

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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A. Jon Kimerling

In this paper "map complexity" refers to the inherent intricacy of a mapped geographic pattern. Map complexity and sample size are two variables shown to influence the accuracy of interpolated dasymetric maps.

An automated experiment was designed to investigate the precise relationship among map complexity, sample size, and the accuracy of dasymetric maps interpolated using Thiessen polygons. The results of the experiment were evaluated through regression analysis. A positive curvilinear relationship between sample size and map accuracy, and an inverse linear relationship between map complexity and map accuracy were observed. Map complexity was the more important variable influencing map accuracy and interaction between the two independent variables was indicated.

A logistic shaped curve is presented summarizing the theoretical relationship between sample size, map complexity, and dasymetric map accuracy.

The Influence of Map Complexity  
on Interpolation Accuracy

by

Brian K. Young

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\_\_\_\_\_  
Professor of Geography in charge of major

Redacted for privacy

\_\_\_\_\_  
Head of Department of Geography

Redacted for privacy

\_\_\_\_\_  
Dean of Graduate School

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Typed by Brian K. Young

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# The Influence of Map Complexity on Interpolation Accuracy

## INTRODUCTION

For many mapping projects it is technically impossible or prohibitively expensive to conduct an exhaustive survey of the phenomenon being mapped. One solution to this problem is to spatially sample the phenomenon and interpolate its distribution based upon the location and quality of these samples. Some amount of error is expected in maps created using the sample-interpolation procedure, and research projects designed to identify or minimize this error are needed.

Developing a technique which enables cartographers to estimate the accuracy of interpolated maps must begin by identifying potential sources of error. The number of samples collected, the sample design, the complexity of the distribution being mapped, and the specific interpolation model used are four factors influencing the accuracy of interpolated maps although others may exist. Here, the term "distribution complexity" refers to the pattern intricacy of a phenomenon's spatial distribution. For example, an area covered by ten soil types and arranged in small disjunct parcels has a more complex distribution than an area of equal size composed of only two soil types in large homogeneous parcels.

Of the four factors listed above, research directed towards how distribution complexity influences map accuracy has not been reported. This paper identifies distribution complexity as one aspect of the evolving map complexity concept which has an important



influence on the accuracy of interpolated dasymetric maps. Because the influence of distribution complexity is affected by other factors, notably sample size, the influences of distribution complexity and sample size are investigated simultaneously.

Throughout this paper the complexity of the distribution being mapped is called "map complexity" in accordance with conventions already established in cartographic literature. The precise relationship between distribution complexity and map complexity is outlined below.

There are three primary research objectives in this project. First, the relationship among map complexity, sample size, and the accuracy of interpolated dasymetric maps is empirically investigated. Clearly, there should be a positive relationship between sample size and map accuracy and an inverse relationship between map complexity and map accuracy. This paper defines these relationships more precisely. Secondly, from data derived in the first research objective, the relative importance of sample size and map complexity is determined through linear multiple regression analysis. Finally, based upon these analyses and speculation, a theoretical curve relating these three variables is presented.

### The Dasymetric Surface

Cartographers find it useful to conceive of a distribution that varies over space as a geographical volume described by a statistical surface (Muehrcke, 1972). Many thematic maps represent a statistical surface wherein the planimetric relations of the theme

are portrayed using the X and Y map dimensions, and the magnitude or Z dimension of the map theme is conveyed through the use of appropriate map symbolism which is designed with an understanding of the psychophysical and cognitive aspects of human perception.

Statistical surfaces may be divided into two types: continuous and discontinuous (Peucker, 1972). Continuous surfaces are conceived as having a continuous change in slope gradient from one point to another, with very few if any vertical slopes. In contrast, discontinuous surfaces are conceived as areas of relative homogeneity separated from one another by very steep or vertical slopes. The three dimensional appearance of a discontinuous surface is step-like, whereas a continuous surface smoothly undulates.

This study was directed specifically towards a qualitative dasymetric surface. All dasymetric surfaces are discontinuous and boundaries between classes represent natural divisions in map theme (Robinson, et al., 1978). Land cover, land use, soils, and geologic formation maps are examples of this type. It is convenient to conceive of qualitative maps as statistical surfaces also. In this case, change in the Z dimension represents qualitative rather than quantitative change and the integers assigned to categories represent class type rather than numerical value.

For this project, it was necessary to distinguish between continuous and discontinuous surfaces because specific interpolation models are suitable for one type or the other and are generally not interchangeable.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

For this study a survey of literature published in cartographic and geographic journals was undertaken with specific objectives in mind. If similar projects had already been completed, then this study should build upon their conclusions and avoid duplicating their effort. Also, a review of interpolation models was necessary for selecting the one most appropriate for use with a qualitative dasymetric surface. Finally, in order to quantitatively investigate the influence of "map complexity" on "map accuracy", it was necessary to know how research cartographers have precisely defined and measured these qualities.

## Morrison's "Method-Produced Error"

An important study identifying which variables are most significant in influencing the accuracy of interpolated maps is Morrison's (1971) paper "Method-Produced Error in Isarithmic Mapping". In this monograph, three variables were identified as influencing isarithmic map accuracy: sample size, sample design, and interpolation model. Morrison used various combinations of sample size, sample design, and interpolation model to generate 84 different interpolated maps from four parent surfaces. The accuracy of each interpolated map was determined through comparison with the parent surface. How well the interpolated map fit the parent surface from which it was generated was measured as "the standard deviation of the residuals that occur at a 100-point square lattice of points within

the study area" (Morrison, 1971).

Morrison used an analysis of variance approach to show that sample design and interpolation model were the most important variables influencing isarithmic map accuracy of those tested. Although the influence of sample size was statistically significant, it was small relative to the other two variables. He concluded that a stratified random sample design was the best of the several he tested and that a double Fourier was the optimal performing interpolation model. Also, to accurately interpolate the surfaces a sample size of between 44 and 100 points was found to be adequate.

The present study departs from Morrison's project in three significant ways. Although he used four parent surfaces of different complexity, Morrison did not investigate how increased complexity influences map accuracy when the other variables are held constant. This aspect is the focus of this paper. Secondly, Morrison used continuous quantitative surfaces while in this paper discontinuous qualitative surfaces are studied exclusively. Thirdly, the present study holds the variables of sample design and interpolation model constant.

### Interpolation Models

Spatial interpolation is the process of inferring a complete surface within a specified boundary from a sample of data points or subareas of known X, Y, and Z dimensions (Lam, 1983). The interpolation is accomplished by using a rule or function which estimates a value  $Z_{est}$  at position  $X_i, Y_i$  based upon the location and

quality or quantity of nearby data points or subareas. The function used to estimate the  $Z_{est}$  values is called an interpolation model.

Fundamental assumptions about the behavior of the surface being interpolated must be made prior to selecting an interpolation model. Deciding whether the surface is continuous or discontinuous is one of the most important assumptions because most interpolation models are surface specific. Figure 1 is presented as an illustration of this point.

At the top of Figure 1 the X, Y, and Z positions of ten data points on a hypothetical surface are shown. If the surface is assumed to be continuous, an appropriate interpolation model is selected, and the surface is completed. The continuous surface on the left side of Figure 1 was interpolated using the model:

$$Z_{est} = \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n W_i Z_i \right] / \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n W_i \right]$$

where  $Z_{est}$  is the interpolated value,  $Z_i$  is the data value at point  $i$ , and  $W_i$  is the assigned weight of data point  $Z_i$  (Monmonier, 1982). In this equation, which is based on the gravity model, the weight of data point  $Z_i$  is inversely proportional to the distance-squared between  $X_i, Y_i, Z_i$  and  $X_i, Y_i, Z_{est}$ . Notice that intermediate values are inferred between data points that range widely in magnitude. This is characteristic of interpolation models developed for use with continuous surfaces, and it is this quality that makes them unsuitable for discontinuous surfaces. With a discontinuous surface there is no reason to assume intermediate values exist.

One interpolation technique suitable for use with a

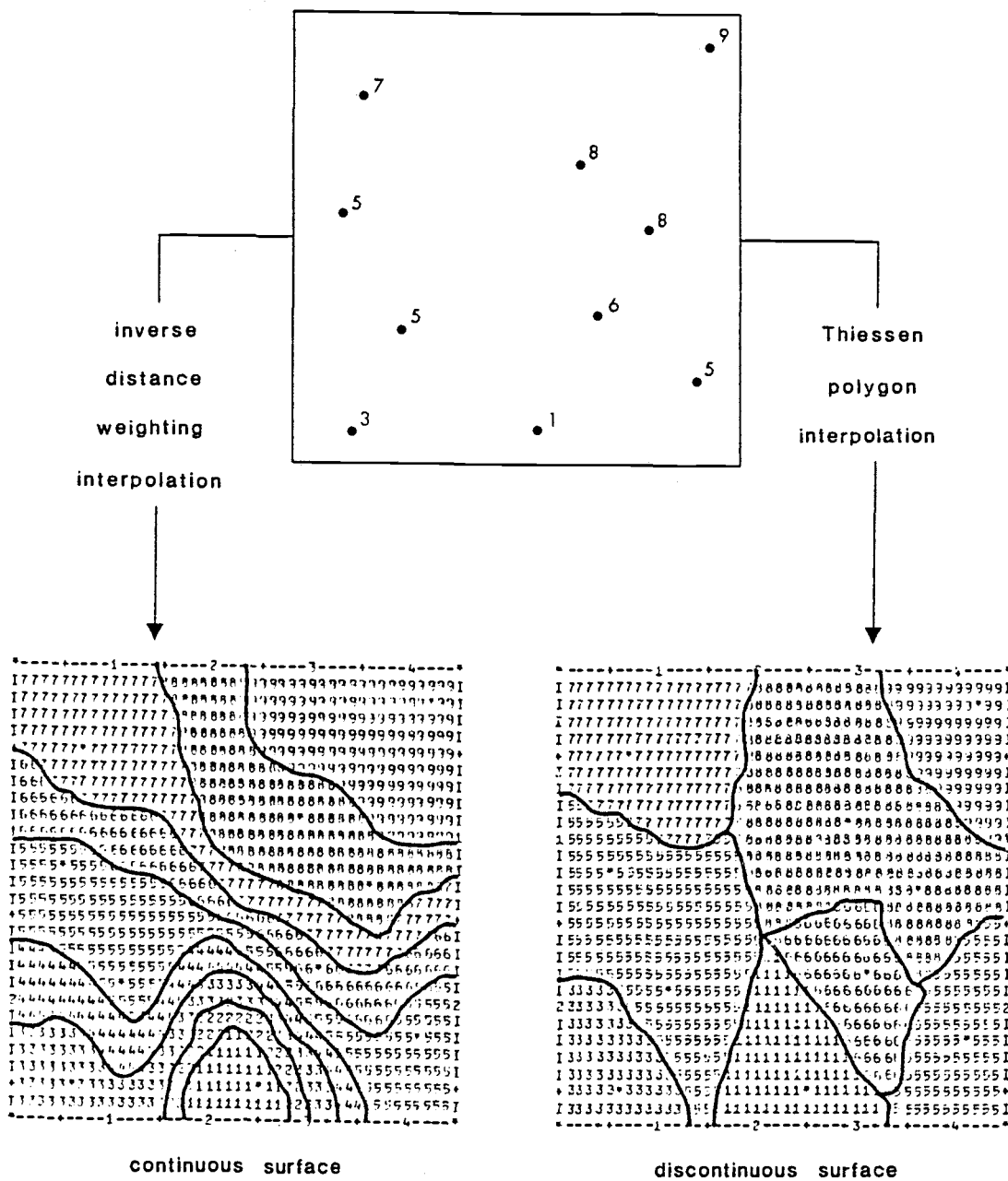


Figure 1. Two statistical surfaces interpolated from the same data set

discontinuous surface is constructing Thiessen polygons. With this method, each point with an unknown Z dimension is assigned the Z value of the nearest data point. In this manner, the study area is apportioned into many polygons using proximity to the nearest data point as the only criterion. The right side of figure 1 represents a discontinuous surface interpolated from the same ten data points. With the Thiessen polygon interpolation model, intermediate values are assumed not to exist, giving the surface a step-like appearance. Notice the discrepancy in the appearance of the surfaces depending on which interpolation model is employed.

#### Map Complexity Concept

The separate components of visual and intellectual map complexity are discussed in cartographic literature. Intellectual map complexity is associated with difficulty in interpreting intellectual meaning from abstract cartographic symbols whereas visual map complexity refers to the inherent intricacy of a mapped geographic pattern (MacEachern, 1982).

Distribution complexity is the focus of this paper, and this quality is related directly to the visual map complexity concept. Visual map complexity is simply a cartographic representation of distribution complexity. In order to incorporate the large amount of cartographic literature devoted to measuring and defining map complexity, one must consider distribution complexity to be equivalent to visual map complexity. A discipline wide-definition of this phenomenon has not been developed and most authors offer an

operational definition of visual map complexity, as will be done here.

Fundamentally, visual map complexity is a multidimensional phenomenon associated with the interconnectedness of map classes. Muehrcke (1973) describes map complexity as the "spatial variance" in a map pattern where spatial variance is a measure of the map's "internal organization". Several factors contribute to a map's spatial variance including the number of classes, the fragmentation of these classes, and variation in the proportion of map area covered by each map region. Also, these three factors seem to be interrelated. Visual map complexity is defined here as being equal to a map's spatial variance. Therefore, a measure sensitive to these three factors must be selected in order to quantify map complexity.

Numerous measures of map complexity have been proposed by academic cartographers (Olson, 1972, 1975), (Monmonier, 1974), (Muller, 1976), (Brophy, 1980), (MacEachern, 1982). Some of these are developed for continuous surfaces and are unsuitable for use with a discontinuous surface. For example, Monmonier (1974) used as a measure of map complexity the highest order polynomial equation necessary for a "best fit" trend surface. Other methods are designed specifically for choropleth maps and are unsuitable for dasymetric maps without modification (Muller, 1976), (MacEachern, 1982).

MacEachern (1982) offers the coefficient  $C_m$  as a measure of choropleth map complexity.  $C_m$  is calculated by decomposing a choropleth map into graph feature components of faces, edges, and vertices as illustrated in Figure 2. The maximum number of faces, edges, and vertices are counted using every enumeration unit on the



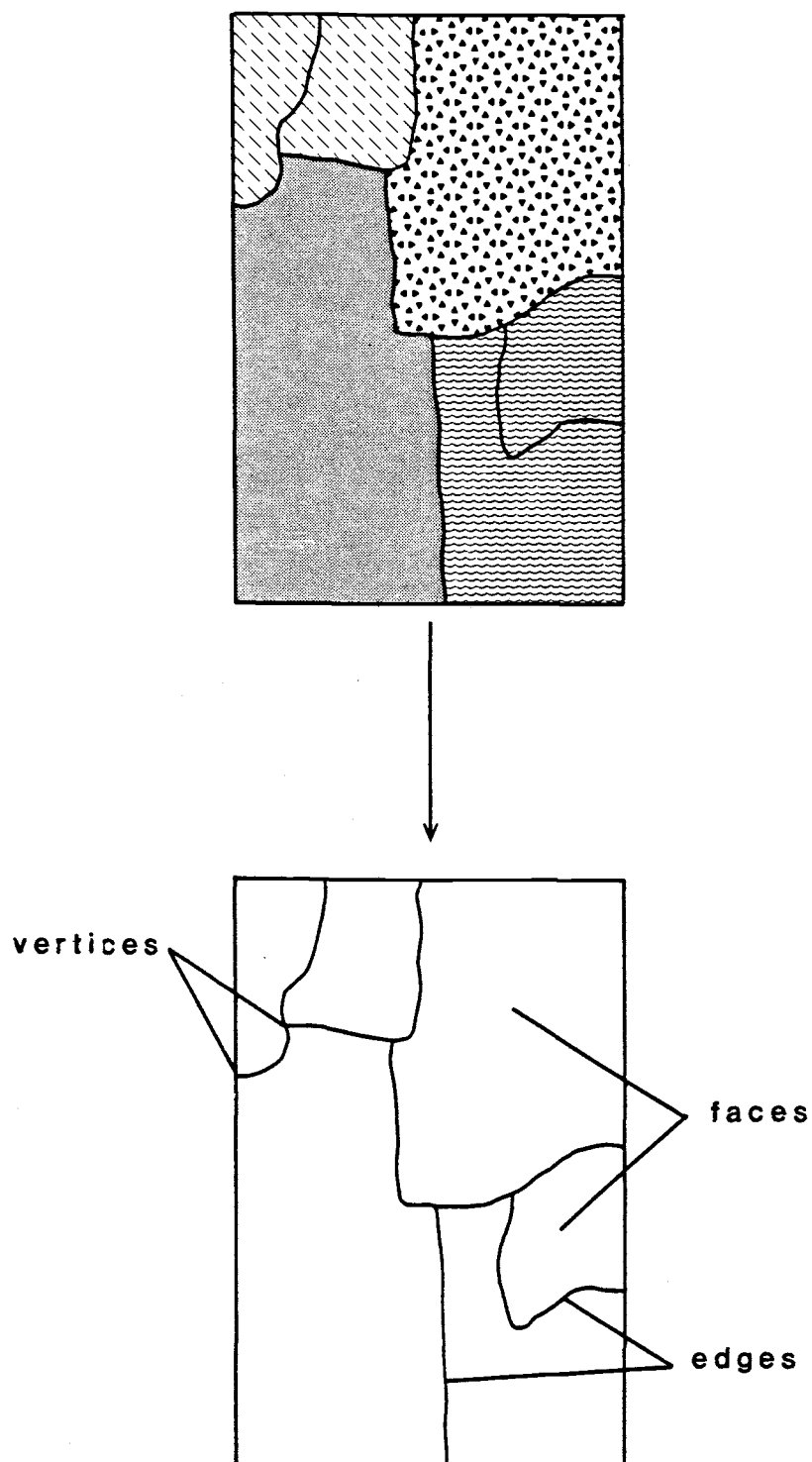


Figure 2. Decomposition of a choropleth map into faces, edges, and vertices

map. Next, all edges separating units of the same class are ignored and followed by a new count of observed faces, edges, and vertices. The complexity coefficient is as follows:

$$C_m = \frac{\text{observed number of (faces, edges, or vertices)}}{\text{maximum number of (faces, edges, or vertices)}} .$$

MacEachern (1982) reports redundancy ( $r = 0.94$  to  $0.97$ ) among the various  $C_m$  indexes using either faces, edges, or vertices, and suggests only one count is adequate.

Another measure of choropleth map complexity is the pattern fragmentation index  $F$  (Monmonier, 1974).  $F$  is calculated as :

$$F = (M-1)/(N-1)$$

where  $M$  is the number of map regions and  $N$  is the number of enumeration units. Contiguous enumeration units of the same class are considered one region. The coefficient  $F$  ranges from 0, where all enumeration units are of the same class, to 1, where no two contiguous units are of the same class. Since map enumeration units and map faces are the same feature, it should be clear that  $C_m$  using face counts and  $F$  are calculated using identical methods.

The complexity coefficients  $F$  and  $C_m$  are designed specifically for choropleth maps in which boundaries are based on political enumeration units rather than naturally occurring divisions in map theme. Without modification they are unsuitable for dasymetric maps because boundaries only separate homogeneous areas of different classes. However,  $C_m$  and  $F$  can be adapted for use with dasymetric maps by superimposing a rectangular grid over the map and treating each grid cell as a hypothetical enumeration unit. One problem introduced by this modification is the variation in  $F$  and  $C_m$

determined by the cell size of the superimposed grid. For any dasymetric map, the numerator in both equations (number of map regions) is not affected by the superimposed grid, but the denominator (number of enumeration units) will vary depending on cell size. This fact makes method repeatability and comparison between maps difficult unless grids with identical cell size are used.

Inequality in the proportion of map area covered by each map region is a dimension of map complexity to which the indices  $C_m$  and  $F$  are not sensitive. For example, two maps with the same number of classes and regions will have identical  $F$  or  $C_m$  values even though one of the maps may be dominated by a single large map region, making this map less visually complex. Therefore, the size disparity index  $S_d$  is also necessary to reflect this second dimension of map complexity (Monmonier, 1974). The size disparity index is computed by constructing a Lorenz curve (Taylor, 1977) with the cumulative proportion of map area covered by each map region on the Y-axis and the proportion of map region area in rank order and equal increments on the X-axis.  $S_d$  is measured as the proportion of area between the graph diagonal and the Lorenz curve (Monmonier, 1974). Figure 3 illustrates the calculation of  $S_d$ .

Unfortunately, there is no suitable method for combining the complexity indices  $F$  and  $C_m$  into a composite measure which is required for this project.

From among the various spatial autocorrelation statistics is found a measure of map complexity sensitive to the fragmentation of map classes and to the variation in the proportion of map area covered by each map region. Spatial autocorrelation is a general

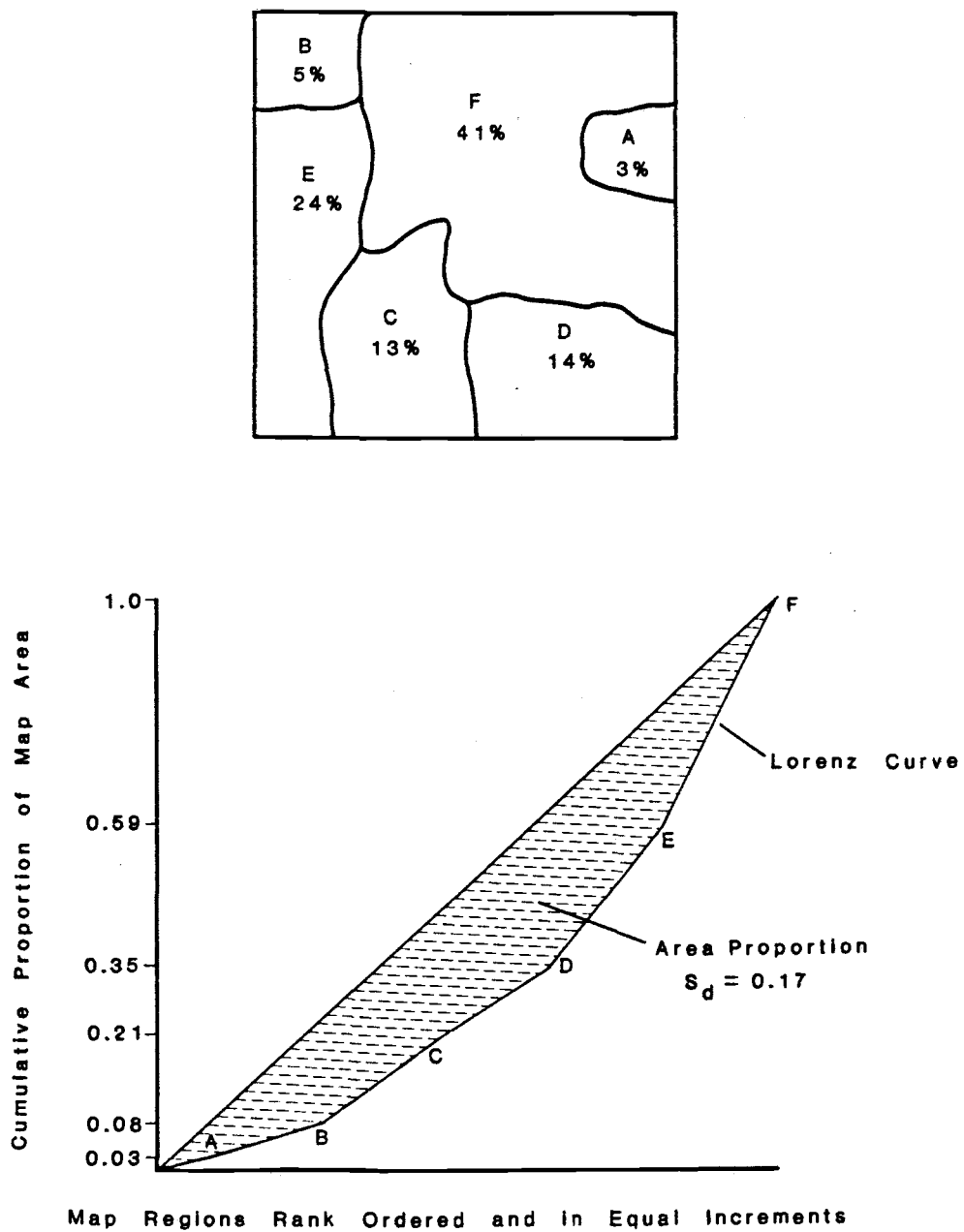


Figure 3. Calculation of the size disparity index  $S_d$

statistical and geographic concept used to describe the degree to which a spatial pattern departs from randomness (Cliff and Ord, 1973, 1981), and it has been used as a measure of map complexity (Olson, 1972, 1975). The spatial organization of a mapped geographic pattern can be summarized by a single statistic using the correlation coefficient  $r$ , Kendall's rank correlation coefficient  $\tau$ , or the proportion of map units with identical neighbors depending on whether the map theme is ratio, ordinal, or nominally measured, respectively (Olson, 1975).

Additionally, spatial autocorrelation is a desirable measure of map complexity because the computation can be performed by a computer using digital grid cell maps. To illustrate this procedure, consider Figure 2 wherein neighbors are defined as cells sharing an edge. Map A is a quantitative digital map with nine cells  $X_{ij}$ , where  $i$  represents the row number and  $j$  is the column number. Cell  $X_{11}$  has two neighbors,  $X_{12}$  and  $X_{21}$ , whereas cell  $X_{22}$  has four neighbors. To calculate the coefficient  $r$ , the value of  $X_{11}$  is entered into the X column and the value of its two neighbors is entered into the Y column. Next, the value of  $X_{12}$  is entered into the X column and its neighbors'  $X_{11}$ ,  $X_{13}$ , and  $X_{22}$  value is entered into the Y column. This process continues as shown in Figure 4. The coefficient  $r$  is calculated as

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\left[ \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \right] \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \right]}} \quad (\text{Blalock, 1979}).$$

Map A

3	3	8
3	4	8
4	9	9

<u>X</u>	<u>Y</u>
3	3
3	3
3	3
3	8
3	4
8	3
8	8
3	3
3	4
3	4
4	3
4	3
4	9
4	8
8	8
8	4
8	9
4	3
4	9
9	4
9	4
9	9
9	9
9	8

$$r = 0.89$$

Map B

A	A	D
A	C	E
C	E	E

<u>X</u>	<u>Y</u>
A	A
A	A
A	A
A	C
A	D
D	A
D	E
A	A
A	C
A	C
C	A
C	E
C	A
C	E
E	C
E	D
E	E
C	A
C	E
E	C
E	C
E	C
E	E
E	E

$$A = 0.67$$

Figure 4. Measuring map complexity with spatial autocorrelation coefficients

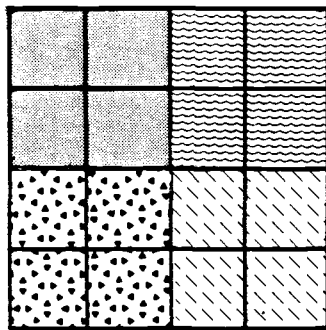
The value of  $r$  is interpreted in the standard fashion; large absolute values indicate map cell values are either positively or inversely correlated spatially, and values close to zero represent random spatial patterns. As an indication of map complexity, the closer  $r$  is to zero, the more complex is the map. In Figure 4,  $r = 0.89$  indicating cell values with similar values are spatially correlated.

The coefficient  $r$  is not suitable for use with maps of a qualitative theme. Although qualitative map classes can be abstractly represented by a numeral, substituting these values into the preceeding equation would be nonsense. For qualitative grid cell maps, Olson (1975) proposes using the proportion of cells with identical neighbors as a measure of spatial autocorrelation. With this measure, the proportion of identical neighbors increases as map complexity decreases. Therefore, this author suggests subtracting the proportion of identical neighbors from 1 so that the magnitude of the coefficient increases as map complexity increases. This coefficient may be called "A" where

$$A = 1 - \text{proportion of identical neighbors} .$$

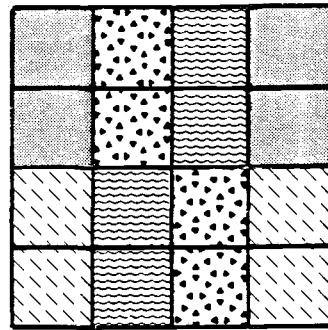
The right side of Figure 4 illustrates the calculation of A using qualitative Map B.

The spatial autocorrelation coefficient A appears to be the best measure of map complexity for qualitative dasymetric maps in a grid cell format. Figure 5 illustrates that A is sensitive to at least two of the three dimensions of map complexity identified. The coefficient A increases as the mapped pattern becomes more fragmented, and A decreases when one class dominates the map. Because of the interrelatedness of the three map complexity dimensions, the

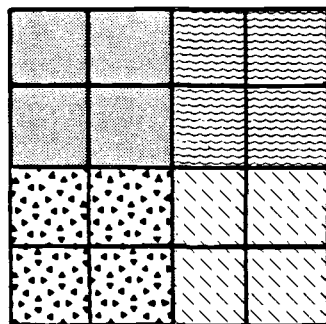


$$A = 0.33$$

Pattern  
Fragmentation

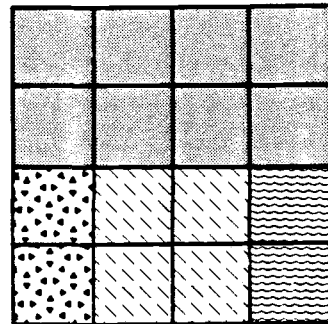


$$A = 0.67$$

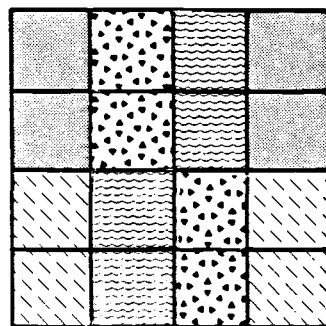


$$A = 0.33$$

Class  
Size  
Disparity

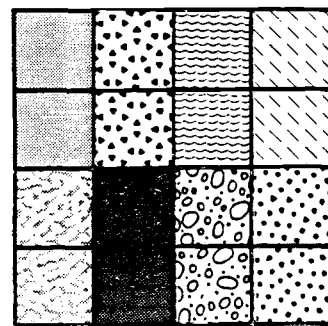


$$A = 0.31$$



$$A = 0.67$$

Class  
Number



$$A = 0.67$$

Figure 5. Three dimensions of map complexity



coefficient A may reflect the number of map classes even though it does not in this example.

### Map Accuracy

This discussion of map accuracy is restricted to qualitative dasymetric maps such as those displaying land use, soils, and geologic formations. For maps of this type, Hord and Brooner (1976) have identified three types of error: polygon misclassification, boundary line misplacement, and planimetric control point errors. Not all of these are considered here because of the project's specific objectives and due to limitations imposed by using maps in a digital form. For example, in a digital grid cell map class boundaries are forced to coincide with cell outlines which often modifies their original planimetric positions slightly. For this project, map accuracy is defined as the correspondence between the parent map and the interpolated map. Therefore, map accuracy can be measured by the coefficient of areal correspondence, formally defined in set theory as

$$C_A = \frac{PM \cap IM}{PM \cup IM}$$

where  $C_A$  is a measure of map accuracy, PM is the parent map, and IM is the interpolated map. The proportion of area correctly interpolated in IM is used as the intersection of the two maps, and their union is always equal to 1 because both maps cover the same area.

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To investigate the influence of map complexity on map accuracy an experiment was designed in which sample size and map complexity were varied and the accuracy of interpolated maps observed. For this experiment, it was necessary to select a source map, choose a statistically unbiased method of generating point samples of various sizes, and measure the correspondence of the interpolated map and the parent map. In addition, this routine had to be performed many times.

A research methodology capable of being computerized and performed interactively was developed because of the many iterations and large amount of computation required. The experiment design developed and implemented is presented in Figure 6 as a flow diagram, and the remainder of this chapter outlines its specific details.

### Map Generalization

A soils map from the South Umpqua Area, Oregon Soil Survey (U.S.D.A., 1973) was selected as the source map. The source map had to be extremely complex because it was generalized several times. Map generalization was accomplished through class reduction (combining two or more similar classes into one grouping), by smoothing class boundary outlines, and by eliminating small parcels entirely contained within a large homogeneous parcel of another class. Generalization was performed manually on the original polygonal maps which were subsequently redigitized.

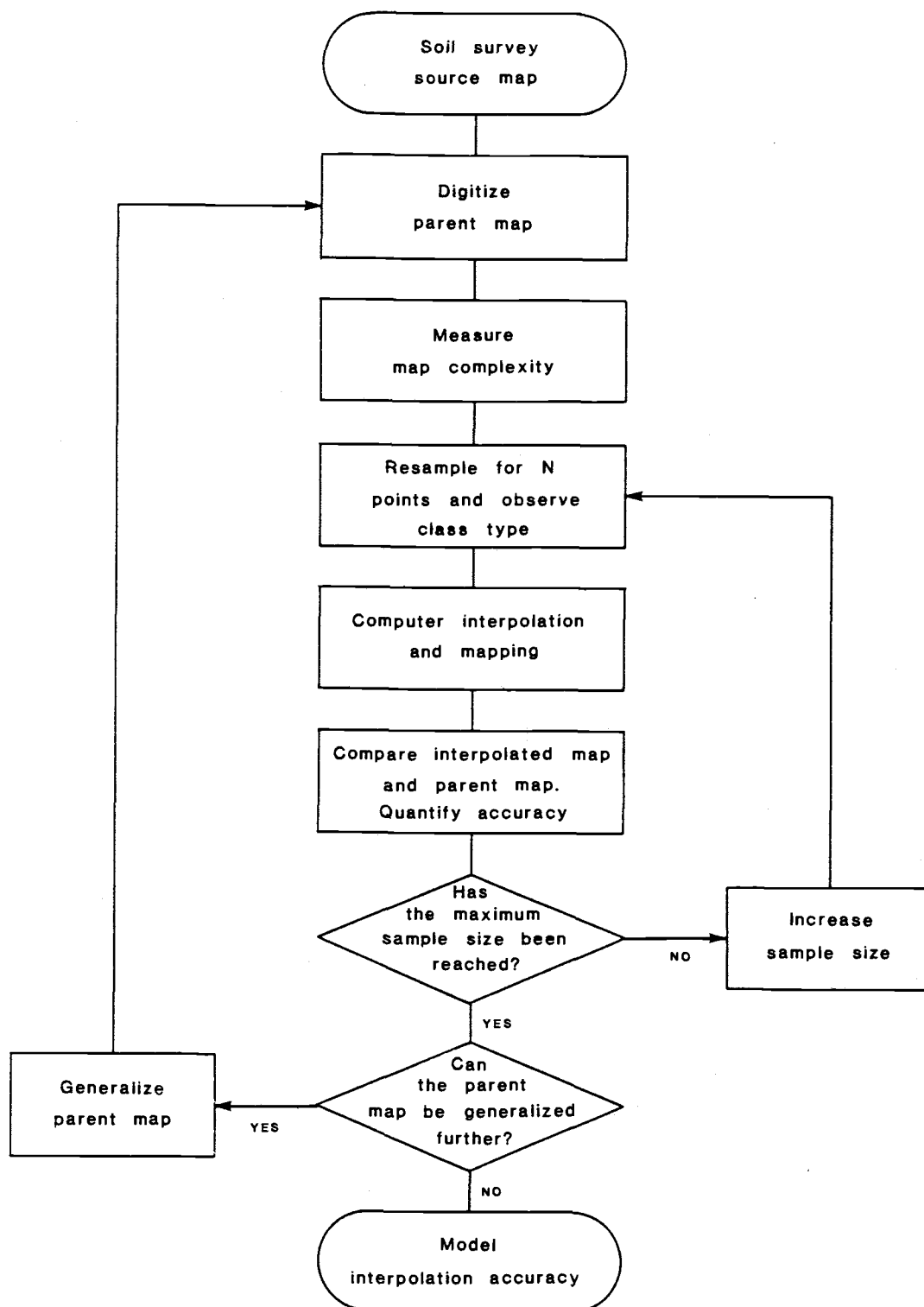


Figure 6. Experimental design

The original source map from the Oregon Soil Survey (Map 1) and its five increasingly general forms are presented in their polygonal form in Figure 7 and in their digital form in Appendix B.

### Map Digitizing

Maps 1 through 6 were manually digitized by overlaying a 5x5 inch piece of mylar grid with ten cells per inch. Each soil type was assigned an integer between 0 and 9, and in each of the 2500 cells, the appropriate number was entered. Each matrix of numbers representing the digital forms of Maps 1 through 6 was entered and stored on a computer file.

Positional modification of class boundaries is unavoidable when converting a polygonal map into a digital grid cell map. Therefore, the digital representation became the parent map to which interpolated maps were compared.

### Map Complexity Measurement

Once the parent maps 1 through 6 had been digitized their spatial autocorrelation coefficient A was calculated and used as a measure of map complexity. The coefficient A was computed by the program AUTO which appears in Appendix A along with the other computer programs written for this experiment.

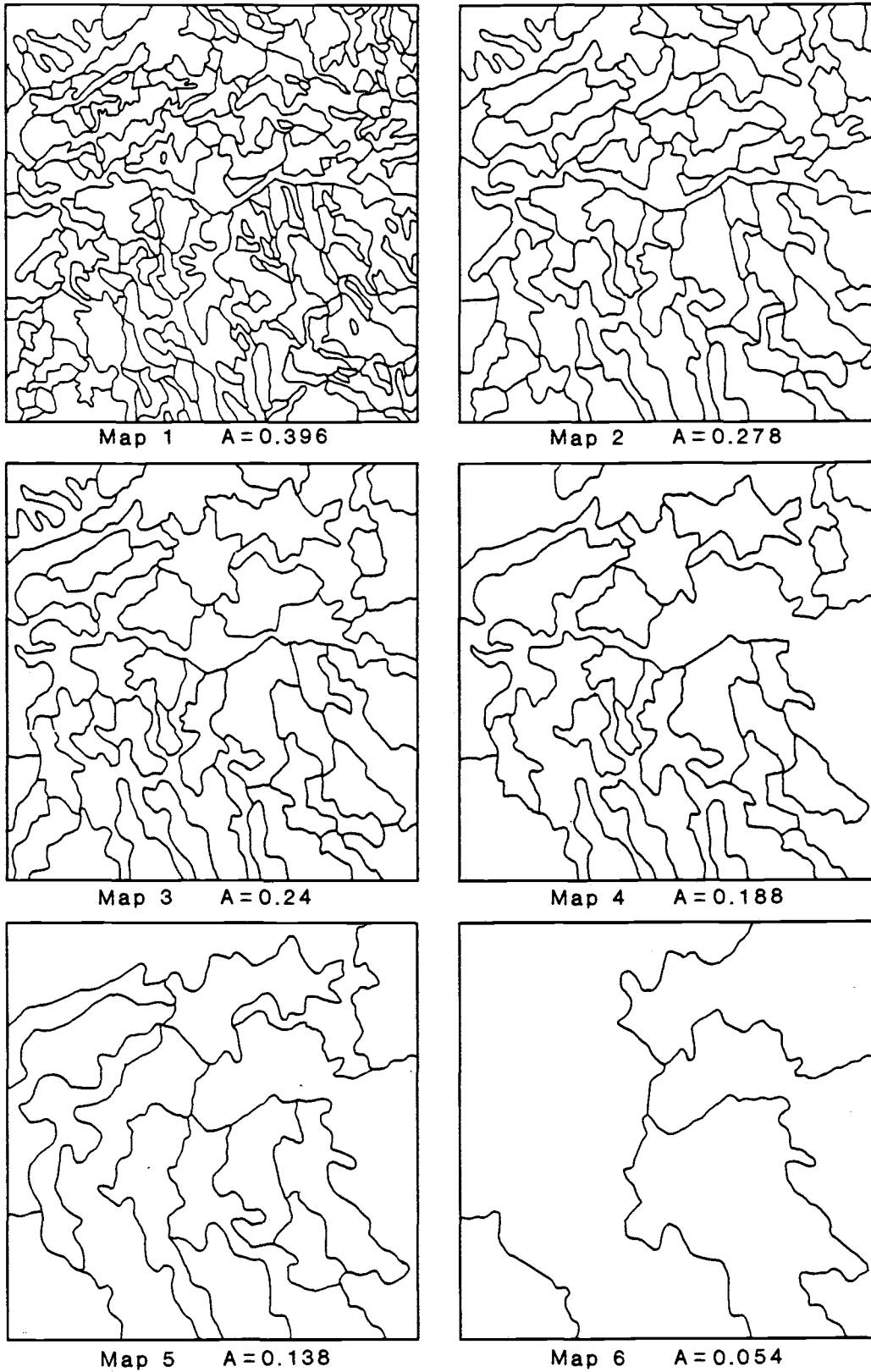


Figure 7. Source map (Map 1) and its five generalized forms with their complexity measurements

## Sample Design

A stratified random sampling was selected for the experiment because Morrison (1971) found its performance to be the best for accurate interpolation from among the several he tested. Each digital map was divided into 25 square shape strata, each containing 100 cells. For a sample size of 25, one data point was selected at a random location from within each stratum as illustrated in Figure 8. Four data points were selected randomly within each stratum for a sample size of 100, and so forth. The stratified random samples were performed by program RANDOM in which random point coordinates are produced using a system supplied intrinsic function and a user supplied seed number. In addition, RANDOM also determines the soil type at the selected coordinates.

## Computer Interpolation and Mapping

The data point's location and soil type were used as input for the interpolation of a new map. The interpolated map was produced using the Proximal Map options of the SYMAP computer mapping program (Dougennik and Sheehan, 1977). The Proximal map package interpolates unknown values by constructing Thiessen polygons around data points supplied by the user. The Thiessen polygon interpolation model was selected because it is a well established technique for use with qualitative discontinuous surfaces. A typical deck set-up used to execute the SYMAP program appears in Appendix A.

Difficulty was encountered using SYMAP because of the

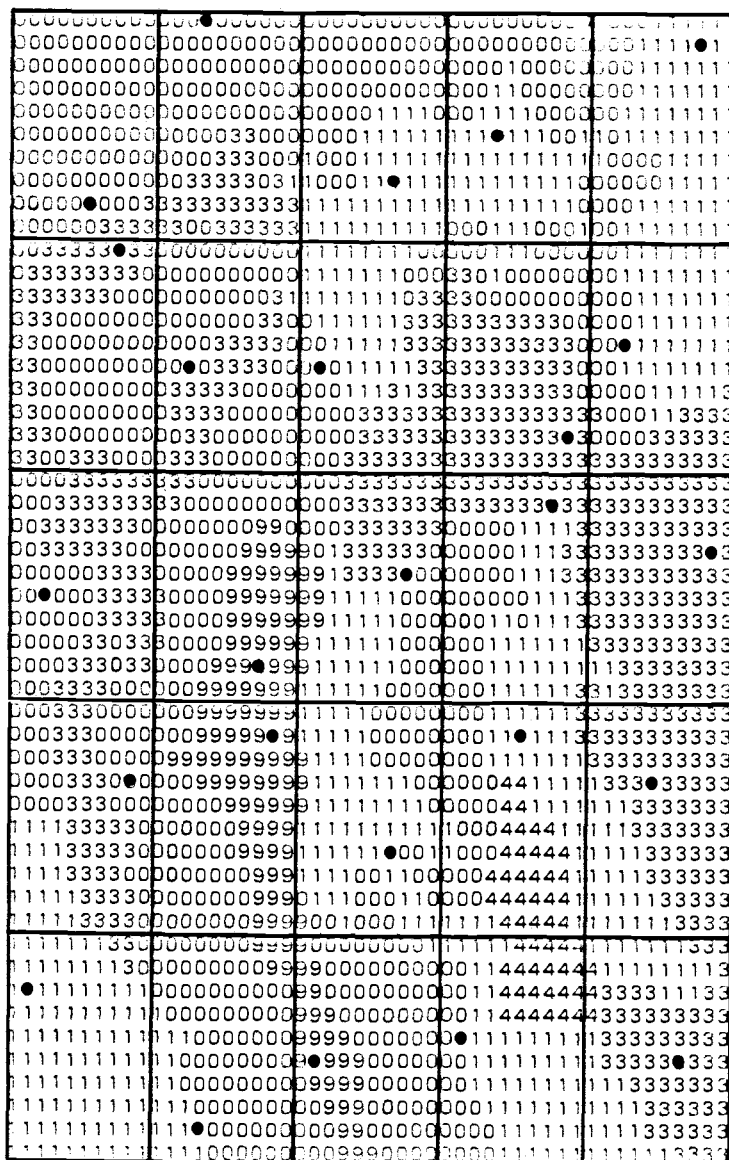


Figure 8. Stratified random sample with 25 points for Map 6

coordinate transformation of data points performed automatically to accommodate the vertical elongation typical of computer printouts. Through experimentation a 1:1 correspondence between data point coordinates and SYMAP map coordinates was achieved by misleading the program into believing the map was being printed at ten rows per inch.

Once the interpolated map was created by SYMAP, the value within each of its 2500 cells was written onto a permanent file using F-MAP elective 21. Subsequent to being reformatted by program DAVE, the accuracy of the interpolated map was determined using this file.

#### Measuring Map Accuracy

To measure the accuracy of the interpolated map, the interpolated map and the parent map from which samples were taken were compared digitally. Their coefficient of areal correspondence  $C_A$  was calculated by counting the proportion of cells assigned the correct soil type, that is

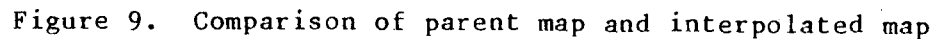
$$C_A = \frac{\text{number of cells correctly interpolated}}{\text{total number of cells}} .$$

The coefficient  $C_A$  was computed by program CHECK which also produces a residual map showing which cells were assigned an incorrect soil type. Figure 9 illustrates this procedure.

#### Range of Sample Sizes

Sample sizes of 5, 10, 25, 50, 75, 100, 250, 500, and 1000





points in various combinations were used with the maps. Five different sample sizes representing a wide range were used with each map and replicates of each sample size were made. For example, samples sizes of 25, 50, 100, 250, and 500 were used with Map 1. Independent replicates of each sample size were made in order to observe random variation in map accuracy when identical sample sizes were used.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 presents the results of the experiment outlined in Figure 6 and for each map the various sample sizes and interpolated map accuracy levels are listed. In this chapter, sample size and map complexity are examined separately to see their individual effects on map accuracy. Secondly, the cumulative effect of both variables is examined to determine which has the more important influence on map accuracy.

## Map Accuracy Related to Sample Size

For all six maps there was a positive curvilinear relationship between map accuracy and sample size. Figure 10 illustrates the curve for Map 6. Such curvilinear relationships may be linearized by transforming one or both variables (Neter, et al., 1983). A base ten logarithmic transformation of sample size successfully linearizes this relationship for all six maps. Figure 11 illustrates the linearizing transformation using Map 6. Linearizing the relationship is desirable because of the straightforward interpretation of the slope and intercept of linear equations.

Figure 12 presents the graphs of Maps 1 through 6 plotted on a logarithmic X-axis. Each map's least-squares fitted regression line, equation, and  $R^2$  value are also presented. In all cases the regression line fits very well as indicated by the high  $R^2$  values. Also, there is some indication of non-constant variance in different levels of X, that is, variation in the level of map accuracy at fixed

Table 1. Results of Experiment

<u>Map</u>	<u>Sample Size</u>	<u>Interpolated Map Accuracy</u>
Map 1	25	0.241
	25	0.272
	50	0.345
	50	0.318
	100	0.390
	100	0.388
	250	0.531
	250	0.500
	500	0.615
	500	0.602
Map 2	25	0.305
	25	0.305
	50	0.406
	50	0.399
	100	0.500
	100	0.499
	250	0.630
	250	0.626
	500	0.720
	500	0.721
Map 3	25	0.375
	25	0.428
	100	0.574
	100	0.554
	250	0.666
	250	0.678
	500	0.778
	500	0.754
	1000	0.835
	1000	0.827
Map 4	25	0.500
	25	0.531
	100	0.634
	100	0.659
	250	0.723
	250	0.736
	500	0.816
	500	0.786
	1000	0.867
	1000	0.869

Table 1. Results of Experiment (cont.)

<u>Map</u>	<u>Sample Size</u>	<u>Interpolated Map Accuracy</u>
Map 5	25	0.568
	25	0.621
	50	0.671
	50	0.600
	75	0.702
	75	0.688
	250	0.807
	250	0.818
	500	0.855
	500	0.865
Map 6	5	0.604
	5	0.668
	10	0.665
	10	0.736
	25	0.781
	25	0.821
	50	0.852
	50	0.837
	75	0.874
	75	0.883

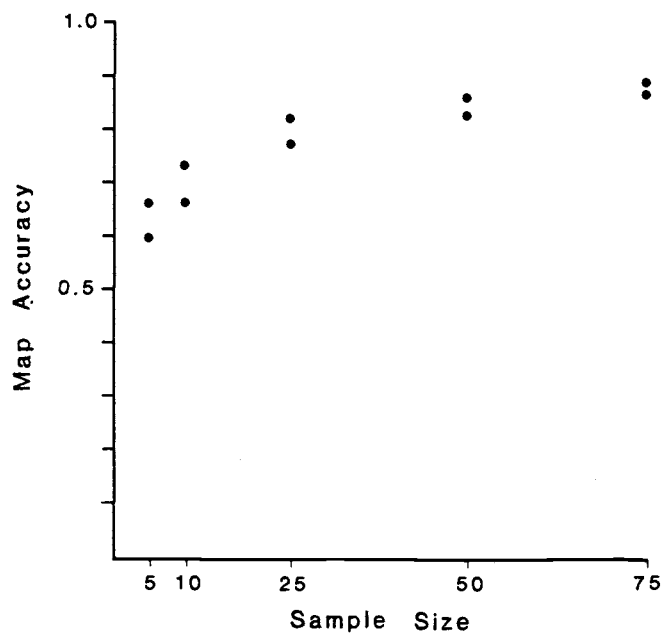


Figure 10. Scattergram showing the relationship between map accuracy and sample size for Map 6

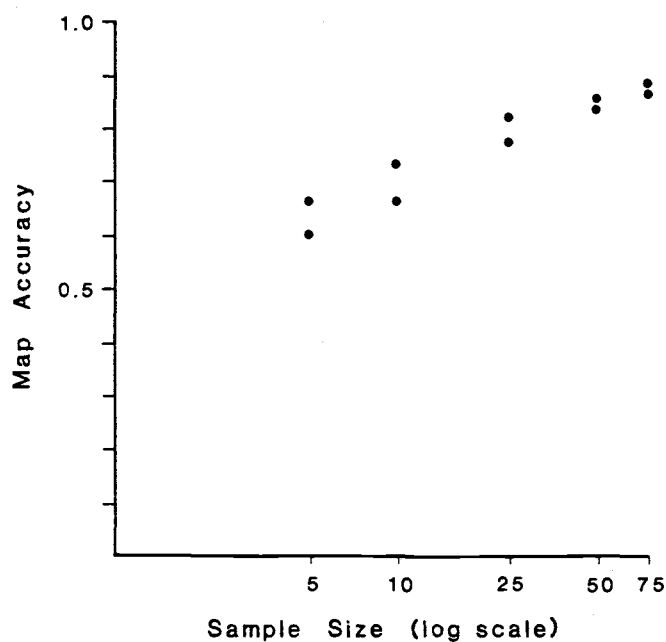
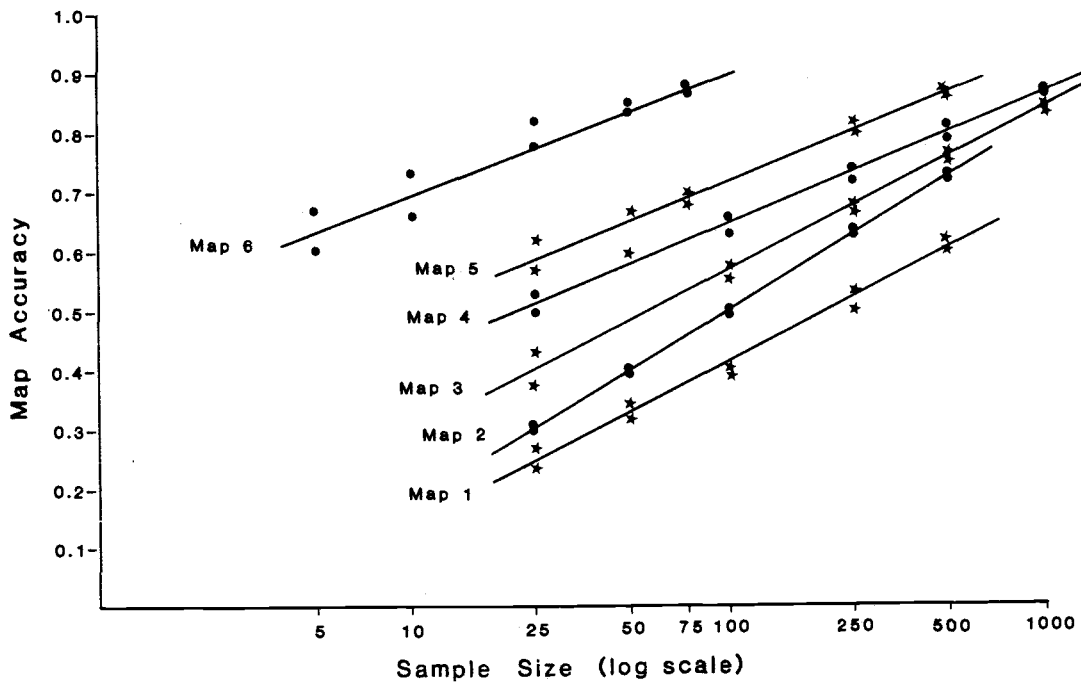


Figure 11. Scattergram showing the relationship between map accuracy and the logarithm of sample size for Map 6



Map 6	$y = 0.49 + 0.20x_{\log}$	$R^2 = 0.92$
Map 5	$y = 0.28 + 0.21x_{\log}$	$R^2 = 0.95$
Map 4	$y = 0.20 + 0.21x_{\log}$	$R^2 = 0.99$
Map 3	$y = 0.02 + 0.27x_{\log}$	$R^2 = 0.99$
Map 2	$y = -0.14 + 0.32x_{\log}$	$R^2 = 0.99$
Map 1	$y = -0.12 + 0.26x_{\log}$	$R^2 = 0.98$

Figure 12. Scattergram relating map accuracy to logarithm of sample size for Maps 1 through 6. Each map's least-squares regression line, equation, and  $R^2$  value is also presented.

levels of sample size decreases as larger sample sizes are considered.

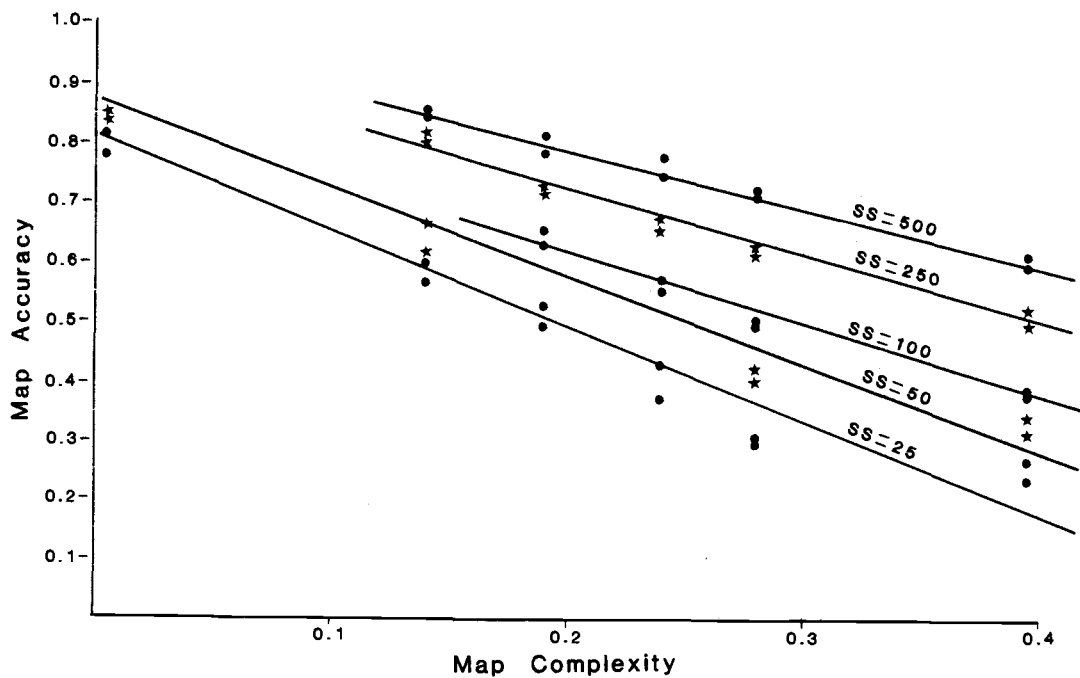
Notice how the slope of the regression equations is steeper for the more complex maps (Maps 1, 2, and 3). This suggests that the asymptotic leveling of map accuracy occurs at larger sample sizes as the map becomes more complex even though a clear trend is not apparent over the range of sample sizes considered.

#### Map Accuracy Related to Map Complexity

Map accuracy was inversely related to map complexity at all sample sizes as presented in Figure 13. No linearizing transformation was necessary. Once again the high  $R^2$  values indicate the regression lines fit very well, although with careful examination the data seem to suggest a nonlinear trend with smaller sample sizes.

It is apparent that the influence of map complexity on map accuracy is dependent on sample size. This fact is indicated in Figure 13 by the trend of decreasing regression line slope with increased sample size. This is logical because as sample size approaches infinity the accuracy of an interpolated map should be very high irregardless of complexity. When the effect of one independent variable (map complexity) is influenced by the level of another independent variable (sample size), the two variables are said to "interact" (Neter, et al., 1983).





SS = 500	$y = 0.98 - 0.96x$	$R^2 = 0.98$
SS = 250	$y = 0.95 - 1.12x$	$R^2 = 0.97$
SS = 100	$y = 0.85 - 1.21x$	$R^2 = 0.96$
SS = 50	$y = 0.87 - 1.50x$	$R^2 = 0.93$
SS = 25	$y = 0.83 - 1.60x$	$R^2 = 0.91$

Figure 13. Scattergram relating map accuracy to map complexity for five sample sizes. Each sample size's least-squares regression line, equation, and  $R^2$  value is also presented.

## Relative Importance of the Independent Variables

Through multiple regression analysis, the individual and cumulative influence of the two independent variables on map complexity and each variable's relative importance may be determined using an analysis of variance approach (Johnson, 1978), (Neter, et al., 1983). The regression analysis of variance approach is based on measuring the total amount of variation observed in map accuracy during the experiment and attributing proportions of the variation to the independent variables.

The total amount of variation (SSTO) observed in map accuracy (Y) is measured as the sum of the squared deviations from the mean value of Y, that is,

$$SSTO = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 .$$

By introducing an independent variable or variables  $X_n$ , and developing a regression equation relating Y to  $X_n$ , a percentage of the variation may be attributed to  $X_n$ . The amount of variation "explained" by the independent variable (SSR) is measured as the sum of the squared deviations between the least-squares fitted line and the mean value of Y, that is,

$$SSR = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{Y}_i - \bar{Y})^2 .$$

The relative importance of the independent variable is measured as the proportion of total variation explained by that variable. This index is called  $R^2$  where

$$R^2 = \frac{SSR}{SSTO} .$$

When regressing sample size and map complexity separately against map accuracy, their  $R^2$  values are 0.215 and 0.466, respectively. In this experiment, map complexity is the more important variable, accounting for 46.6% of the variation in map accuracy while sample size accounts for only 21.5%. Clearly, neither variable alone can explain the majority of total variation observed in map accuracy. When the cumulative effect of sample size and map complexity is considered, 93.1% of the variation in map accuracy can be explained. Notice that their individual influence is not additive, that is,  $0.215 + 0.466 = 0.671$  which does not equal 0.931. This discrepancy is an expression of the interaction between the two independent variables.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The complexity of a geographic distribution, referred to as map complexity throughout this paper, is shown to have an important influence on the accuracy of interpolated dasymetric maps using data derived from a controlled experiment. Its effect on map accuracy is influenced by other variables in the sample-interpolation mapping procedure such as sample size. In general, there is a positive curvilinear relationship between sample size and map accuracy, and an inverse linear relationship between map complexity and map accuracy. Map complexity is shown to be the more important variable.

Based upon the results of this experiment and theoretical assumptions, Figure 14 is presented as a summary of the theoretical relationship among map complexity, sample size, and map accuracy. The data show a curvilinear relationship between sample size and map accuracy with an asymptotic leveling off at larger sample sizes. Although the experiment did not consider extremely small sample sizes, one can assume the existence of another horizontal asymptote approaching a map accuracy level of 0. Therefore, the theoretical curve proposed is logistically shaped with two horizontal asymptotes approaching map accuracy levels of 0 and 100%. Map complexity is also important in determining map accuracy. The data suggest its influence shifts the asymptotes towards larger sample sizes as map complexity increases. This has the effect of reducing the slope of the linear portion of the logistic curve.

In summary, map accuracy is proposed to be logistically related to sample size wherein the position of the asymptotes are

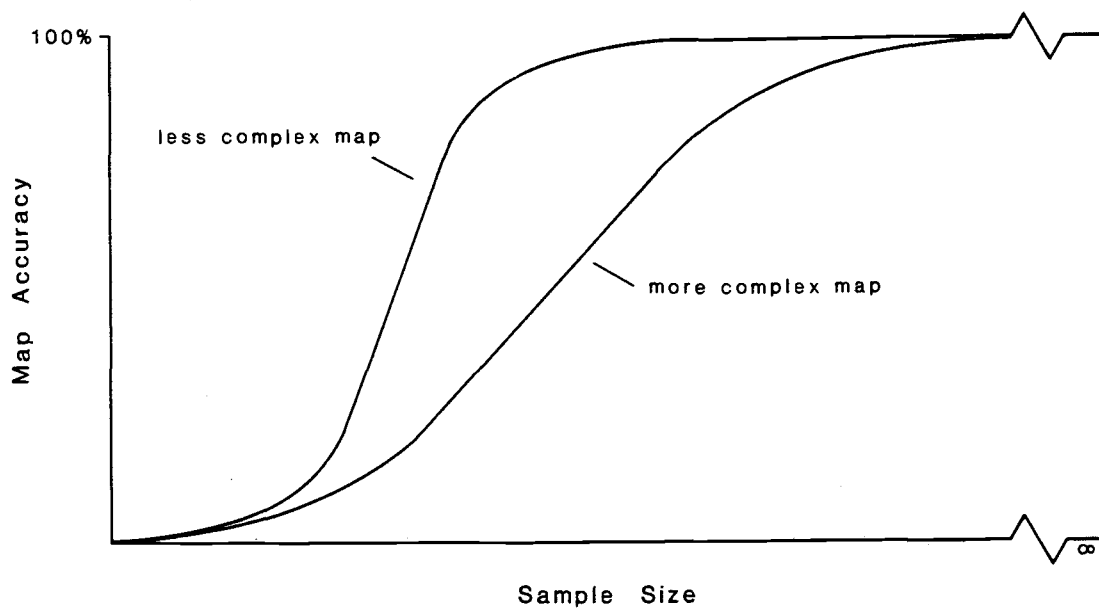


Figure 14. Theoretical relationship among map complexity, sample size, and map accuracy

determined by the level of map complexity.

The results of this experiment can be used to develop a multiple regression equation for application in the fields of computer cartography and geographic information system (GIS) design. Cartographers and GIS designers can use the regression equation as a guideline for selecting a sufficient sample size for attaining the level of accuracy required for the mapping project. The equation developed is as follows:

$$y = 0.67 - 2.39x_1 + 0.12x_2 \log + 0.51x_1 x_2 \log$$

where  $y$  equals map accuracy,  $x_1$  is map complexity,  $x_2$  is sample size, and  $x_1 x_2$  is a term for the interaction between sample size and map complexity.

For most projects the complexity of a geographic distribution is not known until it has been mapped. Therefore, to use the equation presented above, it is necessary to estimate the complexity prior to mapping which may be accomplished in several ways. For example, in some mapping projects the objective is to update an existing map or to map an area at a larger scale. Under these conditions the existing map's complexity may be used as an estimate of the new map's complexity. If no previous mapping has occurred, a phenomenon's distribution complexity may be estimated during field reconnaissance or through remote sensing techniques. In cases where environmental phenomena are spatially associated, such as soil type and geology or vegetation association and soil type, and one of the phenomena has previously been mapped, the distribution complexity of the mapped phenomenon may be used as an estimate of the other.

There are also applications of this research for archiving

digital maps and to GIS design. A complete digital map can be stored in a skeletal form as a sample of point coordinates and their associated attribute codes. In small GIS's where computer memory must be economized, the dasymetric maps in the thematic data base may be stored in this form. Immediately prior to their use in analytical operations, the skeletal maps can be completed through interpolation. This procedure may conserve a significant amount of memory particularly when used with less complex maps. Since in this application the maps already exist, their complexity can be measured directly rather than estimated and the regression equation can be used for selecting an adequate sample size.

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## APPENDICES

```

C***** PROGRAM AUTO *****
C
C BRIAN K. YOUNG                      AUGUST, 1983
C
C*****
C
C THIS PROGRAM READS A MATRIX OF NUMBERS AND COUNTS THE
C NUMBER OF CELLS HAVING IDENTICAL NEIGHBORS. A NEIGHBOR
C IS DEFINED AS CELLS SHARING A COMMON EDGE. THE SPATIAL
C AUTOCORRELATION COEFFICIENT "A" IS CALCULATED AS THE
C PROPORTION OF CELLS WITH IDENTICAL NEIGHBORS.
C
C
C
C
C      REAL COEF,RS,RN
C      INTEGER X(50,50),I,J,S,N,MAXI,MAXJ
C      COMMON X,I,J,S,N,MAXI,MAXJ
C
C      OPEN (5,FILE='MAP6')
C      OPEN (10,FILE='COEF')
C      I=0
C      J=0
C      S=0
C      N=0
C      COEF=0
C      MAXI=50
C      MAXJ=50
C
C      READ (5,25) ((X(I,J), J=1,MAXJ), I=1,MAXI)
25      FORMAT(50I1)
C      DO 100,I=1,MAXI
C      DO 50, J=1,MAXJ
C
C      IF(I .EQ. 1 .AND. J .EQ. 1) THEN
C          CALL EAST
C          CALL SOUTH
C      ELSE IF (I .EQ. 1 .AND. J .NE. 1 .AND. J .NE. MAXJ) THEN
C          CALL EAST
C          CALL SOUTH
C          CALL WEST
C
C      ELSE IF (J .EQ. MAXJ .AND. I .EQ. 1) THEN
C          CALL SOUTH
C          CALL WEST
C
C      ELSE IF (I .NE. MAXI .AND. I .NE. 1 .AND. J .EQ. 1) THEN
C          CALL NORTH
C          CALL EAST
C          CALL SOUTH
C
C      ELSE IF (I .EQ. MAXI .AND. J .EQ. 1) THEN
C          CALL NORTH
C          CALL EAST
C
C      ELSE IF (I .EQ. MAXI .AND. J .NE. 1 .AND. J .NE. MAXJ) THEN
C          CALL WEST
C          CALL NORTH
C          CALL EAST
C
C      ELSE IF (I .EQ. MAXI .AND. J .EQ. MAXJ) THEN
C          CALL WEST
C          CALL NORTH
C
C

```

Figure 15. Program AUTO

```

ELSE IF (I .NE. 1 .AND. I .NE. MAXI .AND. J .EQ. MAXJ) THEN
    CALL SOUTH
    CALL WEST
    CALL NORTH
C
ELSE
    CALL NORTH
    CALL EAST
    CALL SOUTH
    CALL WEST
END IF
C
50    CONTINUE
100   CONTINUE
C
RS=S/2
RN=N/2
C
COEF=RS/(RS+RN)
WRITE (10,200) N,S,COEF
200   FORMAT('N=',I6,3X,'S=',I6,3X,'AUTO COEF=',F7.3)
CLOSE (10,STATUS='KEEP')
END
C
C
C
SUBROUTINE NORTH
INTEGER X(50,50), I, J, S, N, MAXI, MAXJ
COMMON X, I, J, S, N, MAXI, MAXJ
IF (X(I, J) .EQ. X(I-1, J)) THEN
    S= S+1
ELSE
    N= N+1
END IF
RETURN
END
C
C
SUBROUTINE EAST
INTEGER X(50,50), I, J, S, N, MAXI, MAXJ
COMMON X, I, J, S, N, MAXI, MAXJ
IF(X(I, J) .EQ. X(I, J+1)) THEN
    S=S+1
ELSE
    N=N+1
END IF
RETURN
END
C
C
SUBROUTINE SOUTH
INTEGER X(50,50), I, J, S, N, MAXI, MAXJ
COMMON X, I, J, S, N, MAXI, MAXJ
IF(X(I, J) .EQ. X(I+1, J)) THEN
    S=S+1
ELSE
    N=N+1
END IF
RETURN
END
C
C
SUBROUTINE WEST
INTEGER X(50,50), I, J, S, N, MAXI, MAXJ
COMMON X, I, J, S, N, MAXI, MAXJ
IF(X(I, J) .EQ. X(I, J-1)) THEN
    S=S+1
ELSE
    N=N+1
END IF
RETURN
END

```

Program AUTO

```

C***** PROGRAM RANDOM *****
C
C BRIAN K. YOUNG                      SEPTEMBER, 1983
C
C*****
C THIS PROGRAM PERFORMS A STRATIFIED RANDOM SAMPLE
C FROM "MAPI". THE DATA POINT COORDINATES ARE WRITTEN
C ONTO "TAPE20" AND THE DATA POINT VALUES ONTO "TAPE25".
C IN A FORMAT COMPATIBLE FOR INPUT INTO THE SYMAP PROGRAM.
C
C
C
      INTEGER MAP(50,50),I,J,N,M,X,Y,XP,YP,S,T,Q
      INTRINSIC RANF, IFIX
      OPEN (5,FILE='MAP1')
      OPEN (20,FILE='TAPE20')
      OPEN (25,FILE='TAPE25')
      CALL RANSET (145)
      READ (5,10) ((MAP(I,J),J=1,50),I=1,50)
10     FORMAT (50I1)
      DO 75, Q=1,20
      S=0
      T=0
      DO 50, N=1,5
      DO 25, M=1,5
          X= IFIX (10*RANF ( ) )
          Y= IFIX (10*RANF ( ) )
          IF (X .EQ. 0) THEN
                                  X=10
          END IF
          IF (Y.EQ.0) THEN
                                  Y=10
          END IF
          XP=X
          YP=Y
          WRITE (20,15) XP+S, YP+T
15         FORMAT (10X, 12, '.', 12X, 12, '.')
          WRITE (25,20) MAP(XP+S,YP+T)
20         FORMAT (11X, 12, '.')
          T=T+10
25         CONTINUE
      S=S+10
      T=0
50     CONTINUE
75     CONTINUE
      WRITE(20,85)
85     FORMAT('99999')
      WRITE(20,95)
95     FORMAT('E-VALUES           X')
      END

```

Figure 16. Program RANDOM

```

BRIAN.
USER,DU3I8C,JANICE.
CHARGE,848040.
TITLE./BRIAN K. YOUNG
SETTL,100.
GET,SYMAPB/UN=LIBRARY.
LDSET,PRESET=ZERO.
SYMAPB.
SAVE,TAPE8.
--EOR--

```

```

B-DATA
          X
      7.      18.
      2.      40.
     17.      7.
     11.     29.
     12.     41.
     27.     18.
     28.     37.
     31.      6.
     36.     23.
     42.      7.
     45.     24.
     44.     41.

```

```

99999
E-VALUES
          X
      0.
      1.
      0.
      1.
      1.
      0.
      1.
      0.
      1.
      0.
      1.
      3.
      0.
      1.

```

```

99999
F-MAP
25 SAMPLE POINTS
MAP1.1
BRIAN K. YOUNG
  1      5.1      5.1
  2      0.0      0.0      51.0      51.0
  3      10.
  4      0.0
  5      9.0
  7
0123456789*****

```

```

      8
     15      10.      10.
     21
     31
     36
     37
99999
999999

```

C  
C  
C

Figure 17. Sample SYMAP job stream

```

C***** PROGRAM DAVE *****
C
C THIS PROGRAM REFORMATS THE OUTPUT OF SYMAP FMAP ELECTIVE
C 21, MAKING IT COMPATIBLE WITH PROGRAM CHECK. "DAVE" WAS
C WRITTEN BY DAVE FUHRER WHOM I WISH TO THANK.
C
C
C
      INTEGER MATRIX(50,50), R,S
      REAL MAP(150,150)
      OPEN (15,FILE='INTMAP')
      READ (8) NR,NC
      DO 100 J=1,NR
      READ (8) (MAP(J,K), K=1,NC)
100    CONTINUE
      DO 200 J=1,50
      DO 150 K=1,50
          R=J
          S=K
          MATRIX(R,S) = MAP(J,K)
150    CONTINUE
200    CONTINUE
      WRITE(15,250) ((MATRIX(R,S), S=1,50), R=1,50)
250    FORMAT(50I1)
      END

```

Figure 18. Program DAVE

```

C***** PROGRAM CHECK *****
C
C BRIAN K. YOUNG                      SEPTEMBER, 1983
C
C THIS PROGRAM OVERLAYS TWO GRID CELL MAPS AND COMPARES ONE
C TO THE OTHER, CELL BY CELL, AND CALCULATES THEIR
C COEFFICIENT OF AREAL CORRESPONDENCE. FURTHER, IT PRODUCES
C A MAP OF THE RESIDUALS ON "TAPE17".
C
C
C
      CHARACTER MAP(2500)
      INTEGER X(50,50), Y(50,50), I, J, ROW, COL, N, S, Q, K, F, U
      REAL ACC, W
      OPEN (10, FILE='MAP1')
      OPEN (15, FILE='INTMAP')
      I=0
      W=0
      J=0
      ROW=0
      COL=0
      N=0
      S=0
      Q=1
      F=1
      U=50
      ACC=0
25      READ (10,25) ((X(I,J), J=1,50), I=1,50)
      FORMAT (50I1)
45      READ (15,45) ((Y(ROW,COL), COL=1,50), ROW=1,50)
      FORMAT (50I1)
      DO 155, I=1,50
      DO 150, J=1,50
      ROW=I
      COL=J
      IF(X(I,J) .EQ. Y(ROW,COL)) THEN
          S=S+1
          MAP(Q)='.'
      ELSE
          N=N+1
          MAP(Q)='X'
      END IF
      Q=Q+1
150      CONTINUE
155      CONTINUE
      Q=1
      W=S
      ACC=W/2500
      WRITE (17,160) N,S,ACC
160      FORMAT('N=',I4,3X,'S=',I4,3X,'ACC=',F4.3)
      DO 200, K=1,50
190      FORMAT(50A1)
      WRITE(17,190) (MAP(Q), Q=F,U)
      Q=Q+50
      F=F+50
      U=U+50
200      CONTINUE
      CLOSE(17, STATUS='KEEP')
      END

```

Figure 19. Program CHECK



000000000001111100006607000440022220070071150777  
000000000001111100000666700094222220007771050070  
0000000020211100000066660700944411200000771050000  
0020000022211100000000660070000011200000771050070  
010222220222030000000001111000111100000771101070  
0100000222200003300000004411109111100011710411470  
0020200022200033300090004111119999110111700441000  
0022020220003331003990044111119999110100000011101  
20222204443302113339999911119999911100055711111  
20222000443222211003333996644900090199990055771441  
2244400043022220000999966660000099900000005371441  
244333333700020000003336665505509000000005551111  
4443332227222000020066666605555000550040055570000  
444002222720000001222999999555555555044441570000  
4400000227200011122299559995577996655500011001100  
4400000000010111122022555995577616666000001011000  
4400002002011112220220056695577616661101000111115  
44000222220111322000200036555566111111000115555  
0442222299111322003020033366666611111730005555666  
0542233599133000000000333666663111173355566555  
05533333593033333300333666663333333355555555  
055333333330000033300333111300033333333335555  
035533330000000009933333331133004077005553333555  
44333322000000007099993333331100407703555333333  
4444423220000077709999303330091004077633555555333  
22222322220000700999900777000090017766555555363  
22222333320000711999077700400908177763335557656  
22223003330000011999907770040098887763333555656  
22223300302220990019900007011071881177666633565555  
2223333000022997901990111701117788117633633565555  
22366600000297799101111000030000111333365556653  
233666099022277991100110000003444111533335555653  
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Map 1

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Map 2

Figure 20. Digital form of Maps 1 and 2

Map 3

Map 4

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## Map 5

Map 6

Figure 22. Digital form of Maps 5 and 6