

## **Before Getting Started**

TNTmips provides a variety of tools for working with geologic data and making geologic maps that can be printed or distributed as an electronic atlas. This booklet is intended as a general guide to making geologic maps in TNTmips. Using a sample geologic map layout, it discusses how the different data layers were prepared and assembled, and illustrates the type of results you can achieve with your own data using TNTmips.

**Prerequisite Skills** This booklet assumes that you have completed the exercises in the tutorial booklets *Displaying Geospatial Data* and *TNT Product Concepts*. Those exercises introduce essential skills and basic techniques that are not covered again here. Please consult those booklets for any review you need.

**Sample Data** The data used to prepare the map shown in this booklet are distributed as sample data with the TNT products. Although this booklet does not include exercises with step-by-step instructions on how to use this data, you may wish to view the different data layers and experiment with them before you begin working with your own geologic map data. In particular, this booklet refers to sample files in the GEOLMAP data collection.

**More Documentation** This booklet is intended only as an overview of useful strategies for preparing and assembling geospatial data layers to make geologic maps. As different tasks and procedures are discussed in the text, references are provided to appropriate tutorial booklets that provide exercises introducing the tools for performing those tasks in TNTmips.

**TNTmips® Pro and TNTmips Free** TNTmips (the Map and Image Processing System) comes in three versions: the professional version of TNTmips (TNTmips Pro), the low-cost TNTmips Basic version, and the TNTmips Free version. All versions run exactly the same code from the TNT products DVD and have nearly the same features. If you did not purchase the professional version (which requires a software license key) or TNTmips Basic, then TNTmips operates in TNTmips Free mode.

All of the objects in the sample MIDMAP Project File are useable in TNTmips Free.

Randall B. Smith, Ph.D., 4 January 2012 ©MicroImages, Inc., 2002-2012

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You can print or read this booklet in color from MicroImages' Web site. The Web site is also your source for the newest Getting Started booklets on other topics. You can download an installation guide, sample data, and the latest version of TNTmips.

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### Welcome to Making Geologic Maps



Geological data plays a key role in the discovery and development of new sources of minerals and energy, evaluation of water resources, engineering assessment for construction projects, evaluation of risks from natural hazards, and environmental monitoring and remediation, among other applications. The starting point for all such studies is usually a geologic map of the relevant area.

A geologic map depicts the geologist's observations and inferences about the surface distribution, geometry, and structure of the various rocks and sediments in the area. The geologist usually gathers much of the information shown in a geologic map by examin-

ing rock outcrops in the field. The field data may

be supplemented by interpretation of aerial photographs or satellite images and in some cases by analysis of geochemical samples or geophysical surveys.

In the past, manual methods were used for recording geological map data and preparing the final map. But modern computer software tools such as TNTmips can be used to streamline both of those tasks.

And once the map data is in digital form, it can be interactively queried, readily



combined with imagery or with map data from adjoining areas to aid interpretation, or distributed as an electronic atlas.

TNTmips provides a set of software tools that is uniquely suited to the tasks of recording and compiling varied types of geological map data and preparing the final geologic map layout. This booklet discusses general strategies you can use to record, organize, and format your own geologic data so that it can be easily assembled into a layout for printing or for distribution as part of an electronic atlas.

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## **Components of a Geologic Map**

#### Map Units

In making a geologic map, the geologist must recognize or define units or rock or surficial sediment that can be differentiated and mapped. The areas underlain by each unit are indicated on geologic maps by polygonal areas with distinctive fill

colors and patterns. Each unit is also labeled with a text symbol that commonly encodes age information and an abbreviation for the unit name. If a particular unit polygon is too small for the text label to fit inside, it should be placed outside the polygon with a leader line connecting the two.

#### Contacts

The boundary lines between the map unit polygons represent the surface traces of geologic contacts. In many places contacts may be obscured by soil cover or younger sediment, so different line styles are used to indicate the geologist's degree of confidence in the contact location. Typically a solid line represents an exposed contact, a dashed line indicates an obscured (approximately located) contact, and a dotted line shows a contact covered by surficial sediments.

#### Structures

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Mappable structures such as folds and faults are shown by line symbols on geologic maps. Different symbols are used for different varieties of folds (anticlines and synclines) and faults (normal, reverse, thrust, and strikeslip). Faults may coincide with unit contacts, and the same confidence symbology used for contact lines is

commonly applied to line symbols for faults.

Measurements of the attitude of rock layers or other outcrop-scale structures can be shown on large-scale maps by special point symbols. The symbol indicates the type of structure and its orientation and numerical label show the measured attitude.

#### **Other Elements**

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The base map information included in a geologic map usually includes labeled topographic contours (for large-scale maps), hydrographic features, and cultural features such as roads. A legend provides an explanation for the area, line, and point symbols and often an abbreviated description of the geologic units and their ages. A printed geologic map also requires standard cartographic elements such as scale information, map grid ticks with labels, and coordinate information.







### **Data Models for Geologic Maps**

The geologic information shown on a geologic map can be represented most conveniently using the vector data format in TNTmips. Individual areas of map units can be represented as polygon elements with polygon labels; contacts, faults, and other linear structures can be represented as line elements; and observations at individual map locations can be represented as point elements.

Unlike some other GIS and mapping software, TNTmips allows individual vector objects to include any or all types of vector element: points, lines, polygons, nodes, and labels. When you display vector objects in TNTmips, you can independently set up styling for each type of element. You can apply one style for all elements of that type, or base styles on attributes in related database tables.

Vector Layer Controls (3288)

Object Points Lines Polygons Nodes Labels 3D

Although the computer representa-

tion of the spatial elements of a geologic map is straight-forward, the relationships between the spatial elements and the associated geologic attribute information is commonly quite complex. As a relatively simple example, consider a line element that forms the boundary between two map unit polygons (red line in the illustration below). This line represents a contact located with some degree of accuracy. It might also be a particular type of contact, such as a normal fault with the west side downthrown. And that fault might be regionally significant and thus have a



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name. To convey all of this information, the line needs to have attributes for positional accuracy, fault type, and fault name. To reduce redundancy in the database, these attributes might be in different attribute tables related directly to the map elements or to each other. To avoid assigning attributes for upthrown and downthrown sides of dip-slip faults altogether, these faults might be digitized such that the downthrown side was always on the same side (left or right).

As government agencies around the world have begun the transition to digital geologic maps, they have attempted to develop appropriate relational database models that can efficiently and completely represent geological attributes. One such effort is the Digital Geologic Map Data Model under development by a committee representing the federal, state, and provincial geological surveys of the United States and Canada. A report on the current draft version is available at <u>http://ngmdb.usgs.gov/www-nadm</u>. This problem is not a simple one, and you will need to give considerable thought to the design of the attribute databases for your digital geologic map.

# **Digitizing Your Field Map**

The Midway Valley geologic map included with this booklet was prepared entirely in TNTmips using publicly-available map data produced by the United States Geological Survey (USGS). (The map layout and all relevant data are in the MIDMAP Project File distributed with the booklet.) We will use this map to discuss and illustrate some of the issues and strategies involved in producing a digital geologic map. But let's assume you are working with your own geologic map data. How do you get your map data into digital form?

The method you use depends in part on how you are collecting the data. If you have recorded the map and outcrop data only in paper form (field map and field notebook), you will need to digitize the field map. You could use an external digitizing tablet to trace over and vectorize the contact lines, faults, and station locations, but for more accurate results you should try the heads-up digitizing method.

First scan your field map and georeference the resulting raster image of the map. You can then use the raster map as a reference (background) layer in the TNT Editor and use the mouse to trace the map features into new vector objects. Since the new vector elements are displayed over your reference map image, you can visually check your accuracy as you go along. You can assign attributes to the vector elements as you create them in the editor, or later in the Display process.

You can consult the tutorial booklets *Editing Vector Geodata*, and *Managing Geoattributes* for more information and sample exercises for these procedures.

The TNTmips vector data structure allows you to represent the geological data in a single vector object, and

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this provides the most efficient means to digitize and store the data for a large, complex map. Later you may want to separate the data into different thematic layers (such as unit contacts, faults, and outcrop structures) for more flexibility in setting up the map layout. To do so, you can use the Vector Extract process, choose the desired element type(s), and select the desired elements by attribute or by using a script.

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### **Recording Digital Data at the Outcrop**

Computers and other electronic devices have now become small, powerful, and inexpensive enough to be used in the field to collect geologic data directly in digital format. Collecting data in digital format removes the need for later redigitizing of the field data.

The first step in "going digital" at the outcrop is using a Global Positioning System (GPS) receiver to provide map coordinates for each field station at which you record outcrop information. You can record the map coordinates in your field notes and also store them as a "waypoint" in the GPS unit.



Most GPS receivers can store hundreds of waypoints and can download a waypoint list to a desktop or laptop computer in ASCII text format. In camp, at the end of each field day or at the end of each week, you can download the current waypoint list to a laptop and import the text file into TNTmips to create a set of point elements in a vector object, with each point representing a station location.

You can further automate data collection by recording essential attribute data in digital form at each station. This can be done in several ways. Some GPS receivers can be linked to a data-logger accessory or to a handheld computer running software that enables attributes to be recorded for each waypoint as it is logged. As an alternative, you can use a handheld computer independently from the GPS to record lithology, rock unit name, structural measurements, and other essential data for each station. You can then download both GPS waypoint and attribute data as text files to a laptop, merge the data using a spreadsheet or database program, then import the data into TNTmips to create attributed vector points.

#### **GPS Accuracy**

Since the United States government ended the policy of Selective Availability for GPS signals, inexpensive 12-channel GPS units can provide horizontal accuracy of 7 to 15 meters under optimal conditions without differential correction. Newer receivers can provide higher accuracy in the United States using the signal from the Wide Area Augmentation System (WAAS). The WAAS system, in development by the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA), calculates the errors in the satellite GPS signal at ground monitoring stations around the country, then transmits error-correction data to GPS receivers via geostationary satellites. (Similar systems are being developed in Europe and Asia.) The FAA expects horizontal and vertical accuracy to within 7 meters, but testing by several GPS receiver manufacturors indicates accuracy to within 3 meters 95% of the time. This accuracy is sufficient for geological mapping at 1:24,000 or smaller scales.



## Making Your Digital Map in the Field

You may also want to try creating your digital geologic map in the field using TNTmips running on a ruggedized laptop computer. View windows in TNTmips can read positions from a GPS receiver and place a location symbol in the view. (You can connect a handheld GPS receiver to the laptop via a serial cable or use a GPS PCMCIA card.) You can use this GPS



input when you add elements to vector objects with the Editor, such as points to a vector with station locations and lines to a vector with contact lines. (The Editor lets you have several objects open for editing at the same time.) As you walk along a contact, the Editor can track the changing GPS position and add line vertices automatically, or you can add a new position only when you choose. More information on using GPS with TNTmips is available in the tutorial booklet *Operating with a GPS Unit*.



Adding a point element to a vector object of station locations using the current GPS coordinates. The structural attitude symbols are point symbols generated by a CartoScript using data entered in an attached database table (see the tutorial booklet *Using CartoScripts*). The point display controls have also been set to generate a label for each point with the station number and map unit code, each read from the same

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attached table. A Database Prompt was set up to automatically open a single-record view of this table, allowing the attributes for each new station point to be entered as it is added. Two reference layers are shown: a scanned and georeferenced topographic base map and a vector object with the contacts and map unit polygons mapped on previous days. Contact lines are styled by attribute according to contact type and completed polygons are styled by attribute using the unit code.

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## **Digital Basemap Data**

The influence of topography on the pattern of contact and fault lines provides geologists with information about the three-dimensional orientation of these features. For this reason, geologic maps produced at scales of 1:250,000 or larger typically include a topographic base with labeled elevation contours. In most cases the base map also includes natural water features and any cultural features



Extract from a DRG raster.

(roads, trails) that can help provide location information to a map user in the field.

The source for your digital topographic base can be either 1) a scanned (rasterized) image of a published topographic map or 2) one or more vector layers showing the various types of features in the base map (hydrology, contours, etc.). You can scan and georeference paper topographic maps yourself, or purchase scanned images such as the Digital Raster Graphics series produced by the United States Geological Survey. Vector versions of U.S. topographic map data of many areas are available for free

download in the Digital Line Graph series (http://eros.usgs.gov/#/Find\_Data/

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<u>Products and Data Available/DLGs</u>). If DLG contour data are unavailable for your area, you can use the Surface Modeling process in TNT-mips to produce contours from raster digital elevation models.

To prevent the various original map colors from distracting from the geologic information on your final map, a scanned base map should be converted to a high-contrast grayscale or binary



Vector contour lines with labels and separate road vector.

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Grayscale version of a scanned topographic map.

(such as green vegetation shading) removed as possible. Using vector layers for the base map gives you more control over color and of the order of layers in the layout.



## Map Layers in the Midway Geologic Map

The map group in the Midway Valley geologic map plate is composed of a number of overlaid data layers, plus two map grids (State Plane and Latitude / Longitude) generated from the data. An exploded view of the data layers is shown to the right for a representative area.

The segregation of the map data into this particular collection of layers was driven in part by the organization of the raw data supplied by the USGS. Faults, contacts, and geologic unit polygons were in different data files. Contours and roads were not provided, so data files for these layer were procured and assembled separately. The layer sequence used for this plate should therefore not be interpreted as an ideal or optimal solution, just

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one viable solution driven by the nature of the source map data. When you create your own digital geologic map, you have control over the division of data into separate layers and database tables, so you will have to consider the final map presentation in designing your data structure.

Note that I placed the geologic unit polygon layer on the bottom, below the base map data layers (contours, roads, and topographic feature labels). This order enabled me to use opaque polygon fills for the geologic units, which serve as a background for all of the other data layers. Alternatively, the base map layers could have been placed on the bottom, but this would have required setting a partial transparency value for each of the geologic unit polygon fill styles (one style for each rock unit) so that the underlying base map layers would be visible. Also, note that I used black to style the geologic lines and labels, but a neutral gray for all of the elements in the three base map layers, ensuring that the base map does not distract from the geologic elements of the map.

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### **Geologic Unit Polygons**



A portion of the vector object containing the map unit polygons (*geolpoly*) is shown to the left. Each polygon represents an outcrop area of a particular geologic unit. The geologic attribute information is contained in a polygon database table MapUnits, part of which is shown below. This table contains one record for each geologic unit type, with fields for a numeric unit identifier, the formation name, and the unit symbol.

As indicated by the purple color of its field name, field // PTYPE is set as the primary key field for the table MapUnits. Styles shown in the table are created in the Style Editor. /

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Each record in the table is attached to all of the polygons that represent that unit. The identifier field PTYPE is set as the primary key field for the table. The unique values in this field were then used to set up polygon styles by attribute, with one style for each unit type.

For simplicity, solid fill colors were used for all units. You can also create bitmap fill patterns or hatch patterns for polygon fills, but make sure patterned fills are appropriate for the final scale you have in mind for the map. Since the contacts and faults are shown by other data layers in the layout, lines are not selected for display in this layer, and no polygon border is displayed. For more information on setting up polygon styles, consult the tutorial booklet *Creating and Using Styles*.

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12 Tiva Canyon Tuff undivided

7 Rhyolite of Comb Peak, lava

8 Rhyolite of Comb Peak, ash-flow tuff

## **Unit Labels and Contacts**

If the map unit labels were included in the bottom geolpoly layer, they would be partially obscured by the lines in the overlying contour layer. For this reason I included a separate layer for unit labels in the layout. The geol\_labels layer is a copy of the geolpoly vector object to which I added polygon labels. I used the Auto Generate Label operation in the Editor to add the labels and used the Attribute option to read the label text from the UNIT\_SYMBOL field in the MapUnits table (illustrated on the preceding page). This operation places the label within the polygon if it will fit. If the polygon is too small,



Sample area with unit contact, unit label, and all underlying map layers.

the label is placed inside a neighboring polygon with a leader line stretching to the label's parent polygon. Once the labels are added, you can edit them to

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change the label position and the position of the leader line. For more information on label auto-generation, consult the tutorial booklet *Advanced Vector Editing*.

In order for polygon labels to be displayed, polygons must be selected for display and a polygon border or fill must be defined. The polygons in the *geol\_labels* layer are styled by attribute with no fill but with sol-

id borders drawn in the unit color. Contact and fault lines in overlying layers are drawn over these polygon borders, so the borders are not evident in the finished map.

Geologic contacts other than faults are contained in the *Contacts* layer. The contacts are drawn with either solid or dashed lines (by attribute) based on the attached record

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in the CONTACTS table. You can find more information about setting up line styles in the tutorial booklet *Creating and Using Styles*.



### Faults

Lines representing the surface traces of faults are contained in the *faults* layer. The lines are styled by attribute to indicate both the fault type (normal or unknown) and the location confidence (solid, dashed, and dotted versions of the

fault type style). The barb-and-ball normal fault symbol was created using the Line Style Editor, which lets you create complex line styles using solid or dashed lines, crossing lines, and circles. Line styles requiring other graphic elements (such as the triangular barbs on thrust faults) can be created using CartoScripts (Style by Script option). More information on CartoScripts can be found in the tutorial booklet Using Cartoscripts.

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	6	Fault inferred (dotted)	
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Sample area with faults and all underlying map layers.

Dip-slip fault symbols have elements that are drawn on one side of the fault to indicate the downthrown side (normal fault) or upthrown

side (reverse and thrust faults). Standard line styles or CartoScript symbols that incorporate such elements must draw them on a topologically consistent side of each line element (either right or left), which is relative to the direction in which the ordered line vertices were recorded. After I created the normal fault line styles and applied them, I compared the result to the published map and noted the lines

that had the barb-and-ball symbol on the wrong side. I then edited the *faults* vector and used the Reverse Line Vertices operation to reverse the directions of these lines to reverse their symbols.

Names for major faults are recorded in a separate FaultNames table (right). I used the Auto Generate Label operation in the Editor again to create labels automatically for these faults using the text in the NAME field. I used the Join Lines by Attribute option to create a single label for connected line elements representing segments of the same fault.



Reverse Line Vertices operation in the Vector Tools window.

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## Map Legend

The legend for a geologic map provides an explanation for all of the map unit styles and symbols and for the line and point symbols on the map. For maps of smaller areas (such as a single map quadrangle), the legend also provides a description of the salient lithologic characteristics of each rock unit. Normally entries in the map unit legend are arranged by the ages of the units.

In a map layout you can create legends that automatically use the defined styles to create entries with appropriate samples. Legend labels can be read from a database, or you can enter the text manually. You can add an individual legend object for each object and element type, but the most flexible approach is to create a multi-object legend. In a multi-object legend you can combine legend information for different element types and for different objects in the layout. Creating a multi-object legend is also easier because you use a graphical editor (shown below) that lets you set horizontal and vertical guides to align entries and change the legend order by dragging entries to new positions.

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You can also set text styles in a multi-object legend to automatically justify the text in the legend labels (align both right and left), which improves the appearance of the unit descriptions. You can find more information about legends in the tutorial booklet *Making Map Layouts*.



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## **Other Map Components**

Other cartographic elements of a good geologic map can be created easily in a map layout using the Layout Controls window. You should consult the tutorial booklet *Making Map Layouts* for instructions on how to create the layout elements shown here.

The Midway geologic map includes two map grids as layers in Group 1 (which contains all of the layers for the map itself). The Map Grid Layer



Controls let you set up the extents, interval, and graphic elements for a grid. I set up the Midway map grids to show only border tick marks and labels.



You can easily add one or more scale bars to provide graphic scales for the map. You can control the length, intervals, labeling, and bar

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styles. The verbal scale and contour interval annotation shown here are text elements. You can add any number of text elements to a layout to create titles and other anotations using various fonts and styles. Each element in a map layout is a group that can be positioned separately on the page and is attached to either the page or to another group. I attached the kilometer scale, verbal scale text and contour text to the mile scalebar, so that repositioning that scalebar moves all of the attached elements as well.

the attached elements as well.

The index map for the Midway layout is a map group with several attached text groups. A map layout has a single map scale that applies to



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all spatial groups (set in the Group Settings

window for any group; 1:48,000 for the Midway map). To shrink the index map to a smaller size I set a Relative Zoom value of 0.0009 in its Group Settings window (above).

The declination graphic used in the layout is an SML (Spatial Manipulation Language) script layer. SML display layers are discussed in the tutorial booklet *Writing Scripts with SML*.



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#### Advanced Software for Geospatial Analysis

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- **TNTedit** TNTedit provides interactive tools to create, georeference, and edit vector, image, CAD, TIN, and relational database project materials in a wide variety of formats.
- *TNTview* TNTview has the same powerful display features as TNTmips and is perfect for those who do not need the technical processing and preparation features of TNTmips.
- **TNTatlas** TNTatlas lets you publish and distribute your spatial project materials on CD or DVD at low cost. TNTatlas CDs/DVDs can be used on any popular computing platform.

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