

DATA MODELS IN GIS

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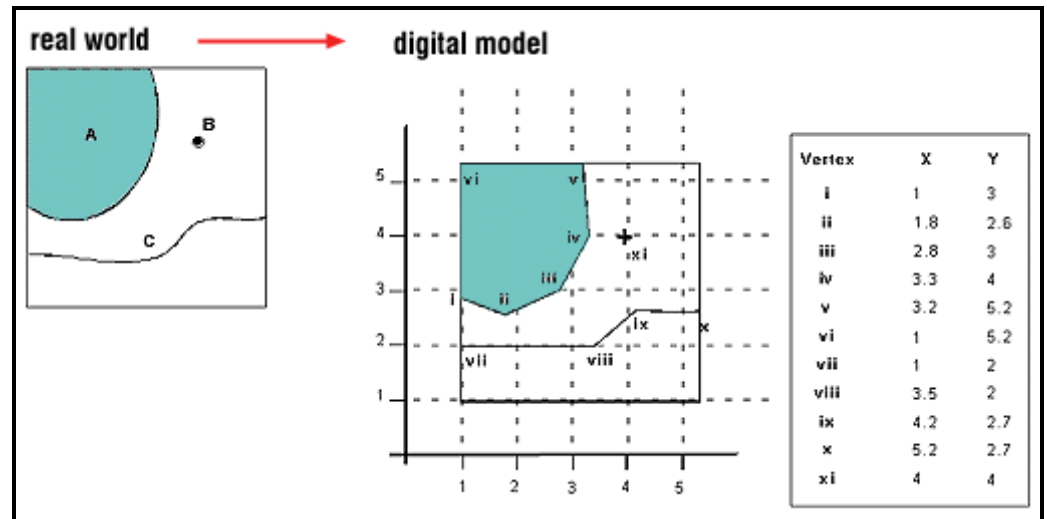
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VECTOR DATA MODELS

point

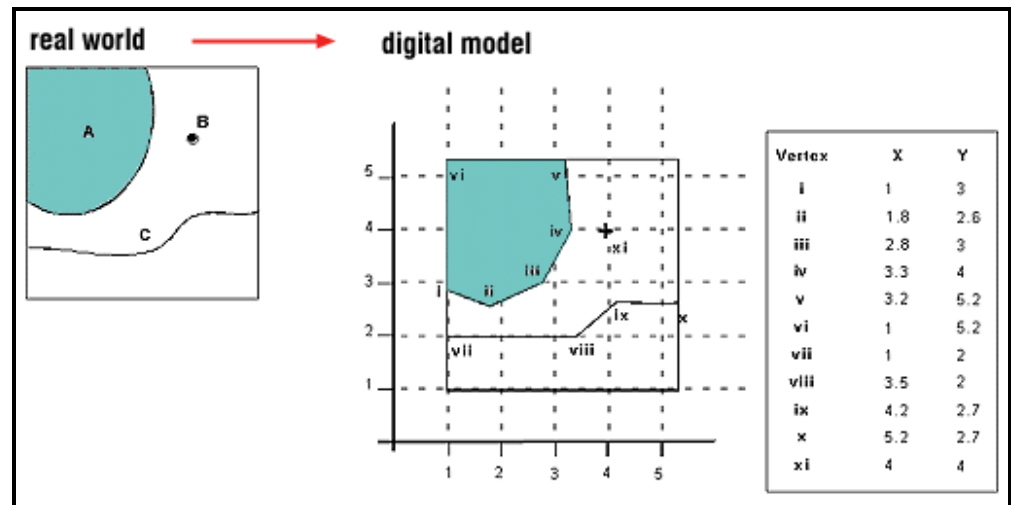
- zero-dimensional abstraction of an object represented by a single X,Y co-ordinate.
- normally represents a geographic feature too small to be displayed as a line or area
- stored by their real (earth) coordinates



VECTOR DATA MODELS

line

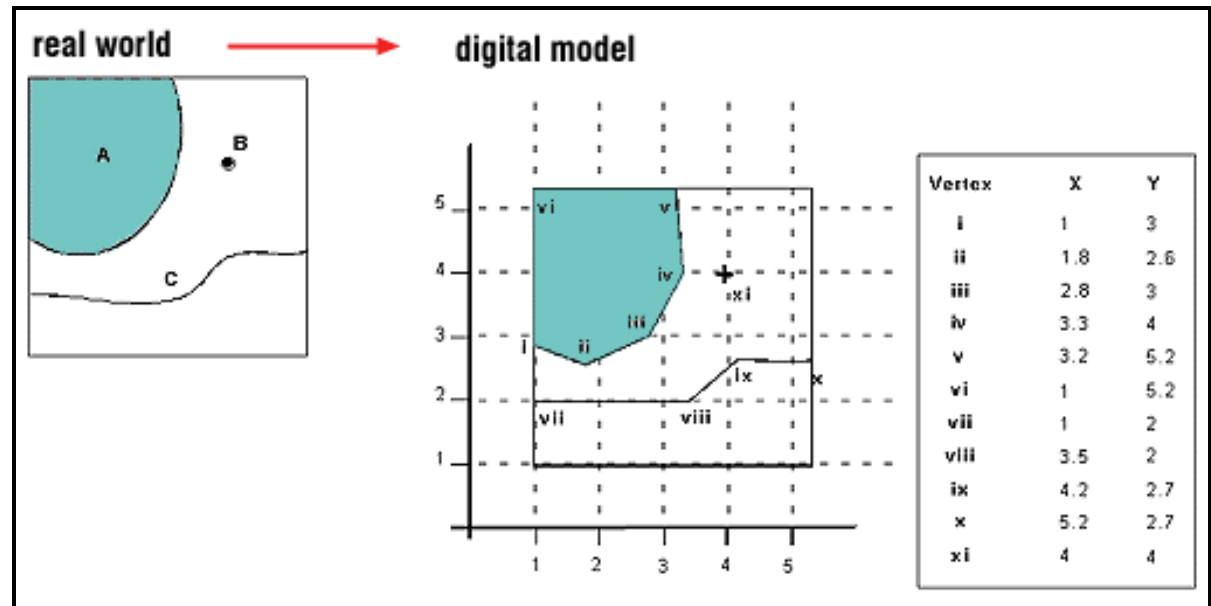
- set of ordered co-ordinates that represent the shape of geographic features too narrow to be displayed as an area at the given scale or linear features with no area
- lines and areas are built from sequences of points in order.
- lines have a direction to the ordering of the points.



VECTOR DATA MODELS

polygon

- feature used to represent areas.
- defined by the lines that make up its boundary and a point inside its boundary for identification.
- have attributes that describe the geographic feature they represent.



VECTOR DATA MODELS

- vector data evolved the arc/node model in the 1960s.
 - an area consist of lines and a line consists of points.
- points, lines, and areas can each be stored in their own files, with links between them.
- endpoint of a line (arc) is called a node; arc junctions are only at nodes.
- stored with the arc is the topology (i.e. the connecting arcs and left and right polygons).

Spaghetti Vector data Model

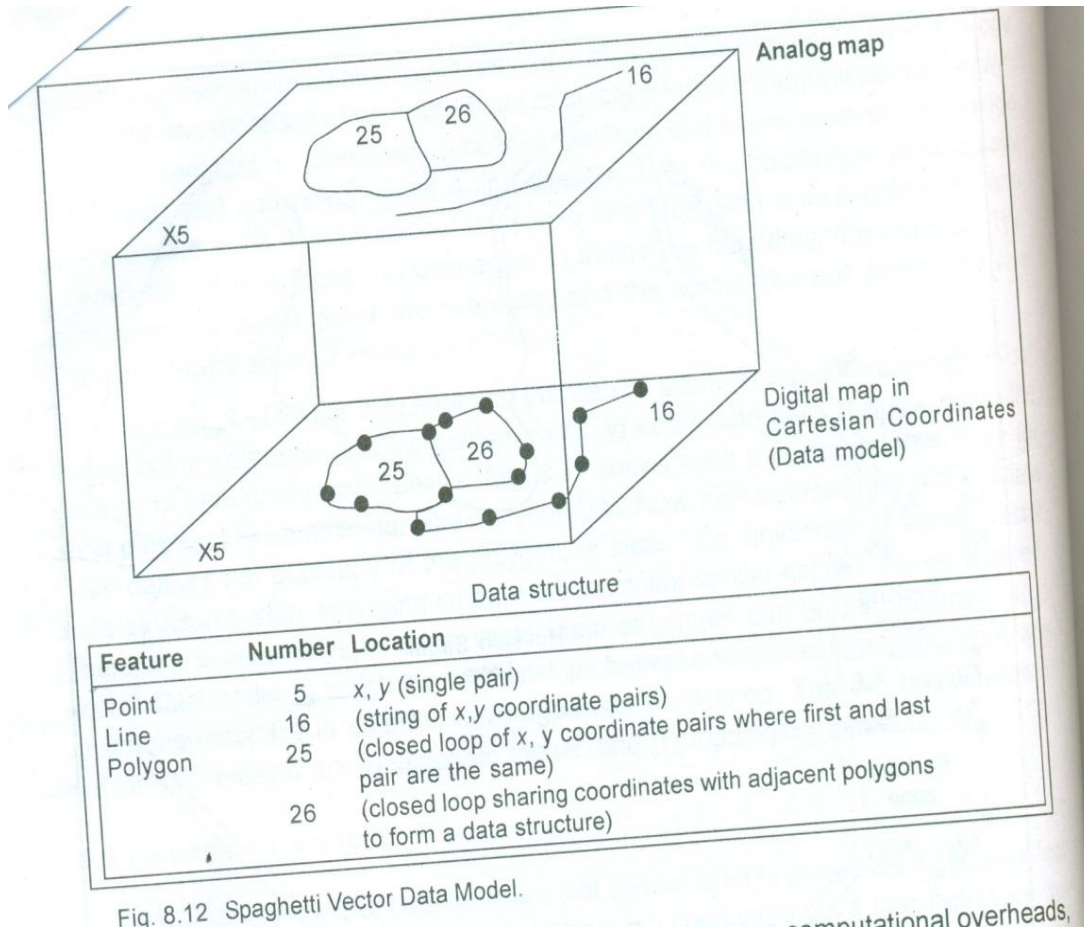


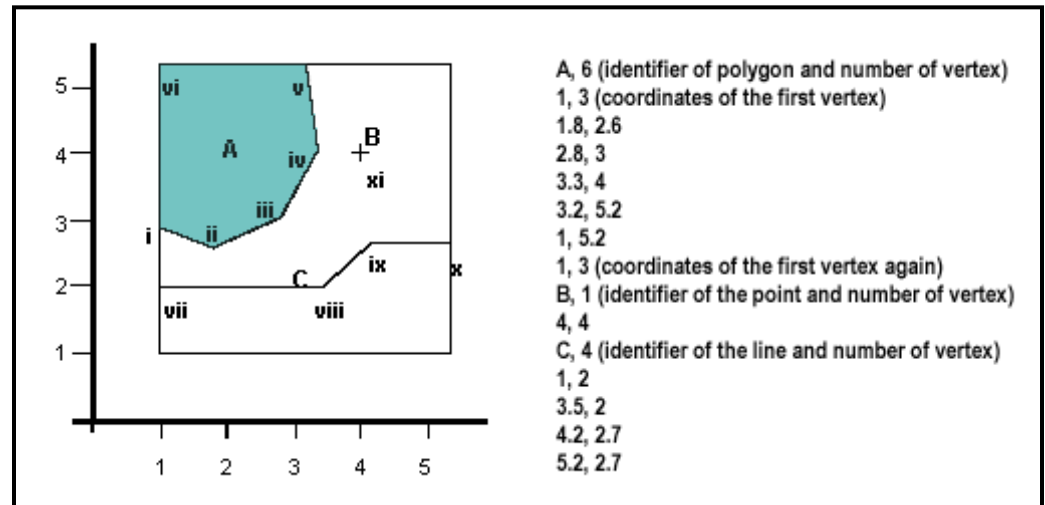
Fig. 8.12 Spaghetti Vector Data Model.

computational overheads,

VECTOR DATA MODELS

List of coordinates “spaghetti”

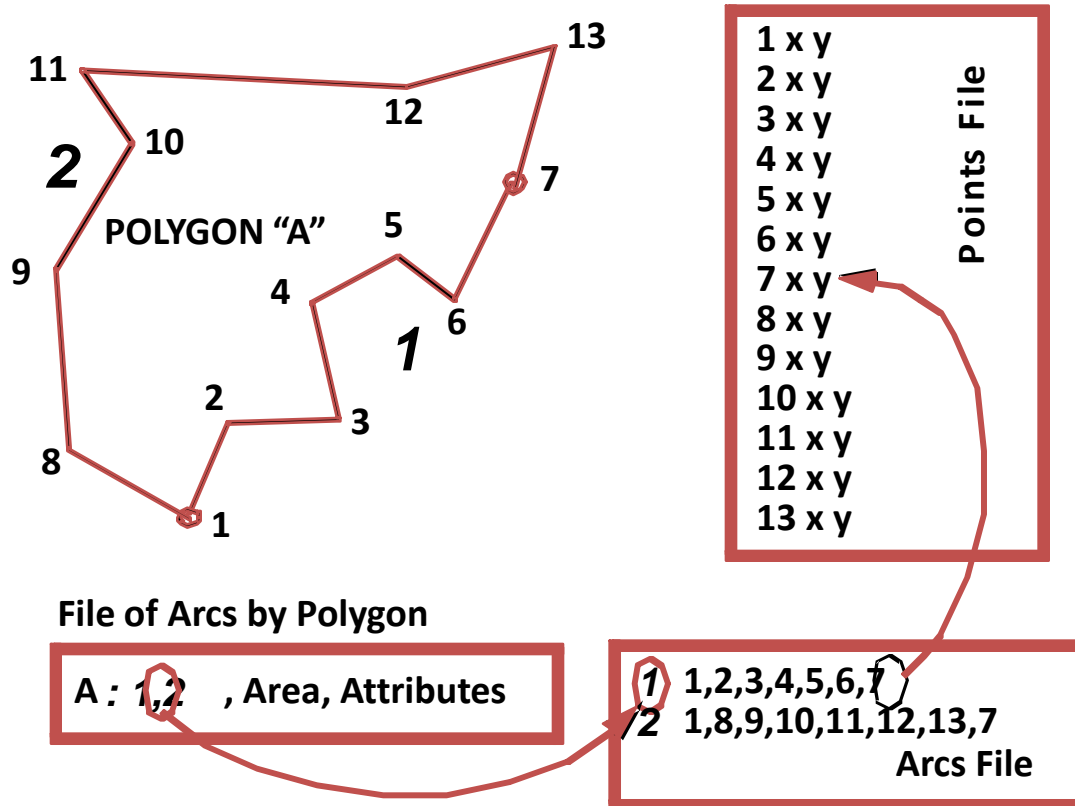
- simple
- easy to manage
- no topology
- lots of duplication, hence need for large storage space
- very often used in CAC (computer assisted cartography)



TOPOLOGY

- topological data structures dominate GIS software.
- The branch of geometrical mathematics which is concerned with order, contiguity and relative position, rather than the actual linear dimensions. the description how spatial features are connected to each other.
- stored explicitly
- allows automated error detection and elimination.
- rarely are maps topologically clean when digitized or imported.
- GIS has to be able to build topology from unconnected arcs.

TOPOLOGY

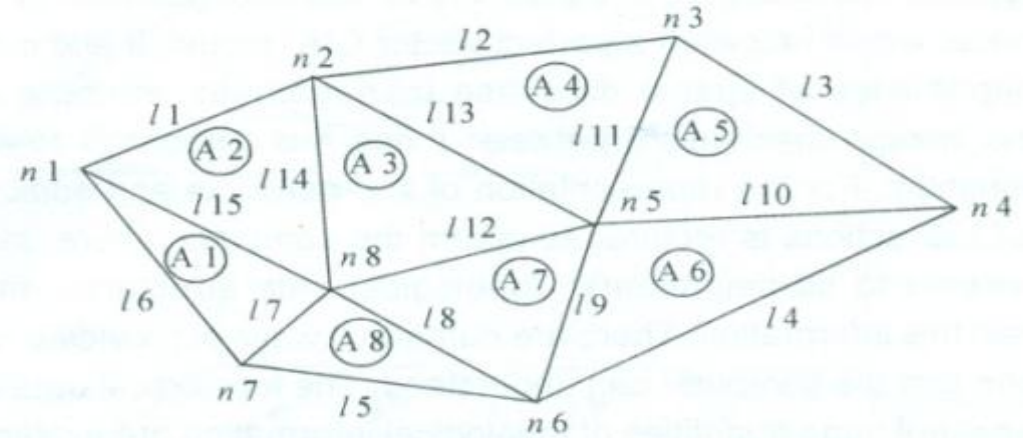


Arc/Node Map Data Structure with Files.

TOPOLOGY

- relationship between nodes, arcs and polygons.
- topologically structured database for ease of retrieval and implementation of spatial-relational operations.
- advantages:
 - simple, elegant and efficient
 - relational database construction and analysis
 - complete topology makes map overlay feasible.
 - topology allows many GIS operations to be done without accessing the point files.

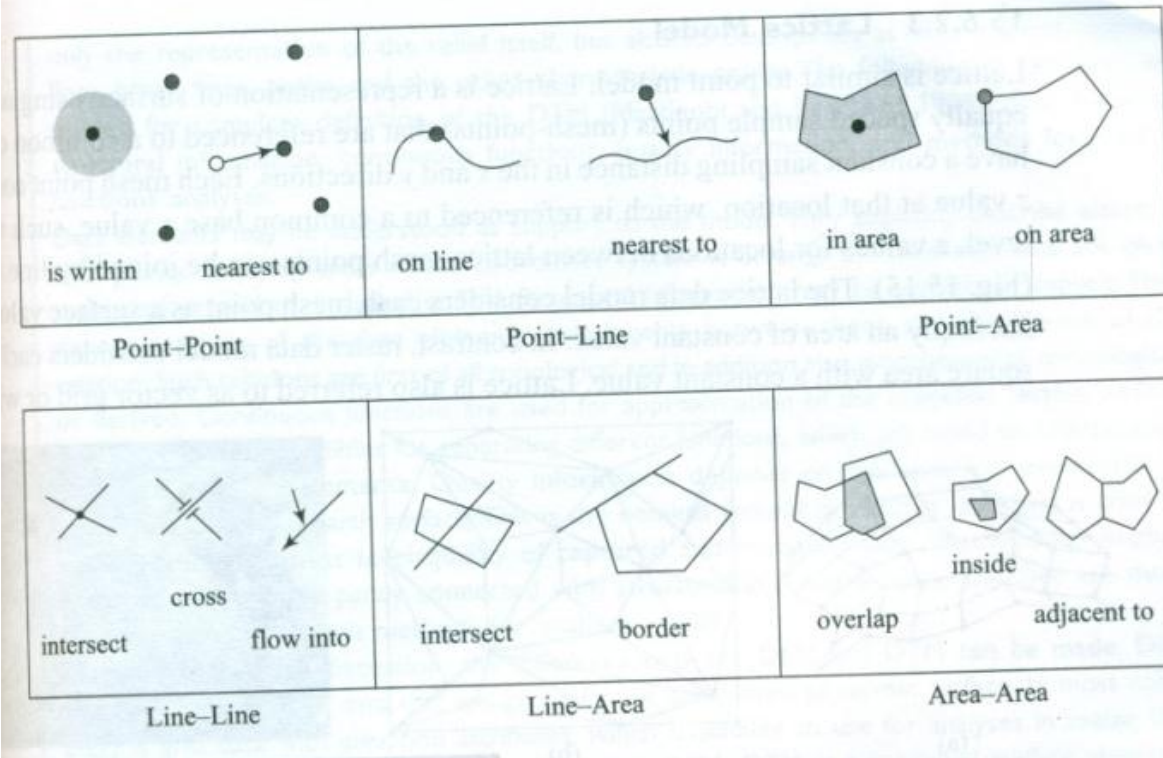
Topological vector model



Link no	Left node	Right node	Left polygon	Right polygon	Link no	Left node	Right node	Left polygon	Right polygon
l1	n1	n2	0	A2	l9	n5	n6	A7	A6
l2	n2	n3	0	A4	l10	n5	n4	A5	A6
l3	n3	n4	0	A5	l11	n3	n5	A4	A5
l4	n6	n4	A6	0	l12	n8	n5	A3	A7
l5	n7	n6	A8	0	l13	n2	n5	A3	A4
l6	n1	n7	A1	0	l14	n2	n8	A2	A3
l7	n7	n8	A1	A8					
l8	n8	n6	A7	A8					

SPATIAL DATA BASE OF TOPOLOGICAL DATA

Topological relationship



Point –point relationship

Is within: within a certain distance

Is nearest :nearest to a certain point

Point-line relationship

Online-a point on a line

Is nearest to: a point nearest to line

Point area relationship:

Is contained in: a point in an area

On border of area : a point on border of an area

Line –line relationship

Intersects: to line intersects

Crosses (under pass/over pass at a road junction)

Line area –relationship

Intersects: a line intersects an area

Borders: a line is a part of border of an area

Area –area relationship

Overlaps

Is within

is adjacent

VECTOR DATABASE CREATION

- database creation involves several stages:
 - input of the spatial data
 - input of the attribute data
 - linking spatial and attribute data
- spatial data is entered via digitized points and lines, scanned and vectorized lines or directly from other digital sources
- once the spatial data has been entered, much work is still needed before it can be used

VECTOR DATABASE CREATION

Building Topology

- once points are entered and geometric lines are created, topology must be "built"
- this involves calculating and encoding relationships between the points, lines and areas
- this information may be automatically coded into tables of information in the database
- Editing
- during topology generation process, problems such as overshoots, undershoots and spikes are either flagged for editing by the user or corrected automatically
- automatic editing involves the use of a tolerance value which defines the width of a buffer zone around objects within which adjacent objects should be joined

VECTOR DATA MODELS

Advantages

- good representation of structures (points, lines, polygons)
- compact and more efficient
- topology can be completely described
- accurate graphics
- retrieval, updating and generalization of graphics and attributes possible
- work well with pen and light-plotting devices and tablet digitizers.

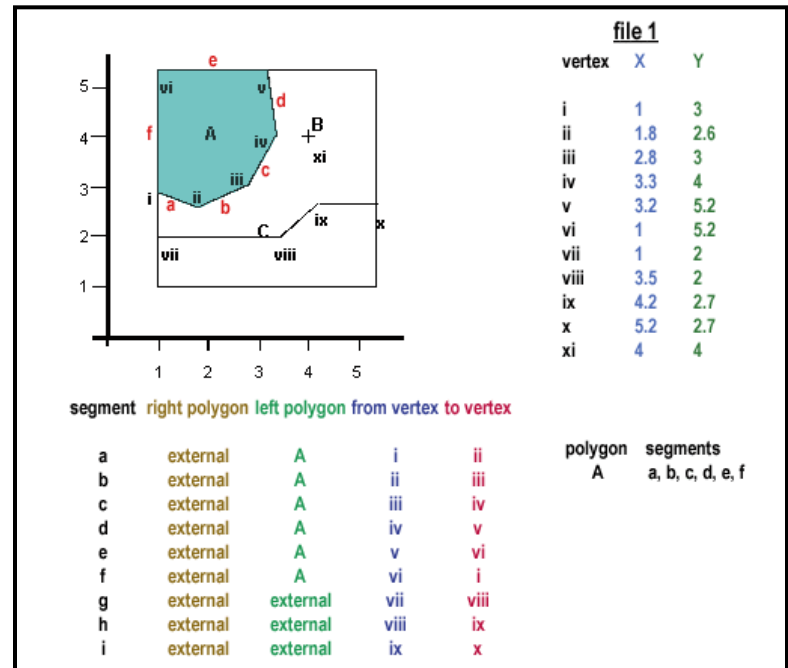
Disadvantages

- complex data structures
- combination of several vector polygon maps or polygon and raster maps through overlay creates difficulties
- simulation is difficult
- display and plotting can be expensive
- not good at continuous coverage or plotters that fill areas.
- TIN must be used to represent volumes.

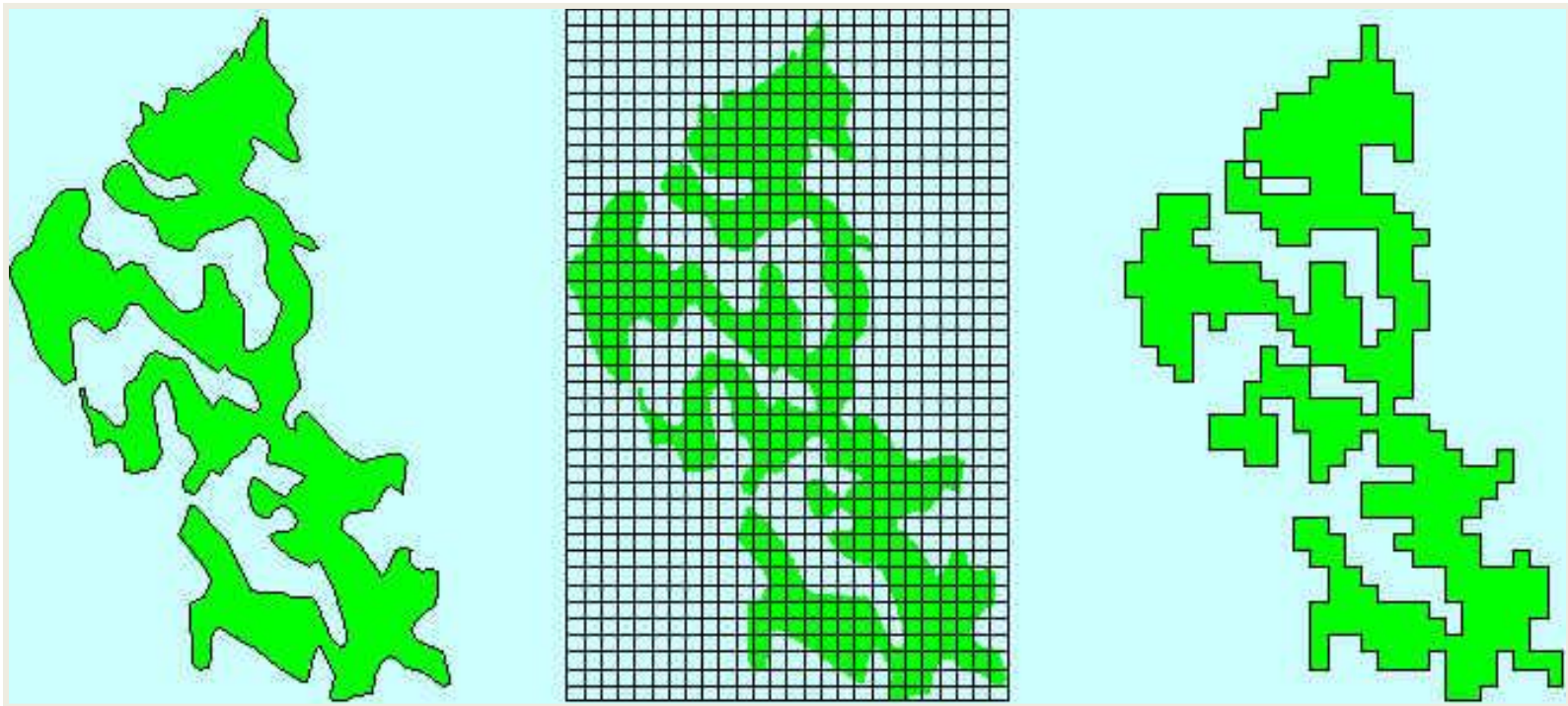
VECTOR DATA MODELS

Dual Independent Map Encoding (DIME)

- developed by US Bureau of the Census
- nodes (intersections of lines) are identified with codes
- assigns a directional code in the form of a "from node" and a "to node"
- both street addresses and UTM coordinates are explicitly defined for each link

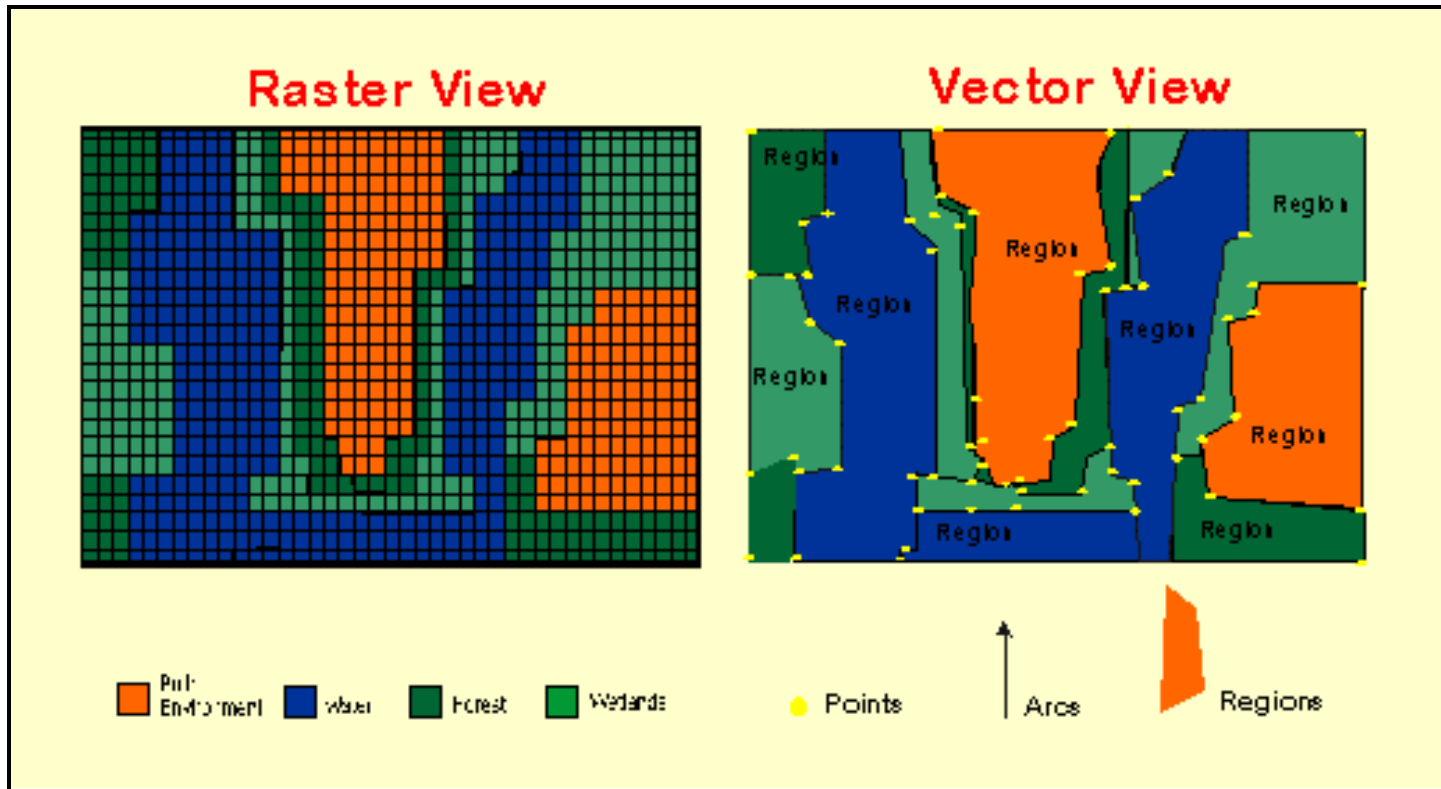


VECTOR TO RASTER EXCHANGE



- data exchange by translation (export and import) can lead to significant errors in attributes and in geometry.
- efficient data exchange is important for the future of GIS.

VECTOR TO RASTER EXCHANGE



Comparison of raster and vector data model

Raster model

Advantages

- 1.It is simple data structure
- 2.Overlay operations are easily and efficiently implemented
- 3.High spatial variability is efficiently represented in raster format
- 4.The raster format is more or less required for efficient manipulation and enhancement of digital images

Dis advantges

- 1.The raster data structure is less compact
- 2.Topological relationships are more difficult to present
- 3.The output of the graphics is less aesthetically pleasing because boundaries tend to have a blocky appearance rather than the smooth lines drawn maps.

Vector model

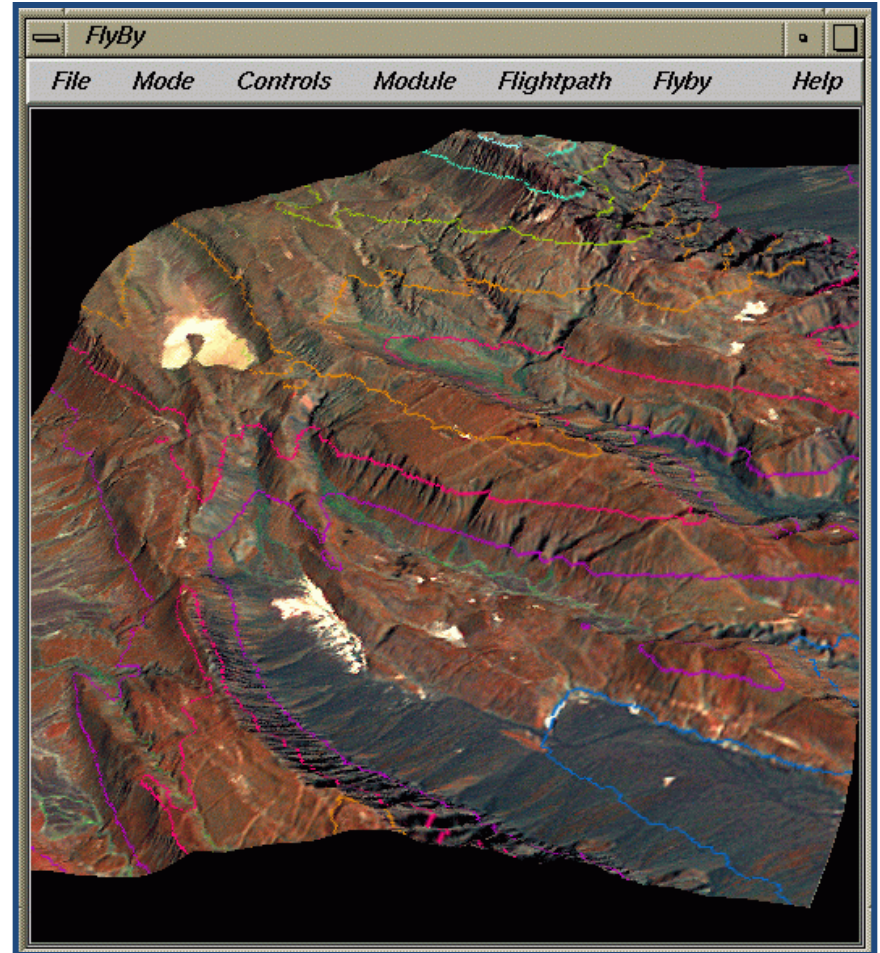
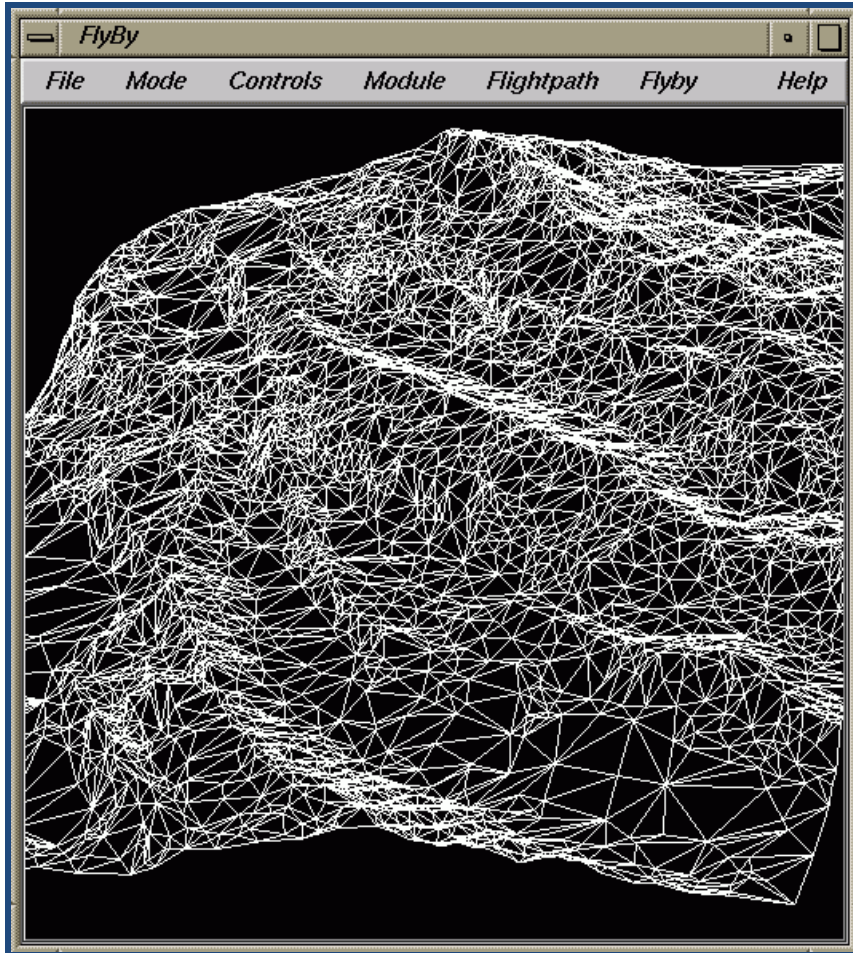
Advantges

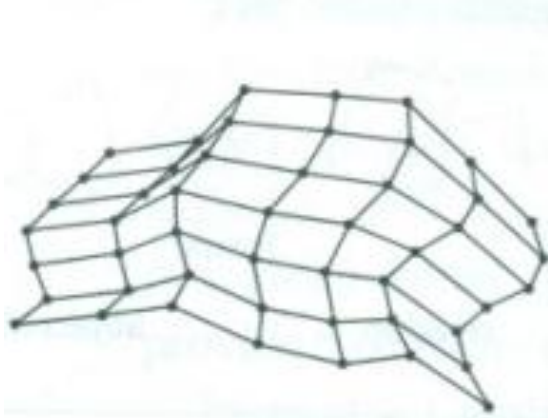
- 1.It provides a compact data structure
- 2.It provides efficient encoding of topology and as a result more efficient implementation of operations that require topological information such as network analysis.
- 3.The vector model is better suited to supporting graphics that closely approximate hand drawn maps.

Dis advantges

1. It is more complex data than a simpler raster
2. Overlay operation
3. The representation of high spatial variability is insufficient
4. Manipulation and enhancement of the digital images ca not be effectively done in the vector domain.

ADVANCED DATA MODELS - TIN





(a)



(b)

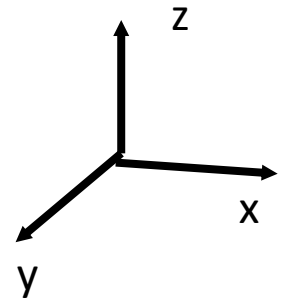


(c)

Fig. 15.15 3D representation of lattice (left), TIN (middle), and 3D representation of TIN surface (right)

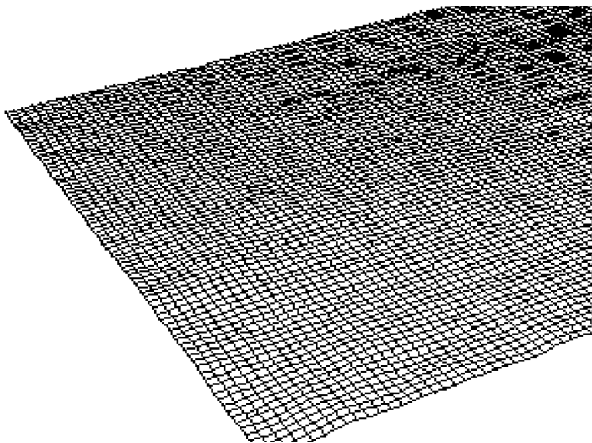
Overview: Representing Surfaces

- Surfaces involve a third elevation value (z) in addition to the x, y horizontal values
- Surfaces are complex to represent since there are an infinite number of potential points to model
- Three (or four) alternative ***digital terrain model*** approaches available
 - Raster-based *digital elevation model*
 - Regular spaced set of elevation points (z -values)
 - Vector based *triangulated irregular networks*
 - Irregular triangles with elevations at the three corners
 - Vector-based *contour lines*
 - Lines joining points of equal elevation, at a specified interval
 - *Massed points and breaklines*
 - The raw data from which one of the other three is derived
 - *Massed points*: Any set of regular or irregularly spaced point elevations
 - *Breaklines*: point elevations along a line of significant change in slope (valley floor, ridge crest)



Digital Elevation Model

- a sampled array of elevations (z) that are at regularly spaced intervals in the x and y directions.
- two approaches for determining the surface z value of a location between sample points.
 - In a **lattice**, each mesh point represents a value on the surface only at the center of the grid cell. The z -value is approximated by interpolation between adjacent sample points; it does not imply an area of constant value.
 - A **surface grid** considers each sample as a square cell with a constant surface value.



Advantages

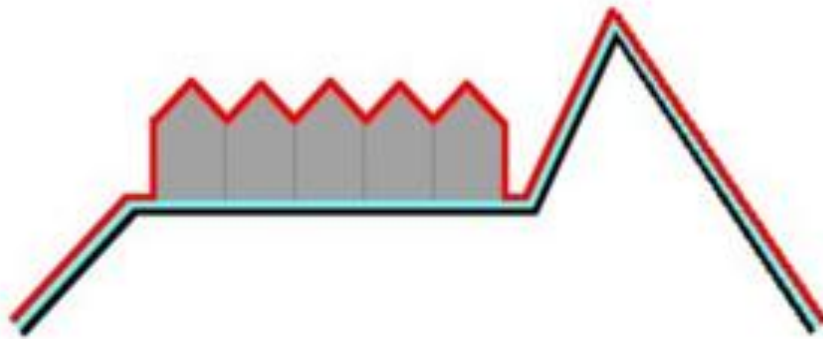
- Simple conceptual model
- Data cheap to obtain
- Easy to relate to other raster data
- Irregularly spaced set of points can be converted to regular spacing by interpolation

Disadvantages

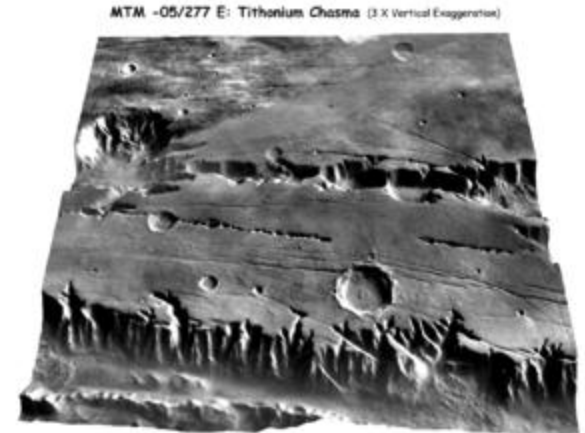
- Does not conform to variability of the terrain
- Linear features not well represented

Difference between DEM,DTM and DSM

A **digital elevation model** is a digital model or 3D representation of a terrain's surface — commonly for a planet (including Earth), moon, or asteroid — created from terrain [elevation](#) data.



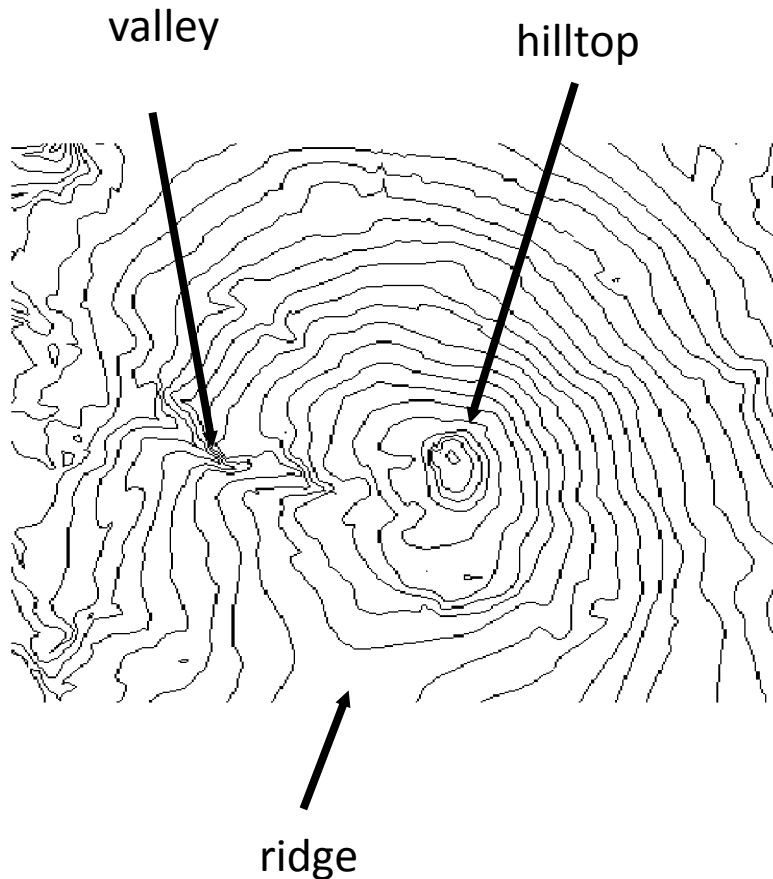
	Digital Surface Model
	Digital Terrain Model



DSM = (earth) surface including objects on it
DTM = (earth) surface without any objects

Contour (isolines) Lines

Contour lines, or isolines, of constant elevation at a specified interval,



Advantages

- Familiar to many people
- Easy to obtain mental picture of surface
 - Close lines = steep slope
 - Uphill V = stream
 - Downhill V or bulge = ridge
 - Circle = hill top or basin

Disadvantages

- Poor for computer representation: no formal digital model
- Must convert to raster or TIN for analysis
- Contour generation from point data requires sophisticated interpolation routines, often with specialized software such as *Surfer* from Golden Software, Inc., or ArcGIS Spatial Analyst extension

GIS Data Structures

From the 2-D Map to 1-D Computer Files

Representing Geographic Features:

review from opening lecture

How do we describe geographical features?

- by recognizing two *types of data*:
 - **Spatial data** which describes location (where)
 - **Attribute data** which specifies characteristics at that location (what, how much, and when)

How do we represent these digitally in a GIS?

- by grouping into *layers* based on similar characteristics (e.g hydrography, elevation, water lines, sewer lines, grocery sales) and using either:
 - **vector** data model (*coverage* in ARC/INFO, *shapefile* in ArcView)
 - **raster** data model (*GRID or Image* in ARC/INFO & ArcView)
- by selecting appropriate *data properties* for each layer with respect to:
 - **projection, scale, accuracy, and resolution**

How do we incorporate into a computer application system?

- by using a relational Data Base Management System (DBMS)

We introduced these concepts in the opening lecture. We will deal with them in more detail next lecture (except for data properties which will be dealt with under Data Quality).

GIS Data Structures: *Topics Overview*

- **Spatial data types and Attribute data types**
- **Relational database management systems (RDBMS): basic concepts**
 - DBMS and Tables
 - Relational DBMS
- **raster data structures: *represents geography via grid cells***
 - tessellations
 - run length compression
 - quad tree representation
 - BSQ/BIP/BIL
 - DBMS representation
 - File formats
- **vector data structures: *represents geography via coordinates***
 - whole polygon
 - point and polygon
 - node/arc/polygon
 - Tins
 - File formats

Spatial Data Types

- *continuous*: elevation, rainfall, ocean salinity
- *areas*:
 - *unbounded*: landuse, market areas, soils, rock type
 - *bounded*: city/county/state boundaries, ownership parcels, zoning
 - *moving*: air masses, animal herds, schools of fish
- *networks*: roads, transmission lines, streams
- *points*:
 - *fixed*: wells, street lamps, addresses
 - *moving*: cars, fish, deer

Data Base Management Systems (DBMS)

entity →

Parcel Table			
Parcel #	Address	Block	\$ Value
8	501 N Hi	1	105,450
9	590 N Hi	2	89,780
36	1001 W. Main	4	101,500
75	1175 W. 1st	12	98,000

↑ Key field ↑ Attribute

Contain **Tables** or ***feature classes*** in which:

- ***rows***: entities, records, observations, features:
 - ‘all’ information about one occurrence of a feature
- ***columns***: attributes, fields, data elements, variables, items (ArcInfo)
 - one type of information for all features

The ***key field*** is an attribute whose values uniquely identify each row

GIS Data Models:

Raster v. Vector

“raster is faster but vector is corrector” Joseph Berry

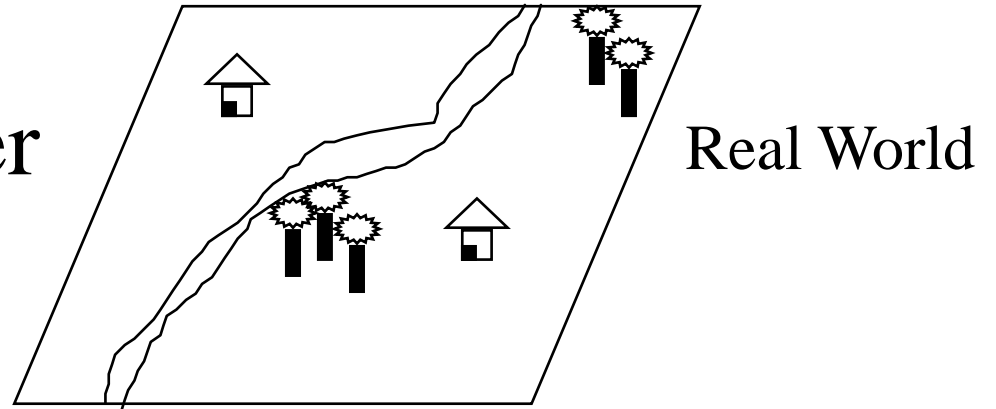
- **Raster data model**

- location is referenced by a grid cell in a rectangular array (matrix)
- attribute is represented as a single value for that cell
- much data comes in this form
 - images from remote sensing (LANDSAT, SPOT)
 - scanned maps
 - elevation data from USGS
- best for continuous features:
 - elevation
 - temperature
 - soil type
 - land use

- **Vector data model**

- location referenced by x,y coordinates, which can be linked to form lines and polygons
- attributes referenced through unique ID number to tables
- much data comes in this form
 - DIME and TIGER files from US Census
 - DLG from USGS for streams, roads, etc
 - census data (tabular)
- best for features with discrete boundaries
 - property lines
 - political boundaries
 - transportation

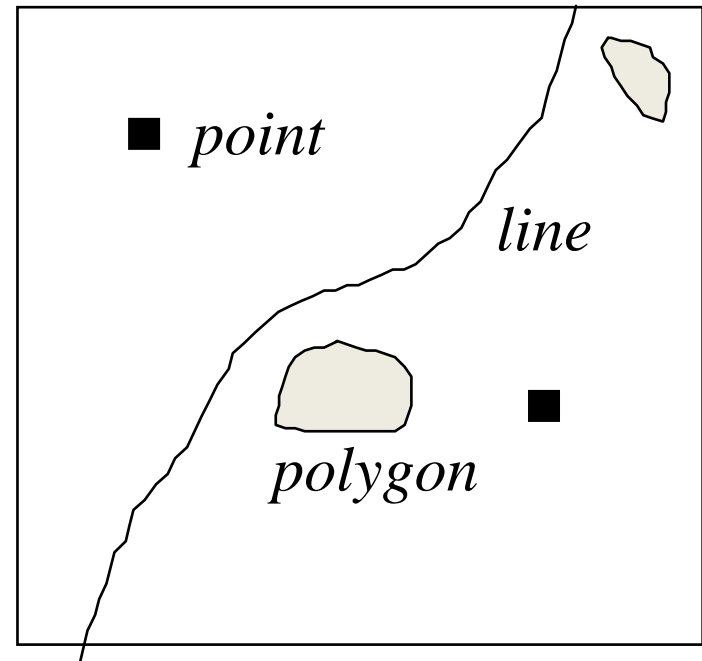
Concept of Vector and Raster



Raster Representation

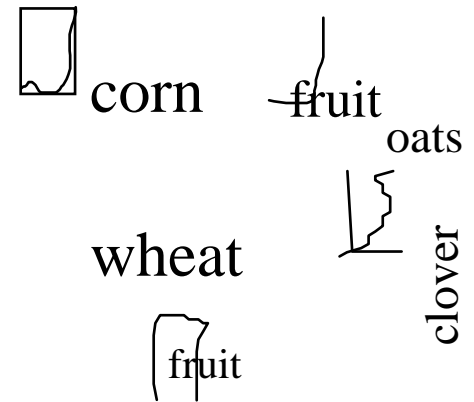
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0							R	T		
1						R			T	
2		H				R				
3						R				
4				R	R					
5			R							
6		R		T	T		H			
7		R		T	T					
8	R									
9	R									

Vector Representation



Representing Data using *Raster* Model

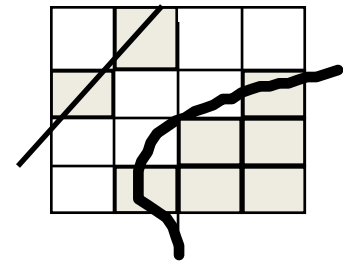
- area is covered by grid with (usually) equal-sized cells
- location of each cell calculated from origin of grid:
 - “two down, three over”
- cells often called *pixels* (picture elements); raster data often called *image* data
- attributes are recorded by assigning each cell a single value based on the majority feature (attribute) in the cell, such as land use type.
- easy to do overlays/analyses, just by ‘combining’ corresponding cell values: “*yield= rainfall + fertilizer*” (why raster is faster, at least for some things)
- simple data structure:
 - directly store each layer as a single table (basically, each is analagous to a “spreadsheet”)
 - computer data base management system not required (although many raster GIS systems incorporate them)



	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	1	1	1	1	1	4	4	5	5	5
1	1	1	1	1	1	4	4	5	5	5
2	1	1	1	1	1	4	4	5	5	5
3	1	1	1	1	1	4	4	5	5	5
4	1	1	1	1	1	4	4	5	5	5
5	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
6	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
7	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
8	2	2	4	4	2	2	2	3	3	3
9	2	2	4	4	2	2	2	3	3	3

Raster Data Structures: *Concepts*

- grid often has its origin in the upper left but note:
 - State Plane and UTM, lower left
 - lat/long & cartesian, center
- single values associated with each cell
 - typically 8 bits assigned to values therefore 256 possible values (0-255)
- rules needed to assign value to cell if object does not cover entire cell
 - majority of the area (for continuous coverage feature)
 - value at cell center
 - ‘touches’ cell (for linear feature such as road)
 - weighting to ensure rare features represented



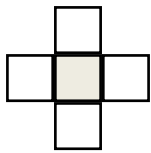
- choose raster cell size $1/2$ the length ($1/4$ the area) of smallest feature to map (smallest feature called minimum mapping unit or resel--**resolution element**)
- *raster orientation*: angle between true north and direction defined by raster columns
- *class*: set of cells with same value (e.g. type=sandy soil)
- *zone*: set of *contiguous* cells with same value
- *neighborhood*: set of cells adjacent to a target cell in some systematic manner

Raster Data Structures: *Tesselations*

(Geometrical arrangements that completely cover a surface.)

- **Square grid:** equal length sides

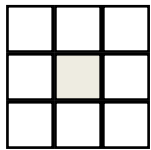
- conceptually simplest
- cells can be recursively divided into cells of same shape



- 4-connected neighborhood (above, below, left, right) (*rook's case*)

- all neighboring cells are equidistant

- 8-connected neighborhood (also include diagonals) (*queen's case*)



- all neighboring cells **not** equidistant
- center of cells on diagonal is 1.41 units away (square root of 2)

- **rectangular**

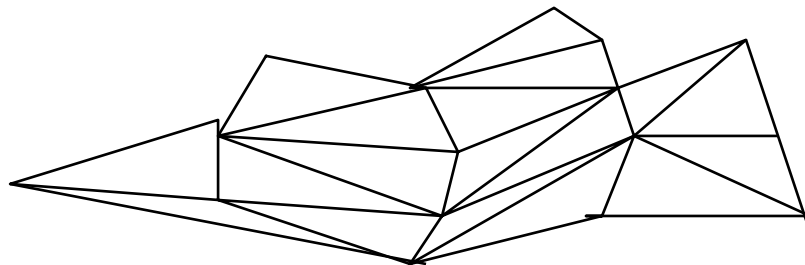
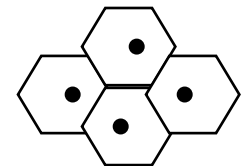
- commonly occurs for lat/long when projected
- data collected at 1 degree by 1 degree will be varying sized rectangles

- **triangular (3-sided) and hexagonal (6-sided)**

- **all** adjacent cells and points are equidistant

- **triangulated irregular network (tin):**

- *vector* model used to represent continuous surfaces (elevation)
- more later under vector



Raster Data Structures

Runlength Compression (for single layer)

Full Matrix--162 bytes

11111112222222222223

11111112222222222233

111111122222222222333

111111222222222223333

11111333333333333333

11111333333333333333

11111333333333333333

11133333333333333333

11133333333333333333

Run Length (row)--44 bytes

1,7,2,17,3,18

1,7,2,16,3,18

1,7,2,15,3,18

1,6,2,14,3,18

1,5,3,18

1,5,3,18

1,5,3,18

1,3,3,18

1,3,3,18

This is a “*lossless*”
compression, as
opposed to “*lossy*,”
since the original data
can be exactly
reproduced.

Now, GIS packages generally rely on commercial compression routines. **Pkzip** is the most common, general purpose routine. **MrSid** (from Lizard Technology) and **ECW** (from ER Mapper) are used for images. All these essentially use the same concept. Occasionally, data is still delivered to you in run-length compression, especially in remote sensing applications.

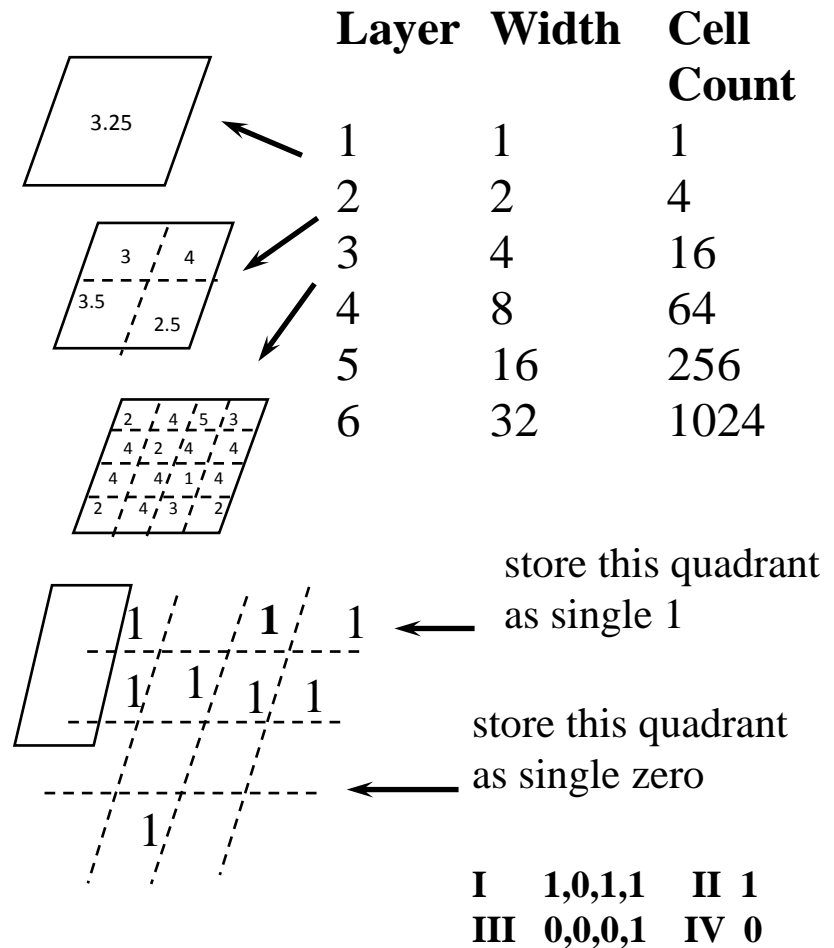
“Value thru column” coding.
1st number is value, 2nd is
last column with that value.

Raster Data Structures

Quad Tree Representation (for single layer)

Essentially involves compression applied to both row and column.

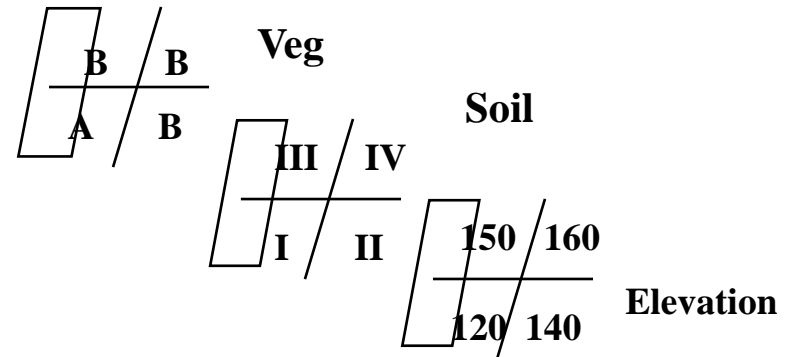
- sides of square grid divided evenly on a recursive basis
 - length decreases by half
 - # of areas increases fourfold
 - area decreases by one fourth
- *Resample* by combining (e.g. average) the four cell values
 - although storage increases if save all samples, can save processing costs if some operations don't need high resolution
- for nominal or binary data can save storage by using *maximum block representation*
 - all blocks with same value at any one level in tree can be stored as single value



Raster Data Structures:

Raster Array Representations for multiple layers

- raster data comprises rows and columns, by one or more characteristics or arrays
 - elevation, rainfall, & temperature; or multiple spectral channels (bands) for remote sensed data
 - how organise into a one dimensional data stream for computer storage & processing?
- Band Sequential (BSQ)
 - each characteristic in a separate file
 - elevation file, temperature file, etc.
 - good for compression
 - good if focus on one characteristic
 - bad if focus on one area
- Band Interleaved by Pixel (BIP)
 - all measurements for a pixel grouped together
 - good if focus on multiple characteristics of geographical area
 - bad if want to remove or add a layer
- Band Interleaved by Line (BIL)
 - rows follow each other for each characteristic



Note that we start in lower left.

Upper left is alternative.

File 1: Veg A,B,B,B

File 2: Soil I,II,III,IV

File 3: El. 120,140,150,160

A,I,120, B,II,140 B,III,150 B,IV,160

A,B,I,II,120,140 B,B,III,IV,150,160

Raster Data Structures

Database Representation

- raw data may come in BSQ, BIP, BIL but not good for efficient for GIS processing
- Can be represented as standard data base table
- joins based on ID as the key field can be used to relate variables in different tables

ID	Row	Col	Var1	Var2	Var3
1	1	1	b	III	150
2	2	1	a	I	120
3	1	2	b	IV	160
4	2	2	b	II	140

File Formats for Raster Spatial Data

The generic raster data model is actually implemented in several different computer file formats:

- **GRID** is ESRI's proprietary format for storing and processing raster data
- Standard industry formats for image data such as **JPEG**, **TIFF** and **MrSid** formats can be used to display raster data, but not for analysis (must convert to GRID)
- *Georeferencing* information required to display images with mapped vector data (will be discussed later in course)
 - Requires an accompanying “world” file which provides locational information

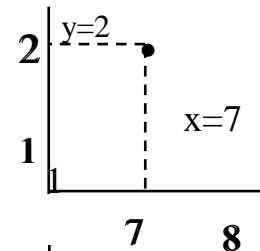
<i>Image</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>mage File</i>	<i>World File</i>
TIFF		image.tif	image.tfw
Bitmap		image.bmp	image.bpw
BIL		image.bil	image.blw
JPEG		image.jpg	image.jpw

Although not commonly encountered, a “geotiff” is a single file which incorporates both the image and the “world” information in a single file.

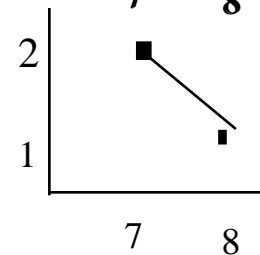
Vector Data Model

Representing Data using the *Vector Model*: *formal application*

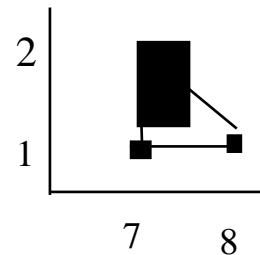
- point (node): 0-dimension
 - single x,y coordinate pair
 - zero area
 - tree, oil well, label location
- line (arc): 1-dimension
 - two (or more) connected x,y coordinates
 - road, stream
- polygon : 2-dimensions
 - four or more ordered and connected x,y coordinates
 - first and last x,y pairs are the same
 - encloses an area
 - census tracts, county, lake



Point: 7,2



Line: 7,2 8,1



Polygon: 7,2 8,1 7,1 7,2

Vector Data Structures:

Whole Polygon

Whole Polygon (boundary structure): polygons described by listing *coordinates* of points in order as you 'walk around' the outside boundary of the polygon.

- all data stored in one file
 - could also store--inefficiently--attribute data for polygon in same file
- coordinates/borders for adjacent polygons stored twice;
 - may not be same, resulting in slivers (gaps), or overlap
 - how assure that both updated?
- all lines are 'double' (except for those on the outside periphery)
- no topological information about polygons
 - which are adjacent and have common boundary?
 - how relate different geographies? e.g. zip codes and tracts?
- used by the first computer mapping program, SYMAP, in late '60s
- adopted by SAS/GRAPH and many business thematic mapping programs.

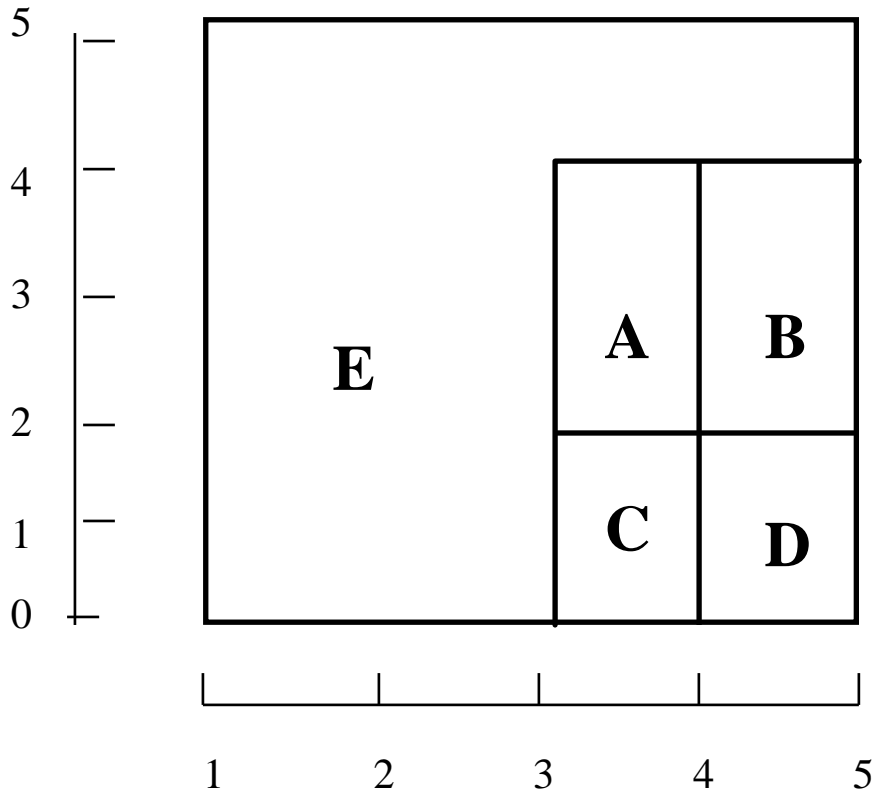
Topology --knowledge about relative spatial positioning

--managing data cognizant of shared geometry

Topography

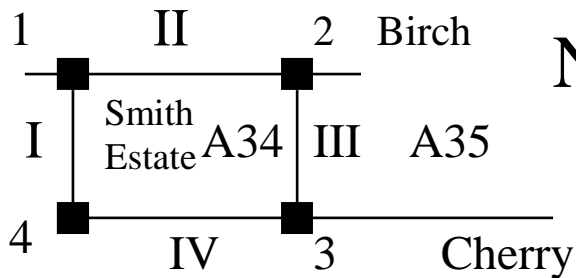
--the form of the land surface, in particular, its elevation

Whole Polygon: *illustration*



Data File

A 3 4	C 3 0
A 4 4	C 3 2
A 4 2	D 4 2
A 3 2	D 5 2
A 3 4	D 5 0
B 4 4	D 4 0
B 5 4	D 4 2
B 5 2	E 1 5
B 4 2	E 5 5
B 4 4	E 5 4
C 3 2	E 3 4
C 4 2	E 3 0
C 4 0	E 1 0
	E 1 5



Node/Arc/ Polygon and Attribute Data

Relational Representation: DBMS required!

Spatial Data

Node Table		
Node ID	Easting	Northing
1	126.5	578.1
2	218.6	581.9
3	224.2	470.4
4	129.1	471.9

Arc Table				
Arc ID	From N	To N	L Poly	R Poly
I	4	1		A34
II	1	2		A34
III	2	3	A35	A34
IV	3	4		A34

Polygon Table	
Polygon ID	Arc List
A34	I, II, III, IV
A35	III, VI, VII, XI

Attribute Data

Node Feature Attribute Table			
Node ID	Control	Crosswalk	ADA?
1	light	yes	yes
2	stop	no	no
3	yield	no	no
4	none	yes	no

Arc Feature Attribute Table				
Arc ID	Length	Condition	Lanes	Name
I	106	good	4	
II	92	poor	4	Birch
III	111	fair	2	
IV	95	fair	2	Cherry

Polygon Feature Attribute Table		
Polygon ID	Owner	Address
A34	J. Smith	500 Birch
A35	R. White	200 Main

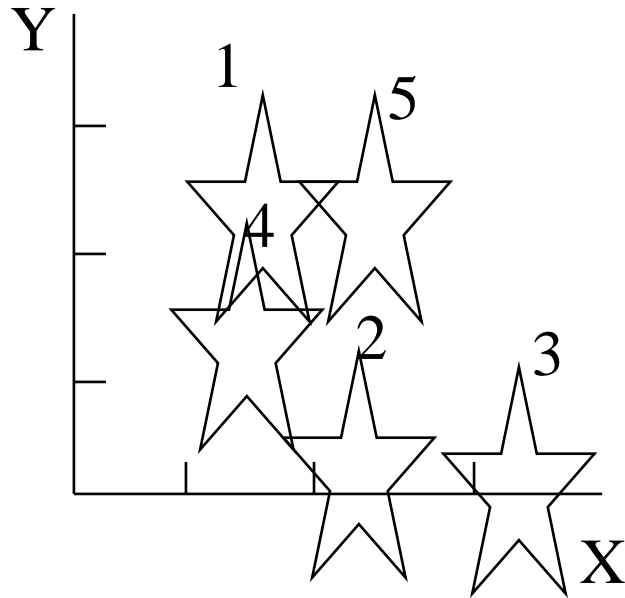
Representing Point Data using the *Vector Model*: *data implementation*

- Features in the theme (coverage) have unique identifiers--point ID, polygon ID, arc ID, etc

- common identifiers provide link to:

- coordinates table (for ‘where’)

- attributes table (for what)



Coordinates Table		
Point ID	x	y
1	1	3
2	2	1
3	4	1
4	1	2
5	3	2

Attributes Table		
Point ID	model	year
1	a	90
2	b	90
3	b	80
4	a	70
5	c	70

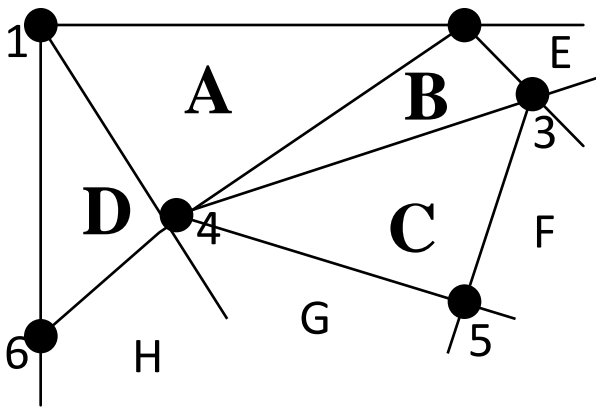
- Again, concepts are those of a relational data base, which is really a prerequisite for the vector model

TIN: Triangulated Irregular Network Surface

Points

Node #	X	Y	Z
1	0	999	1456
2	525	1437	1437
3	631	886	1423
etc			

Elevation points (nodes) chosen based on relief complexity, and then their 3-D location (x,y,z) determined.



Polygons

Polygon	Node #s	Topology
A	1,2,4	B,D
B	2,3,4	A,E,C
C	3,4,5	B,F,G
D	1,4,6	A,H
etc		

Elevation points connected to form a set of triangular polygons; these then represented in a vector structure.

Attribute Info. Database

Polygons	Var 1	Var 2
A	1473	15
B	1490	100
C	1533	150
D	1486	270
etc.		

Attribute data associated via relational DBMS (e.g. slope, aspect, soils, etc.)

Advantages over raster:

- fewer points
- captures discontinuities (e.g ridges)
- slope and aspect easily recorded

Disadvans.: Relating to other polygons for map overlay is compute intensive (many polygons)

File Formats for Vector Spatial Data

Generic models above are implemented by software vendors in specific computer file formats

Coverage: vector data format introduced with *ArcInfo in 1981*

- multiple physical files (12 or so) in a folder
- proprietary: no published specs & ArcInfo required for changes

Shape 'file': vector data format introduced with *ArcView in 1993*

- comprises several (at least 3) physical disk files (with extension of .shp, .shx, .dbf), all of which must be present
- openly published specs so other vendors can create shape files

Geodatabase: new format introduced with ArcGIS 8.0 in 2000

- Multiple layers saved in a single .mdb (MS Access-like) file
- Proprietary, “next generation” spatial data file format

Shapefiles are the simplest and most commonly used format and will generally be used in the class exercises.



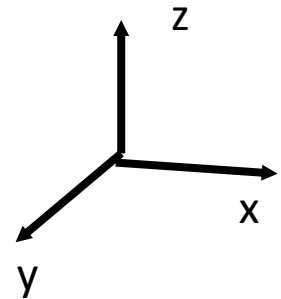
Tongariro National Park
North Island
New Zealand

Representing Surfaces



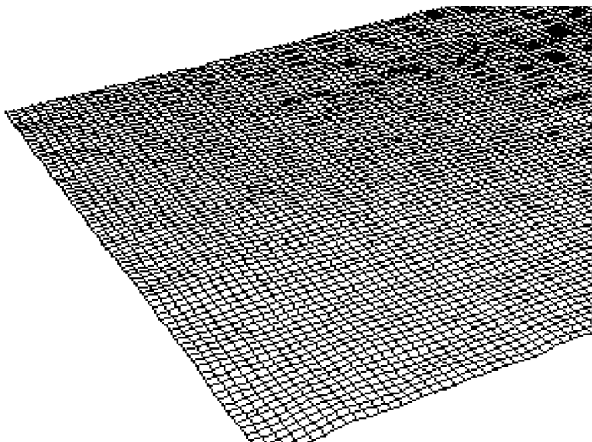
Overview: Representing Surfaces

- Surfaces involve a third elevation value (z) in addition to the x, y horizontal values
- Surfaces are complex to represent since there are an infinite number of potential points to model
- Three (or four) alternative ***digital terrain model*** approaches available
 - Raster-based *digital elevation model*
 - Regular spaced set of elevation points (z -values)
 - Vector based *triangulated irregular networks*
 - Irregular triangles with elevations at the three corners
 - Vector-based *contour lines*
 - Lines joining points of equal elevation, at a specified interval
 - *Massed points and breaklines*
 - The raw data from which one of the other three is derived
 - *Massed points*: Any set of regular or irregularly spaced point elevations
 - *Breaklines*: point elevations along a line of significant change in slope (valley floor, ridge crest)



Digital Elevation Model

- a sampled array of elevations (z) that are at regularly spaced intervals in the x and y directions.
- two approaches for determining the surface z value of a location between sample points.
 - In a **lattice**, each mesh point represents a value on the surface only at the center of the grid cell. The z -value is approximated by interpolation between adjacent sample points; it does not imply an area of constant value.
 - A **surface grid** considers each sample as a square cell with a constant surface value.



Advantages

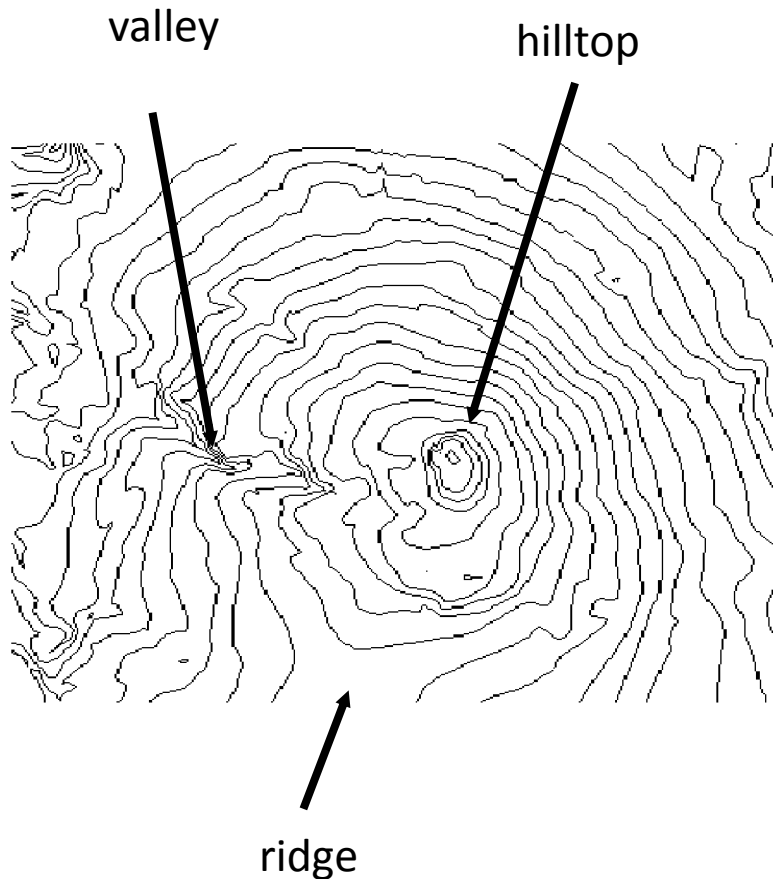
- Simple conceptual model
- Data cheap to obtain
- Easy to relate to other raster data
- Irregularly spaced set of points can be converted to regular spacing by interpolation

Disadvantages

- Does not conform to variability of the terrain
- Linear features not well represented

Contour (isolines) Lines

Contour lines, or isolines, of constant elevation at a specified interval,



Advantages

- Familiar to many people
- Easy to obtain mental picture of surface
 - Close lines = steep slope
 - Uphill V = stream
 - Downhill V or bulge = ridge
 - Circle = hill top or basin

Disadvantages

- Poor for computer representation: no formal digital model
- Must convert to raster or TIN for analysis
- Contour generation from point data requires sophisticated interpolation routines, often with specialized software such as *Surfer* from Golden Software, Inc., or ArcGIS Spatial Analyst extension

Common GIS & CAD File Formats

- **ESRI**

- Coverages (vector--proprietary)
- E00 (“E-zero-zero”) for coverage exchange between ESRI users
- Shapefiles (vector--published) .shp
- Geodatabase (proprietary) .gdb
 - Based on current object-oriented software technology
- GRID (raster)

- **AutoCAD**

- AutoCAD .DWG (native)
- AutoCAD .DXF for digital file exchange

- **Intergraph/Bentley**

- Bentley MicroStation .DGN
- Intergraph/Bentley .MGE

- **Spatial Data Transfer Standard (SDTS)**

- US federal standard for transfer of data
- Federal agencies legally required to conform
- embraces the philosophy of self-contained transfers, i.e. spatial data, attribute, georeferencing, data quality report, data dictionary, and other supporting metadata all included
- Not widely adopted ‘cos of competitive pressures, and complexity and perceived disutility derived from philosophy

ESRI Vector File Formats: “Georelational”

Shape ‘file’: native GIS data structure for a vector layer in *ArcView*

- not fully topological
 - limited info about relationship of features one to another
 - draw faster
 - not as good for some fancy spatial analyses
- is a ‘logical’ file which comprises several (at least 3) physical disk files, all of which must be present for AV to read the theme
 - layer.shp (geometric shape described by XY coords)
 - layer.shx (indices to improve performance)
 - layer.dbf (contains associated attribute data)
 - layer.sbn layer.sbx
- not really a database, although ArcView presents files to user via relational concepts
- openly published specs so other vendors can develop shape files and read them

Coverage: native GIS data structure for a vector layer in *ArcInfo*

- fully topological
 - better suited for large data sets
 - better suited for fancy spatial analyses
- comprises multiple physical files (12 or so) per coverage
 - each coverage saved in a separate folder named same as the coverage
 - physical file set differs depending on type of coverage (point, line, polygon).
 - coverage folders stored in a “workspace” directory with an *info* folder for tracking
 - attribute tables stored there also
- ARC/INFO required to make changes
- proprietary: no published specs.

E00 Export Files: format for export of coverages to other ESRI users

- IMPORT71 utility in ArcView Start Menu can read E00 files and convert them back to coverages
- Must convert to *shapefile* or *AutoCAD .dxf* format to transfer to a non-ESRI GIS system

ArcGIS 8 Database Environment

I. Geo-relational Database

- the old “classic” environment
- proprietary coverages in ArcInfo (INFO database)
- published shapefiles in ArcView (dbIV database)
- Based on points, lines, polygon model

II. Geodatabase

- The new term with ArcInfo 8 in 2000
 - Replacement for coverages, and support for
- Simple features:** points, lines polygons
- Complex features:** real world entities modeled as objects with properties, behavior, rules, & relationships
- AV downgrades complex features to simple features

Personal Geodatabase

- Single-user editing
- Stored as one .mdb file (but Access can't read)
- AV 3.2 cannot read (to be “fixed” later)

Multuser Geodatabase

- Supports versioning and long transactions
- Uses ArcSDE 8 as middleware
- Stores in standard db: ORACLE, MS SQL Server, Informix, Sybase, IBM DB2
- AV3.2 can read