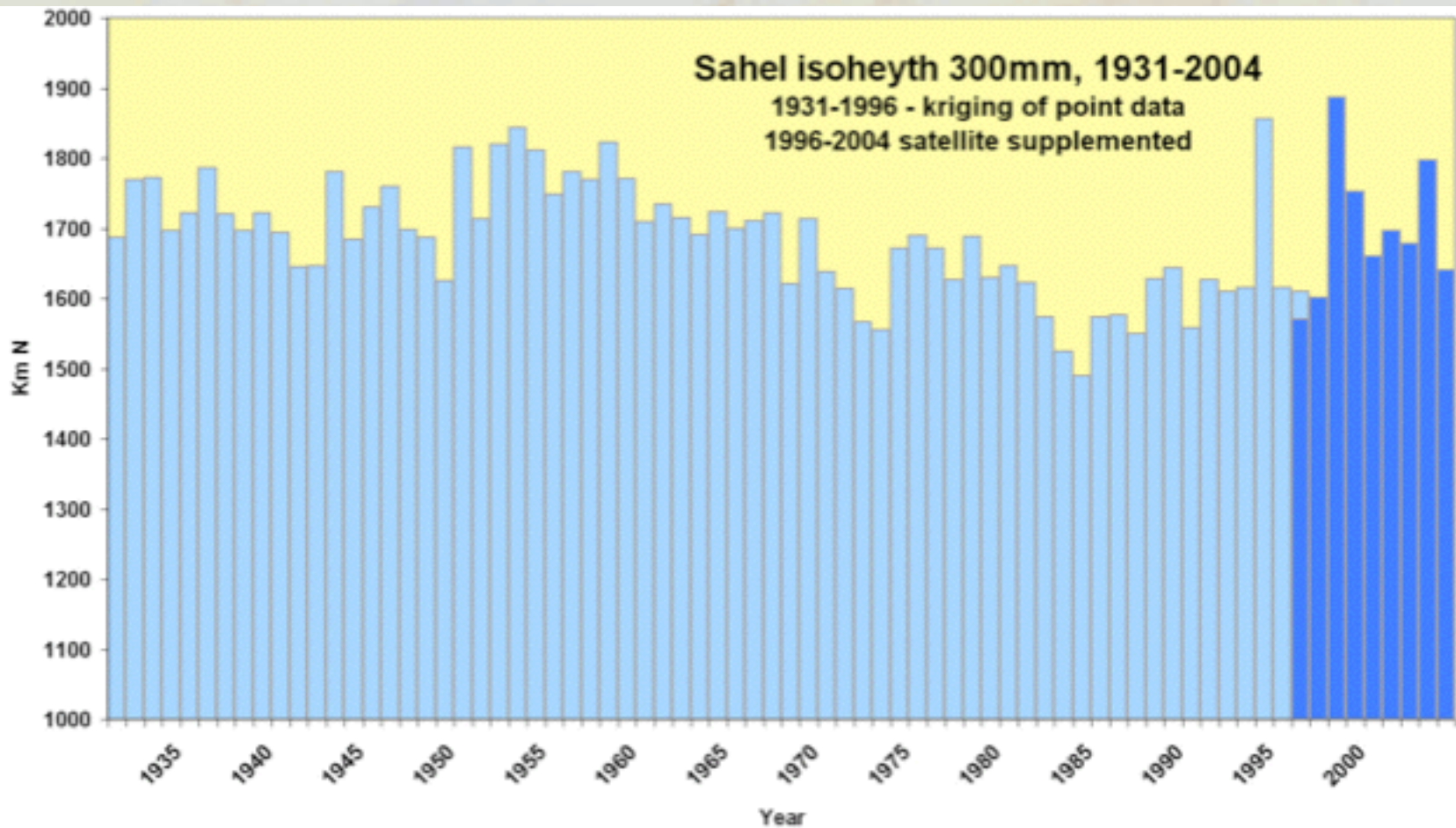
Interpolering av nederbördsdata

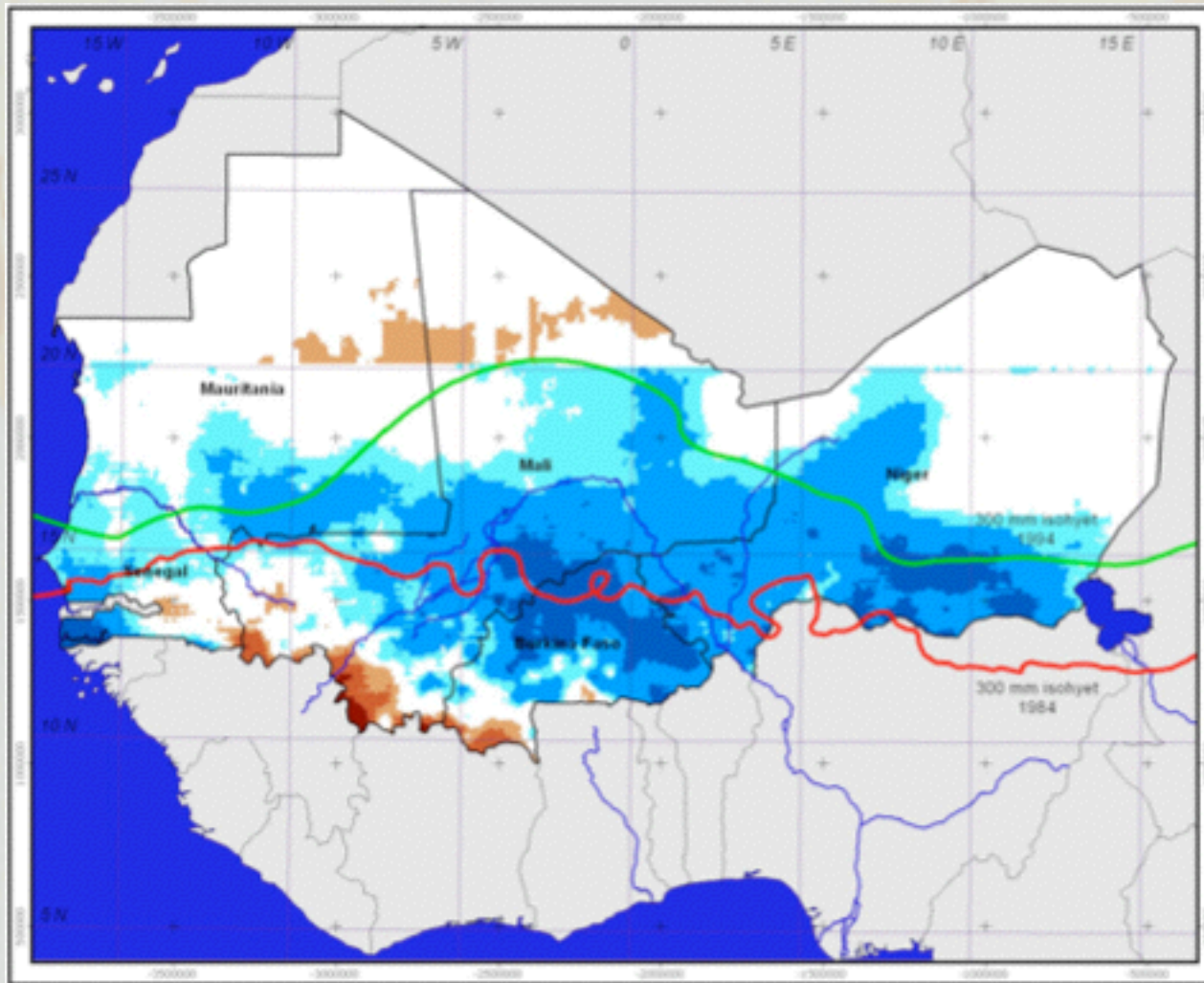


Extrahering av isohyet (isolinje för nederbörd)

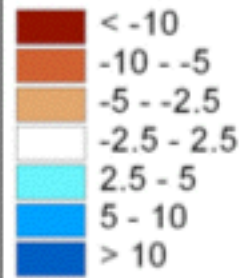






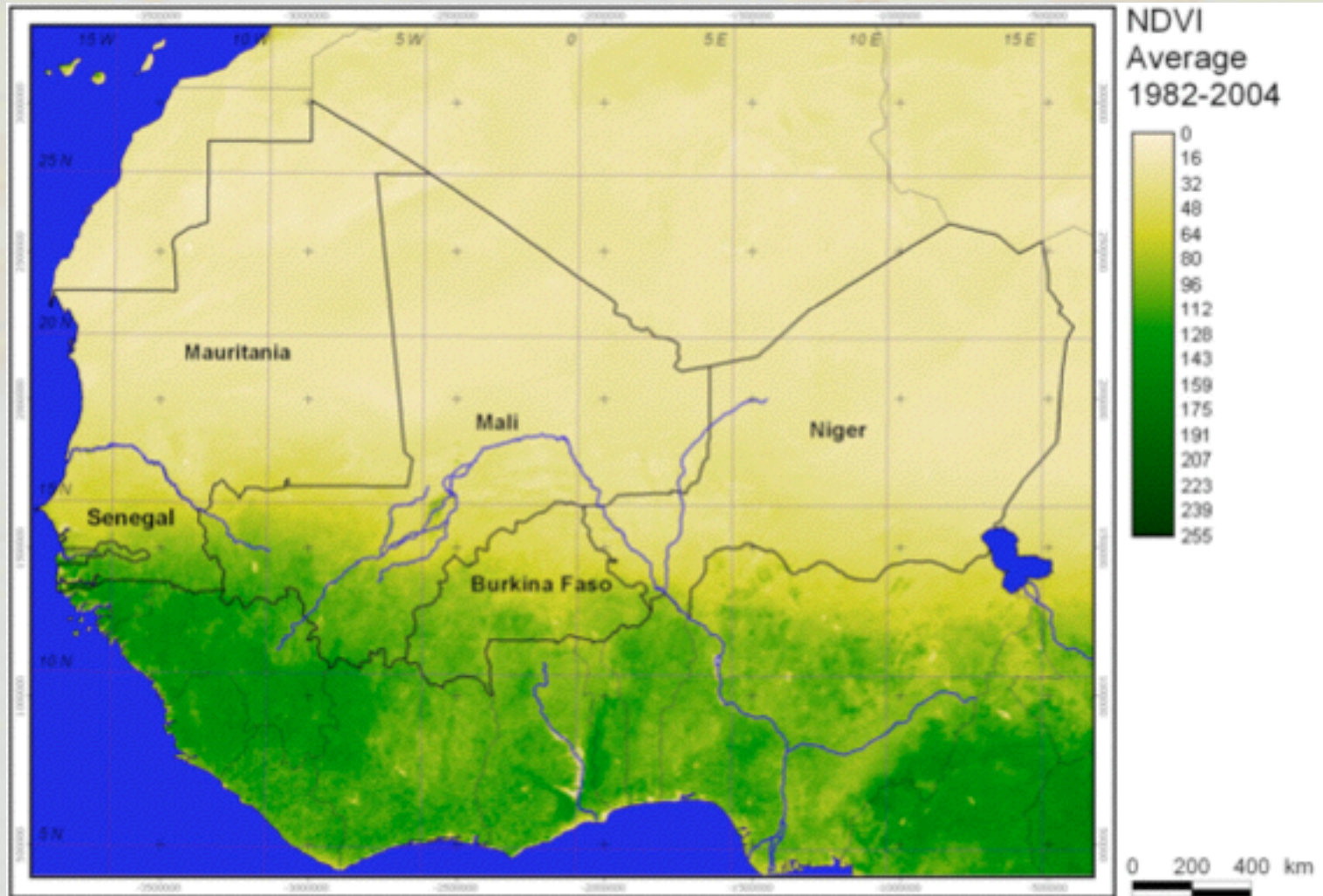


Annual Rainfall Trend 1982-2004 (mm/year)

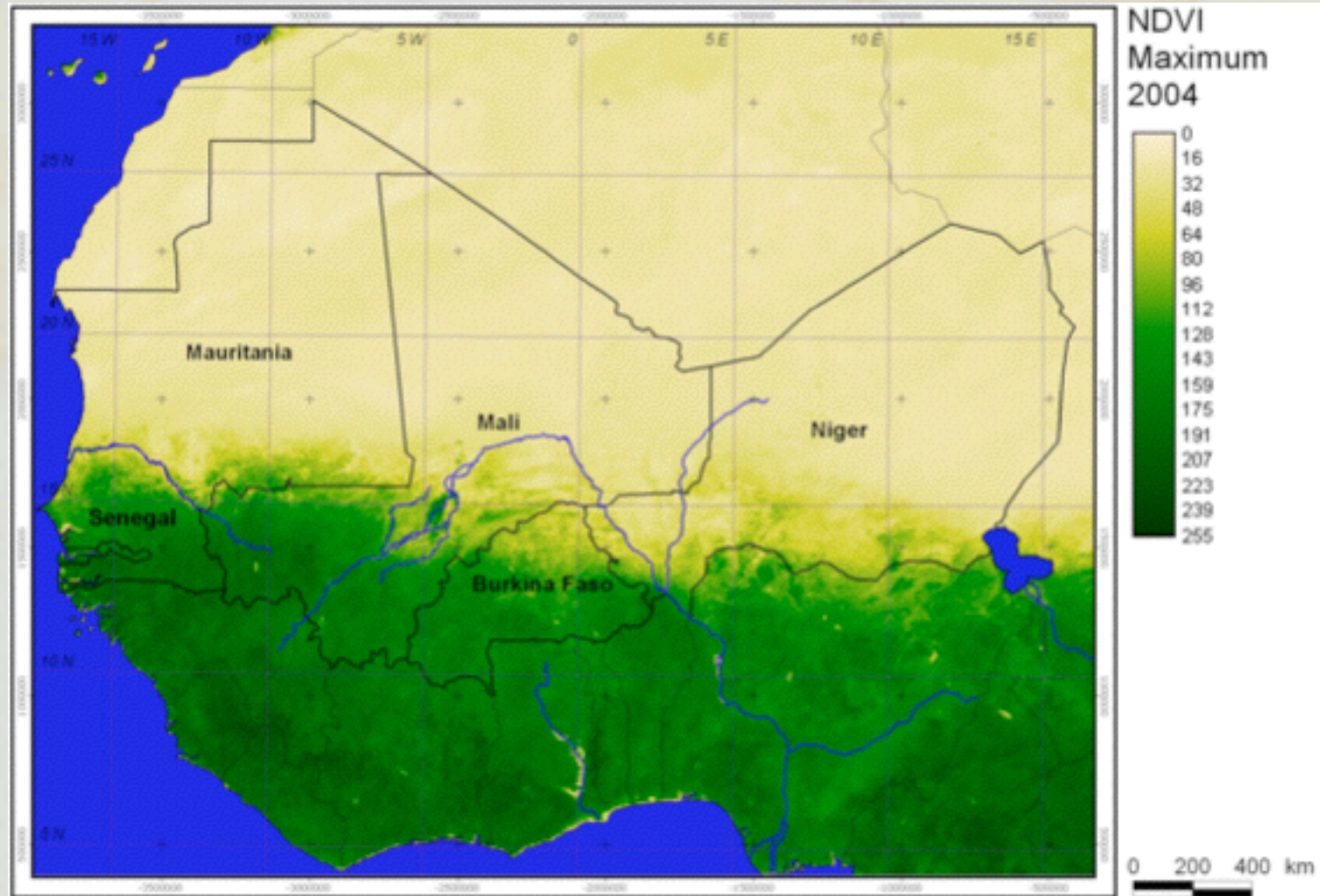


$$NDVI = \frac{NIR - red}{NIR + red}$$

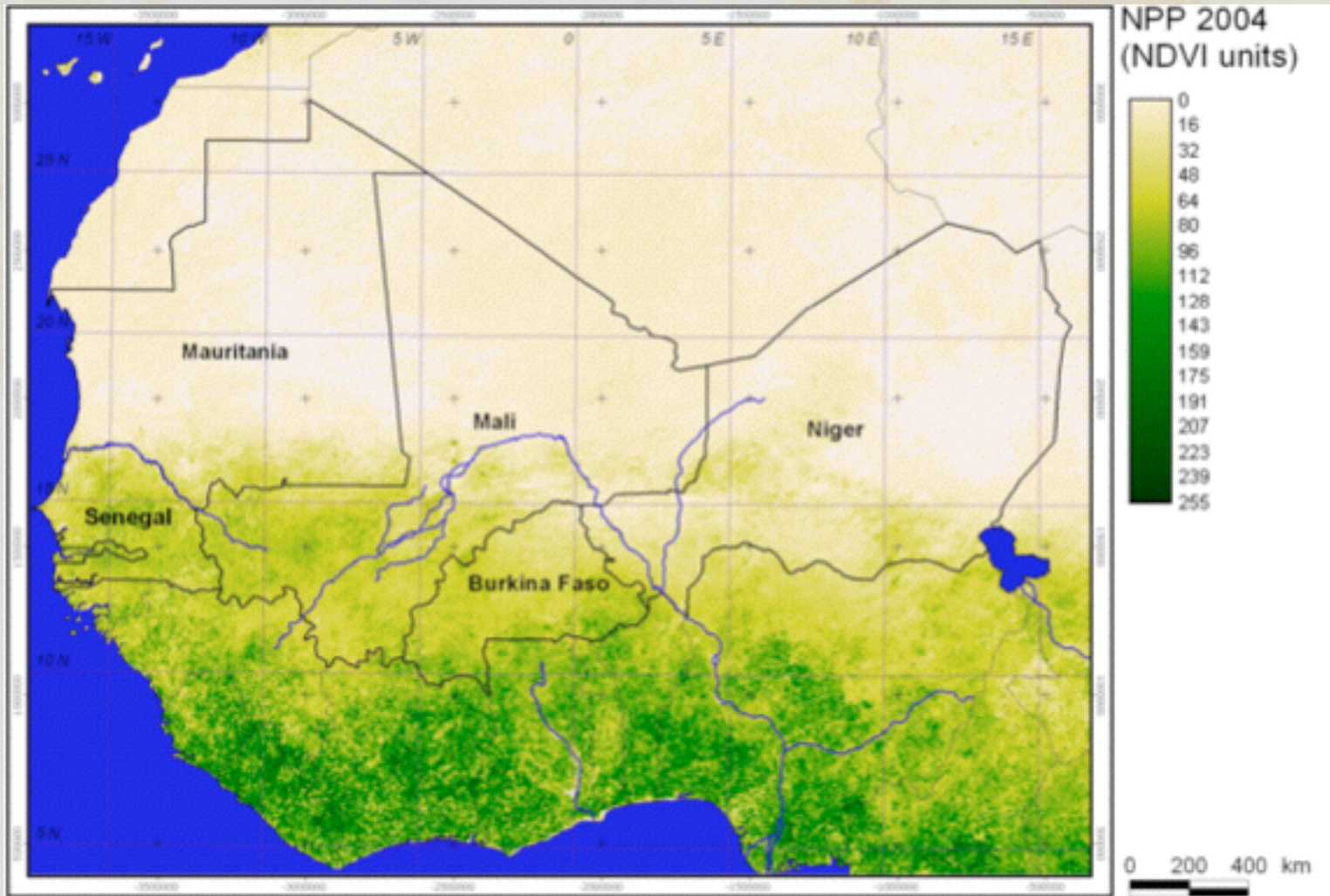
NDVI årligt medelvärde (= integral)



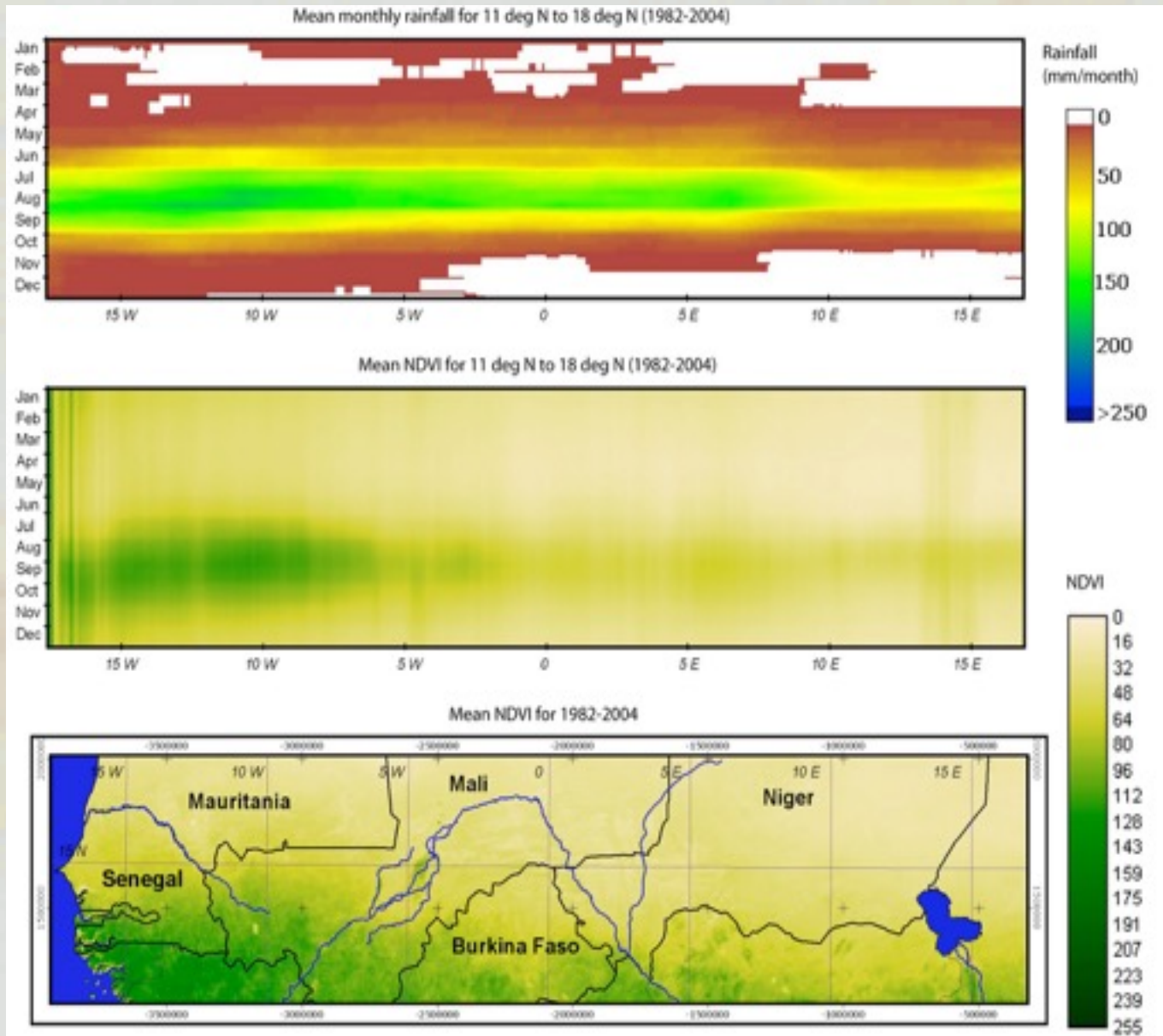
NDVI årligt maxvärde



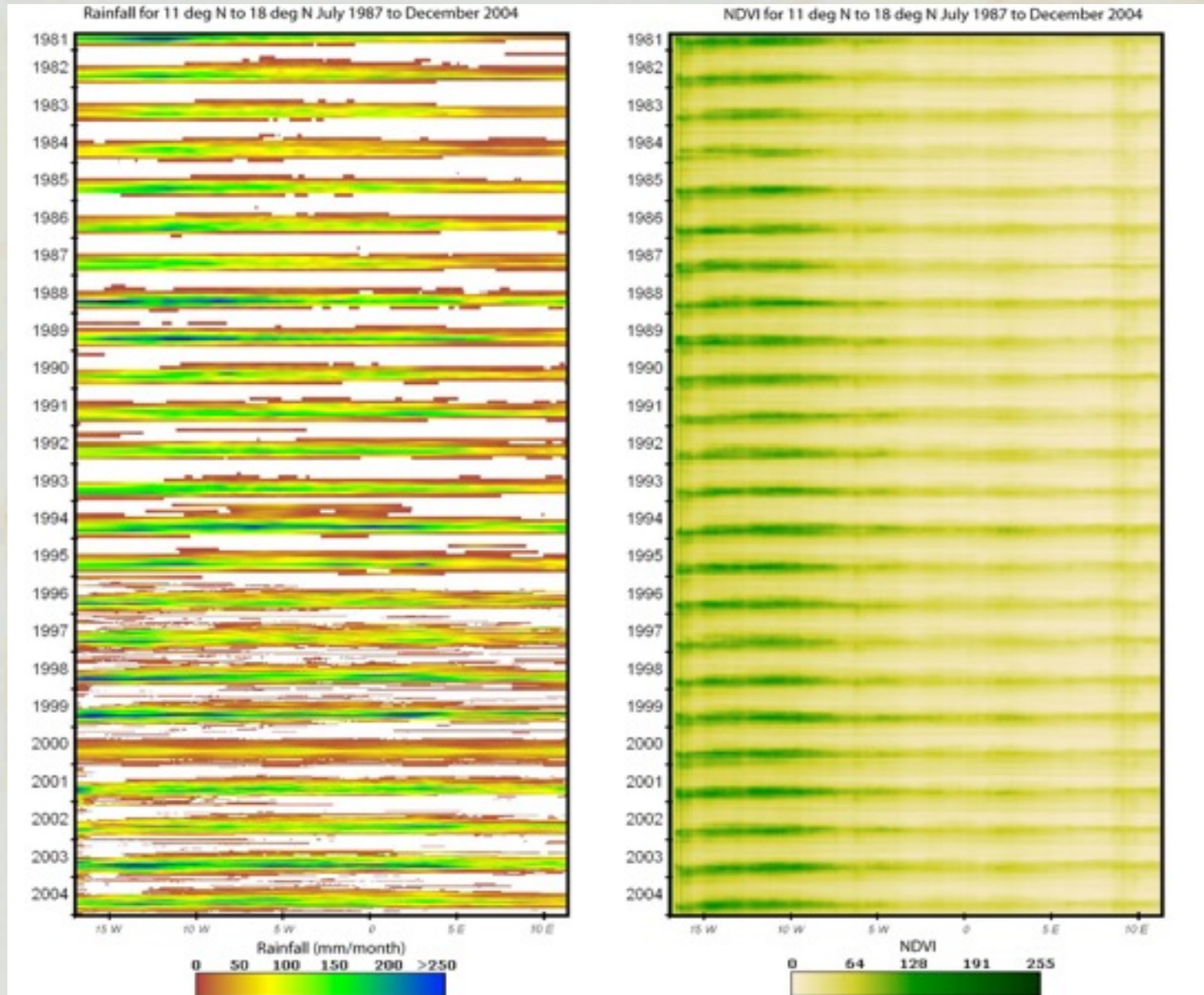
NDVI årlig ökning



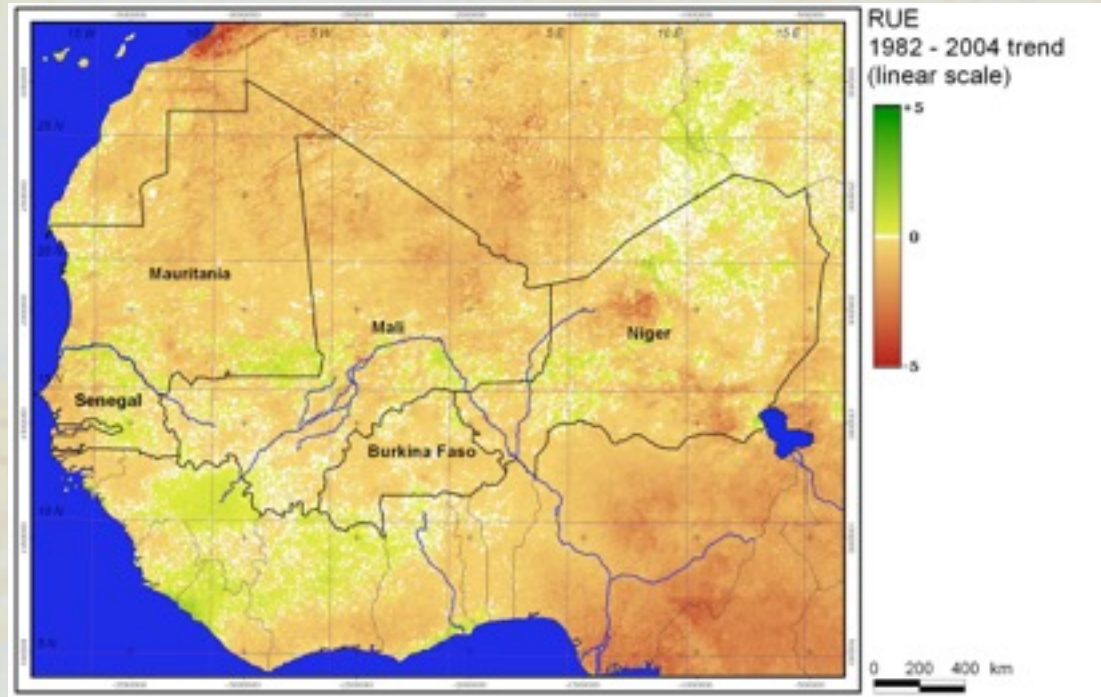
NDVI årlig cykel



NDVI utveckling 1981-2004



NDVI absoluta och regn-normaliserade trender (OLS)



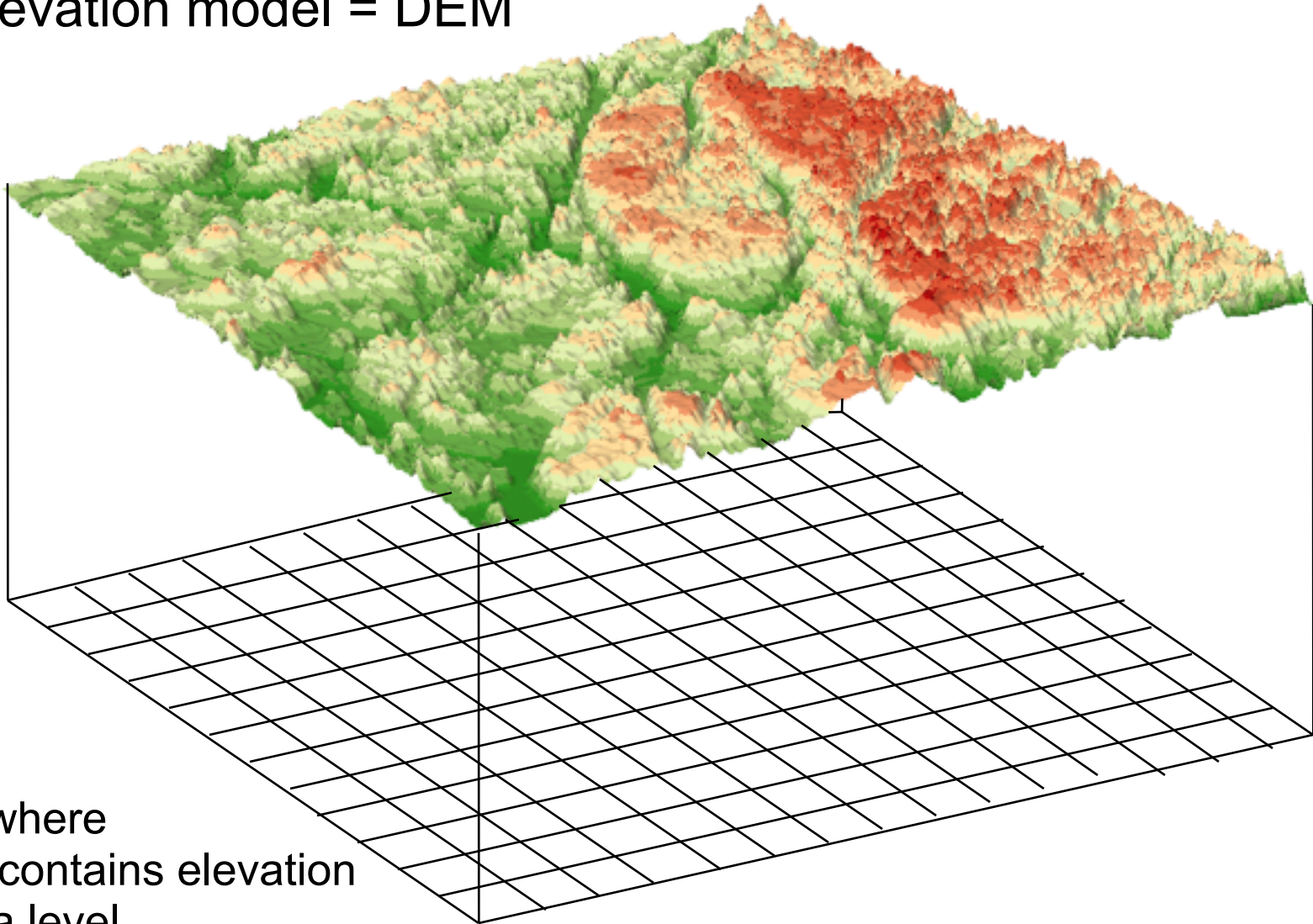
DEM, slope and aspect

A digital elevation model = DEM

Height above sea level (m)

Value

0 - 10
11 - 20
21 - 30
31 - 40
41 - 50
51 - 60
61 - 70
71 - 79



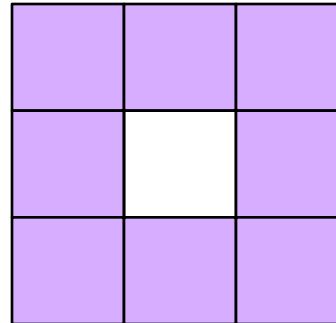
A raster, where each cell contains elevation above sea level.

Slope and aspect

Calculated from a digital elevation model

Slope and aspect are calculated at each cell in the grid, by comparing the cell's elevation to that of its neighbors:

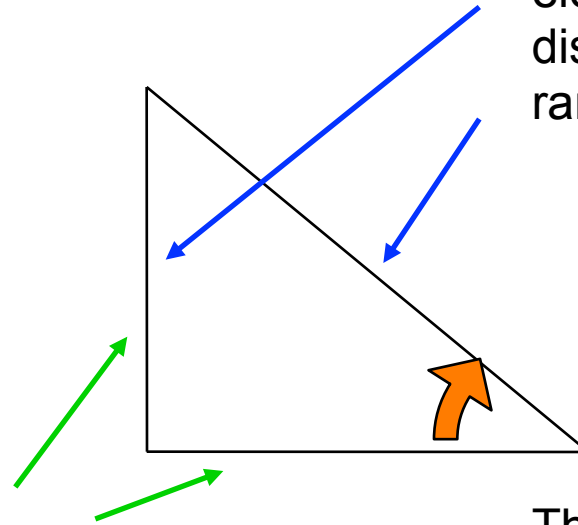
- usually its eight neighbors
- but the exact method varies



In a scientific study, it is important to know **exactly** what method is used when calculating slope, and exactly how slope is defined.

Alternative definitions of slope

The *ratio* of the change in elevation to the actual distance traveled, range 0 to 1

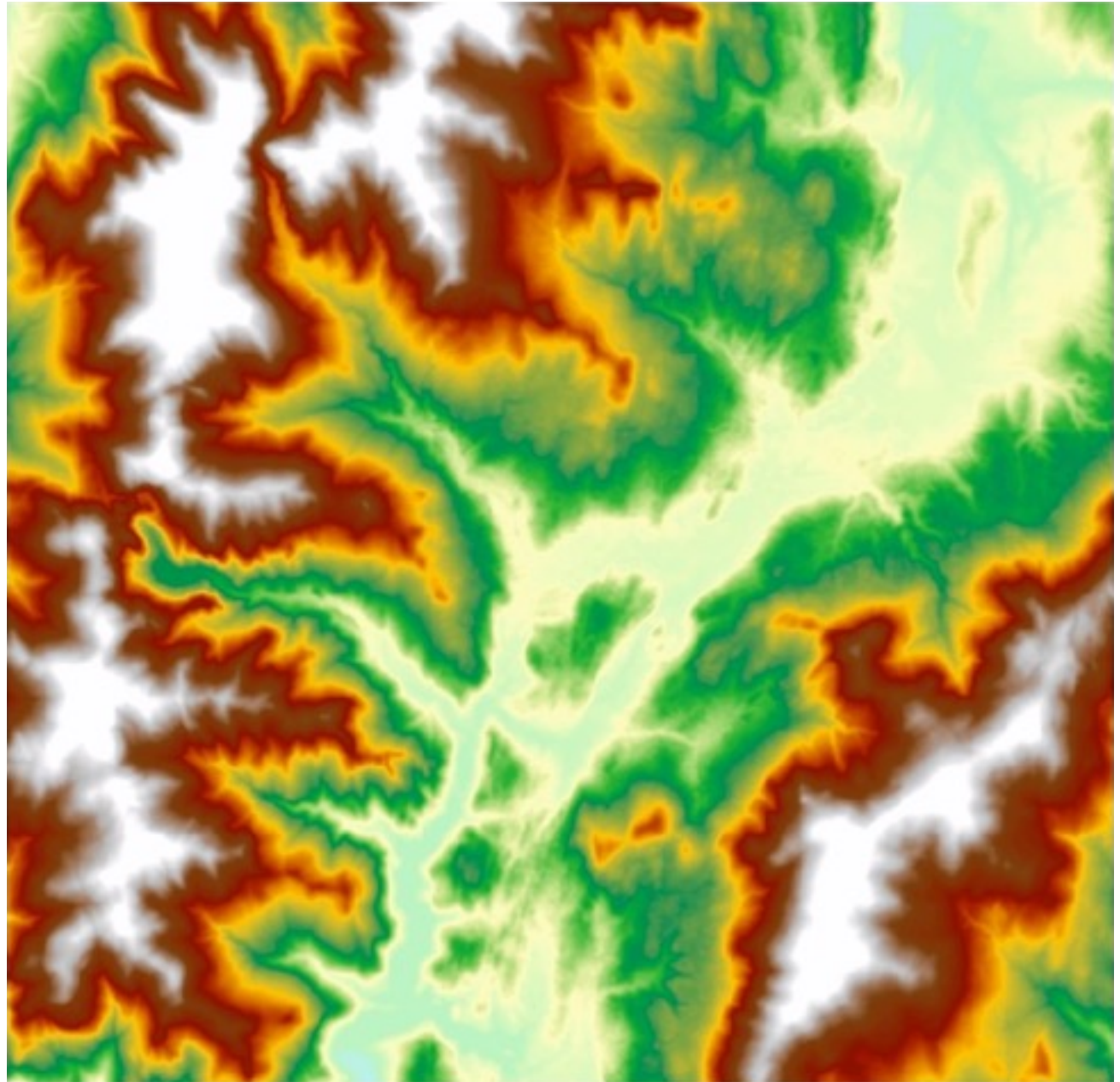
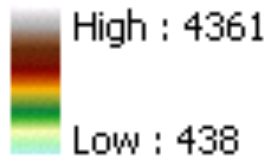


The *ratio* of the change in elevation to the horizontal distance traveled, range 0 to infinity

The *angle* between the surface and the horizontal, range 0 to 90

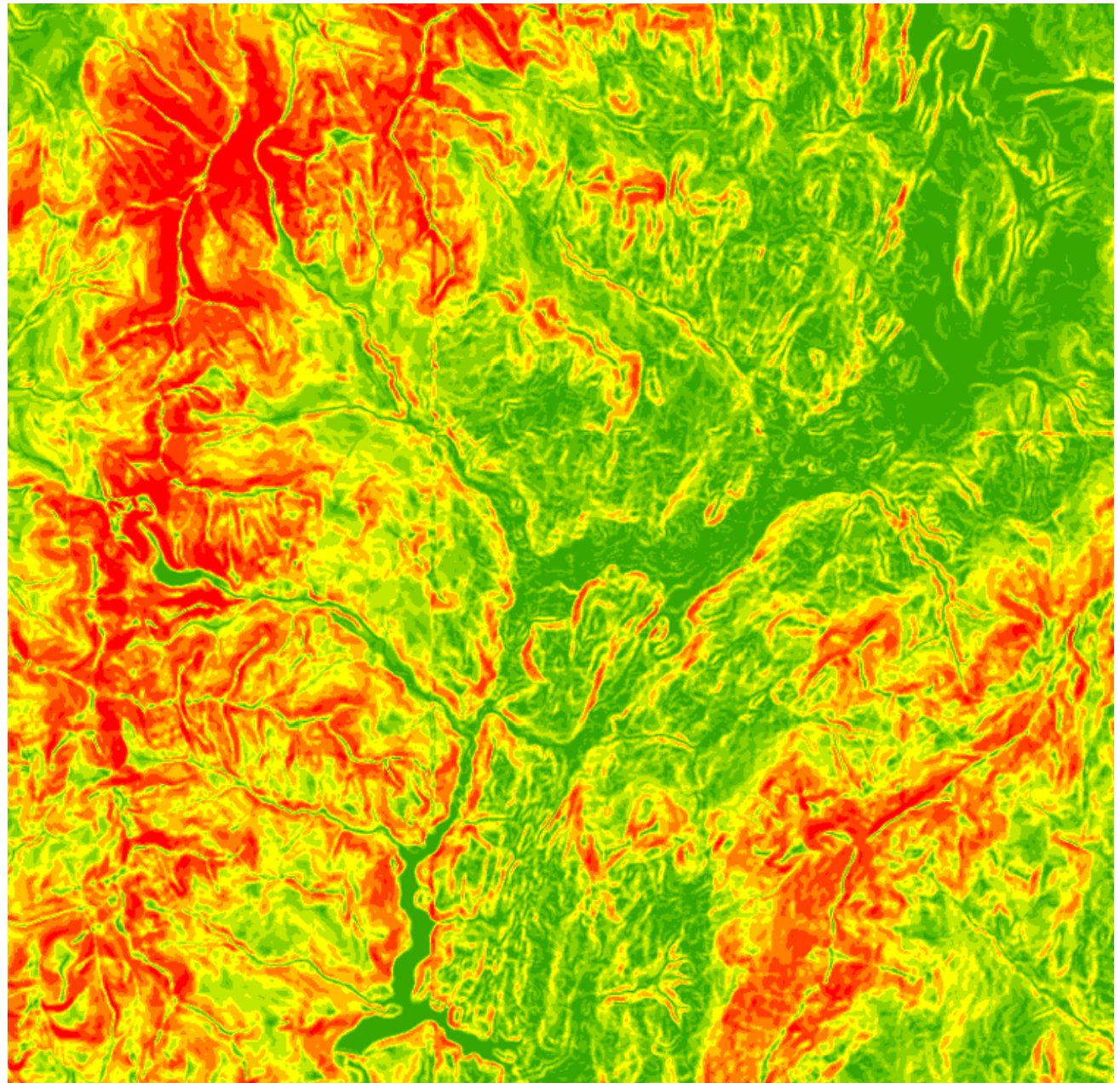
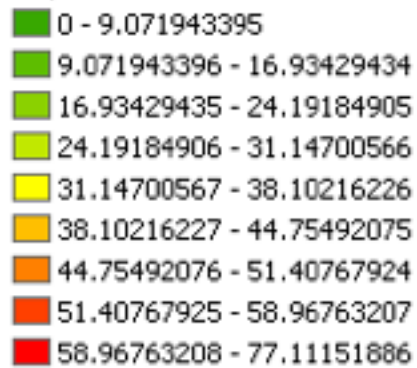
Aspect = direction of slope

Elevation (m)



Slope (degrees)

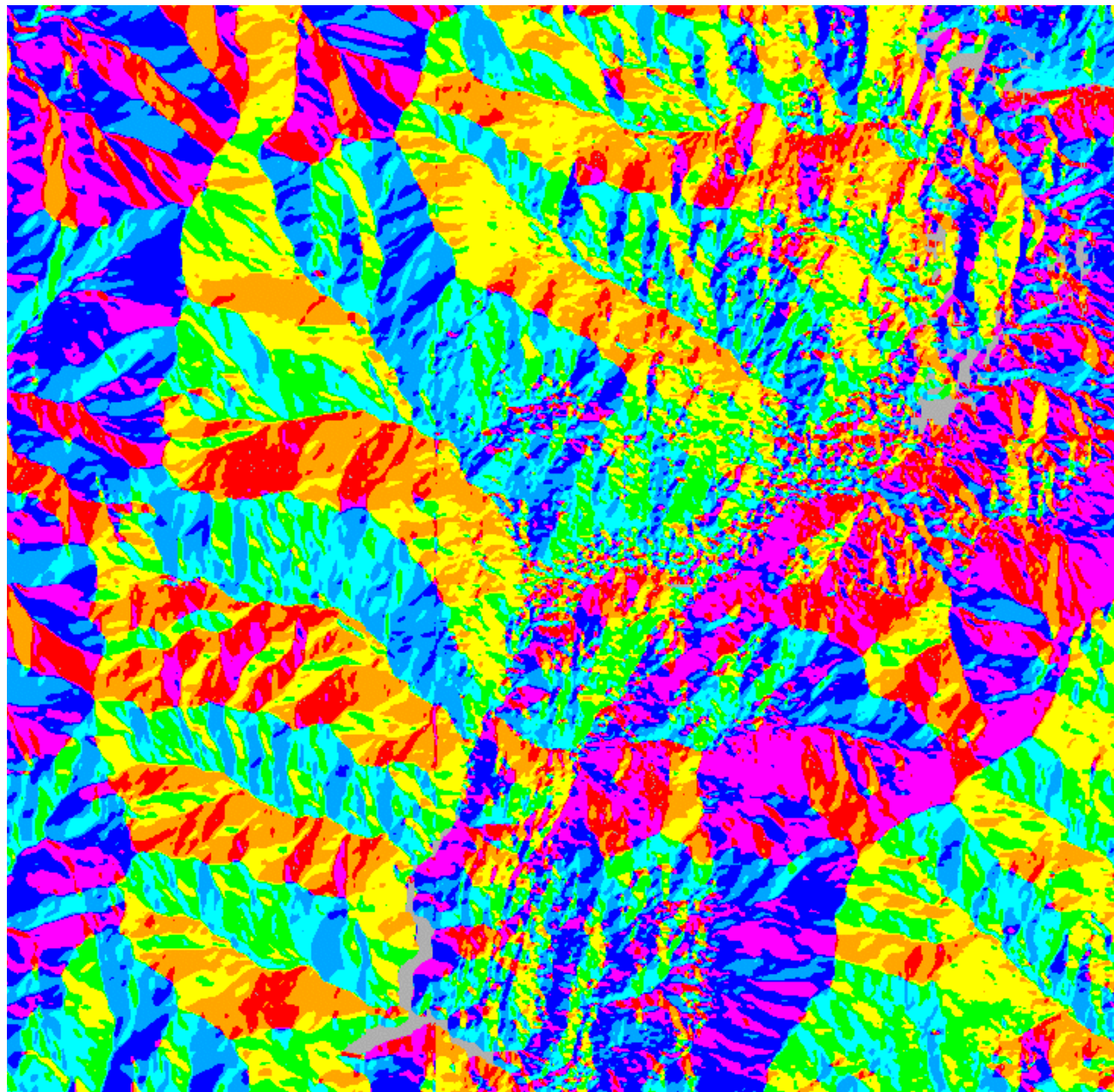
Slope of elevation



Aspect (direction of slope)

Aspect of elevation

- Flat (-1)
- North (0-22.5)
- Northeast (22.5-67.5)
- East (67.5-112.5)
- Southeast (112.5-157.5)
- South (157.5-202.5)
- Southwest (202.5-247.5)
- West (247.5-292.5)
- Northwest (292.5-337.5)
- North (337.5-360)



An example of cartographic modelling with map algebra

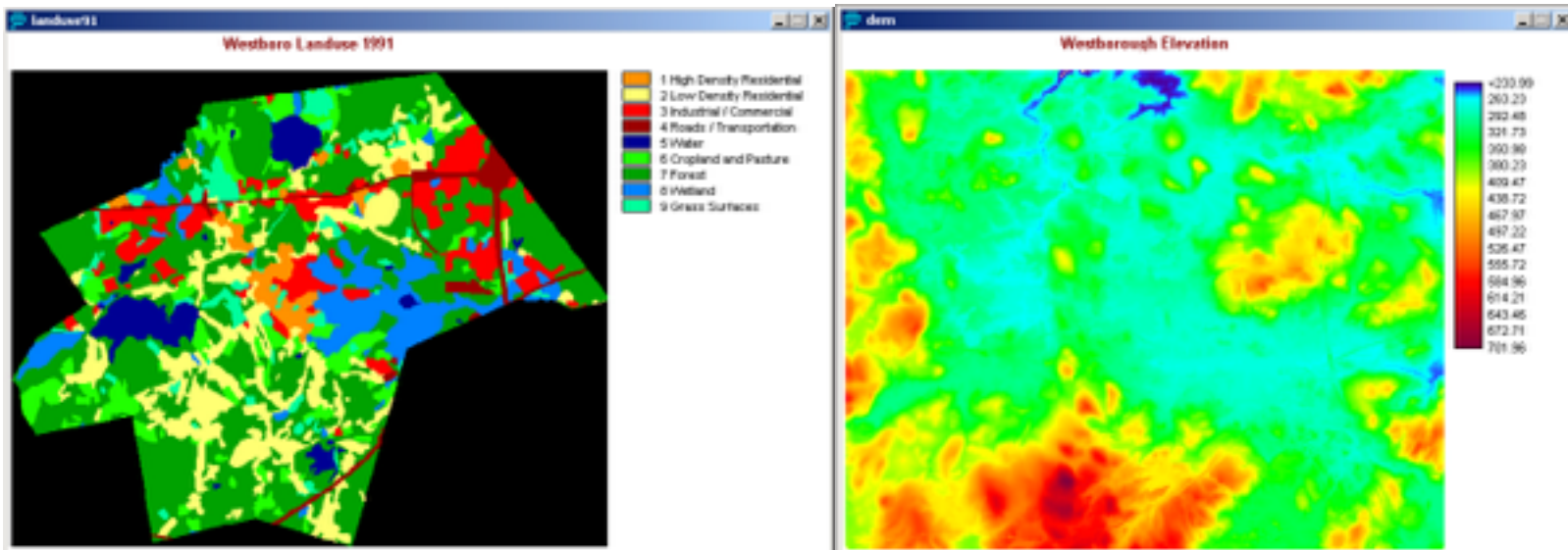
Task:

Find areas suitable for a new residential area considering the following aspects:

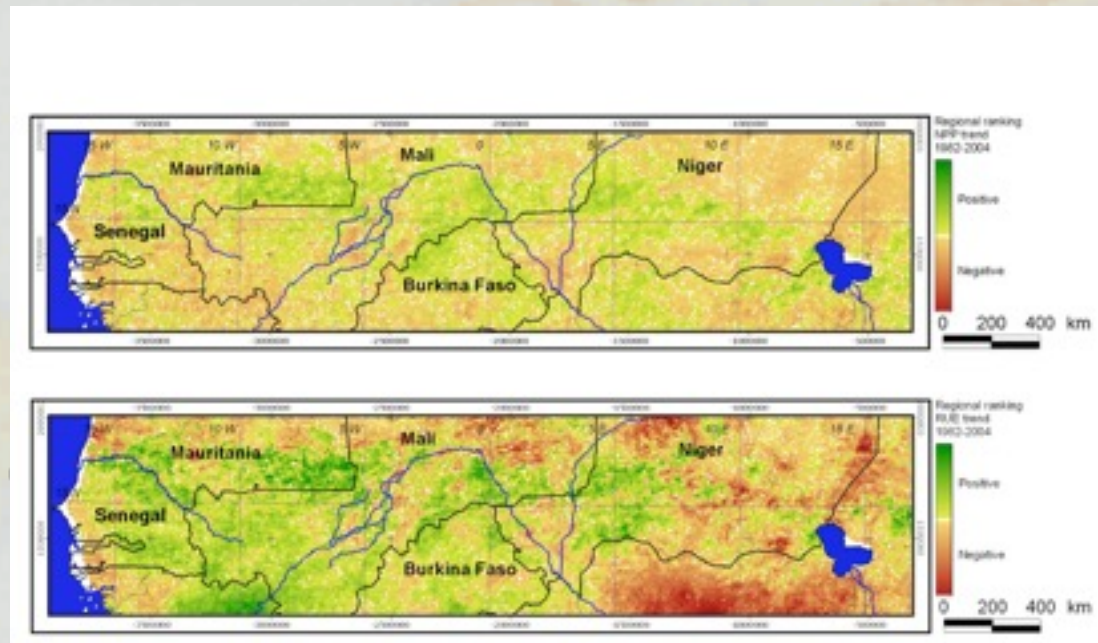
- the area should be located more than 200m from the water's edge
- the slope should be less than 5 %
- landuse type should be forest

Data:

- landuse map
- Digital Elevation Model, DEM



Data drivna analyser och måldrivna analyser



Ex. Finna de bästa och sämsta platserna = måldrivet