

Visualisation techniques AG2412

a course given by

Division of Geoinformatics

Department of Urban planning and Environment

Royal Institute of Technology

Visualisation techniques AG2412

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Visualisation techniques

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Visualisation techniques AG2412

Course curricula: lectures

L1: Introduction to cartography and geovisualisation

L2: Visual perception and cognition

L3: Graphic variables and map design

L4: Thematic mapping

L5: Visual data mining and exploratory data analysis

L6: Maps and geovisualisation as decision tools

L7: Web cartography

L8: Mapping time

L9: IT industry application: hitta.se by Starcus

Visualisation techniques AG2412

Course curricula: exercises

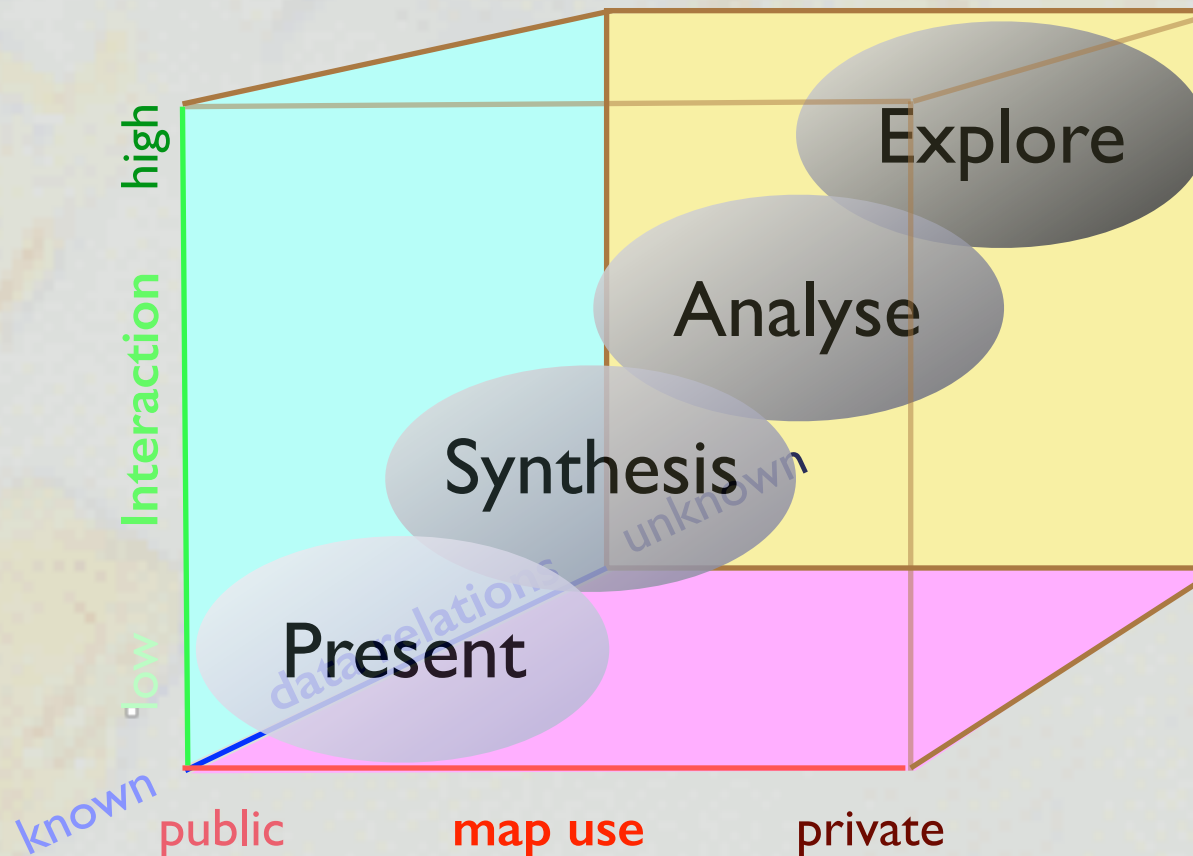
- E1: Introduction to the mapping software (ArcMap)
- E2: Designing cartographic symbols (design exercise)
- E3: Analysis of thematic maps (self-study exercise)
- E4: Designing thematic maps (computer lab)
- E5: Interactive maps and data mining (computer lab)
- E6: Visual data analysis (computer lab)
- E7: VRML (computer lab)
- E8: Geovisualisation project

A written report (details in the instructions for each exercise) has to be submitted after every exercise in order to have the exercise approved.

NO COPYING!!!!!!!!!!!!!! From others or from internet.

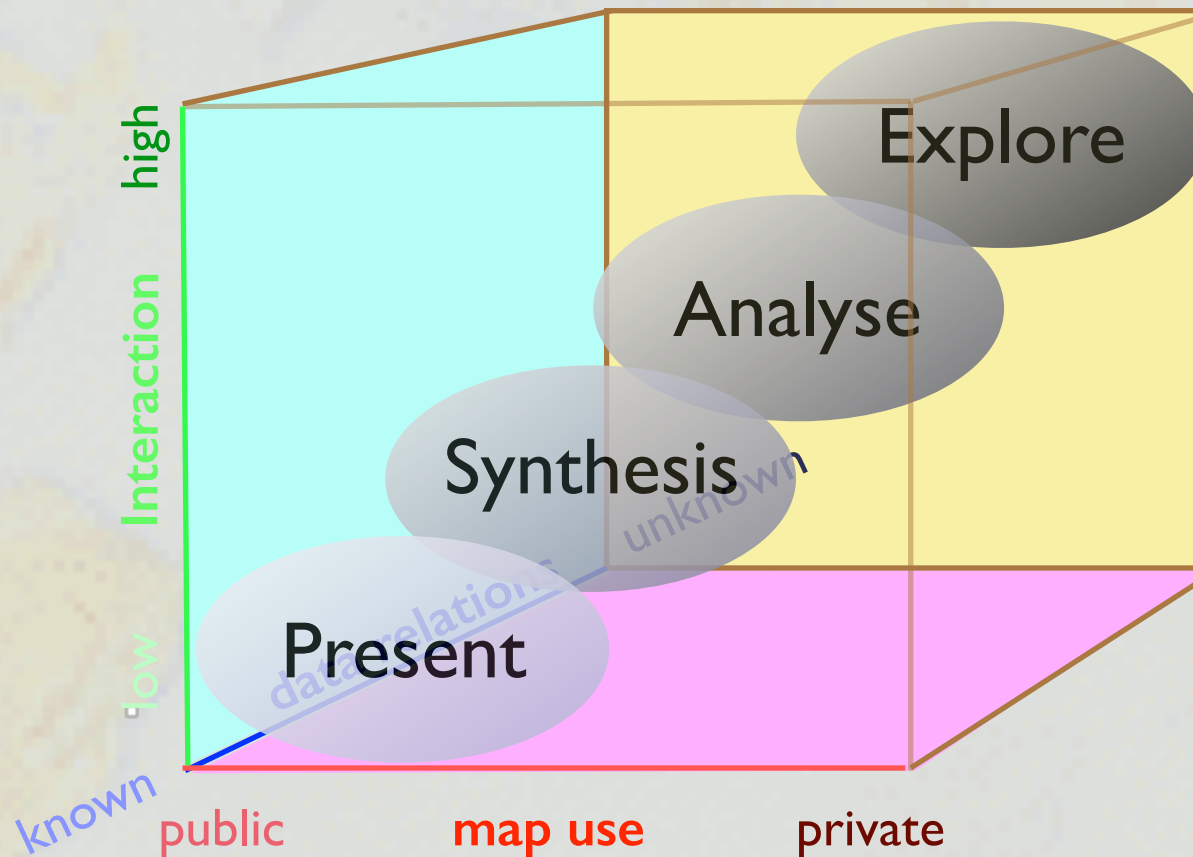
The last day for submission of the report is specified on the exercise form. Submission date is counted as approval date.

The map use cube (MacEachren and Taylor, 1994)



The most advanced electronic atlases and GIS softwares can be used to explore (e.g. visually, statistically) geographic data for **private use** with **high interaction** and **unknown relations**

Geospatial Data Infrastructure (GDI)



Example 4

Baltic Google Earth Atlas

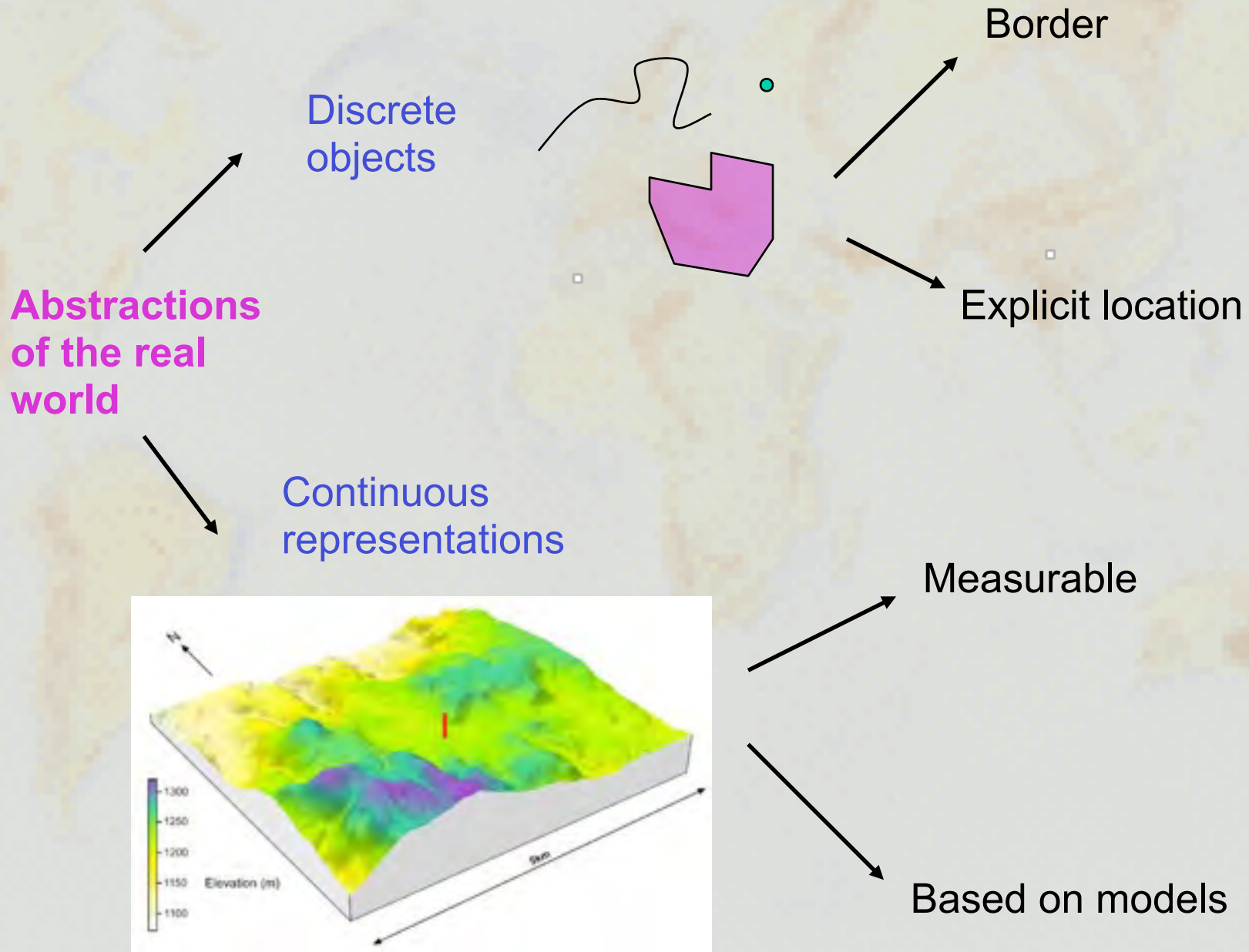
Geospatial data

Geospatial
data →

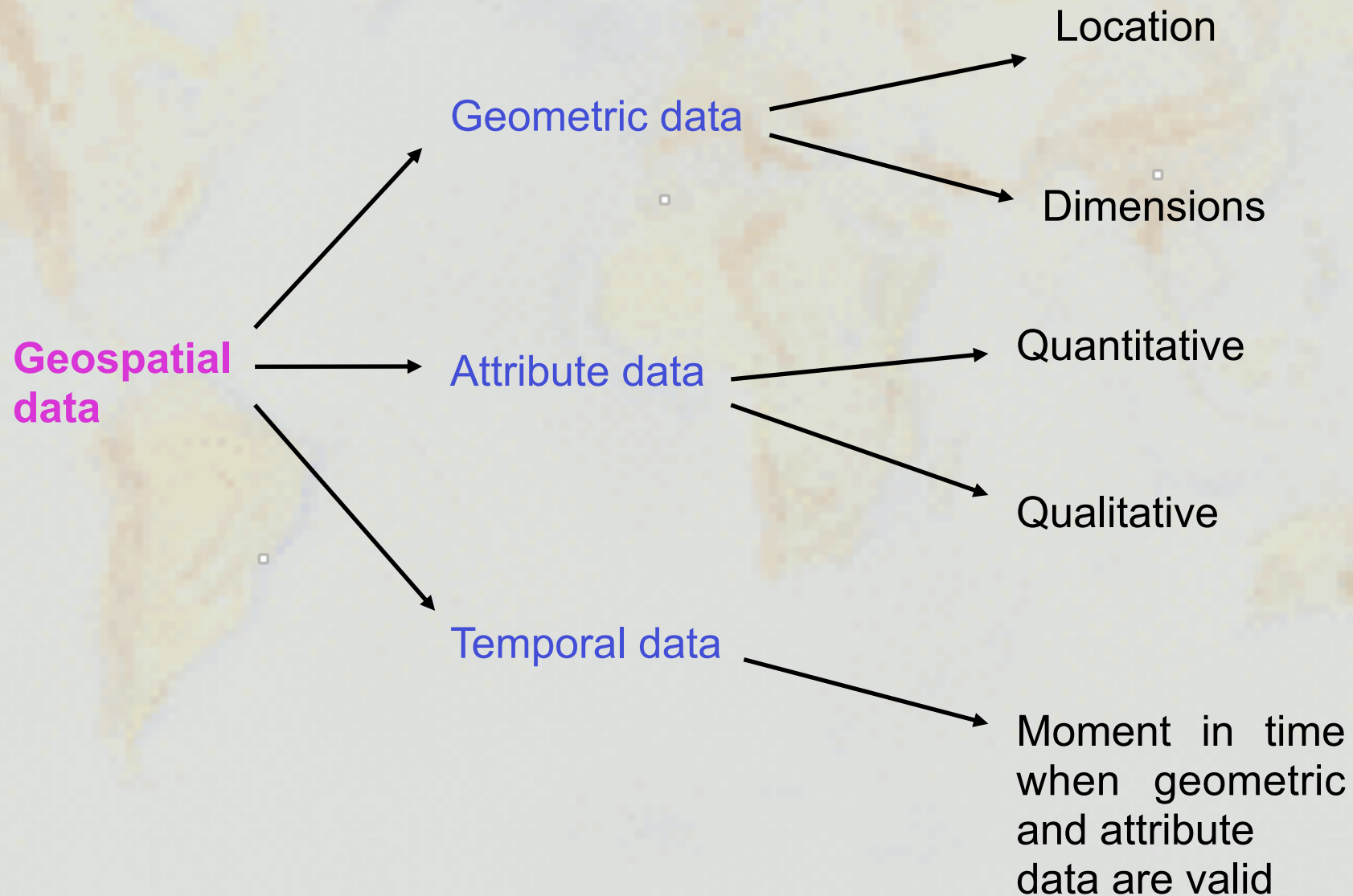
Location, attributes & timing of an object or a phenomena on the Earth



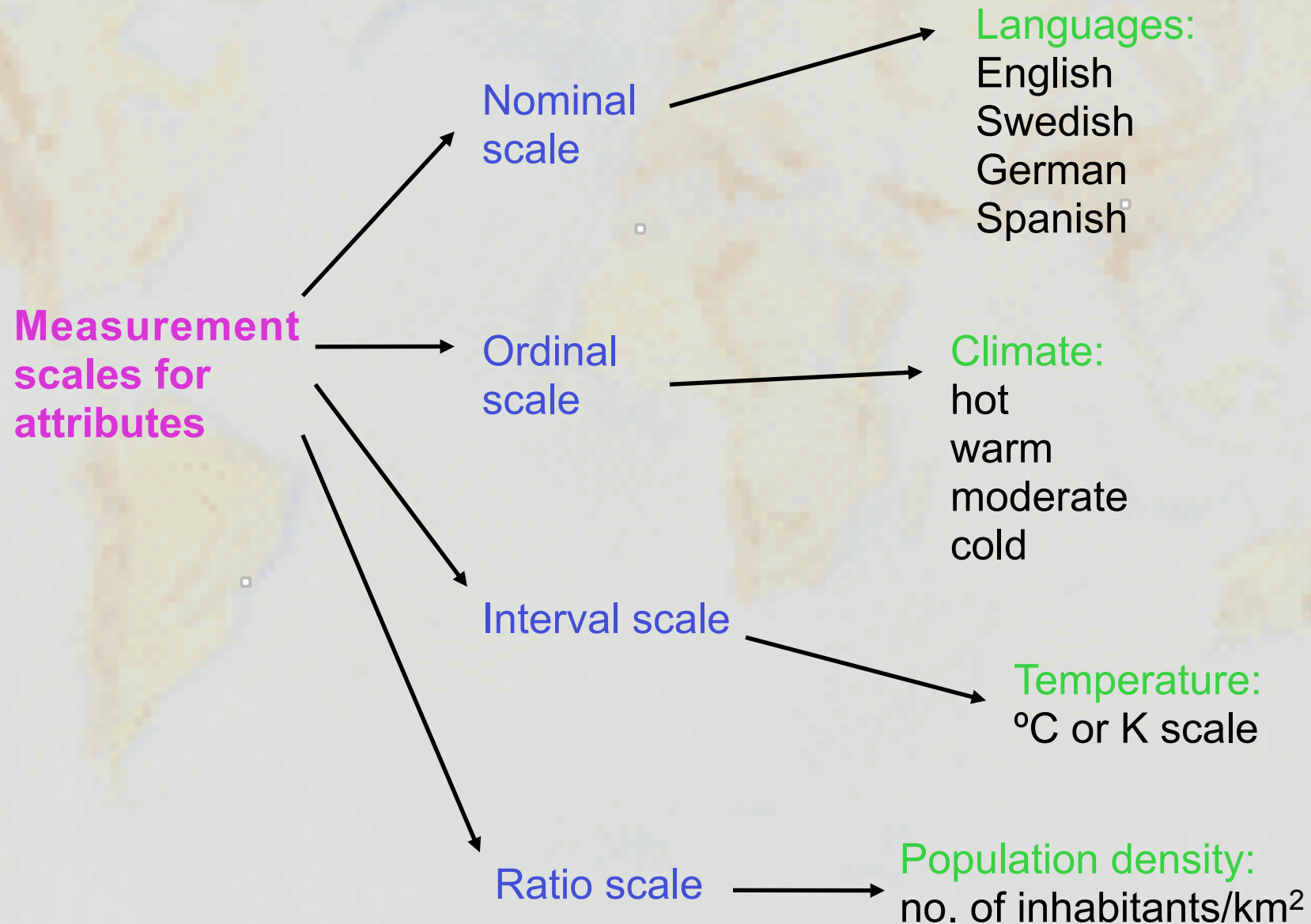
Digital Landscape Model (DLM)



Digital Landscape Model (DLM)



Attribute data scales



Data capture: from DLM to GIS

Ideally all the different geospatial data should be:

- collected at the same time,
- with the same spatial resolution,
- according to the same procedures and
- pre-processed for the use with GIS using the same methods.

Data capture: from DLM to GIS

But in reality the data are collected:

- at different points in time,
- valid for different spans of time,
- at different spatial resolutions,
- are obtained from different sources,
- pre-processed using different procedures.



Information about data acquisition is important in order to be able to know something about the uncertainty and quality of data. This **uncertainty** propagates through data analysis and is present in the results.

Data capture: from DLM to GIS

Data quality

Every product of data integration has a certain level of **uncertainty** due to:

Mistakes in original data

Data processing

Data product is usable only when a certain **level of reliability** is reached.

Important: to present information about the quality of original data and the uncertainty from the processing steps to the user.

Data capture: from DLM to GIS

Aspects of data quality:

- **Lineage** – when the data was collected, what processing was used, etc.
- **Positional accuracy** – how far is an object from its real position
- **Attribute accuracy** – what is the accuracy of attributes' values for an object
- **Logical consistency** – do the lines intersect in a point, are the areas closed polygons, etc.
- **Completeness** – is the data complete for the whole collection area

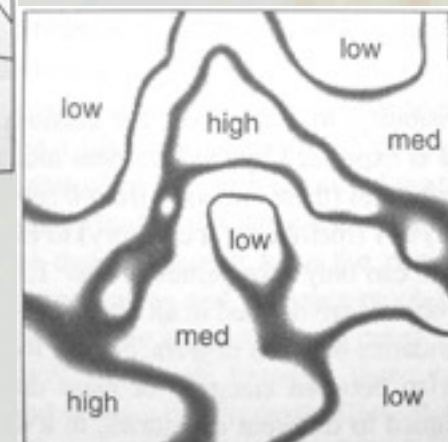
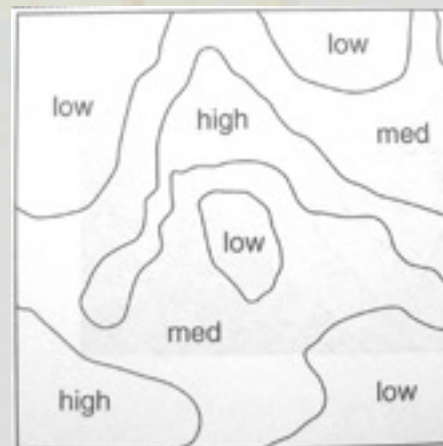
Data capture: from DLM to GIS

Probability maps

Maps of maximum likelihood, second likelihood, or a change between maximum and second likelihood

Visualising uncertainty

Fuzzy maps



Area boundaries represented by threshold values

Data capture: from DLM to GIS

Main sources of geospatial data:

- terrestrial surveys,
- remote sensing data (aerial and satellite imagery),
- GPS data,
- digitising or scanning existing maps,
- socio-economic and statistical data,
- physical data,
- environmental data.

Maps and GIS – Cartography and Geovisualisation

The purpose of maps:

- to visualise geospatial data
- to show geospatial relationships



The purpose of Geographic Information Systems (GIS):

- to integrate and combine geospatial data from different sources
- to manipulate, analyse and visualise the combined data

Cartography

Cartography

Cartography:

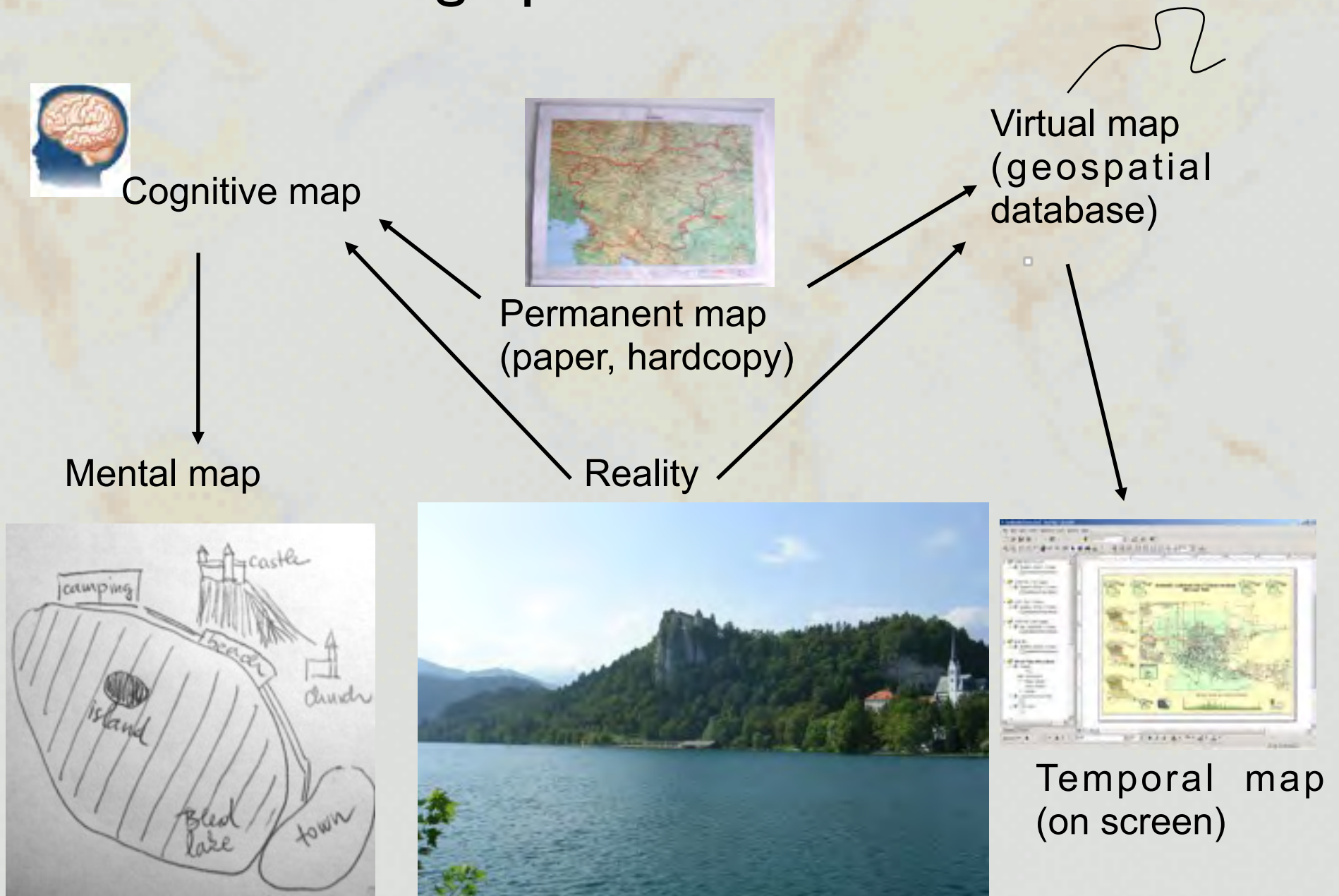
Definition until 1960s: "manufacturing of maps"



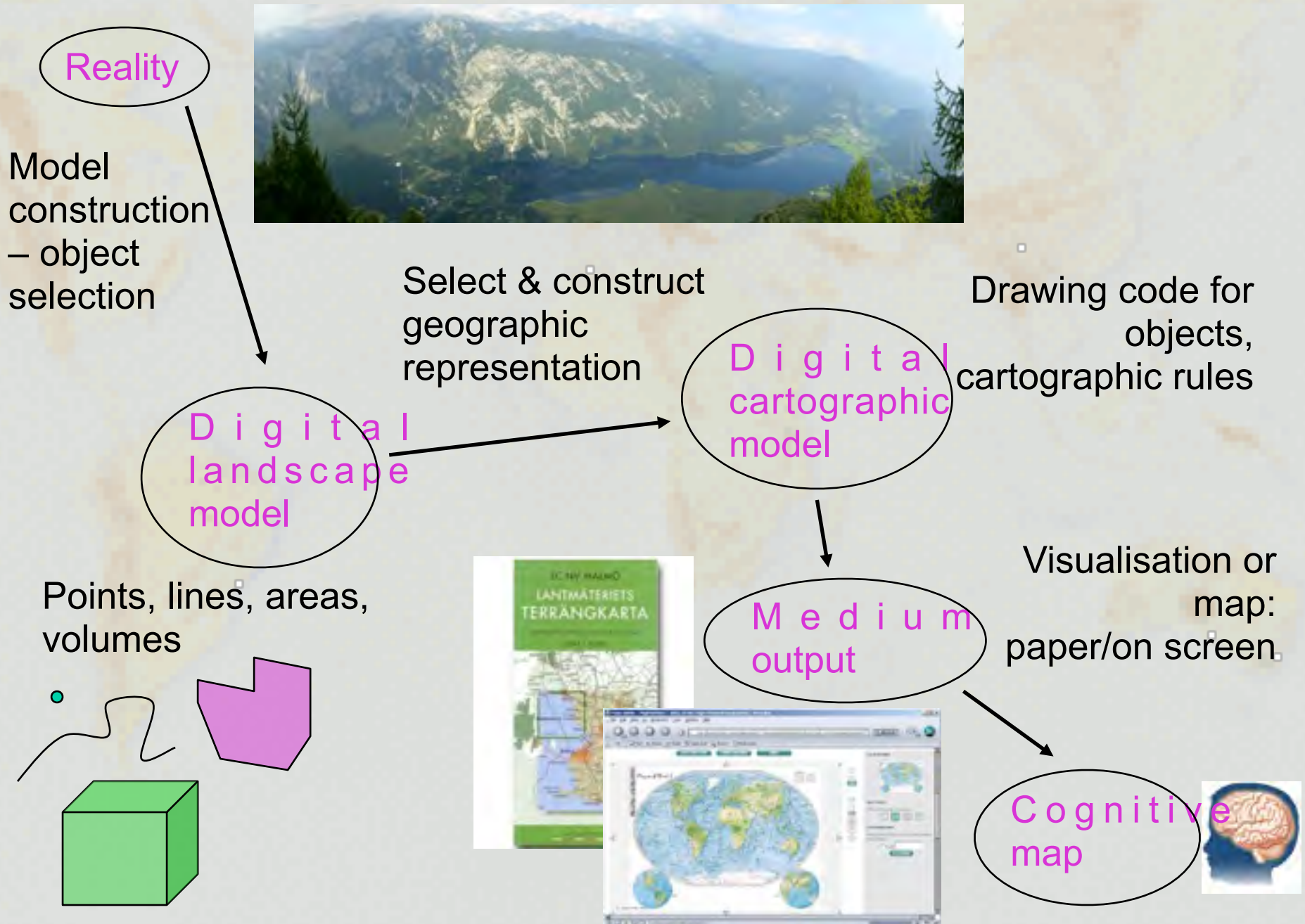
computers

Cartography includes organisation, presentation, communication and utilisation of geospatial information in graphic, digital or tactile form. It includes all stages from data preparation to end use in the creation of maps and related spatial information products.

Cartographic communication



The visualisation process



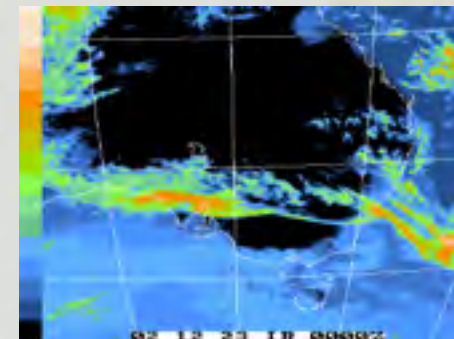
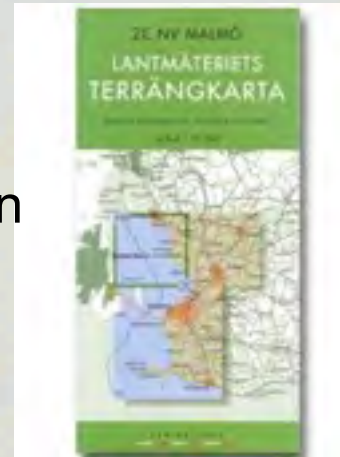
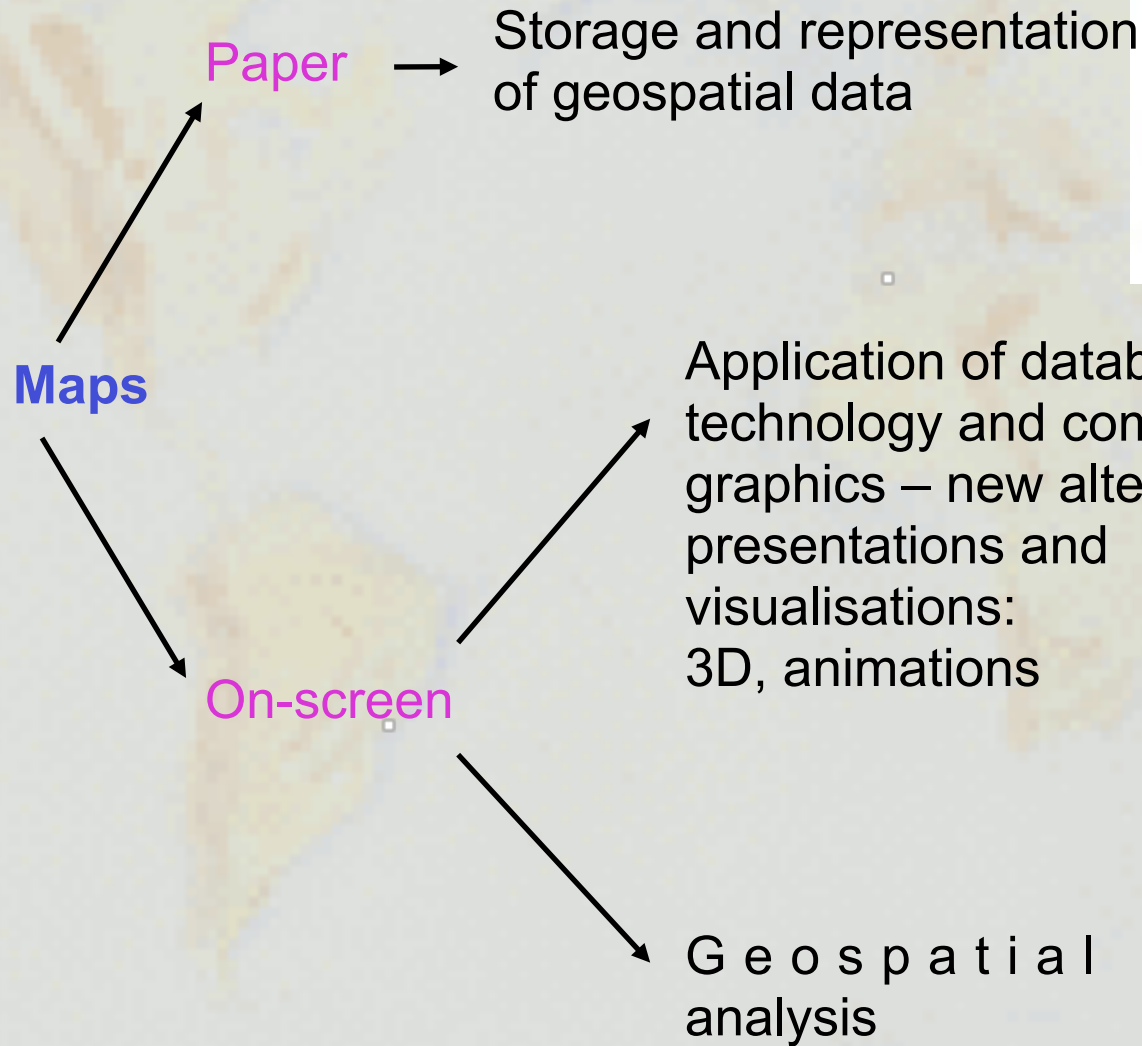
Geovisualisation

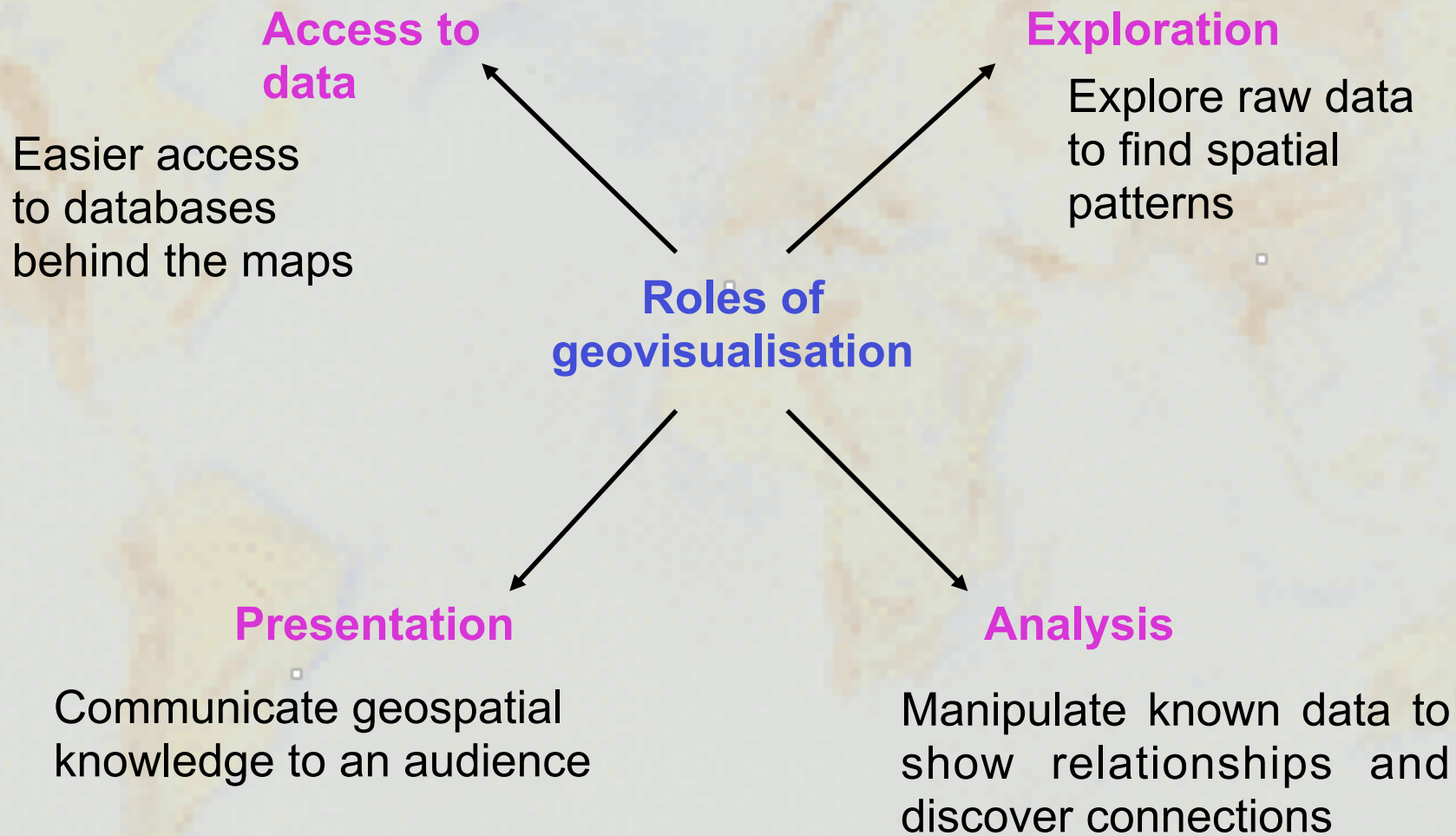
Geovisualisation

Geovisualisation is a domain that addresses the **visual** exploration, analysis, synthesis and presentation of geospatial data...



...by integrating approaches from **cartography** with those from **scientific visualisation**, **image analysis**, **information visualisation**, **exploratory data analysis** and **GIScience**.





Early cartography

Ptolemaios created a world map around 100 A.D, which reached Europe via Bysantium and was printed in 1477 in Bologna.



Scandinavia is shown as a small island (Scadia).

Early cartography - Scandinavia 1430

Claudius Clavus (i.e. Claus Svart in Danish) created a better map over Scandinavia around 1430. This is printed in Ulm 1482, as part of Ptolemaios atlas.



Early cartography - Scandinavia 1536

Map by J. Ziegler printed in Strassbourg 1536, as part of a larger work over the Holy Land. Sweden mapped out by the last catholic archbishop of Sweden - Johannes Magnus.



Early cartography - Sweden 1530

Carta Marina

Made by Olaus Magnus (brother of Johannes) who surveyed Sweden for Gustav Vasa and then finalised the map in Rome 1527-1539. Printed in Venice 1539. Two known copies have survived, found 1886 in Munich and 1960 in Switzerland. The latter bought by Uppsala university in 1962.



Early cartography - Lantmäteriet founded in 1628

Andreas Bure,
created
lantmäteriverket by
orders from Gustav
II Adolf in 1628. He
also made this map,
in 1626.



Early cartography - 1688 map of Sweden

The first general map based on more modern cartographic symbolisation was presented by Lantmäteriverket in 1688, scale 1: 3 M.

Visualisation was for highlighting tactile geographic (not religious, cultural or genealogical) features.



Early cartography - 1747 map of Sweden

Lantmäteriverkets map from 1747 was the in the scale 1:2 560 000, and visualised administrative (political) features and tactile geographic features (hydrography, infrastructure). This map was sold to the general public.



Early cartography - 1797 map of Sweden

The general map from 1797 was based on geodetic principles (triangulation of the coast line and political boundaries). The visual representation was kept the same as in the earlier generation of maps.



Early cartography - 19th century military mapping

The 19th century mapping in Sweden focused on military mapping in the scale 1:100 000.

Each map to be published was hand carved on copper plates, which set the limit for symbolisation and visualisation. The last map made in this way was produced in 1954.



Early cartography - 19th century military mapping



General military map

Original scale 1:100 000

1865

1950



General military map in other scales

Overview map Sundsvall,
1921, 1: 400 000.

Reconesaince map, c 1810,
1: 20 000



20th century cartography - topographic mapping

Three generations of topographic maps (1:50 000)



Edition 3

Edition 1

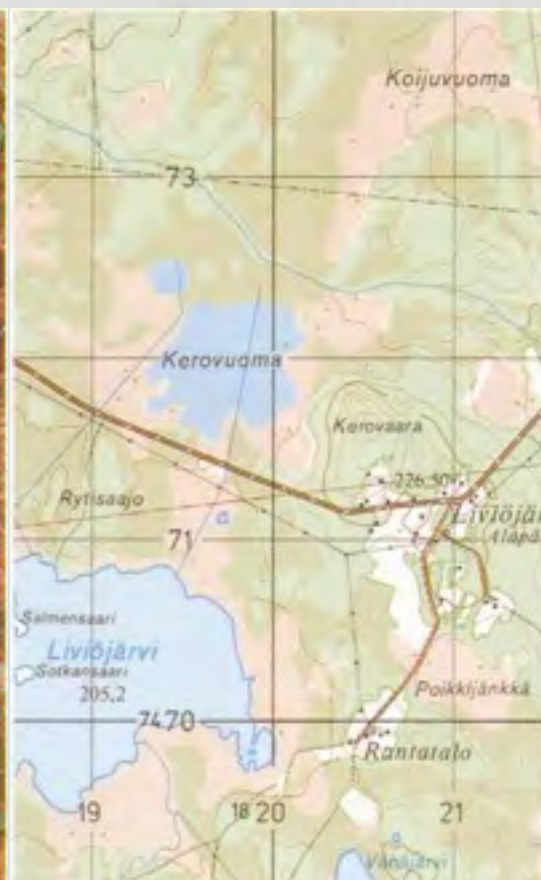
Edition 2

Note how development in printing technique has allowed a change in symbolisation and visualisation.

Topographic and thematic mapping, scale 1:50000



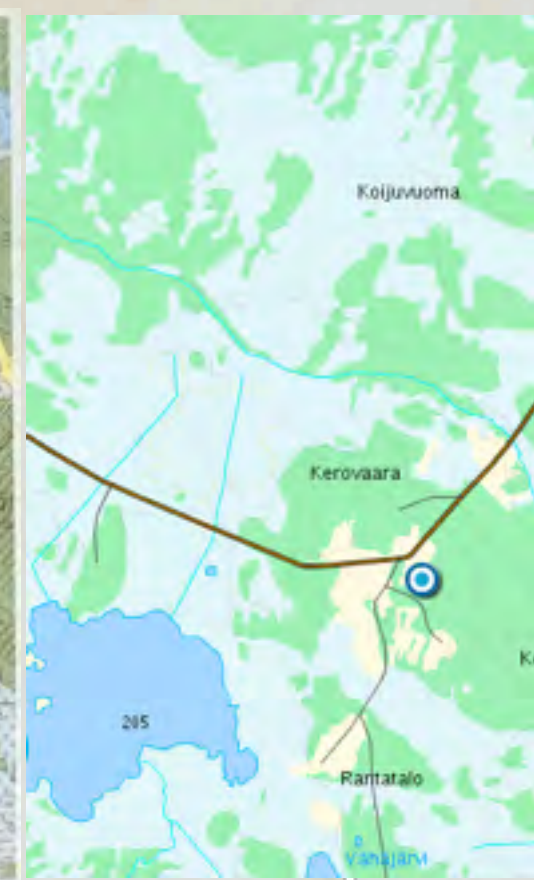
Aerial photo
(Infra red film)



Topographic map



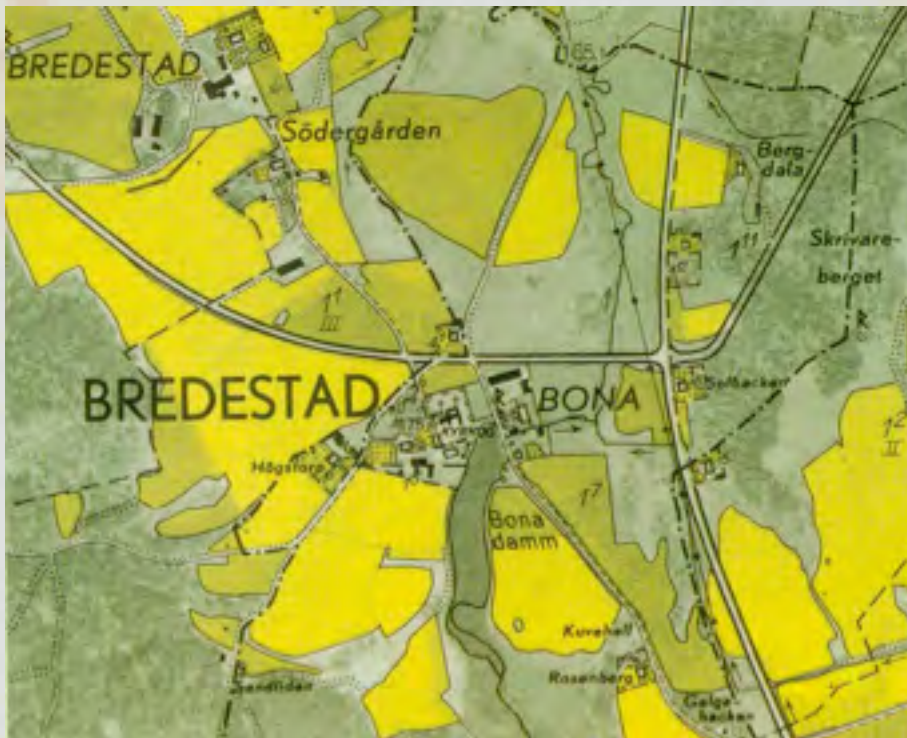
Thematic map
(land cover)



Strongly
generalised map
(www.hitta.se)

Topographic and thematic mapping, scale 1:10000

Older cadaster map, 1: 10 000



Newer cadaster map, 1: 20 000



Development in printing technique has allowed refined visualisation and hence a decrease in map scale while retaining information.

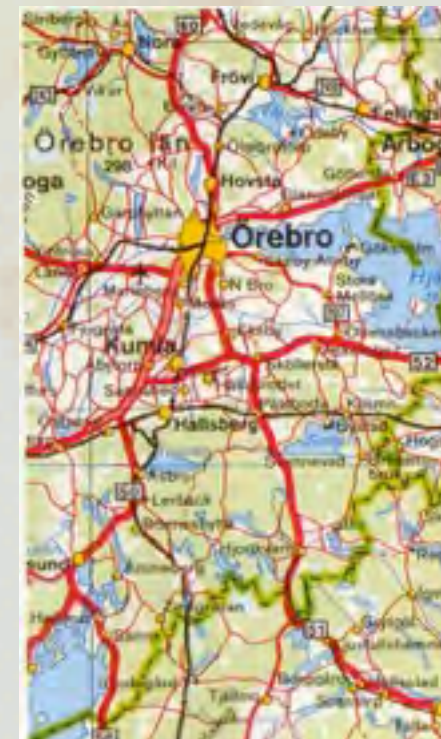
Visualisation at different scales



Aerial photo/
Topographic map
in scale 1: 10000



Topographic/
thematic map
1: 100 000



Thematic map
1 : 1 miljon

Scale and generalisation

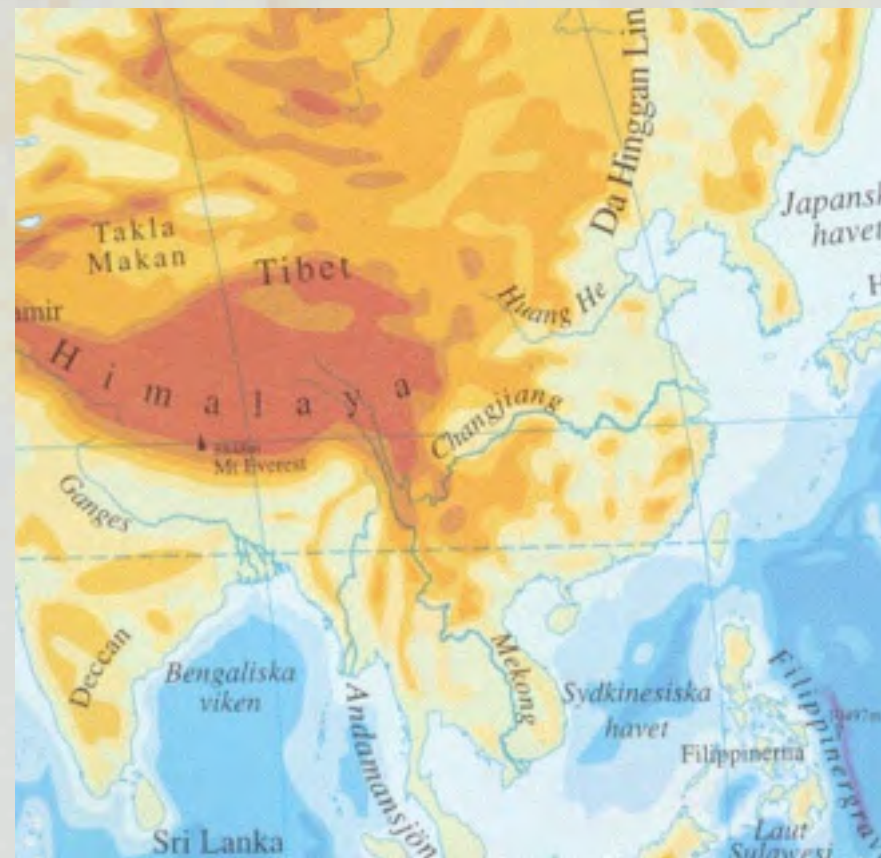
Visualisation of elevation

Maps made from orthorectified aerial photos have better geometry, and stereo interpretation of topography can be visualised as isolines of elevation (5m).



Visualisation of elevation

In small scale maps topography and bathymetry is sometimes visualised as the main theme (chloropeth map)



Visualisation of elevation

Mountain map with isolines and shadows with light falling from North West. In Sweden the sun never creates these shadows, but the visualisation represents the most common light setting of a study desk.



Visualisation of elevation

Older mountain
tourist map with
vertical shading



Visualisation and labelling

General military map from 1862 with few names



General military map from 1941 based on further inventories of names.

Topographic/thematic map of detailed infrastructure, but with less labels.



Presentation

Important: application of traditional cartographic rules in the production of these maps and visualisations in order to produce effective maps.



But: GIS software usually does **NOT** include cartographic rules.
And everyone can make their own maps. **Will they be effective?**

Exploration

Analysis

Presentation

Private visual
thinking

CONFLICT

Public visual
communication

Working with
own data

Designing
public maps

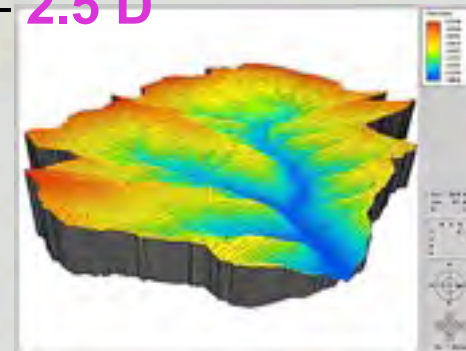
Visualisation dimensions

1D: data related along a straight line from a point of origin

2D: a map



3D: a physical model of the landscape (cardboard)
a virtual 3D model (rotation, seen from all sides)
a virtual 3D model drawn in perspective – **2.5 D**



4D: adding the temporal dimension (several 3D models at different points in time or an animation)

Geographic Information Systems

Characteristics:

- Geospatial problems are approached and solved in an interdisciplinary way.
- GIS enables integration of data from different sources.
- Data can be manipulated, analysed and visualised.

Data sources:

- surveying
- remote sensing
- statistical data
- physical/chemical measurements
- recycled paper maps

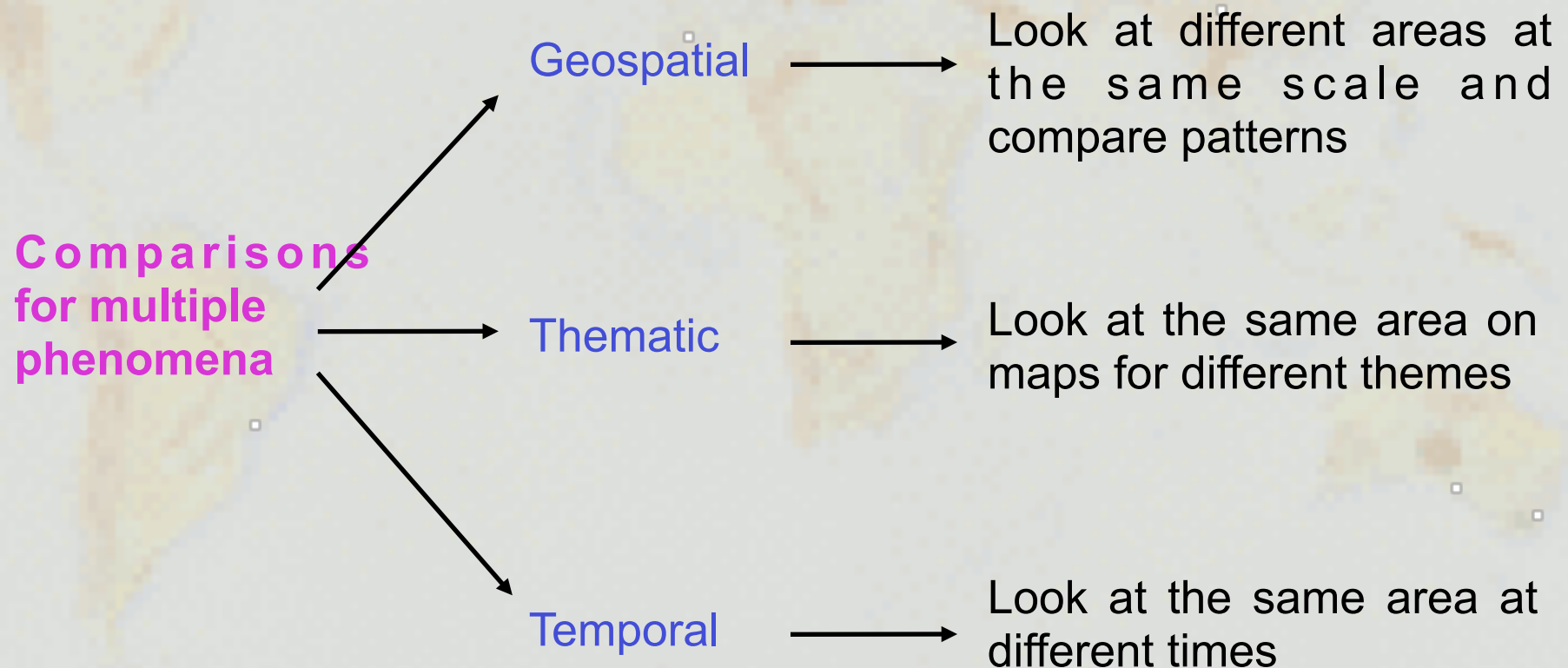
GIS combines **geospatial** and **non-geospatial** data from **different sources** in a geospatial analysis operation in order to **answer questions** about:

Identification	→	What is there?
Location	→	Where is ... ?
Trend & change detection	→	What has changed since ... ?
Optimal path	→	What is the best route between ... ?
Patterns	→	What is the relationship between ... ?
Models, planning & forecasting	→	What if ... ?

Data comparisons

3 basic queries for **single phenomena**:

- Where?
- What?
- When?



Maps in GIS - applications

The role of maps in GIS

Maps in GIS:

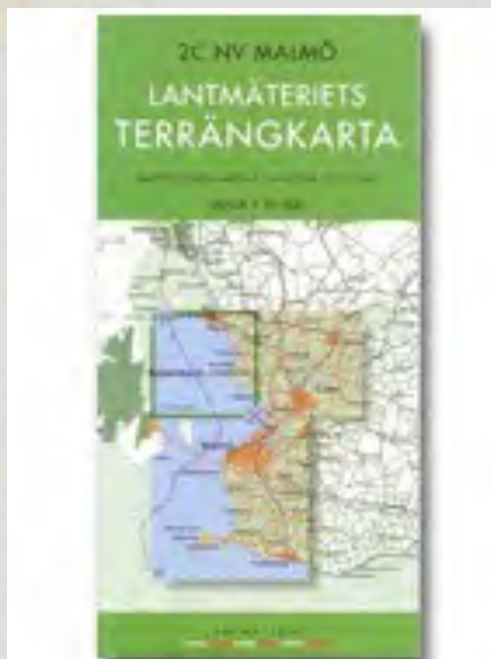
- serve as a graphical user interface between the GIS and the user,
- provide visual indices to geographic phenomena/objects,
- enable exploration of geographic datasets,
- provide means for a visual communication of the results.

Cartography has a long **tradition and experience** in combining and integration of **datasets from different sources**. This experience should be used in a GIS, which is not always the case.

Changing environments

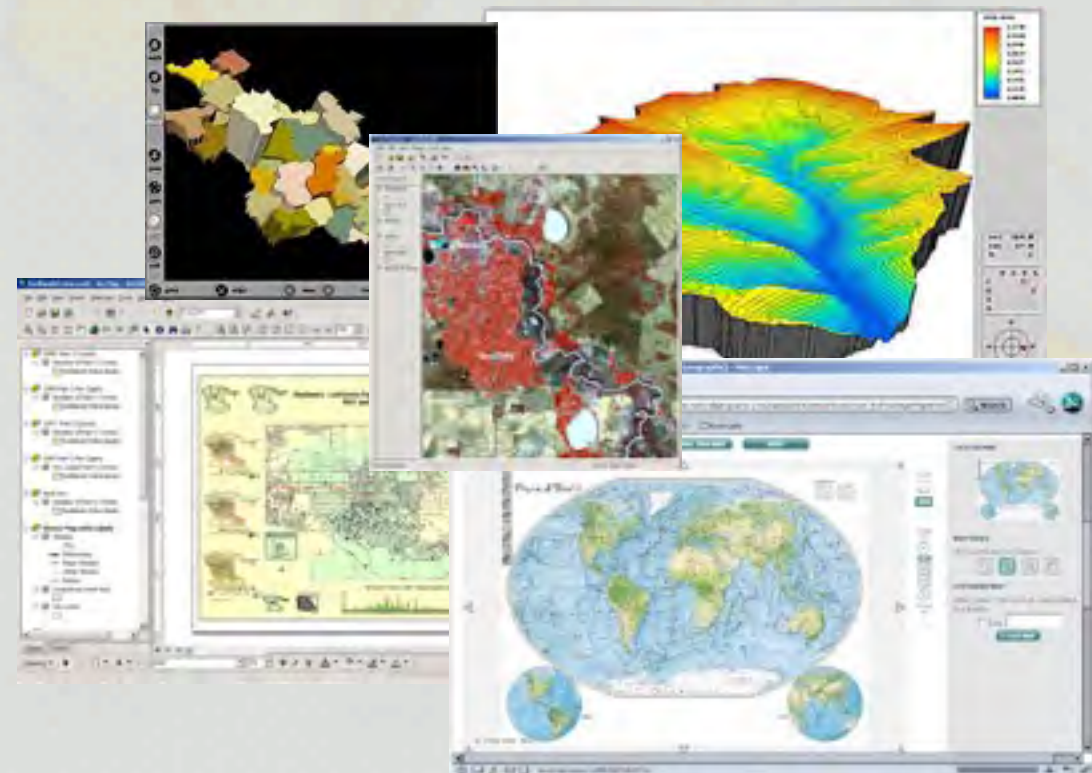
yesterday

There was only one map and only one way to read it.



today

There are a thousand ways to create the 'map' and a thousand way to use it.



Yesterday – static maps



Today – mobile mapping devices

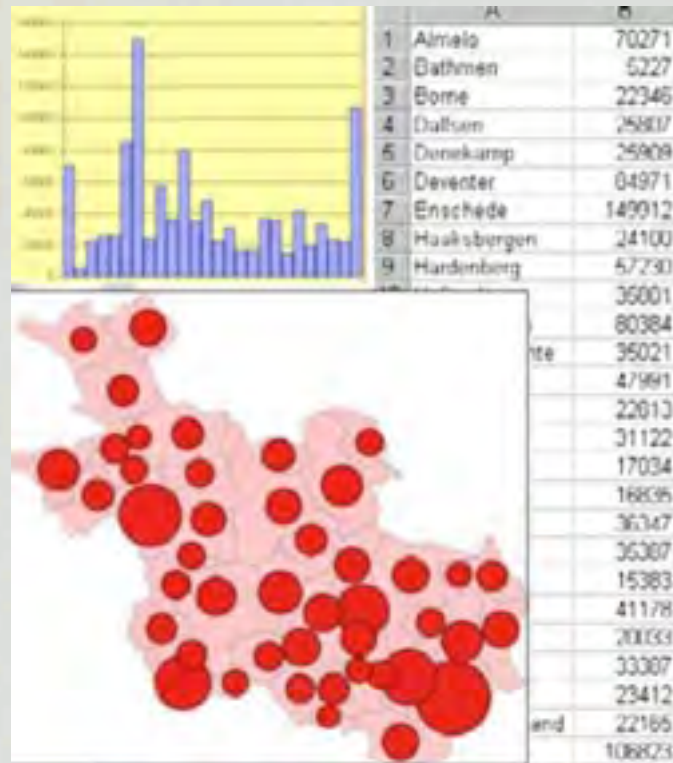


Yesterday – 2D

Today – 3D



Yesterday – traditional

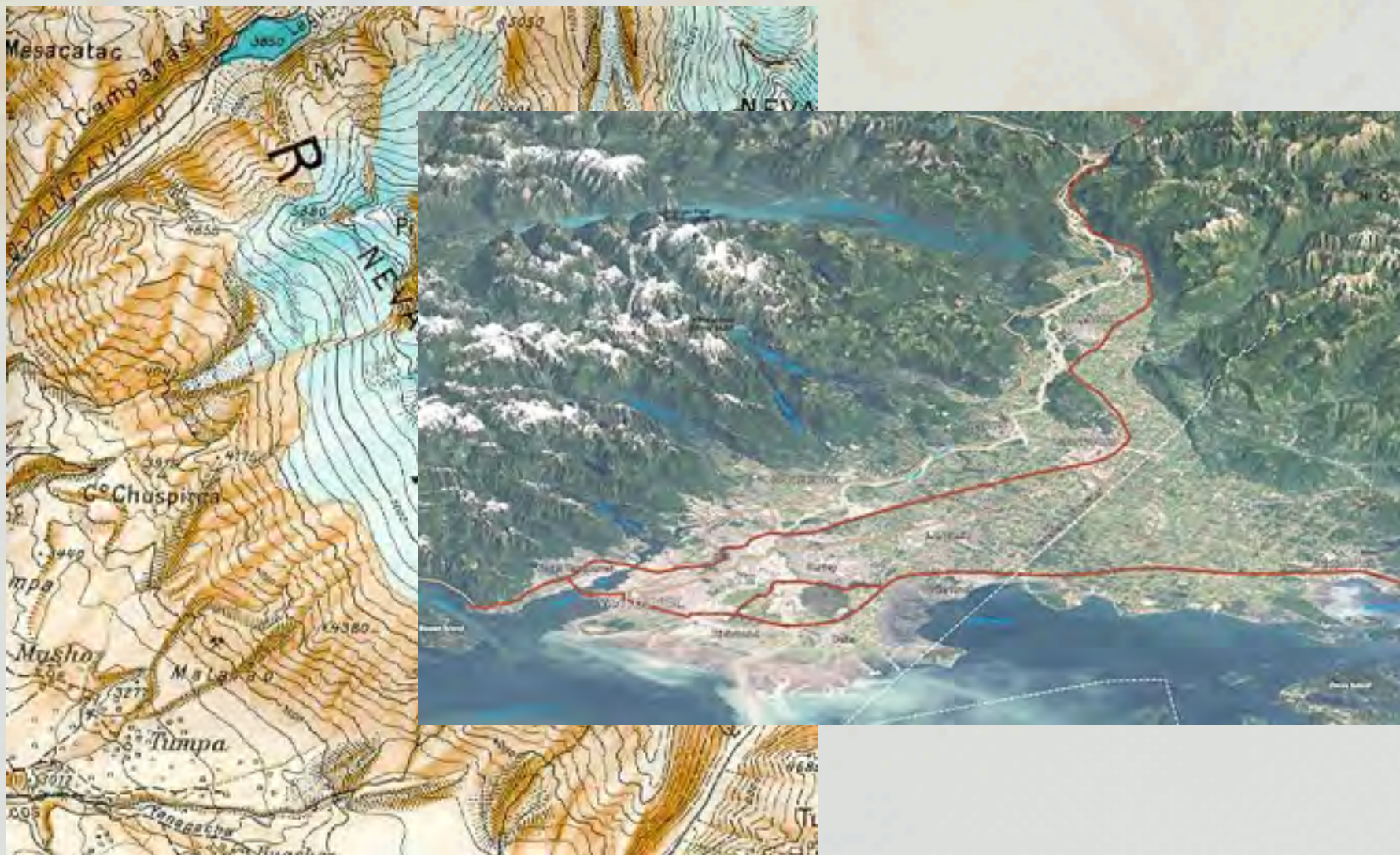


Today – alternative



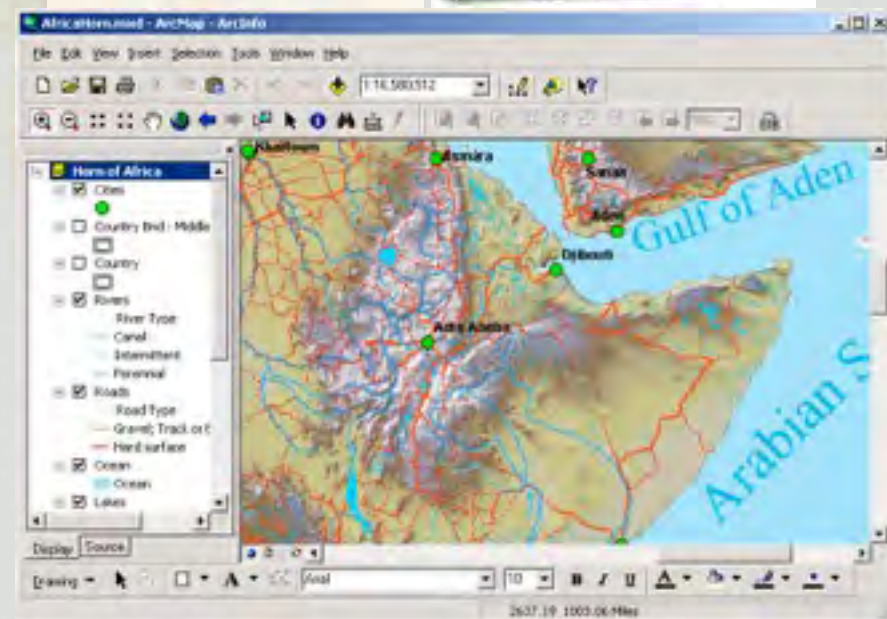
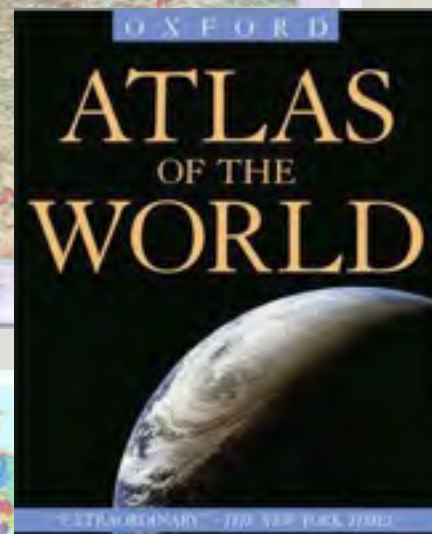
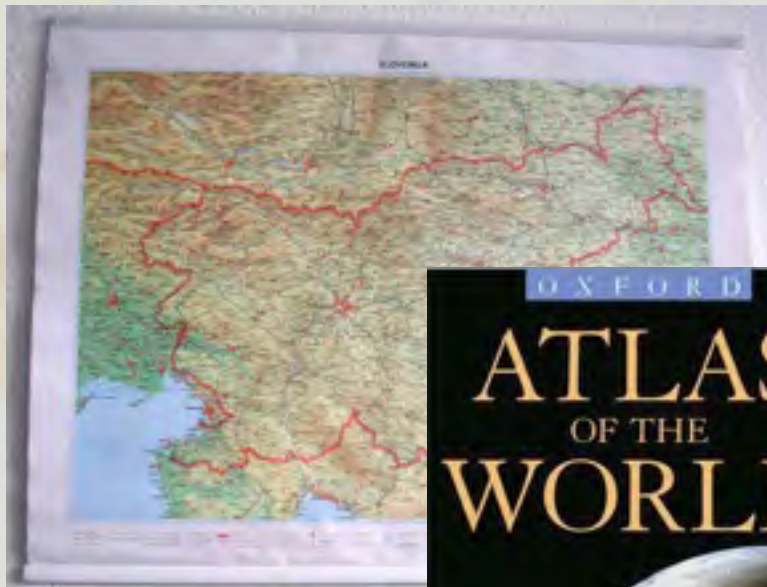
Yesterday – abstract

Today – real



Yesterday – ready made

Today – self made



Why geovisualisation?

Users? Who are they, what do they do?

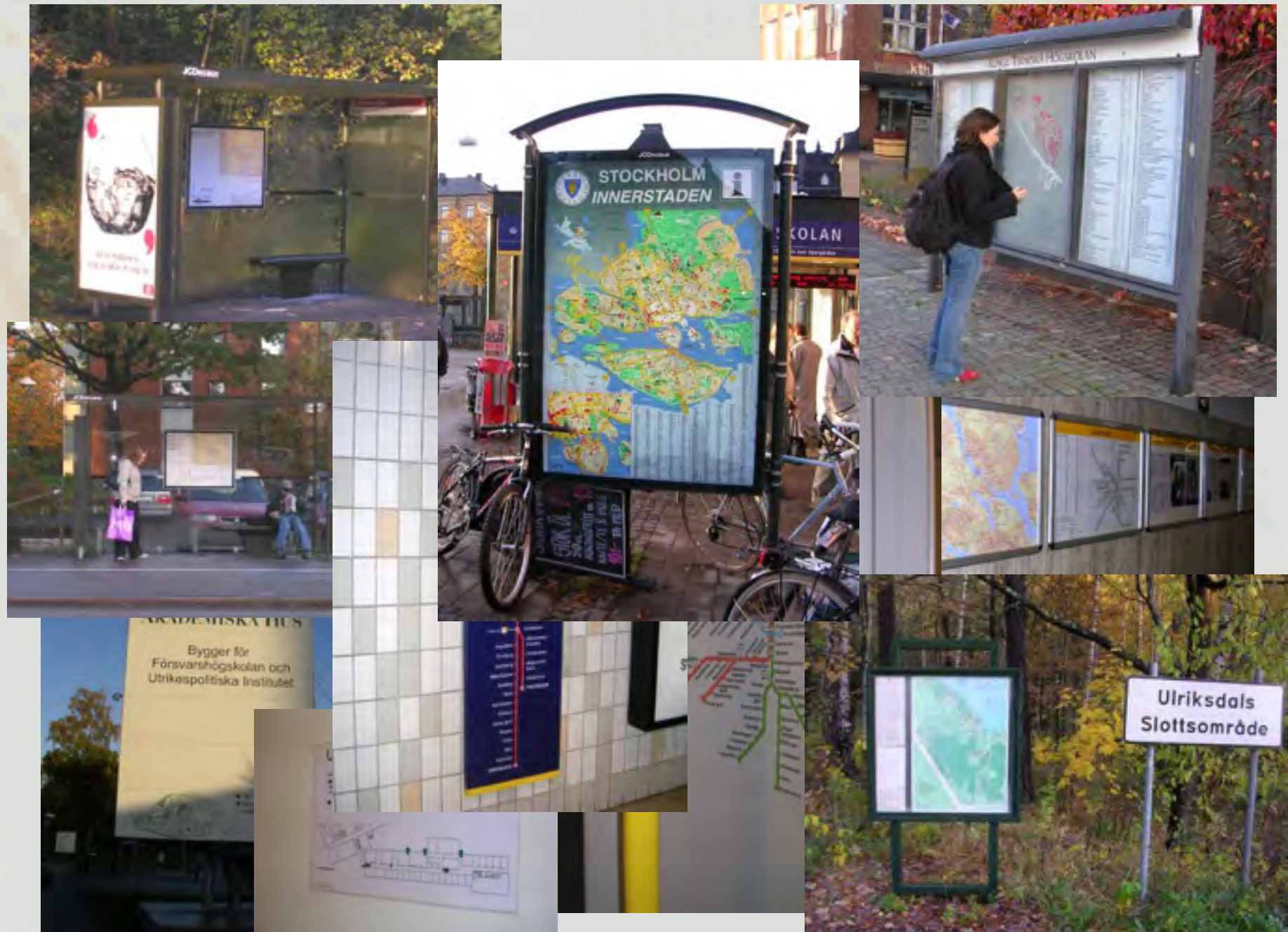


look for answers/solutions/suggestions...

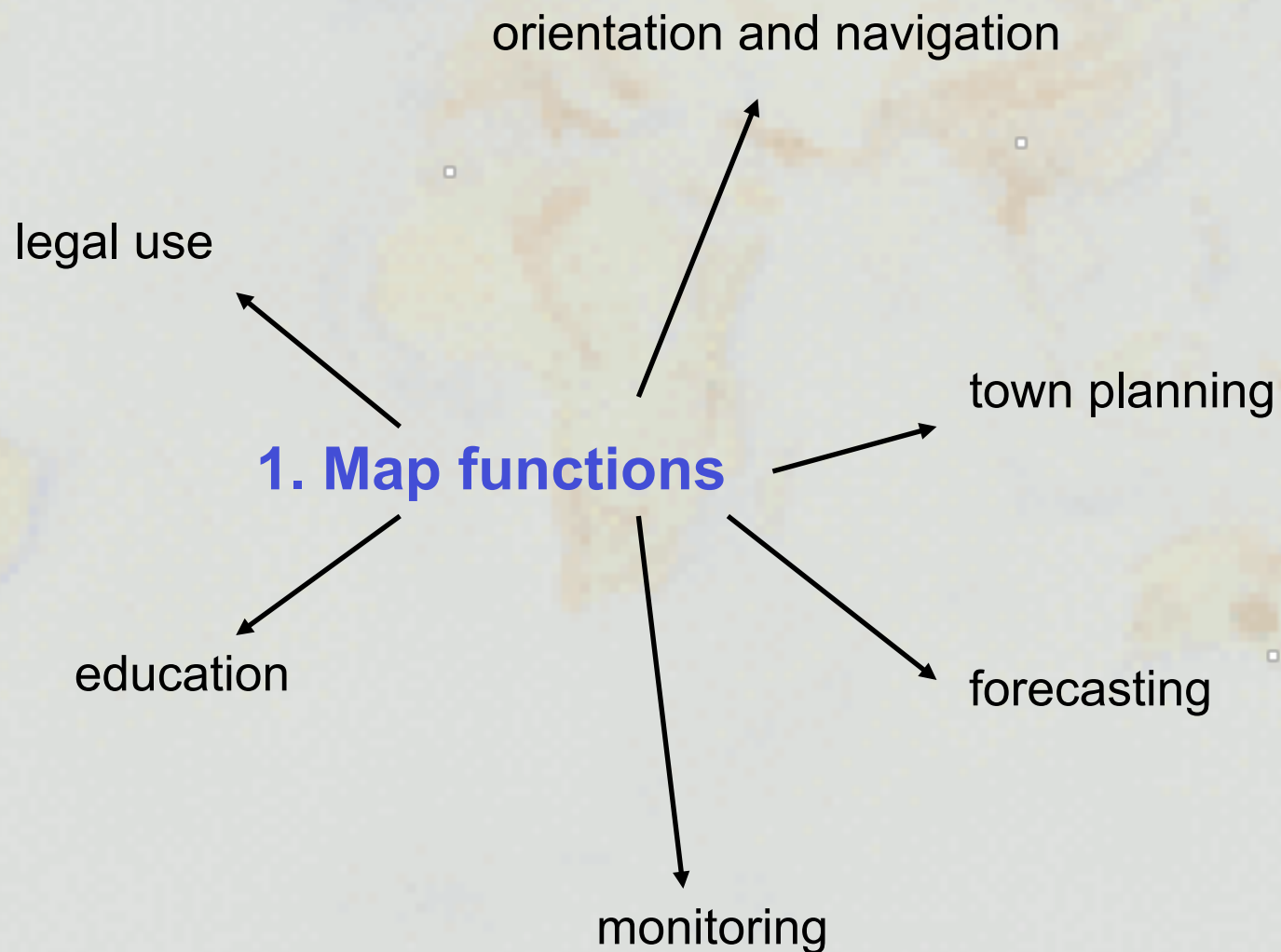
work on geoproblems

anyone, anywhere, anytime...





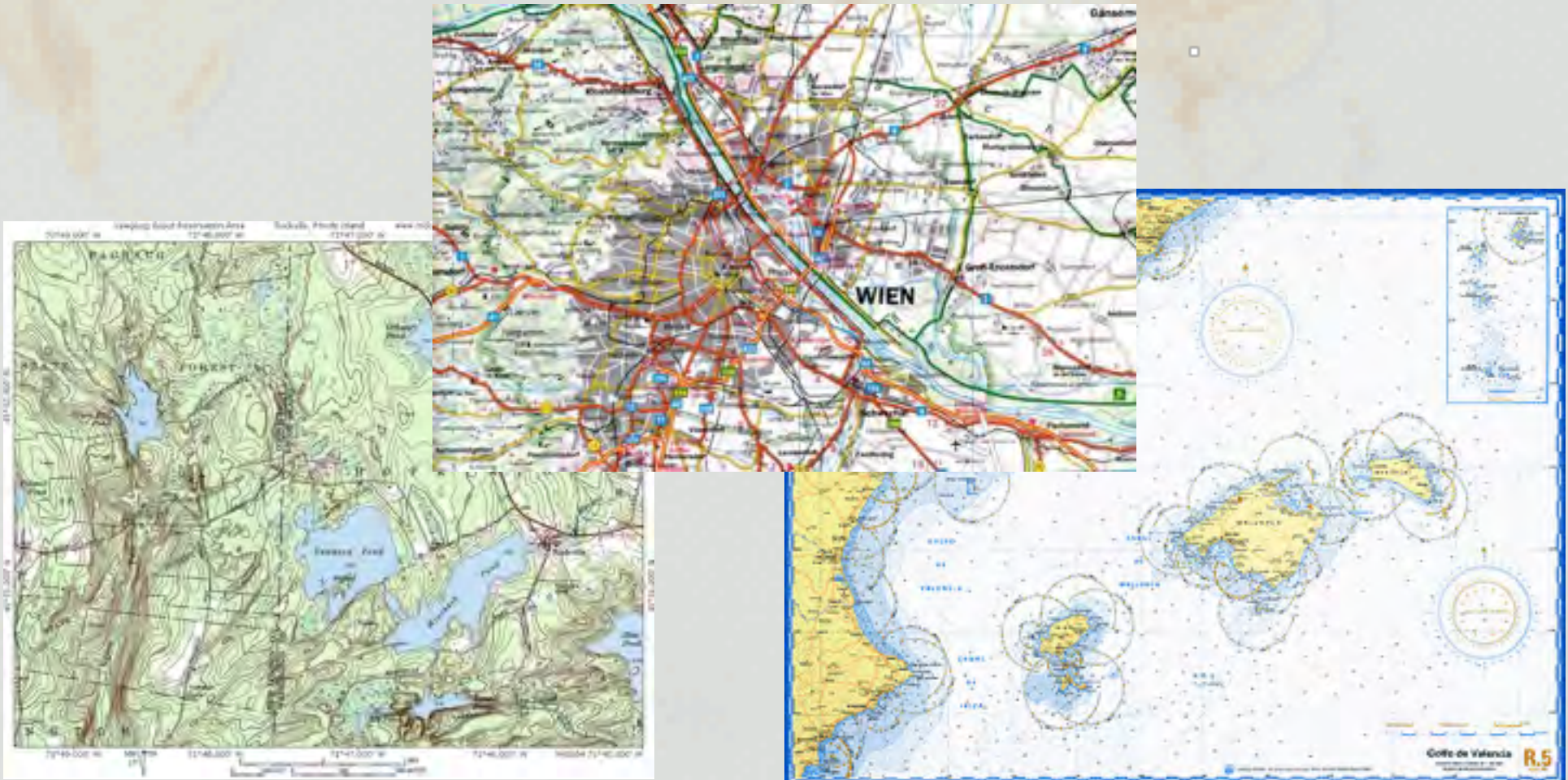
Maps and map types



Orientation and navigation

Getting from A to B along a selected route and while travelling, occasionally checking if still on course.

Topographical maps, road maps, sea charts, etc.



Town planning

Maps:

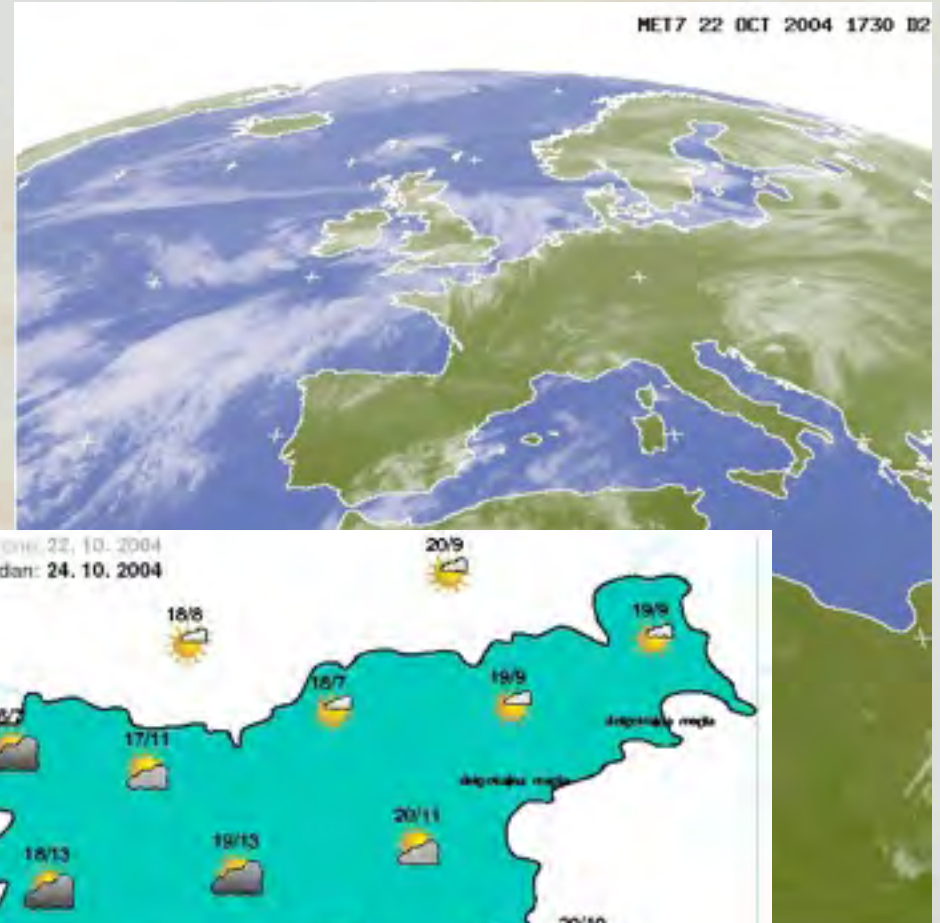
- presenting an inventory of current situation,
- defining development processes and
- contain propositions for future situations.



Forecasting

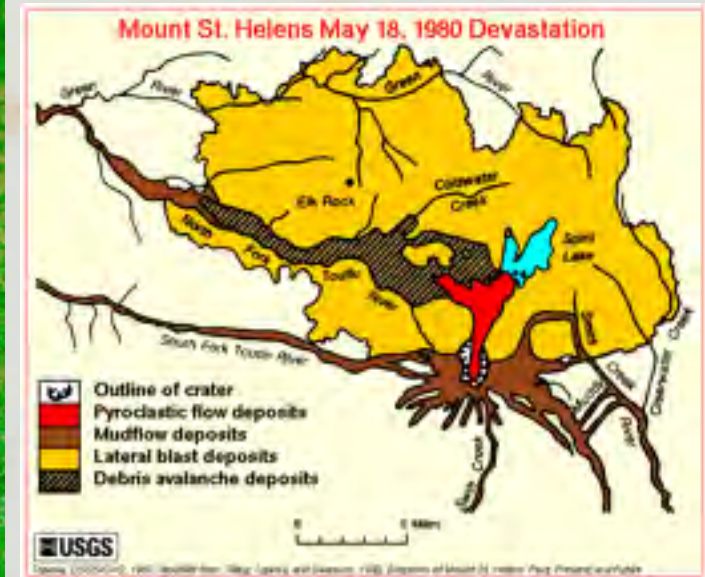
Extrapolating from the past phenomena to the future.

Weather, spread of diseases, etc.



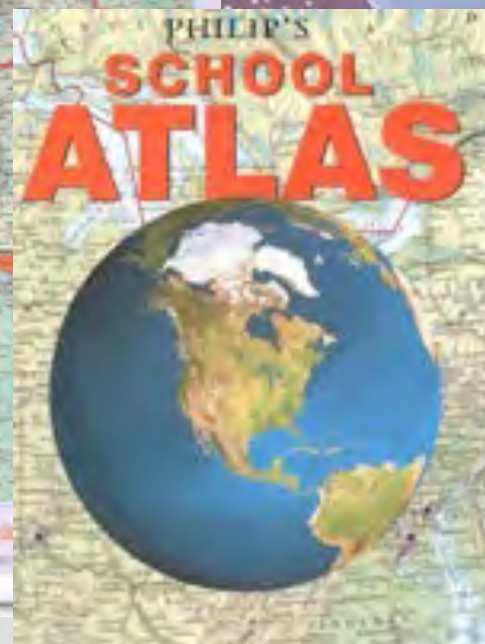
Monitoring

Disaster management: floods, earthquakes, volcanoes, forest fires, hurricanes, etc



Education

Wall maps, school atlases, etc.



Legal use

Cadastral maps



2. Map types

General image of the Earth's surface
Topographic maps

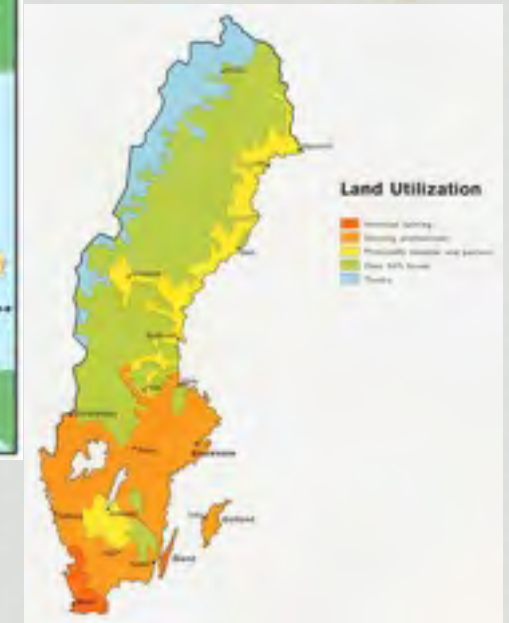


Traditional division of map types

Base for

Thematic maps

Distribution of one particular phenomenon



Traditional division **less relevant** in digital environments, because both map types (topographic and thematic) consist of several layers.

Topographic map = Terrain +
Roads +
Railways +
Settlement +
Hydrography +
Geographical names +
Land cover +
Country/county boundaries



Layers

Each of these layers is **a thematic map** in itself.

3. Visualising topography

Mapping the terrain

A **relief display** is a geometrically accurate view of the terrain and its shapes (morphology).

3D



Raduha



The choice of the terrain mapping method depends on the **purpose of the map**:

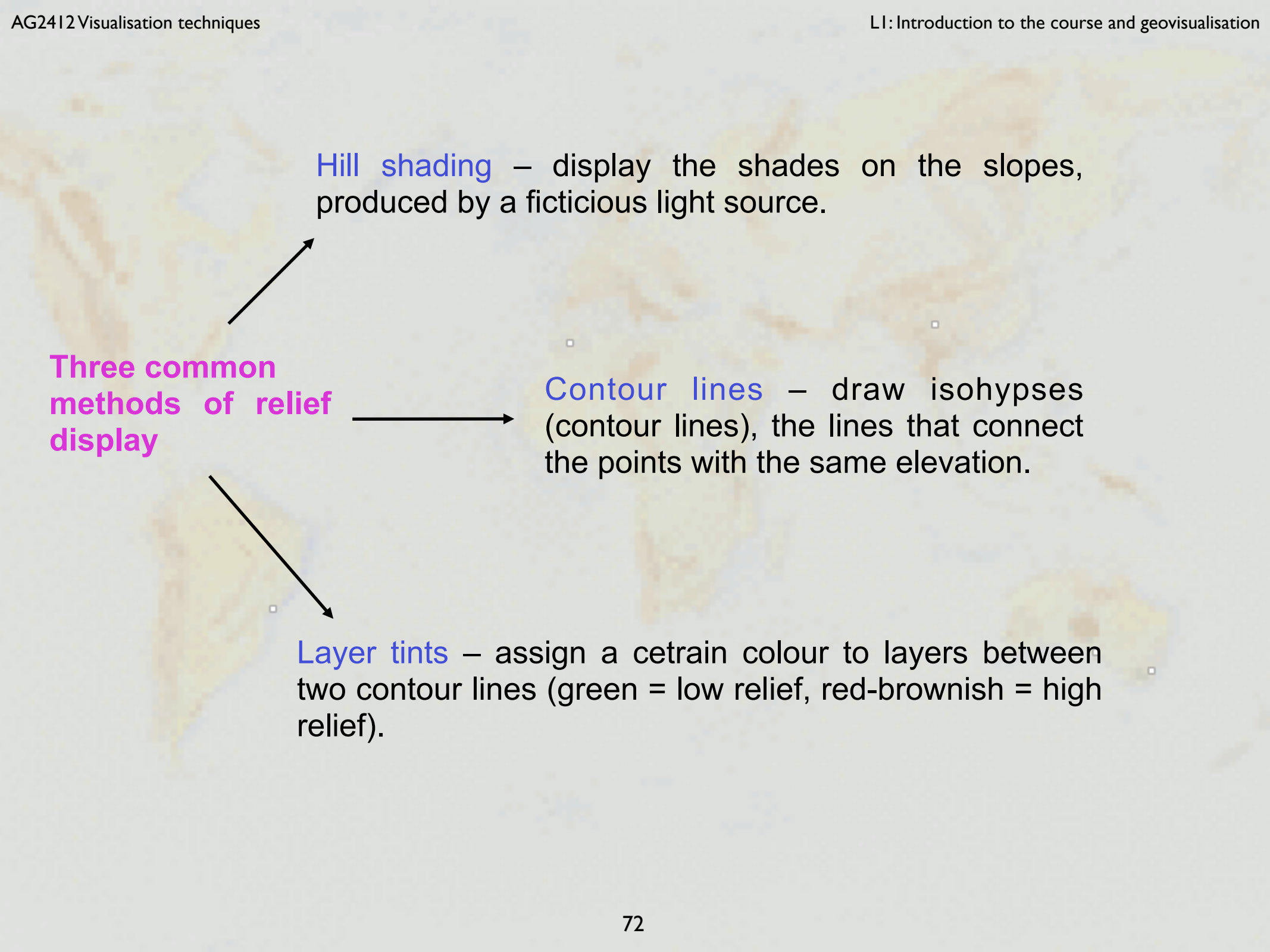
- do we want to represent terrain globally (as in a tourist map or a skiing map) or
- do we need to be able to determine the heights to 10cm accuracy (when planning a large site, a dam, for example)?

Height

Absolute – numerical values at contour lines or height points

Relative – is a certain location higher/equal/lower than other locations?





Hill shading – display the shades on the slopes, produced by a fictitious light source.

Three common methods of relief display

Contour lines – draw isohypses (contour lines), the lines that connect the points with the same elevation.

Layer tints – assign a certain colour to layers between two contour lines (green = low relief, red-brownish = high relief).



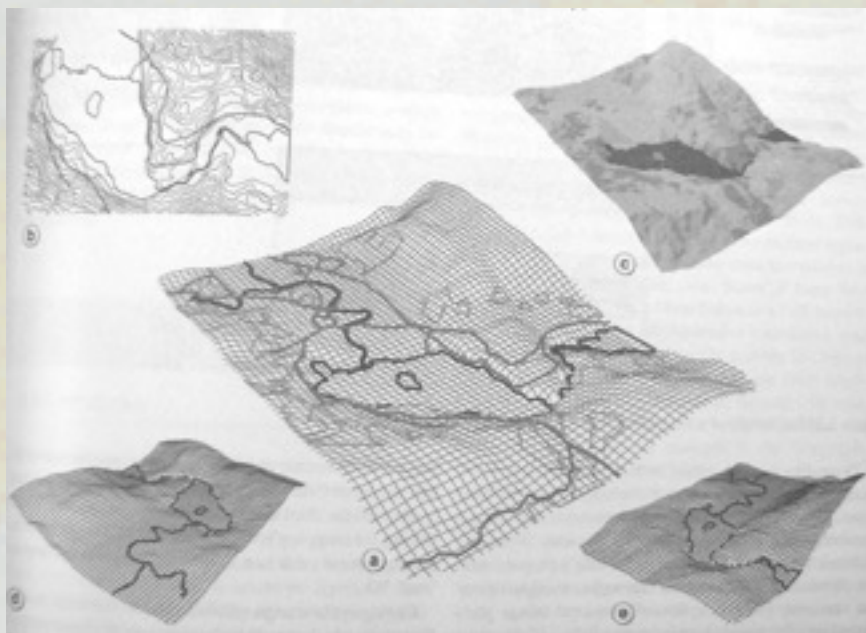




Layer tints

Other methods of relief display

Hachuring

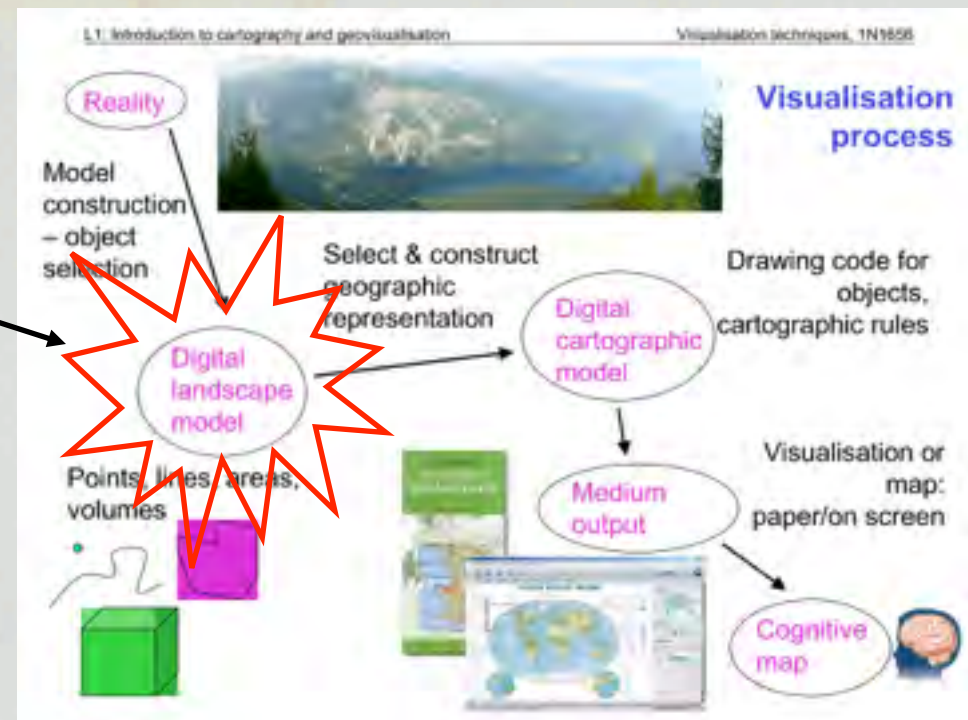


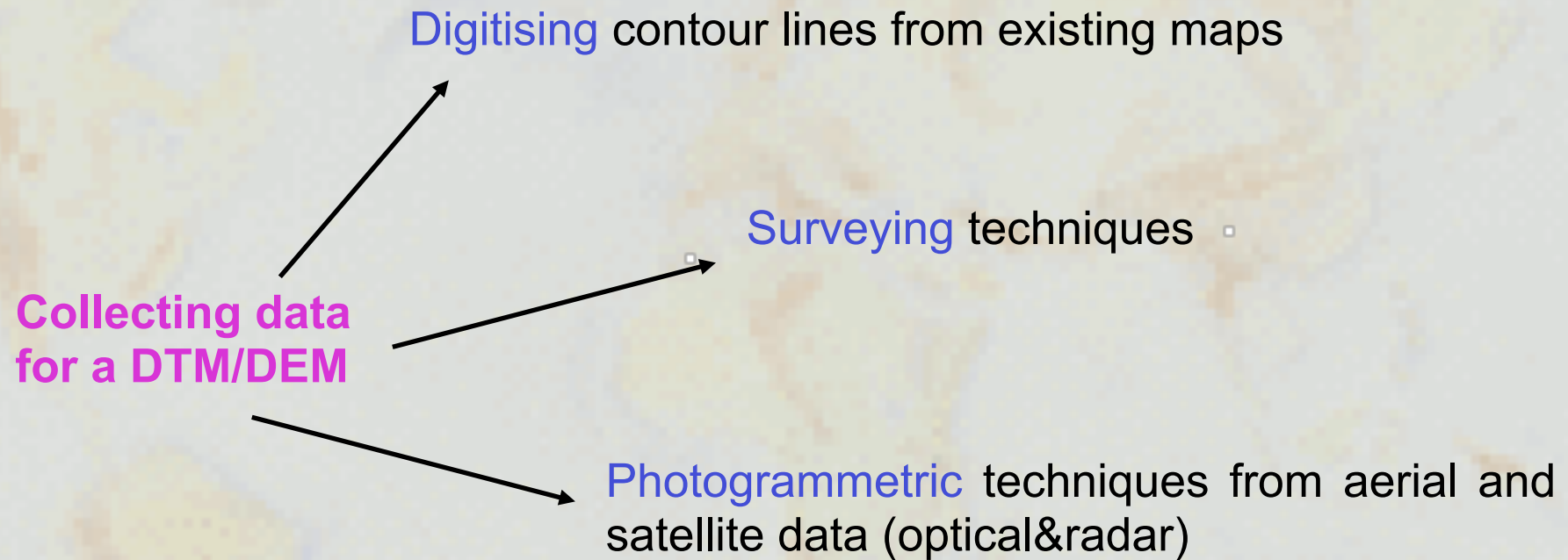
Perspective views

A relief display in a computer – **a digital terrain model, a DTM**: a digital 3-dimensional representation of the **terrain surface** and selected 0-, 1-, 2- and 3-dimensional **objects** that are related to the surface.

If only **elevation** is represented, we get **a digital elevation model, a DEM**.

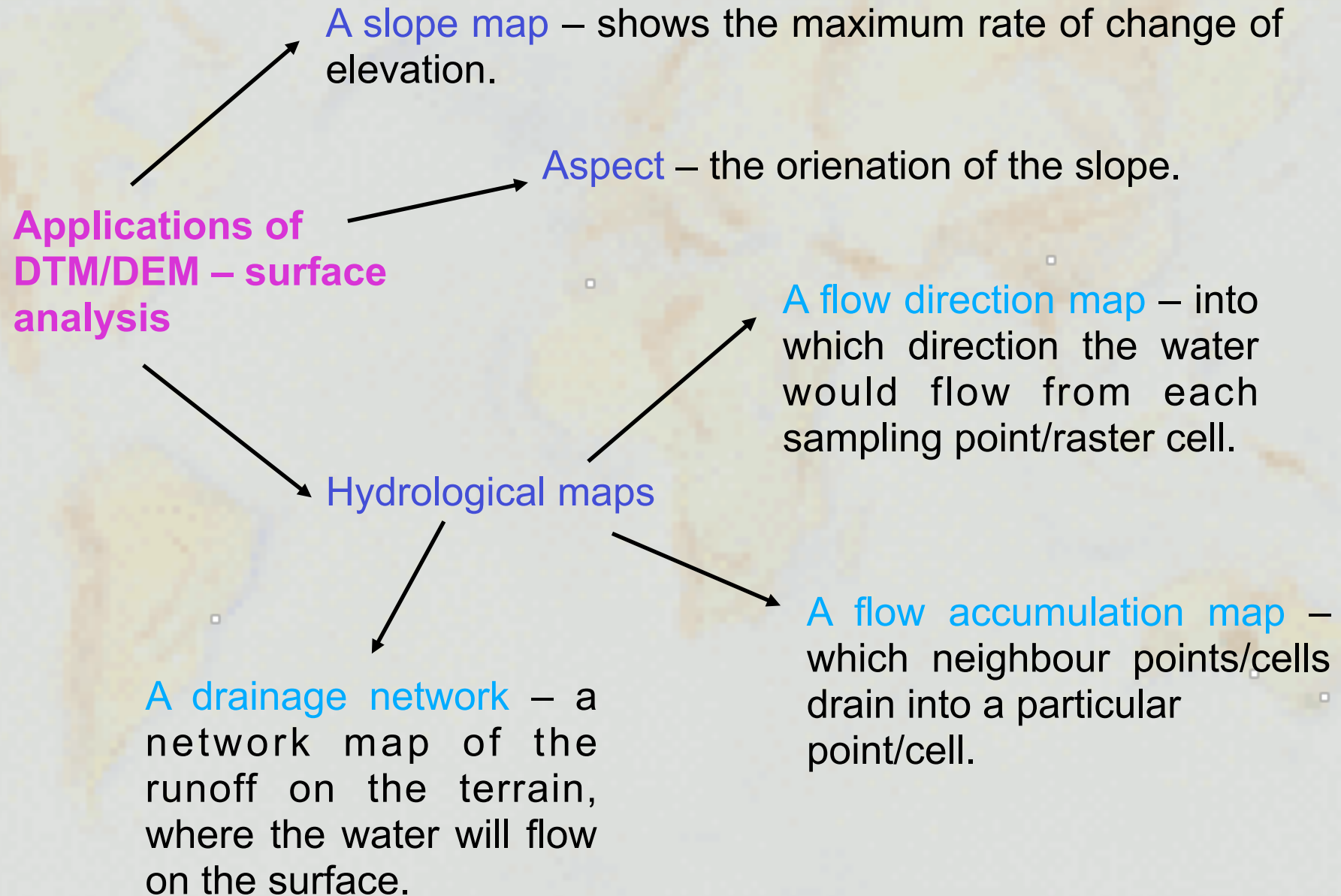
Both are **digital landscape models**.





Model quality depends on:

- density of sampling points (spatial resolution),
- interpolation method (estimating the elevation between the sampling points).

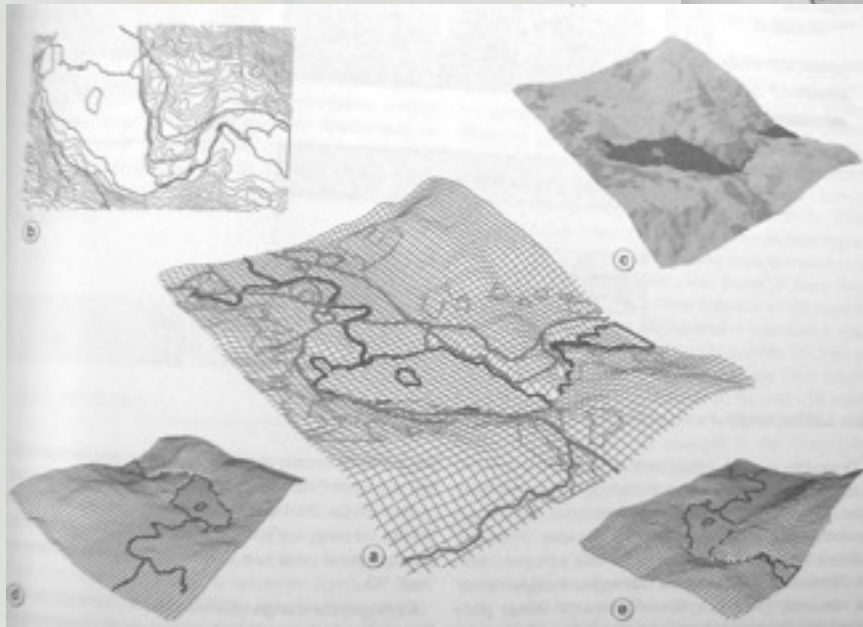
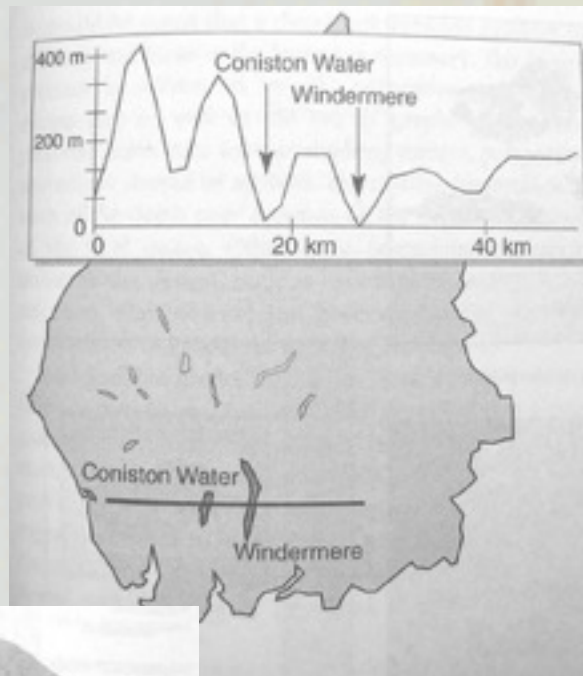


Terrain visualisations from DTM/DEM

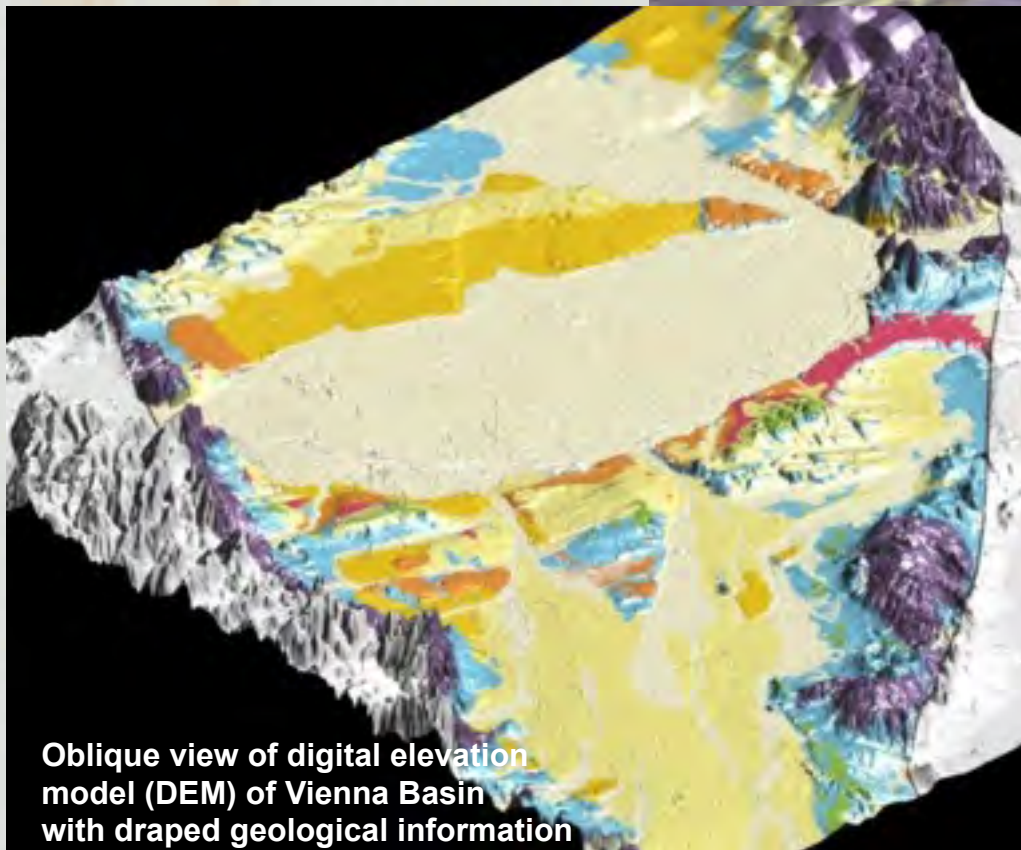
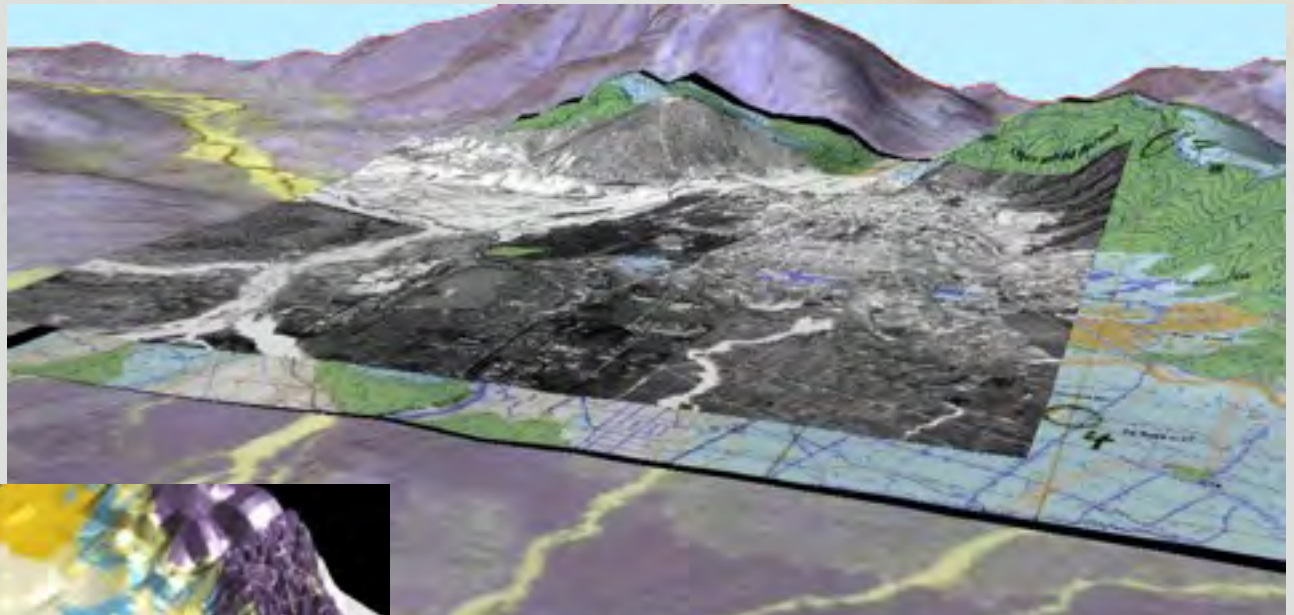
Profiles

Perspective maps

Shaded relief maps



Terrain visualisations from DTM/DEM – drapping a satellite image or a thematic map over a 3D visualisation of the terrain



Oblique view of digital elevation model (DEM) of Vienna Basin with draped geological information

