

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR  
U.S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

**A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF GEOMORPHOMETRY**  
**WITH A TOPICAL KEY TO THE LITERATURE AND AN**  
**INTRODUCTION TO THE NUMERICAL CHARACTERIZATION**  
**OF TOPOGRAPHIC FORM**

by  
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# A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF GEOMORPHOMETRY

## WITH A TOPICAL KEY TO THE LITERATURE AND AN INTRODUCTION TO THE NUMERICAL CHARACTERIZATION OF TOPOGRAPHIC FORM

by

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### ABSTRACT

A compilation of over 2100 references provides one-source access to the diverse literature on geomorphometry, the quantification of land-surface form. The report also defines the discipline, describes its scope and practice, discusses goals and applications, and identifies related fields. The bibliography documents the current, computer-driven state-of-art of geomorphometry and furnishes the historical context for understanding its evolution. Most entries address at least one of ten aspects of the science—its conceptual framework, enabling technology, topographic data and their spatial ordering, terrain attributes in vertical and horizontal domains, scale dependence and self-organization of topography, redundancy of descriptive parameters, terrain taxonomy, and the interpretation of land-surface processes. A subset of some 350 references, divided into 49 topics that outline the field of geomorphometry in more detail, guides the reader into the longer, unannotated listing. Lastly, over 100 references trace the development and application of one of the discipline's outstanding new contributions: the DEM-to-watershed transformation.

*Topography is perhaps the single most important land surface characteristic that determines the climatic, hydrologic and geomorphic regimes.*

Isacks and Mouginis-Mark (1992)

applied and basic ends, supporting society's use of technology as well as contributing to scientific understanding of natural processes (Table 1). The main applications of morphometry to technology include engineering, transportation, public works, and military operations. Morphometry for the interpretation of natural processes and events has two principal functions; it leads not only to new discoveries in Earth science, but also to application of those results for improving the condition of human settlement—most explicitly protection from environmental hazards and the management of natural resources.

I hope to address several issues by compiling a reference resource on geomorphometry. The first, and overriding, purpose is to improve access to the scattered writings of this diverse field. A related goal is to promote scholarship in understanding the development of the discipline and in

### INTRODUCTION

This report is a research bibliography on the numerical representation of topography, or *geomorphometry*, a technical field within the Earth sciences. (I use *topography* in the restricted sense of ground surface or *terrain*, excluding vegetation and the cultural landscape.) Also known simply as *morphometry*, this old and widely practiced specialty has been revitalized over the past 25 years by the digital computer and related developments. Geomorphometry serves both

Table 1

## Some Goals and Applications of Geomorphometry

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### I. UNDERSTAND NATURAL PROCESSES

#### A. Pure (primarily Earth) Science—discoveries in:

geomorphology	geophysics	meteorology
geology	soil science	oceanography
hydrology	climatology	planetary science

#### B. Applied Science—uses of new discoveries (A, above) to:

##### 1. Evaluate natural hazards & reduce their effects:

###### *HAZARDS*

slope failure  
wildfire  
earthquake  
flood  
coastal erosion  
volcanic eruption  
severe storm  
tsunami

###### *ACTIVITIES*

inventory & mapping  
zoning  
risk assessment  
mitigation  
prediction  
benefit-cost analysis  
emergency response  
restoration

##### 2. Develop & manage natural resources:

###### *RESOURCES*

water  
soils & arable land  
vegetation & forests  
open space & parks  
minerals & fuels  
wetlands  
wildlife

###### *ACTIVITIES*

inventory & mapping  
environmental protection  
engineering  
benefit-cost analysis  
reclamation  
commodity extraction  
depletion-modeling

### II. SUPPORT TECHNOLOGICAL NEEDS OF SOCIETY

#### A. Engineering, Transportation, & Public Works:

cultivation	vehicle design
urbanization & land use	planning, siting & design of:
telecommunications	<i>bridges, airports, canals, dams,</i>
navigation	<i>highways, irrigation, water supply</i>
waste disposal	planetary-surface exploration

#### B. Military Operations:

concealment & avoidance	reconnaissance & targeting
cross-country mobility	weapons design & deployment
logistics & engineering	tactical & strategic planning

citing its literature. Third, I have taken the opportunity afforded by this compilation to organize the science of geomorphometry—to identify its components and arrange them in a structure that is consistent with current research directions and applications (Table 2). The fourth objective is to foster a sense of unity within a field that is complex and fragmented and to provide its workers with a focus—a sense of place within science and technology. The fifth goal is to provoke new inquiries into the nature of topography, through the cross-fertilization of ideas that the diversity of this bibliography is intended to create. The sixth aim is to prompt colleagues to investigate the field's related disciplines (Fig. 1) and activities (Table 2) for solutions to operational problems in topographic analysis. Seventh, I want to encourage the continuing development of computer software that implements new approaches and procedures in morphometry (for example, Table 3). My final goal is to call attention to the need for higher standards of accuracy in the mass-produced digital elevation data on which progress in the field depends so critically.

## LAND-SURFACE QUANTIFICATION

### The Problem

Form has lagged behind process in the quantitative understanding of the Earth's surface and its evolution. Over the past few decades much progress has been made in describing agents of geomorphic change and how they work, even to the extent of modeling physical processes numerically (for example, Anderson, 1988; Phillips and Renwick, 1992). Representation of the topography itself, except for individual drainage basins (Horton, 1945; Stahler, 1964), has been less successful. Reasons for this include the great complexity of terrain, the resulting difficulty in describing it numerically, and some reluctance to abandon the qualitative approach that has long seemed adequate for much research and teaching. Obstacles to quantifying terrain must be overcome, however, for they restrict the role of

topographic data in addressing important issues in science and technology that require information on land form. Most recent among such problems is the numerical description, or *parameterization*, of continuous land-surfaces, which is essential to understanding the regional distribution of precipitation (Tarboton, 1992) and other elements that contribute to new knowledge of synoptic meteorology and global climate (Henderson-Sellers and Dickinson, 1992; Isacks and Mouginiis-Mark, 1992).

Descriptions of continuous topography tend to be qualitative and subjective, because the prevailing nomenclature is verbal and nonunique. Such adjectives as *hilly*, *steep*, *gentle*, *rough*, and *flat* mean different things to different observers, depending on their experience and the scale of the landscape under scrutiny (Wolfanger, 1941; Frank and others, 1986). The common nouns *mountain*, *plateau*, *hill*, and *plain* are equally imprecise—an old shortcoming inherent in applying everyday language to technical questions. One result is that very different landscapes may be characterized in identical terms. *Rolling hills* in North Dakota, for example, does not mean the same thing as *rolling hills* in Tuscany, and neither resembles the *rolling hills* celebrated in songs of the Scottish Border country. Such confusion reflects several underlying issues. For example, just what *are* rolling hills? What makes them *rolling* to the eye and to the mind; what distinguishes them from *non-rolling hills*? How does an observer's location, both on and above the ground surface, affect the perception of hills as *rolling*? And, for that matter, what is a hill and when is it not a hill but rather a ridge or a mountain? These questions, which are of great interest in applied linguistics and the psychology of cognition, are not trivial (Gibson, 1950, 1979; Hoffman, 1990; Graff, 1992).

The different shades of meaning that reside in qualitative terms greatly impede the communication of information about topography. The basic problem, even among experts familiar with landscapes worldwide, is this: language used to represent continuous terrain is not systematically

equated with measurable attributes of land form (Frank and others, 1986; Hoffman and Pike, 1992). Without such measures and an orderly taxonomy of form it is impossible, for example, to define *rolling hills* or to specify in exactly what respects the hills of Tuscany differ from those of North Dakota or the Scottish Border. More importantly, it is impossible to incorporate those differences, whatever they might be, into numerical models of terrain that can be related to spatial variation in climate and other natural phenomena, or to use topographic form effectively in related applications. Finally, without precise description of the *what* there can be no meaningful *why*—the operation of geomorphic processes at the Earth's surface cannot be explained convincingly in quantitative terms without measures of the resulting topographic forms. Such measures should be sufficiently comprehensive to provide a signature of process (Pike, 1988a, b), save in cases of *convergence*, or *equifinality*—where different processes and conditions yield similar landforms (Thorn, 1988).

## Toward a Solution

The need for repeatable, and thus numerical, description of observations in many sciences has led to the measurement of shape, or *morphometry*. This approach has been particularly successful in such fields as biological systematics (Thompson, 1917; Bookstein, 1978; Warheit, 1992) and sedimentary petrography (Krumbein and Pettijohn, 1938; Marshall, 1987). Application of morphometry to the Earth's surface has come to be known as *geomorphometry*, *geo-*distinguishing this craft from its practice elsewhere, both within and outside of geology and geography. The term, which was simply *morphometry* in the early 20th century and previously *orometry* (Hettner, 1928; Beckinsale and Chorley, 1991), dates back at least to Tricart (1947); it has gained acceptance mainly through the work of Evans (1972) and Mark (1975a). Although a little awkward, the term is no more so than many others in the Earth sciences—for example, paleomagnetism. Lastly, *geomorphometry* is

well established and nothing is to be gained by searching out an alternative.

Reduced to its analytic essentials, topography is just geometry and topology. Geometric measures have long been used to describe the three-dimensional form of topographic features that are expressed as points, lines, areas, and volumes in Euclidean space (Smith, 1935; Melton, 1958b; Wood and Snell, 1960a). However, Euclidean geometry vastly oversimplifies so complex a surface as continuous topography (Frank, 1988). Topologic parameters have been introduced more recently to describe sequential order, connectivity, and other non-Euclidean attributes that comprise the spatial arrangement of topographic features (Horton, 1945; Shreve, 1967; Mark, 1979a). Many measures of both types, some of them taken at several spatial scales, are required to effectively represent the shape of a terrain surface (Van Lopik and Kolb, 1959; Hammond, 1964a, b; Pike and Rozema, 1975). The geometry of basic elements—ridges, valleys, slopes, peaks, depressions, and passes—is captured by slope, curvature, and other derivatives of terrain height in both the vertical (*Z*) domain and in the horizontal (*X,Y*) domain. The topology of these elements is most frequently expressed as a hierarchy of channel links and nodes, ridges, and watersheds. Nonetheless, parameters of *X,Y* attributes other than those based on stream order are essential to fully describe the topology of landscapes—particularly where fluvial degradation is not the dominant process.

Two approaches to geomorphometry are often distinguished (Evans, 1972): *specific*—describing discrete features, or *landforms*, and *general*—describing *continuous topography*, or landscapes. Specific morphometry, which directly reflects geomorphic process, is comparatively well developed (Evans, 1987a; Jarvis and Clifford, 1990). Its application is most mature in the study of drainage basins, impact craters and volcanoes, and other landforms that are readily isolated in the landscape. Specific morphometry is less well developed for landforms that can be difficult to identify or delimit, such as drumlins, sand dunes,

cirques, and karst features (Evans and Cox, 1974). The practice of morphometry is most primitive for the general case, continuous topography, which least directly reflects geomorphic process and is commonly applied to line-of-sight (viewshed), terrain roughness, and other engineering problems. General geomorphometry today offers many challenges (Pike, 1988a; Pike, Acevedo and Card, 1989; Evans, 1990). Its research agenda includes the problem of nonstationarity (azimuth dependence) of much topography, ambiguity of guidelines for sampling terrain, the unknown degree of scale dependence of land form, and difficulties in describing the organization of continuous topography in the  $X,Y$  domain.

### **Morphometry Demystified**

Geomorphometry has been defined as the science "which treats the geometry of the landscape" (Chorley and others, 1957, p. 138), but these few words are now inadequate. The computer revolution and related technology, exploration of the planets and Earth's seafloor, and developments in topology and in surface characterization since 1957 warrant an updated definition. The alternatives are many. They range from simply *quantification of topography* to *numerical extraction and expression of the information content of terrain surfaces*. Whatever the definition, geomorphometry is an emerging discipline of land-surface form that transcends method. It is not just a set of approaches and techniques, a toolbox for solving terrain-related problems in science and technology, but a research specialty of its own. Geomorphometry as a science is still immature. Although morphometry has predictive capability (Wood, 1967), it remains highly empirical and—like geomorphology (Cox and Evans, 1987; Rhoads and Thorn, 1993)—lacks unifying theory.

Much work lies ahead before a theory can be formulated for geomorphometry; two possible approaches are noted briefly here. One path is through geomorphology, perhaps the most closely allied discipline (Thorn, 1988). For example, a theory of morphometry might build formal geometric and topologic structures of the Earth's surface for

geomorphology, in somewhat the same way that crystallography provides the geometric foundation for mineralogy. Such simple analogies as this would have to be developed much further and incorporate geomorphic processes. Geography offers an alternate path to morphometric theory, which might be based less on physical processes and laws and more on spatial properties and relations derived from graph theory (Bunge, 1962; Mark, 1979a). Such a theory for geomorphometry would require first a general theory of geographical space (King, 1969; Frank and others, 1986; Peuquet, 1988a) that could be implemented by computer (Frank, 1988; Dikau, 1990a).

Geomorphometry is evolving from a vaguely bounded and supportive role between various disciplines into a coherent academic field. However, it is still more derivative and interdisciplinary than primary and independent. Morphometry borrows from, interacts with or feeds back to, and furnishes information for longer-established areas of study, some of them marginal to the Earth sciences (Fig. 1). It is identified with many military and engineering applications (for example, Bekker, 1969). In the United States, morphometry is allied closely with surface hydrology, notably through work starting with that of Horton (1945) and more recently through the computer-partitioning of watersheds from matrices of terrain heights (Table 3; Tribe, 1992b). The field is recognized as a specialty within geology, geography, and geomorphology (Graf, 1988; Richards, 1990), as well as a subfield of digital cartography (Clarke, 1990).

The content of geomorphometry (Table 2) may be more familiar to Earth scientists as *terrain analysis*, *quantitative geomorphology*, or *terrain modeling*. Although none of these terms is synonymous or entirely correct, all three approaches to land-surface quantification overlap, and morphometry includes much of each field. *Terrain analysis* tends to be applied. Its several connotations—particularly military, engineering, or remote-sensing—often address such problems in general morphometry as the classification of continuous surfaces according to roughness

Figure 1

**Some Cognate Disciplines of Geomorphometry**

**SOURCES FOR APPROACHES AND TECHNIQUES**

Artificial intelligence, Automotive engineering, Biological systematics, Cartography, Civil engineering, Computer science, Digital image-processing, Geometry, Geomorphology, Geophysics, Hydrology, Information technology, Machine visualization, Mathematics, Medical imaging, Microscopy, Military terrain-analysis, Pattern recognition, Photogrammetry, Physical geography, Psychology, Remote sensing, Rural-land classification, Statistics, Surveying, Theoretical geography, Topology, Tribology



**APPLICATIONS OF ANALYSES AND RESULTS**

Agricultural engineering, Cartography, Civil engineering, Communications engineering, Ecology, Economics, Engineering geology, Forestry, Geomorphology, Geotechnical engineering, Hydrology, Land use, Law, Machine visualization, Meteorology & climatology, Military terrain-analysis, Navigation, Oceanography, Physical geography, Planetary science, Planning & zoning, Psychology, Resource management, Risk assessment, Rural-land classification, Soil science, Tectonics, Terrain modeling

(Bekker, 1969). Terrain analysis also can be entirely qualitative and commonly incorporates attributes of landscape other than geometry of the surface—as in the mapping of land systems and similar types of natural units for land-use appraisal (Mitchell, 1973; Way, 1973). *Quantitative geomorphology* is a research discipline with a more strictly scientific focus. It generally interprets physical processes that create discrete features or orderly groups of them, notably drainage basins (Strahler, 1964; Morisawa, 1985) and impact craters (Baldwin, 1963; Pike, 1988c). As a rule, quantitative geomorphology involves specific morphometry and rarely addresses continuous topography, save in the context of regional landscape evolution.

*Terrain, or surface, modeling* describes recent applications of digital-cartographic technology to topographic data (Petrie and Kennie, 1990; Weibel and Heller, 1991). Because the term was rarely used to describe quantitative work predating the computer, it is not synonymous with geomorphometry. Terrain modeling commonly includes relief shading and other means of machine visualization, but it also indicates virtually any spatial ordering and geometric or topologic rendering of the land surface by computer (Dikau, 1990a). Terrain modeling is largely an automated implementation of general geomorphometry. Increasingly, however, such computer-based procedures as the delimitation of watersheds from elevation matrices (Table 3) are blurring the operational distinction between general and specific cases—between landscapes and landforms. Much of the future growth of geomorphometry, including development of its theory, almost certainly lies in what is now termed terrain modeling.

### **Current Practice**

Although long established as a research endeavor, and more recently a discipline in its own right, geomorphometry remains diffuse and ill-defined. Much of the ambiguity arises from an ever-growing and diversifying technology that provides so many new ways to model topography by computer (Fisher and Lindenbergh, 1989). To

consolidate and more sharply focus the discipline of geomorphometry, I have identified 49 groups of activities or topics that characterize its current state-of-art and suggest a further ten-fold ordering of them (Table 2). This classification is not unique, for the topics could be arranged differently, some topics could be consolidated, and others could be added. I have simply found the structure of Table 2 to be helpful in my own research, in teaching, and in communicating with colleagues. The topics and relations shown in Table 1 and Figure 1, which outline some applications and cognate disciplines of geomorphometry, further aid in this attempt to define the field as it exists today.

The ten general areas in Table 2 are reviewed briefly here; the first four subject headings treat introductory topics and method. *Conceptual framework* sets forth an approach to the numerical representation of both discrete forms and continuous topography; it also addresses such complications of morphometry as its inherently spatial context. *Enabling technology* includes several computer-based techniques for the description of land form. Among these are different approaches to feature measurement as well as the most common means of machine visualization—relief shading. The heading *topographic data* emphasizes the production of information that is used to capture surface form, with special attention to the fidelity of digitized elevations obtained from contour maps. *Spatial ordering of topographic information* is concerned with designs for sampling terrain, often from contour maps, and with structuring the resulting elevations in ways that best describe surface form.

The remaining six topics in Table 2 cover the technical details of terrain representation and the applications of geomorphometry. *Derivatives of elevation in the vertical (Z) domain* include relief and slope angle, and are the most easily generated descriptors of topography. Such *attributes of terrain in the X,Y (horizontal) domain* as spacing and arrangement are more difficult to compute than Z-domain descriptors, but also capture much of the visual perception of surface form.

Table 2

**A Topical Key to the Literature on Geomorphometry**

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**INTRODUCTION**

**1. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

**TOWARD A THEORY OF  
GEOMORPHOMETRY**

Berry, 1968  
Dikau, 1990a  
Frank, Palmer, and Robinson, 1986  
Krcho, 1973, 1990  
Kugler, 1974  
Mark and Frank, 1989  
Thorn, 1988

**PERCEPTION & COGNITION OF  
TOPOGRAPHY**

Aloimonos, 1988  
Gibson, 1950, 1979  
Heinrichs and others, 1992  
Hoffman, 1990  
Hoffman and Pike, 1992  
Hsu, 1974  
Lay, 1991  
Savitt and others, 1992  
Tamura and others, 1978  
Young and Yamane, 1992

**QUANTIFYING TOPOGRAPHY—NEEDS  
& CAPABILITIES**

Clarke, 1966  
Greysukh, 1967  
Hammond, 1954a, 1965  
Horton, 1945  
Mark and Warntz, 1982  
Pitty, 1982  
Richards, 1990  
Strahler, 1954a, 1992  
Wolfanger, 1941  
Wood and Snell, 1960a

**LAND FORM VS. LANDFORMS:  
CONTINUOUS SURFACES VS. DISCRETE  
FEATURES**

Evans, 1972, 1987a, 1990  
Hammond, 1965

Jarvis and Clifford, 1990  
Mark, 1975b  
Renwick, 1992  
Weaver, 1965

**MORPHOMETRY AS ANALYTICAL  
CARTOGRAPHY**

Chervyakov, 1990  
Clarke, 1990  
Dikau, 1990a, 1992  
Frank, Palmer, and Robinson, 1986  
Monkhouse and Wilkinson, 1971  
Peucker, 1972  
Tobler, 1976

**METHOD**

**2. ENABLING TECHNOLOGY**

**DIGITAL TERRAIN (SURFACE)  
MODELING**

Clarke, 1990  
Dikau, 1989,  
McCullagh, 1988  
Petrie and Kennie, 1990  
Weibel, 1992  
Weibel and Heller, 1991

**GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION  
SYSTEMS**

Aronoff, 1989  
Burrough, 1986  
Carrara and others, 1991  
Cowen, 1988  
Davis and Dozier, 1990  
ESRI, 1992a  
Maguire, Goodchild, and Rhind, 1991  
Raper, 1989

**REMOTE  
SENSING**

Eppler and Farmer, 1991  
Franklin, 1991

Haralick and others, 1985  
Leberl and others, 1991  
Raggam and others, 1989  
Sasowsky and others, 1991  
Toriwaki and Fukumura, 1978  
Wang and others, 1984

#### DIGITAL IMAGE-PROCESSING

Fabbri, 1984  
Jensen, 1986  
Ourmazd and others, 1989  
Peuquet, 1979  
Pike, Acevedo, and Thelin, 1988  
Pike and Thelin, 1989

#### AUTOMATED RELIEF SHADING & PHOTOCALINOMETRY

Batson and others, 1975  
Dubayah and Dozier, 1986  
Elvhage and Lidmar-Bergström, 1987  
Friedhoff and Benzon, 1991  
Horn, 1981, 1990  
Kennie and McLaren, 1988  
Moellering and Kimerling, 1990  
Muller and others, 1988  
Thelin and Pike, 1991  
Yoeli, 1967

#### AUTOMATED PATTERN RECOGNITION & FEATURE EXTRACTION

Argialas and others, 1988  
Buttenfield, 1987  
Greysukh, 1967  
Haralick and others, 1985  
Ivanov and Chalova, 1987  
Lay, 1991  
Nagao and Matsuyama, 1980  
Pao, 1989  
Riazanoff and others, 1990  
Rosenfeld, 1981  
Graff, 1992

#### EXPERT SYSTEMS & ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

Argialas and Narasimhan, 1988  
Hadipriono and others, 1990  
Mackay and others, 1992  
Narasimhan and Argialas, 1989  
Schenk and Zilberstein, 1990  
Usery and others, 1988

#### COMPUTER ALGORITHMS & SOFTWARE PACKAGES

Barchi and Guzzetti, 1990  
Cole and others, 1990  
Collins and Moon, 1981  
Dozier and Frew, 1990  
ESRI, 1991b, 1992b  
Evans, 1980  
Franklin and Peddle, 1987  
Greender, 1976  
Guth and others, 1987  
Hobson, 1967  
Jenson and Domingue, 1988  
Nogami, 1985  
Peddle and Franklin, 1990  
Schaber, Pike, and Berlin, 1980  
Thorn and others, 1987  
Turner and Miles, 1968  
Wolf, 1991b

### 3. TOPOGRAPHIC DATA

#### ACCURACY OF CONTOUR MAPS

El-Tahlawi and Rashad, 1991  
Fahsi and others, 1990  
Gugan and Dowman, 1988  
Gustafson and Loon, 1982  
Mahoney and others, 1991  
Mark, 1983a

#### DIGITAL ELEVATION MODELS (DEM's) & DIGITAL LINE GRAPHS (DLG's) I—CREATION & AVAILABILITY

Berry and others, 1988  
Ellassal and Caruso, 1983  
Hall and others, 1990  
Hutchinson and Dowling, 1991  
Kidner and Smith, 1992  
McCulloch and Marinaro, 1988  
Rinehart and Coleman, 1988  
Schut, 1976  
Sharif and Makarovic, 1989  
Smith and Wessel, 1990  
Topographic Science Working Group, 1988  
U.S. Defense Mapping Agency, 1992  
Wolf and Wingham, 1992  
Yoeli, 1986

## DEM's & DLG's II—ASSESSMENT OF ERROR & QUALITY

Acevedo, 1991  
Carter, 1989, 1992  
Ebisch, 1984  
Förstner, 1983  
Guth, 1992  
Hannah, 1981  
Li, 1992  
Östman, 1987  
Pan, 1989  
Polidori and others, 1991  
Theobald, 1989  
Theobald and Goodchild, 1990  
USGS, 1988

## ADVANCED TECHNIQUES OF DATA ACQUISITION

Björnsson, 1988  
Brozena and others, 1992  
Evans and others, 1992  
Gardner, 1992  
Gugan and Dowman, 1988  
Krabill and others, 1984  
Leberl and others, 1991  
Marks and others, 1993  
Raggam and others, 1989

## 4. SPATIAL ORDERING OF TOPOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

### SAMPLE DESIGNS TO EXTRACT DATA FROM CONTOUR MAPS

Ansault, 1989  
Carstensen, 1990  
Richards, 1990  
Maling, 1989  
Mark, 1975b  
Ming, 1992  
Snell, 1961  
Strahler, 1956  
Wood, 1967  
Wood and Snell, 1960a

### CARTOGRAPHIC DATA STRUCTURES I—RASTER & QUADTREE

Cebrian and others, 1985  
Chen and Tobler, 1986  
ESRI, 1991a  
Ibbs and Stevens, 1988

Maguire, Kimber, Barry, and Chick, 1991  
Samet, 1990  
Shaffer, 1988

### CARTOGRAPHIC DATA STRUCTURES II—SURFACE-SPECIFIC

Falcidieno and Pienovi, 1990  
Frank, Palmer, and Robinson, 1986  
Mark, 1979b  
Peucker and Chrisman, 1975  
Thapa, 1988  
Wolf, 1991a

### THE TRIANGULATED IRREGULAR NETWORK (TIN)

DeFloriani and others, 1986  
ESRI, 1991b  
Goodrich and others, 1991  
Lee, 1991b  
McKenna, 1986  
Mirante and Weingarten, 1982  
Peucker, Fowler, Little, and Mark, 1978  
Plews and Clarke, 1990  
Theobald and Goodchild, 1990

## CHARACTERIZATION

## 5. Z-DOMAIN ATTRIBUTES

### ELEVATION & SOME OF ITS DERIVATIVES

Clarke, 1966  
Evans, 1980  
Mark, 1975a  
Ohmori and Hirano, 1984  
Pike and Wilson, 1971  
Stearns, 1967  
Strahler, 1952  
Tanner, 1959, 1960

### LOCAL (RELATIVE) RELIEF

Ahnert, 1984  
Drummond and Dennis, 1968  
Ohmori, 1978  
Pike, Acevedo, and Card, 1989  
Wood, 1967  
Zakrzewska, 1967

**ANGLE OF SURFACE  
SLOPE**

Agopova, 1965  
Ahnert, 1970a  
Blong, 1975  
Mark, Newman, and Brabb, 1988  
Moore and Mark, 1986  
O'Neill and Mark, 1987a  
Pitty, 1968  
Speight, 1971  
Strahler, 1956  
Young, 1972

**CURVATURE OF SLOPE  
IN PROFILE**

Carrara and others, 1978  
Heerdegen and Beran, 1982  
Papo and Gelbman, 1984  
Pike, 1988a  
Troeh, 1965

**6. X,Y-DOMAIN ATTRIBUTES**

**AZIMUTH (ASPECT) OF TOPOGRAPHIC  
FEATURES**

Abdel-Rahman and Hay, 1981  
Dale and Ballantyne, 1980  
Evans, 1977b  
Gordon, 1981  
Jones, 1968  
Wadge, 1988  
Wadge and Cross, 1988  
Williams, 1974

**LAND-SURFACE CURVATURE  
IN PLAN**

Chang and Toebes, 1970  
Evans, 1972, 1980  
Snow, 1989  
Troeh, 1965

**PLANIMETRIC SHAPE OF TERRAIN  
FEATURES**

Jarvis, 1976  
Komar, 1984  
LaGro, 1991  
McArthur and Ehrlich, 1977  
Ongley, 1970  
Piotrowski, 1989  
Van Lopik and Kolb, 1959  
Whalley and Orford, 1989

Williams, 1972a  
Woronow, 1981

**TERRAIN TEXTURE  
I—SPACING & FREQUENCY**

Dolan and others, 1974  
Gregory and Gardiner, 1975  
Hallet, 1990  
Haralick, 1978  
Hill, 1973  
Howard, 1992  
Lancaster, 1988  
Mulla, 1988  
Pike and Rozema, 1975  
Tarboton and others, 1992

**TERRAIN TEXTURE  
II—ARRANGEMENT (PATTERN)**

Anderson, 1987  
Eppler and Farmer, 1991  
Franklin and Peddle, 1987  
He and Wang, 1990  
Hsu, 1978  
Mark, 1988  
Rossbacher, 1986  
Trifonov and Shults, 1990  
Vincent, 1987

**TOPOLOGY OF CHANNELS AND OTHER  
ELEMENTS OF FORM**

Abrahams, 1987  
Bras and Rodriguez-Iturbe, 1989  
Hadipriono and others, 1989  
Haynes, 1977  
Howard, 1990a  
Mark, 1979a, 1988  
Shreve, 1975  
Warntz, 1975  
Werner, 1991

**7. SCALE DEPENDENCY &  
SPATIAL SELF-ORGANIZATION**

**VARIATION OF LAND FORM WITH  
SPATIAL SCALE**

Church and Mark, 1980  
Frank, Palmer, and Robinson, 1986  
Hallet, 1990  
Lettau, 1967  
Montgomery and Dietrich, 1992

Shaw and Smith, 1990  
Wood and Snell, 1957

#### CARTOGRAPHIC GENERALIZATION & MAP SCALE

Buttenfield, 1989  
McMaster, 1989  
Scheidegger, 1966  
Tobler, 1966  
Weibel, 1992  
Wolf, 1991b

#### UNIFORM & NONUNIFORM RELATIONS OF SCALING—ISOMETRY & ALLOMETRY

Bull, 1975  
Church and Mark, 1980  
Mosley and Parker, 1972  
Sprent, 1972  
Woldenberg, 1966

#### SPATIAL AUTOCORRELATION OF TOPOGRAPHY

Mark and Aronson, 1984  
Olea, 1977  
Oliver and Webster, 1986  
Pike, Acevedo, and Card, 1989  
Thompson, 1959  
Wood and Snell, 1959c  
Woodcock and others, II, 1988

#### PROPERTIES OF THE TOPOGRAPHIC VARIANCE SPECTRUM

Bryson and Dutton, 1967  
Ferguson, 1975  
Fox and Hayes, 1985  
Jaeger and Schuring, 1966  
Mark and Aronson, 1984  
Pike and Rozema, 1975  
Rayner, 1972

#### FRACTAL DIMENSIONS OF TOPOGRAPHY

Burrough, 1981  
Clarke, 1986  
Goodchild and Mark, 1987  
Liu, 1992  
Phillips, 1986  
Piech and Piech, 1990  
Snow and Mayer, 1992  
Xia, Clarke, and Plews, 1991b

## 8. REDUNDANCY OF TERRAIN PARAMETERS

#### MEASUREMENT OF COVARIANCE

Engstrom, 1989  
Evans, 1972, 1984a  
Gordon, 1977  
Gray, 1961  
Mark, 1975a  
Melton, 1958b  
Pike and Wilson, 1971

#### SORTING OUT INDEPENDENT DESCRIPTORS

Ebisemiju, 1979b  
Evans, 1984a  
Miller and others, 1990  
Pike, 1974, 1988b  
Wong, 1963

## RESULTS & APPLICATIONS

## 9. TERRAIN TAXONOMY

#### CLASSIFICATION SCHEMES & THE GEOMETRIC SIGNATURE

Demek, 1972  
Hammond, 1954a  
Mather, 1972  
Parry and Beswick, 1973  
Pike, 1988a  
Schreier and Lavkulich, 1979  
Speight, 1976  
Van Lopik and Kolb, 1959

#### TOPOGRAPHIC TYPES & TOPOGRAPHIC REGIONS

Beckinsale and Chorley, 1991  
Dikau, Brabb, and Mark, 1991  
Eyles, 1971  
Hammond, 1964a, b  
Krasnovskaia, 1988  
Mather and Doornkamp, 1970  
Scott and Austin, 1971  
Speight, 1968, 1974  
Wood and Snell, 1960a

## TERRAIN EVALUATION & LAND SYSTEMS

Burrough, 1989  
Isachenko, 1973  
Mitchell, 1973  
Stewart, 1968  
Townshend, 1981  
Way, 1973

## ENGINEERING CATEGORIZATION OF TOPOGRAPHY

Bekker, 1969  
Chiou and others, 1992  
Costes and others, 1972  
Fisher, 1991b  
Goldberg, 1962a  
Hibler, 1975  
Petrie and Kennie, 1990  
Rowan, McCauley, and Holm, 1971  
Rozema, 1969  
Tsipis, 1975  
Tunnard and Pushkarev, 1963  
Wentworth, Ellen, and Mark, 1987

## 10. INTERPRETATION OF SURFACE-SHAPING PROCESSES

### SURFACE HYDROLOGY I—DRAINAGE BASIN MORPHOMETRY

Abrahams, 1984  
Band and others, 1991  
Gardiner, 1982a  
Gardiner and Park, 1978  
Howard, 1990a, b  
Patton, 1988  
Strahler, 1964, 1992  
Zăvoianu, 1985  
Zecharias and Brutsaert, 1985

### SURFACE HYDROLOGY II—MODELING CHANGES IN THE GLOBAL ENVIRONMENT

Committee on Global Change, 1990  
Davis and others, 1992  
Dyer and Vinogradov, 1990  
Henderson-Sellers and Dickinson, 1992  
Isacks and Mouginiis-Mark, 1992  
Lettau, 1967  
Tarboton, 1992  
Young and Pielke, 1983

## SURFACE HYDROLOGY III—THE AUTOMATED DEM-TO-WATERSHED TRANSFORMATION

Tribe, 1992b (review paper)  
(Table 3 has > 100 more references)

## TOPOGRAPHY SHAPED BY NON- FLUVIAL PROCESSES

Carrara and others, 1982  
Dolan and others, 1977a  
Evans, 1977b, 1987b  
Fox and Hayes, 1985  
Håkanson, 1978  
Lancaster, 1988  
Mills and Starnes, 1983  
Mock and others, 1972  
Morhange, 1992  
Pike, 1974  
Piotrowski, 1989  
Rentsch and others, 1990  
Sauchyn and Gardiner, 1983  
Silva and others, 1992  
Smith, 1988

## MODELING & SIMULATION OF PROCESS

Anderson, 1988  
Band and others, 1991  
Craig, 1980, 1989  
Hugus and Mark, 1984  
Mayer and others, 1981  
McEwen and Malin, 1989  
Toppe, 1987  
Vertessey and others, 1990

## OTHER APPLICATIONS RELATED TO GEOMORPHOLOGY

Aniya, 1985  
Brabb, 1987  
Burbank, 1992  
Carrara and others, 1978  
Chorowicz and others, 1991  
Colleau and Lenôtre, 1991  
Cook and others, 1988  
Elmes and others, 1991  
Morris, 1991  
Norton and Sorenson, 1989  
Simpson and Anders, 1992  
Tinkler, 1971  
Zachar, 1982

These spatial properties do not necessarily require elevation data. Topography differs in shape with level of generalization, or scale, and the degree of *scale dependency and spatial self-organization* is itself a key descriptor of form. Many measures may describe the same attribute of form; such *redundancy of terrain parameters* can be sharply reduced through correlation and multivariate analysis. Systems for *terrain taxonomy*, particularly in continuous topography, are a major goal of geomorphometry. Many classification schemes address numerical problems in the *interpretation of land-surface processes* from land form, including those in surface hydrology and the geomorphology of landforms other than drainage basins.

All ten general categories in Table 2 are active areas of research, but several of them focus on two broad, overlapping activities that have long been central to geomorphometry—developing new techniques of analysis and testing descriptive parameters. Operational techniques often are adapted from allied disciplines (Fig. 1; Table 2, mainly topics 2, 4, and 8). They include roughness analysis, line-of-sight (viewshed) modeling, network analysis, slope-frequency statistics, altimetric analysis, numerical taxonomy, spectral analysis, multivariate statistics, nearest-neighbor analysis, various types of sampling from both profiles and matrices, texture analysis, machine visualization and its complement shape-from-shading (photoclinometry), topologic modeling, signature analysis (fingerprinting), percentage hypsometry, and volumetric analysis. The parameters of form that have been found effective for abstracting natural topography are the subject of much current experimentation (Table 2, mainly topics 5-7). These measures describe various properties of elevation, relief, slope, curvature in plan and profile, spacing, direction and strength of aspect (azimuth), alignment (including parallelism), feature complexity and connectivity, degree of randomness, and scale dependency.

The uses for geomorphometry (Table 1) continue to multiply as computer technology advances and more digital data become

available. Applications range from watershed management, measuring road and runway roughness, missile targeting, planetary and deep-sea exploration, and assessing soil erosion to meteorological modeling, quantifying cross-country mobility, mapping eco-regions, planning recreational land-use, and siting installations for microwave transmission. Most recently, morphometry has been adapted to regional tectonics (Burbank, 1992). Combinations of morphometric data with nontopographic information, from remote sensing and other cartographic sources, are especially powerful (Franklin, 1987a). One of the most successful of these combined applications has been the spatially-based study of natural hazards—particularly the recognition, prediction, and risk-assessment of slope failure from digital terrain data (Lied and Bakkehøi, 1980; Carrara, 1983a; Aniya, 1985; Kobashi and Hirano, 1985; Brabb, 1987; Bernknopf and others, 1988; Pike, 1988a, Carrara and others, 1991; Mark, 1992; Ellen and others, 1993).

## Implementation

Some of the issues in terrain quantification currently addressed by geomorphometry may be old (Wolfanger, 1941; Bekker, 1969; Chorley, 1972), but the enabling technology is new. The high-speed digital computers, analytical algorithms, input/output and communications devices, and large sets of topographic data that drive current research were unknown just 25 or 30 years ago. The resulting innovations in such related specialties as digital cartography, computer graphics, and geographic information systems (GIS) have revolutionized morphometry. The crucial improvement has been in the speed and volume of data processing. Large tracts of continuous topography can now be described in detail rather than characterized from a few samples; promising techniques and parameters can now be tested and evaluated rapidly, and for virtually any number of terrain types. As a result, progress in specific and especially in general geomorphometry has greatly accelerated. These computer-driven advances have led to new ways to represent topography (Goodchild and Mark,

1987; Clarke, 1990; Moore, 1991) as well as greater variety in the applications of morphometry (Burrough, 1986; Petrie and Kennie, 1990; Maguire and others, 1991b).

Progress in information technology promises to sustain the current vitality of geomorphometry. Through image processing, spatial statistics, machine visualization, and pattern recognition, the digital-computer revolution has laid the necessary foundation for future contributions in the field. New developments in morphometry are being implemented in such allied disciplines as remote sensing (Haralick, 1983), planetology (Leberl and others, 1991), oceanography (Fox and Hayes, 1985), and climatology (Henderson-Sellers, 1992; Tarboton, 1992). One problem at the frontier of current research in geomorphometry is the automated parsing and classification of continuous topography at different scales. Applicable techniques include knowledge-based recognition and extraction of specific features by computer (Chorowicz and others, 1989; Falcidieno and Spagnuolo, 1990). Improved description of spatial patterns and their analysis, notably by fuzzy-set logic or neural networks, promise to contribute to solving this problem and others (Narasimhan and Argialas, 1989; Sui, 1992).

The chief impediment to a wider practice of geomorphometry has always been the slow capture of data through manual measurement of topography, usually on contour maps (Raisz and Henry, 1937; Chapman, 1952; Strahler, 1956). This problem is being eliminated by the mass production of large matrices and networks of terrain heights, *digital elevation models* (DEM's) or *digital terrain models* (DTM's) (Case, 1978). The square-grid DEM was first implemented by computer in the late 1950's by Charles Miller and his colleagues in the department of civil engineering at MIT (Roberts, 1957), but its early applications were largely military (Noma and Misulia, 1959; Horton and others, 1962; Boehm, 1967). Soon adapted to civilian engineering and Earth science in limited applications (for example, Hobson, 1967; Tobler, 1969a; Pike and Wilson, 1971), the grid DEM was first thoroughly explored for

its potential value to morphometry by Evans (1972, 1979, 1980). Today, little morphometric work is attempted without DEM data. Despite much progress, however, shortcomings in the quality of DEM's remain (Theobald and Goodchild, 1990; Acevedo, 1991) and DEM coverage of many parts of the world is either lacking or prohibitively expensive (Wolf and Wingham, 1992). Recent developments in remote-sensing technology should, in time, lead to removal of these obstacles (Evans and others, 1992).

## THE BIBLIOGRAPHY

### Background

The rapid growth and diversification of geomorphometry have created serious problems of information retrieval. The literature has become so heterogeneous and scattered that it is impossible to command the subject by consulting just a few key serials in geology or geography. Early work, defined here as anything published before World War II, appeared almost exclusively in a few European journals of geography (Smith, 1935; Neuenschwander, 1944). Such ease of access has not prevailed since the war. The still-evolving body of writing on morphometry is shared among increasing numbers of edited collections and symposium volumes, textbooks, technical reports, and scores of serials in the Earth sciences and related areas (Figure 1). Prolific contributors include the rapidly growing fields of digital cartography, remote sensing, spatial modeling, and computer graphics.

Much research on morphometry is inaccessible because its mission-oriented, commonly military, origin was not conducive to publishing in the open literature. This body of material is large because so much of modern geomorphometry is the product of the Cold War (1946-1991) and its offshoot, the Apollo Moon-landing program (1960-1972). (The open literature resulting from such work reveals a virtual who's who in geomorphometry, including Strahler, Melton, Hammond, Wood, Tobler, Evans,

Peucker, and David Mark. See Pruitt, 1979.) Major contributions to the field reside in the "gray literature", limited-distribution and in-house documents of military and other governmental agencies (particularly NASA) and their outside contractors (Peltier, 1953 and 1956; Hammond, 1958; Wood and Snell, 1960a; Mays, 1966; Davis, 1969). Most of this material is unclassified but is not well known to the newer students of morphometry and, in any case, is not readily accessible to them. To my knowledge, no interdisciplinary list of these government-sponsored works has been compiled previously.

Bibliographies on various aspects of geomorphometry have been published, but none of them is both current and has the great breadth required for research in the field today. Perhaps the most useful single source is the volume of Goudie and others (1990), in particular the section on morphometry edited by K.S. Richards. However, it is oriented toward geomorphology rather than engineering applications. Once the best, if difficult to find, Neuenschwander (1944) now is useful only as a historical source. The compilations by Carr and Van Lopik (1962, 1963) also are dated and hard to locate, as is the survey of early Russian work by Bocharov and Nikolayev (1957). Helpful reference lists, both on overviews of the subject and on its individual facets, are appended to more recent research papers, literature reviews, or monographs. Among these are Clarke (1966), Zakrzewska (1967), Stewart (1968), Bekker (1969), Salisbury (1971), Hormann (1971), Chorley (1972), Evans (1972, 1979), Mitchell (1973), Speight (1974), Pike and Rozema (1975), Mark (1975a), Horn (1981), Morisawa (1985), Burrough (1986), McCullagh (1988), Thorn (1988), and Petrie and Kennie (1990).

### **Purpose and scope**

The bibliography included in this report addresses the problems of information-retrieval just described. It provides access to the entire field of geomorphometry by collecting representative citations of its dispersed and varied writings into a single source. The alphabetized list of over 2100 entries, dating from the late 18th century, is

current through 1992. It emphasizes recent work; 1993 abstracts indicate some of the newest research trends. The need for such a compilation, as well as for the conceptual organization of the various elements of geomorphometry, became especially evident to me in 1988 while preparing the syllabus for a four-week summer course on the subject. The 49 subheadings in Table 2 are the latest iteration of that syllabus, which also served as the outline of a study guide for the course the following year. The literature search culminating in this report began shortly after that second course. It has been a part-time endeavor. The resulting bibliographic entries are cited largely, but not entirely, in the format of the U.S. Geological Survey. Some citations are incomplete and others are irregular in format; these flaws reflect the occasional use of secondary sources and the short time available for the project.

The variety of references reflects the great diversity of geomorphometry. Citations range from abstracts to long books, include routine applications as well as outstanding contributions to technique, and vary from obscure to celebrated and from trivial to profound. To encourage different approaches to problems in morphometry, I have referenced related studies from such peripheral fields as tribology (the study of abraded metal surfaces), meteorology, agricultural and military engineering, planetary-surface exploration, and psychology (Fig. 1). Basic works from the growing literature on geographic information systems (GIS) and related advances in computer technology and digital cartography also are included. The listing is good on the extraction of digital elevations from contour maps, and other concerns of data capture, although technological advances should soon render much of this material obsolete. Such recent developments in terrain representation as fractal geometry (Mark and Aronson, 1984; Xia and others, 1991b) and harmonic analysis (Pike and Rozema, 1975; Mulla, 1988) are well covered. The listing is biased somewhat toward geomorphology and is perhaps weakest on civilian applications in engineering.

The bibliography includes as much U.S. Government "gray literature" on morphometry as I have been able to locate without a prolonged search. I knew of some of this material from my early work with Walter F. Wood at the U.S. Army Quartermaster Research and Engineering Center (Wood and others, 1962) and at Cornell Aeronautical Laboratory (Pike, 1964). Other references are familiar to me from participation in the NASA Apollo program, during the development of design criteria for the lunar roving vehicle (Pike, 1969). Many documents came from the estate of Walter Wood. Comparable material from other governments is poorly known to me and little of it is included in the bibliography. Although numerous military-sponsored documents are cited, many more applications of terrain intelligence to military doctrine and tactics are not generally available; none of this classified material is given here.

Emphasis of the bibliography is on *general* geomorphometry, the form of *continuous* topography. I have been more selective for *specific* geomorphometry, which addresses the shape of landforms—*discrete* units of topography shaped by known or likely physical processes. The quantification of landforms *per se* is well treated in the literature of geology and geomorphology. Accordingly, only a small fraction of the vast body of writing on hydraulic geometry and the morphometry of drainage basins is included here; that material is well accessed by other recent surveys (Gardiner, 1982a; Zăvoianu, 1985; Howard, 1990a, b). For similar reasons, my referencing of slope-profile analysis only samples the available information (Pitty, 1968; Young, 1972; Cox, 1990). I have ignored much of the large literature on impact craters—the most symmetric and easily measured of all landforms, among the first to be treated quantitatively (Schröter, 1791), and my own area of specialization (Pike, 1974, 1977, 1988c; Pike and Spudis, 1987). The listing is similarly thin on the morphometry of such well defined features as volcanoes (Pike, 1978b), drumlins (Piotrowski, 1989) and sand dunes (Breed and Grow, 1979), although some

recent references to the literature on those and other landforms are provided (Table 2).

The bibliography is idiosyncratic in several further respects. English-language publications predominate, although I have attempted a token representation of the large non-English literature (for example, references in Krcho, 1990). I have neither seen nor read many of the obscure sources, especially old works and those in languages other than English, and in such cases I have relied on existing bibliographies (for example, Bocharov and Nikolayev, 1957; Hormann, 1971; Kugler, 1974), even at the risk of perpetuating incomplete or incorrect citations. In this respect I have thought it more helpful to be inclusive than exclusive. Extensive reference lists are already available for some sub-specialties (for example, relief shading; Horn, 1981; Horn and Brooks, 1989), and I have only sampled these. My bibliography includes much historical material, even though it is now technically obsolete, so that students may trace the development of thought and practice in the field. Some entries, such as those on statistics and numerical taxonomy or on evolution of the digital computer and its applications, are not wholly germane to morphometry. However, they contain interesting background, describe provocative analogies to terrain, provide helpful examples or teaching material, or simply offer food for thought. Although I have touched on many facets of geomorphometry and have tried to omit no important works, the listing makes no pretence to completeness. It thus remains something of a browser's choice.

### **Subsets of the main list**

The bibliography is not annotated or subdivided by topic. These shortcomings are partly offset by the structured sample of some 350 references in Table 2. This selection provides an up-to-date introduction to each of the 49 sub-fields and activities within geomorphometry as well as guidance in pursuing further study from entries in the main listing. The topics in Table 2 overlap considerably, and few of the references fit comfortably in only one category. A similar

Table 3

Evolution of Research on the DEM-to-Watershed Transformation

<b>1972</b> Natarajan, 1972 Sprunt, 1972	Yuan and Vanderpool, 1986	Van Deursen & Kwadijk, 1990 Zhang and others, 1990
<b>1975</b> Collins, 1975 Johnston and Rosenfeld, 1975 Peucker and Douglas, 1975	<b>1987</b> Bevaqua and Floris, 1987 Carla' and others, 1987 Goldberg and others, 1987 Jenson and Trautwein, 1987 Martz and DeJong, 1987 Weibel and others, 1987	<b>1991</b> Aumann and others, 1991 Band, 1991 Band and others, 1991 Fairfield and Leymarie, 1991 Freeman, 1991 Hutchinson & Dowling, 1991 Jenson, 1991 Lee and Snyder, 1991 Majure and Eash, 1991 Martz and DeJong, 1991 Moore and Grayson, 1991 Moore and others, 1991 Quinn and others, 1991 Tarboton and others, 1991 Tribe, 1991 U.S. Army, 1991 Vincent and Soille, 1991
<b>1978</b> Moon, 1978	<b>1988</b> Band and Wood, 1988 Beven and others, 1988 Carrara, 1988 Hutchinson, 1988 Jenson and Domingue, 1988 Martz and DeJong, 1988 Morris and Heerdegen, 1988 Riazanoff and others, 1988	
<b>1981</b> Collins and Moon, 1981	<b>1989</b> Band, 1989a, 1989b, 1989c Bennett and Armstrong, 1989 Connors and others, 1989 Ehlschlaeger, 1989 Hutchinson, 1989 Seemuller, 1989 Tarboton and others, 1989 Weibel, 1989 Yoshiyama, 1989	<b>1992</b> Blaszczynski, 1992 Chorowicz and others, 1992 Chou, 1992 Donker, 1992 Ehlschlaeger, 1992 ESRI, 1992 Lozar, 1992 Mackay and others, 1992 Martz and Garbrecht, 1992 Pratson and Ryan, 1992 Rokos and Armstrong, 1992 Sekulin and others, 1992 Smith and Brilly, 1992 Tribe, 1992a, 1992b Weibel, 1992 White and others, 1992 Wiche and others, 1992
<b>1983</b> Carroll, 1983 Mark, 1983c Marks and others, 1983	<b>1990</b> Falcidieno & Spagnuolo, 1990 Gardner and others, 1990 Jones and others, 1990 Lammers and Band, 1990 Morris, 1990 Quian and others, 1990 Scarlatos, 1990 Skidmore, 1990 Smith and others, 1990 Soille and Ansault, 1990 Soille and Vincent, 1990 Theobald, 1990 Theobald and Goodchild, 1990 Tribe, 1990	
<b>1984</b> Hugus and Mark, 1984 Marks and others, 1984 Miller and Goldberg, 1984 O'Callaghan and Mark, 1984 Palmer, 1984 Yoeli, 1984		
<b>1985</b> Chan, 1985 Jenson, 1985 Kobashi and Hirano, 1985 Miller, 1985 Nogami, 1985 Rudy, 1985		
<b>1986</b> Baglio and others, 1986 Band, 1986a, 1986b Band and Robinson, 1986 Carrara, 1986 Douglas, 1986 Finsterwalder, 1986 Frank and others, 1986 Palacios-Vélez and Cuevas-Renaud, 1986		

ordering of all 2100-odd entries in the main listing would warrant additional, more specialized, topics. Most references in Table 2 are published in the open literature and have good bibliographies that provide further access to the specialized literature and cite important, but older or less available, works. Because Table 2 is deliberately biased toward recent publications in each category, some old classics are absent (Wentworth, 1930; Smith, 1935; Neuenschwander, 1944). Other major contributions to morphometry are excluded from Table 2 because they are unlikely to be found in all but specialized or research collections and large libraries (for example, Hammond, 1958; Mark, 1977; Evans, 1979; Kundert, 1988).

Some elements of geomorphometry are particularly important now, and their literature warrants special attention. These fast-evolving topics include the triangulated irregular network, or TIN (Kumler, 1990; Lee, 1991b), fractal modeling of topography (Polidori and others, 1991; Klinkenberg, 1992), and the automatic extraction of terrain features from DEM's and digital images by such advanced techniques as pattern recognition (Chorowicz and others, 1989; Lee and others, 1992). To exemplify the evolution of one of these topics, I have attempted a comprehensive listing for the automated DEM-to-watershed transformation—an area so active that the resulting list (Table 3) is already dated. Table 3 also omits a few references that describe the automated extraction of drainage networks using digital images instead of DEM's (Toriwaki and Fukumura, 1978; Haralick and others, 1985).

The DEM-to-watershed transformation (Table 3) is a computationally intensive procedure that creates a network of surface-specific lines (ridges and drains) from a matrix of square-grid elevations and delimits areas (drainage basins). Independent, parallel work on the problem converged about 1982 (Marks and others, 1983, 1984). Subsequent enhancements compute a suite of geometric descriptors for each basin (Majure and Eash, 1991). The transformation is important because it fundamentally reorganizes topographic

information, from continuous terrain into a mosaic of landforms, thus enabling much topography to be analyzed by the techniques of specific rather than general morphometry. The procedure can yield good results in topography that has sufficient relief to define the fluvial net unambiguously from a DEM. It is less successful in glaciated, eolian, karst, and other landscapes that lack well integrated drainage. To work properly the technique also requires a closely spaced DEM of good quality, particularly in areas of low relief (Martz and Garbrecht, 1992). Over 100 references in Table 3 trace this recent breakthrough in digital cartography from inception (Natarajan, 1972; Sprunt, 1972) to its practical application (Band and others, 1991; Blaszczyński, 1992) and its incorporation into both commercial and public-domain software (U.S. Army, 1991; ESRI, 1992b). Tribe (1992b) offers a good recent review of the procedure and discusses many of the references in Table 3.

## Amendments

Incorrect and incomplete citations of the literature—resulting from failure to consult original works, carelessness in manuscript preparation, or typesetting errors—are an irritating fact of life. They are especially annoying in geomorphometry because much of this diverse literature is unfamiliar to specialists. I encountered many such errors in my survey of the discipline and have tried not to perpetuate them. However, mistakes always enter a listing of the size and detail presented here even when, as in this case, all entries were collected by one person and compiled in a computer file that was repeatedly checked and updated. Although effort has been made to assure that the references are correct, instances of the first two types of error cited above certainly remain and are my responsibility. I apologize for them and hope they are not too many or unduly misleading. Mistakes and omissions that are found by readers should be called to my attention so that corrections can be released in an addendum or in a more formal publication of the bibliography. Suggestions for revision or improvement in the arrangement of sub-topics within geomorphometry (Table 2) also are solicited.

Some voids remain in the bibliography and most of them reflect the limited time available for the project. Filling one such gap, on the military applications of morphometry, would also require access to sources that are closed. Although the end of the Cold War may lead to declassification of material from that period, government agencies and their civilian contractors commonly destroy restricted documents as they become obsolete (for example, Cornell Aeronautical Laboratories). However, such outdated writings can be valuable in tracing the history of geomorphometry and should be made public. Even office correspondence may be significant (for example, Groenewoud, 1962). Lastly, comparable research in morphometry almost certainly was pursued by military agencies of former Warsaw Pact nations, especially the Soviet Union. This facet of geomorphometry, which would be of historical and probably substantive value, remains unknown to me save for possibly related civilian and academic references in Krcho (1990).

I welcome additions to this bibliography from its users. Again, the emphasis should be on general rather than specific morphometry. Entries in languages other than English are especially wanted, if accompanied by a translation of the citation (particularly for languages in non-Roman characters). To ensure accuracy and reduce ambiguity, please send reprints or photocopies of proposed additions rather than just the citations, if at all possible. However, I can entertain new entries if just the following information is provided:

1. photocopy of title page, or
  - title of the work, and

- the name(s) of author(s); surname plus two initials (or, if one given name, then spelled out)
2. year of publication
  3. the exact *and complete* citation of serial or other form of publication (book, conference proceedings, and so forth), including volume number, issue number, and inclusive page numbers. For meetings give location and dates; for books give name of city and publisher.

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