

I'm not a robot



References to each concept and term; however, technical geography is one of the broadest, is consistent with the naming convention of the other two branches, has been in use since the 1700s, and has been used by the UNESCO Encyclopedia of Life Support Systems to divide geography into themes.[4][5][55] As academic fields increasingly specialized in nature, technical geography emerged as a branch of geography specializing in geographic information technology. The emergence of technical geography has brought new relevancy to geographic information systems and computer-aided cartography by serving as a unique method for mapping and managing many natural and human phenomena under investigation. While human and physical geographers use the techniques employed by technical geographers, technical geography is more concerned with the fundamental spatial concepts and technologies than the nature of the data.[63][59] It is therefore closely associated with the spatial tradition of geography while being applied to the other two major branches. A technical geographer might work as a GIS analyst, a GIS developer working to make new software tools, or create general reference maps incorporating human and natural features.[72] Technical geography can be divided into many broad categories, such as: Geodesign Geodesy Geoinformatics Geographic information science Geomatics Geovisualization Statistical geography Spatial analysis Time geography This section needs additional citations for verification. Please help improve this article by adding citations to reliable sources in this section. Un sourced material may be challenged and removed. (August 2022) (Learn how and when to remove this message) James Cook's 1770 chart of New Zealand All geographic research and analysis start with asking the question "where," followed by "why there." Geographers start with the fundamental assumption set forth in Tobler's first law of geography, that "everything is related to everything else, but near things are more related than distant things." [34][35] As spatial interrelationships are key to this synoptic science, maps are a key tool. Classical cartography has been joined by a more modern approach to geographical analysis, computer-based geographic information systems (GIS). In their study, geographers use four interrelated approaches: Analytical - Asks why we find features and populations in a specific geographic area. Descriptive - Simply specifies the locations of features and populations. Regional - Examines systematic relationships between categories for a specific region or location on the planet. Systematic - Groups geographic knowledge into categories that can be explored globally. Main articles: Quantitative revolution and Quantitative geography Quantitative methods in geography became particularly influential during the quantitative revolution of the 1950s and 1960s.[16] These methods revitalized the discipline in many ways, allowing scientists testing hypotheses and proposing scientific cartography in more rigorous and less ad hoc ways.[73] The quantitative revolution heavily influenced and revitalized technical geography, and led to the development of the subfield of quantitative geography.[63][16] Main article: Cartography Cartography is the art, science, and technology of making maps.[74] Cartographers study the Earth's surface representation with abstract symbols (map making). Although other subdisciplines of geography rely on maps for presenting their analyses, the actual making of maps is abstract enough to be regarded separately.[75] Cartography has grown from a collection of drafting techniques into an actual science. Cartographers must learn cognitive psychology and ergonomics to understand which symbols convey information about the Earth most effectively and behavioural psychology to induce the readers of their maps to act on the information. They must learn geodesy and fairly advanced mathematics to understand how the shape of the Earth affects the distortion of map symbols projected onto a flat surface for viewing. It can be said, without much controversy, that cartography is the seed from which the larger field of geography grew. Main article: Geographic information system Geographic information systems (GIS) deal with storing information about the Earth for automatic retrieval by a computer in an accurate manner appropriate to the information's purpose.[76] In addition to all of the other subdisciplines of geography, GIS specialists must understand computer science and database systems. GIS has revolutionized the field of cartography: nearly all mapmaking is now done with the assistance of some form of GIS software. The science of using GIS software and GIS techniques to represent, analyse, and predict the spatial relationships is called geographic information science (GISc).[77] Main article: Remote sensing Synthetic aperture radar image of Death Valley colored using polarimetry Remote sensing is the art, science, and technology of obtaining information about Earth's features from measurements made at a distance.[78] Remotely sensed data can be either passive, such as traditional photography, or active, such as LiDAR.[78] A variety of platforms can be used for remote sensing, including satellite imagery, aerial photography (including consumer photography), and data obtained from hand-held sensors.[78] Products from remote sensing include Digital elevation model and cartography in mass maps. Geographers increasingly use remotely sensed data to obtain information about the Earth's land surface, ocean, and atmosphere, because it: (a) supplies objective information at a variety of spatial scales (local to global), (b) provides a synoptic view of the area of interest, (c) allows access to distant and inaccessible sites, (d) provides specific information outside the visible portion of the electromagnetic spectrum, and (e) facilitates studies of how features/areas change over time. Remotely sensed data may be analyzed independently or in conjunction with other digital data layers (e.g., in a geographic information system). Remote sensing aids in land use, land cover (LULC) mapping, by helping to determine both what is naturally occurring on a piece of land and what human activities are taking place on it.[79] Main article: Geostatistics Geostatistics deal with quantitative data analysis, specifically the application of a statistical methodology to the exploration of geographic phenomena.[80] Geostatistics is used extensively in a variety of fields, including hydrology, geology, petroleum exploration, weather analysis, urban planning, logistics, and epidemiology. The mathematical basis for geostatistics derives from cluster analysis, linear discriminant analysis and non-parametric statistical tests, and a variety of other subjects. Applications of geostatistics rely heavily on geographic information systems, particularly for the interpolation (estimate) of unmeasured points. Geographers are making notable contributions to the method of quantitative techniques. Main article: Qualitative geography Qualitative methods in geography are descriptive rather than numerical or statistical in nature.[81][11][745] They add context to concepts, and explore human concepts like beliefs and perspective that are difficult or impossible to quantify.[17] Human geography is much more likely to employ qualitative methods than physical geography. Increasingly, technical geographers are attempting to employ GIS methods to qualitative datasets.[17][82] A compound chorochromatic map of Indo-Aryan (Indic) languages Qualitative cartography employs many of the same software and techniques as quantitative cartography.[82] It may be employed to inform on map practices, or to visualize perspectives and ideas that are not strictly quantitative in nature.[82][17] An example of a form of qualitative cartography is a Chorochromatic map of nominal data, such as land cover or dominant language group in an area.[83] Another example is a deep map, or maps that combine geography and storytelling to produce a product with greater information than a two-dimensional image of places, names, and topography.[84][85] This approach offers more inclusive strategies than more traditional cartographic approaches for connecting the complex layers that makeup places.[85] Main article: Ethnography Ethnographic research techniques are used by human geographers.[86] In cultural geography, there is a tradition of employing qualitative research techniques, also used in anthropology and sociology. Participant observation and in-depth interviews provide human geographers with qualitative data. Main article: Geoepiotics Geoepiotics is an interdisciplinary approach that combines geography and poetry to explore the interconnectedness between humans, space, place, and the environment.[87][88] Geoepiotics is employed as a mixed methods tool to explain the implications of geographic research.[89] It is often employed to address and communicate the implications of complex topics, such as the anthropocene.[90][91][92][93][94] Main article: Interview (research) Geographers employ interviews to gather data and acquire valuable understandings from individuals or groups regarding their encounters, outlooks, and opinions concerning spatial phenomena. [95][96] Interviews can be carried out through various mediums, including face-to-face interactions, phone conversations, online platforms, or written exchanges.[45] Geographers typically adopt a structured or semi-structured approach during interviews involving specific questions or discussion points when utilized for research purposes.[95] These questions are designed to extract focused information about the research topic while being flexible enough to allow participants to express their experiences and viewpoints, such as through open-ended questions.[95] Main article: History of geography The concept of geography is present in all cultures, and therefore the history of the discipline is a series of competing narratives, with concepts emerging at various points across space and time.[97] The oldest known world maps date back to ancient Babylon from the 9th century BC.[98] The best known Babylonian world map, however, is the Imago Mundi of 600 BC.[99] The map as reconstructed by Eckhard Ungler shows Babylon on the Euphrates, surrounded by a circular landmass showing Assyria, Urartu, and several cities, in turn surrounded by a "bitter river" (Oceanus), with seven islands arranged around it so as to form a seven-pointed star.[100] The accompanying text mentions seven outer regions beyond the encircling ocean. The descriptions of five of them have survived. [101] In contrast to the Imago Mundi, an earlier Babylonian world map dating back to the 9th century BC depicted Babylon as being further north from the center of the world, though it is not certain what that center was supposed to represent.[98] Etching of an ancient seal identified as Eratosthenes. Philipp Daniel Lippert, Dactyliotheec, 1767. The ideas of Anaximander (c. 610–545 BC): considered by later Greek writers to be the true founder of geography, come to us through fragments quoted by his successors.[102] Anaximander is credited with the invention of the gnomon, the simple, yet efficient Greek instrument that allowed the early measurement of latitude.[102] Thales is also credited with the prediction of eclipses. The foundations of geography can be traced to ancient cultures, such as the ancient, medieval, and early modern Chinese. The Greeks, who were the first to explore geography as both art and science, achieved this through Cartography, Philosophy, and Literature, or through Mathematics. There is some debate about who was the first person to assert that the Earth is spherical in shape, with the credit going either to Parmenides or Pythagoras. Anaxagoras was able to demonstrate that the profile of the Earth was circular by explaining eclipses. However, he still believed that the Earth was a flat disk, as did many of his contemporaries. One of the first estimates of the radius of the Earth was made by Eratosthenes.[103] The first rigorous system of latitude and longitude lines is credited to Hipparchus. He employed a sexagesimal system that was derived from Babylonian mathematics. The meridians were subdivided into 360°, with each degree further subdivided into 60 (minutes). To measure the longitude at different locations on Earth, he suggested using eclipses to determine the relative difference in time.[104] The next general mapping by the Romans as they explored new lands would later provide a high level of information for Ptolemy to construct detailed atlases. He extended the work of Hipparchus, using a grid system on his maps and adopting a length of 56.5 miles for a degree.[105] From the 3rd century onwards, Chinese methods of geographical study and writing of geographical literature became much more comprehensive than what was found in Europe at the time (until the 13th century).[106] Chinese geographers such as Liu An, Pei Xiu, Jia Dan, Shen Kou, Fan Chengda, Zhou Daguan, and Xu Xiake wrote important treatises, yet by the 17th century advanced ideas and methods of Western-style geography were adopted in China.[citation needed] The Ptolemy world map, reconstituted from Ptolemy's Geographia, written c. 150 During the Middle Ages, the fall of the Roman empire led to a shift in the evolution of geography from Europe to the Islamic world.[106] Muslim geographers such as Muhammad al-Idrisi produced detailed world maps (such as Tabula Rogeriana), while other geographers such as Yaqut al-Hamawi, Abu Rayhan Biruni, Ibn Battuta, and Ibn Khaldun provided detailed accounts of their journeys and the geography of the regions they visited. Turkish geographer Mahmud al-Kashgari drew a world map on a linguistic basis, and later so did Piri Reis (Piri Reis map). Further, Islamic scholars translated and interpreted the earlier works of the Romans and the Greeks and established the House of Wisdom in Baghdad for this purpose.[107] Abd Yüzy al-Balkhi, originally from Balkh, founded the "Balkhi school" of terrestrial mapping in Baghdad.[108] Suhrah, a late tenth century Muslim geographer accompanied a book of geographical coordinates, with instructions for making a rectangular world map with equirectangular projection or cylindrical equidistant projection.[109] Abu Rayhan Biruni (976–1048) first described a polar equi-azimuthal equidistant projection of the celestial sphere.[110] He was regarded as the most skilled when it came to mapping cities and measuring the distances between them, which he did for many cities in the Middle East and the Indian subcontinent. He often combined astronomical readings and mathematical equations to develop methods of pin-pointing locations by recording degrees of latitude and longitude. He also developed similar techniques when it came to measuring the heights of mountains, depths of the valleys, and expanse of the horizon. He also discussed human geography and the planetary habitability of the Earth. He also calculated the latitude of Kath, Khwarozm, using the maximum altitude of the Sun, and solved a complex geodesic equation to accurately compute the Earth's circumference, which was close to modern values of the Earth's circumference.[111] His estimate of 6,339.9 km for the Earth radius was only 16.8 km less than the modern value of 6,356.7 km. In contrast to his predecessors, who measured the Earth's circumference by sighting the Sun simultaneously from two different locations, al-Biruni developed a new method of using trigonometric calculations based on the angle between a plain and mountain top, which yielded more accurate measurements of the Earth's circumference, and made it possible for it to be measured by a single person from a single location.[112] Map of southern Atlantic Ocean from 1733 edition of the Geographia Generalis The European Age of Discovery during the 16th and the 17th centuries, where many new lands were discovered and accounts by European explorers such as Christopher Columbus, Marco Polo, and James Cook revived a desire for both accurate geographic detail and more solid theoretical foundations in Europe. In 1650, the first edition of the Geographia Generalis was published by Bernhard Varenius, which was later edited and republished by others including Isaac Newton.[113][114] This textbook sought to integrate new scientific discoveries and principles into classical geography and approach the discipline like the other sciences emerging, and is seen by some as the division between ancient and modern geography in the West.[113][114] The Geographia Generalis contained both theoretical background and practical applications related to ship navigation.[114] The remaining problem facing both explorers and geographers was finding the latitude and longitude of a geographic location. While this problem had been solved long ago, but that of longitude remained, agreeing on what zero meridian should be was only part of the problem. It was left to John Harrison to solve it by inventing the chronometer H-4 in 1760, and later in 184 for the Infamnotal Meridian Conference to adopt by convention the Greenwich meridian as zero meridian.[111] The 18th and 19th centuries were the times when geography became recognized as a discrete academic discipline, and became part of a typical university curriculum in Europe (especially Paris and Berlin). The development of many geographic societies also occurred during the 19th century, with the foundations of the Société de Géographie in 1821, the Royal Geographical Society in 1830, Russian Geographical Society in 1845, American Geographical Society in 1851, the Royal Danish Geographical Society in 1876 and the National Geographic Society in 1888.[115] The influence of Immanuel Kant, Alexander von Humboldt, Carl Ritter, and Paul Vidal de la Blache can be seen as a major turning point in geography from philosophy to an academic subject.[116][117][118][119][120] Geographers such as Richard Hartshorne and Joseph Kerski have regarded both Humboldt and Ritter as the founders of modern geography, as Humboldt and Ritter were the first to establish geography as an independent scientific discipline.[121][122] Waldo Tobler in front of the Newberry Library, Chicago, November 2007 Over the past two centuries, the advancements in technology with computers have led to the development of geomatics and new practices such as participant observation and geostatistics being incorporated into geography's portfolio of tools. In the West during the 20th century, the discipline of geography went through four major phases: environmental determinism, regional geography, the quantitative revolution, and critical geography. The strong interdisciplinary links between geography and the sciences of geology and botany, as well as economics, sociology, and demographics, have also grown greatly, especially as a result of earth system science that seeks to understand the world in a holistic view. New concepts and philosophies have emerged from the rapid advancement of computers, quantitative methods, and interdisciplinary approaches. The 1962 book Theoretical Geography by William Bunge, which argued for a nonstatic approach to geography and that from a purely spatial perspective there was no real difference between human and physical geography, has been described by Kevin R. Cox as "perhaps the seminal text of the spatial-quantitative revolution".[123][124]In 1970, Waldo Tobler proposed the idea of "everything is related to everything else, but near things are more related than distant things." [34][35] This law summarizes the first assumption geographers make about the world. Main article: Geology The relationship between the igneous, sedimentary, and metamorphic rocks. The discipline of geology, especially physical geology, and geology have significant overlap. In the past, the two have often shared academic departments at universities, a point that has led to conflict over resources.[125] Both disciplines do seek to understand the rocks on the Earth's surface and the processes that change them over time. Geology employs many of the tools and techniques of technical geographers, such as GIS and remote sensing to aid in geological mapping.[126] However, geology includes research that goes beyond the spatial component, such as the chemical analysis of rocks and biogeochemistry.[127] Main article: History The discipline of History has significant overlap with geography, especially human geography. [128][129] Like geology, history and geography have shared university departments. Geography provides the spatial context within which historical events unfold.[128] The physical geographic features of a region, such as its landforms, climate, and resources, shape human settlements, trade routes, and economic activities, which in turn influence the course of historical events.[128] Thus, a historian must have a strong foundation in geography.[128][129] Historians employ the techniques of technical geographers to create historical atlases and maps. Photograph from the Apollo 15 command module Endeavour of the rilles in the vicinity of the crater Aristarchus on the Moon. Main article: Planetary science While the discipline of geography is normally concerned with the Earth, the term can also be informally used to describe the study of other worlds, such as the planets of the Solar System and even beyond.[130] The study of systems larger than the Earth itself usually forms part of Astronomy or Cosmology, while the study of other planets is usually called planetary science. Alternative terms such as geophysics (geography of Mars) have been employed to describe the study of other celestial objects.[191][20][21] Ultimately, geography may be considered a subdiscipline within planetary science, and planetary science link geography with fields like astronomy and physics.[130] Earth analog – Planet with environment similar to Earth's Geologic time scale – System that relates geologic strata to time Geophysics – Physics of the Earth and its vicinity History of Earth – Overview of Earth's history Terrestrial planet – Planet that is composed primarily of silicate rocks or metals Theoretical planetology – Scientific modeling of planets ^ a b Dahlman, Carl; Renwick, William (2014). Introduction to Geography: People, Places & Environment (6th ed.). Pearson. ISBN 978-0130745051. ^ Springer, Simon (2017). "Earth Writing". GeoHumanities. 3 (1): 1. doi:10.1080/23735666.2016.1272431. Retrieved 13 February 2025. ^ a b Burt, Tim (2009). 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