

1 Citation: **Hirt C.**, Filmer M.S. and Featherstone W.E. (2010) Comparison and validation of recent freely-available  
2 ASTER-GDEM ver1, SRTM ver4.1 and GEODATA DEM-9S ver3 digital elevation models over Australia,  
3 *Australian Journal of Earth Sciences* 57(3): 337 -347. DOI: 10.1080/08120091003677553.

## 4 5 **Comparison and validation of the recent freely-available ASTER-** 6 **GDEM ver1, SRTM ver4.1 and GEODATA DEM-9S ver3 digital** 7 **elevation models over Australia**

8 Running title: Comparison and validation of recent DEMs over Australia

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15  
16 This study investigates the quality (in terms of elevation accuracy and systematic errors) of three recent  
17 publicly available elevation model data sets over Australia: the 9 arc second national GEODATA DEM-  
18 9S ver3 from Geoscience Australia and the Australian National University (ANU), the 3 arc second  
19 SRTM ver4.1 from CGIAR-CSI, and the 1 arc second ASTER-GDEM ver1 from NASA/METI. The  
20 main features of these data sets are reported from a geodetic point of view. Comparison at about 1 billion  
21 locations identifies artefacts (e.g., residual cloud patterns and stripe effects) in ASTER. For DEM-9S, the  
22 comparisons against the space-collected SRTM and ASTER models demonstrate that signal omission  
23 (due to the ~270 m spacing) may cause errors of the order of 100-200 m in some rugged areas of  
24 Australia. Based on a set of geodetic ground control points (GCPs) over Western Australia, the vertical  
25 accuracy of DEM-9S is ~9 m, SRTM ~6 m and ASTER ~15 m. However, these values vary as a function  
26 of the terrain type and shape. Thus, CGIAR-CSI SRTM ver4.1 may represent a viable alternative to  
27 DEM-9S for some applications. While ASTER GDEM has an unprecedented horizontal resolution of  
28 ~30m, systematic errors present in this research-grade version of the ASTER GDEM ver1 will impede its  
29 immediate use for some applications.

30  
31 **KEY WORDS:** Heights, DSMs, DEMs, Australia

32

## 33 INTRODUCTION

34 Digital elevation models (DEM) provide basic information on heights of the Earth's surface and  
35 features upon it. The specific terms digital terrain model (DTM) and digital surface model  
36 (DSM) are often used to specify the surface objects described by an elevation model (e.g., Wood  
37 2008). A DTM usually refers the physical surface of the Earth, i.e., it gives elevations of the  
38 bare ground (terrain). On the other hand, a DSM describes the upper surface of the landscape. It  
39 includes the heights of vegetation, buildings and other surface features, and only gives elevations  
40 of the terrain in areas where there is little or no ground cover.

41 DEMs have become an important data source for a range of applications in Earth and  
42 environmental sciences. Examples of applications for elevation data are numerous, such as  
43 gravity field modelling, hydrological studies, topographic cartography, orthorectification of  
44 aerial imagery, flood simulation and many more. Generally, DEM data sets can be obtained  
45 from a range of techniques, such as ground survey (e.g., Kahmen & Faig 1988), airborne  
46 photogrammetric imagery (e.g., ASPRS 1996), airborne laser scanning (LIDAR) (e.g., Lohr  
47 1998), radar altimetry (e.g., Hilton et al. 2003) and interferometric synthetic aperture radar  
48 (InSAR) (e.g., Hanssen 2001). Quite often, DEMs are constructed from data sourced from  
49 several of these methods and are thus of variable quality (e.g., Hilton et al. 2003).

50 In the past decade, significant advances in global elevation modelling have been made  
51 with the release of the space-borne SRTM (Shuttle Radar Topography Mission, cf. Werner 2001,  
52 Farr et al. 2007) and ASTER (Advanced Spaceborne Thermal Emission and Reflection  
53 Radiometer; METI/NASA 2009) elevation data sets. The DEM data from these two space  
54 missions cover most of the populated regions of the world and are publicly available (at no cost)  
55 at spatial resolutions of 3 arc seconds for SRTM (though 1 arc second data are available to the  
56 military) and 1 arc second for ASTER.

57 These new high-resolution data sets considerably improve the knowledge of the Earth's  
58 surface in developing regions with poor geospatial infrastructure. However, benefit can also be  
59 gained in large countries with low-population regions containing sparse survey infrastructure,  
60 such as Australia. SRTM and ASTER thus represent useful supplementary or alternative  
61 elevation data sets to the free-of-charge Australian GEODATA DEM-9S elevation model  
62 (Hutchinson et al. 2008; [www.geoscience.gov.au/gadds](http://www.geoscience.gov.au/gadds)) that gives a DEM at a coarser spatial  
63 resolution of 9 arc seconds (~270 m in Australia).

64           Since a number of applications may rely solely on SRTM and/or ASTER DEMs, it is  
65 important to assess the quality of these data, i.e., how well does the DEM approximate the shape  
66 of the Earth's surface? Quality of elevation data is commonly expressed in terms of vertical  
67 accuracy. It can be determined using comparison data that should be based on accurate and  
68 independent methods, such as (terrestrial) topographic surveys, airborne laser scanning or  
69 photogrammetric techniques, allowing truly external and independent validation. Another issue  
70 affecting the quality of space-based DEMs is the presence of systematic error patterns.

71           For example, this can include artificial structures that are systematically too high or low  
72 and therefore not representative of the terrain's surface. Heights of forest regions or buildings,  
73 which are often included in space-collected DEM data (i.e., a DSM), represent an error source  
74 for applications exclusively interested in elevations of the terrain (i.e., a DTM). Knowledge of  
75 these effects is important for several application fields such as hydrology, where the shape and  
76 drainage accuracy is of particular importance (Hutchinson and Dowling 1991).

77           The aim of this paper is to investigate the quality (in terms of elevation accuracy and  
78 systematic errors) of the latest releases of SRTM ver4.1 (published in 2009 by CGIAR-CSI,  
79 Italy) and ASTER Global Digital Elevation Model (GDEM) ver1 (made available 2009 by  
80 NASA, USA and METI, Japan) over Australia in comparison to GEODATA DEM-9S ver3  
81 (published in 2008 by Geoscience Australia and the Australian National University). We begin  
82 by describing the main characteristics (e.g., resolution, construction methods, vertical and  
83 horizontal datums) of these three data sets. The quality of the models is then assessed in two  
84 ways. A comprehensive model-to-model comparison is carried out over Australia, providing  
85 insight into random and systematic effects among the elevation data. External validation is  
86 carried out based on two sets of geodetic ground control points (GCPs). The present paper  
87 represents a follow-up study to Hilton et al. (2003), because we believe that the significant  
88 advances – in terms of resolution and coverage – made by SRTM and ASTER justify a new  
89 evaluation of elevation data over Australia. Importantly for many users, the three models  
90 investigated are publicly available and completely free of charge. We acknowledge that other  
91 elevation data sets exist over Australia, such as Global Land One-kilometre Base Elevation  
92 (GLOBE) data set (Hastings & Dunbar 1999) or the 30 arc second GTOPO30 data set (US  
93 Geological Survey 1997), but they were already found to be deficient in Australia (Hilton et al.  
94 2003).

95           Importantly, the space-based ASTER and SRTM data sets used here are formally DSMs,  
 96 i.e. they provide heights of surface features. Opposed to this, the national GEODATA DEM-9S  
 97 gives the heights of the terrain surface, so is strictly a DTM.  
 98 Finally, a number of studies on the quality of SRTM and ASTER elevation data have already  
 99 been published (e.g. Fujita et al. 2008, Hayakawa et al. 2008, Kervyn et al. 2008,  
 100 Nikolakopoulos et al. 2006, Jacobsen 2004). However, these studies used preliminary or  
 101 different releases of SRTM and ASTER, cover regional instead of continental test areas and,  
 102 importantly, refer exclusively to test areas outside of Australia.

103

104 **RECENT DEMS OVER AUSTRALIA**

105 The 1" ASTER ver1, the 3" SRTM ver4.1 and the national 9" GEODATA DEM-9S ver3, all of  
 106 which completely cover Australia, provide elevation data in regularly spaced grids of  
 107 geographical coordinates. Generally, they contain physically meaningful height data on the  
 108 Earth's topographic form. To a rough approximation, the model heights refer to local mean sea  
 109 level (cf. Featherstone & Kuhn 2006, Torge 2001). The individual surfaces used as vertical  
 110 references for ASTER, SRTM and GEODATA will be explained later.

111           A weak inter-dependency exists between SRTM ver4.1 and DEM-9S ver3, in that 'holes'  
 112 (i.e., no-data areas, mainly in mountainous regions) in SRTM have been filled with auxiliary data  
 113 supplied by Geoscience Australia (cf. CGIAR-CSI 2009). Apart from this, they provide  
 114 elevations independent of each other. Table 1 gives the model resolutions, basic storage  
 115 requirements, and lists the URLs of the data distributors. A first impression of the spatial  
 116 information delivered by the three models is given by Figure 1, showing Uluru (Ayers Rock),  
 117 Northern Territory. Due to their higher spatial resolution, SRTM and, particularly, ASTER  
 118 provide considerably more information on topographic details than DEM-9S.

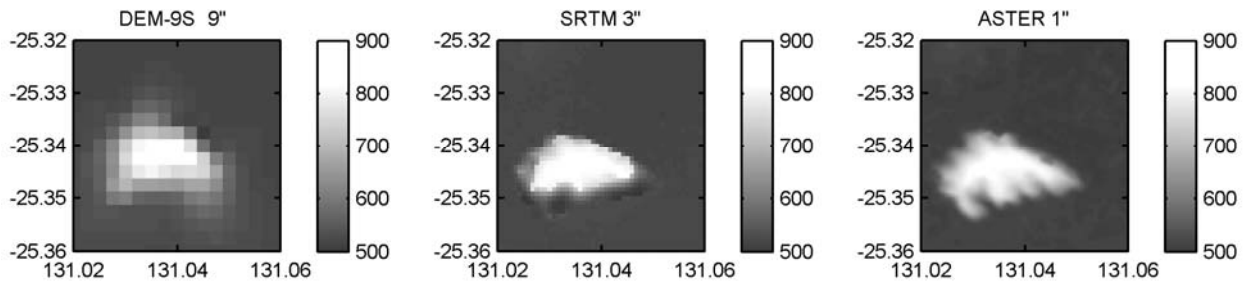
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120 **Table 1** URLs of the data distributors, spatial resolution and storage requirements (model size).  
 121 The metric resolution (e.g., 270 m for GEODATA DEM-9S) is valid in North-South direction  
 122 and varies in East-West direction as a function of latitude. The storage requirements are rough  
 123 estimates based on 2 byte storage per elevation include only the land areas of Australia.

Elevation Model	Resolution	Storage requirements	URL
GEODATA DEM-9S	9" (270 m)	0.2 GB	<a href="http://www.geoscience.gov.au/">http://www.geoscience.gov.au/</a>

CGIAR-CSI SRTM ver4.1	3" (90 m)	2 GB	<a href="http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org/">http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org/</a>
ASTER GDEM ver1	1" (30 m)	18 GB	<a href="http://www.gdem.aster.ersdac.or.jp/">http://www.gdem.aster.ersdac.or.jp/</a> <a href="https://wist.echo.nasa.gov/api/">https://wist.echo.nasa.gov/api/</a>

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**Figure 1** Uluru (Ayers Rock) as represented by 9" GEODATA DEM-9S, 3" SRTM and 1" ASTER. Units in metres.

### 132 **GEODATA DEM-9S ver3**

133 The GEODATA 9" Digital Elevation Model (DEM-9S) version 3 model (Hutchinson et al. 2008)  
134 represents the current national elevation data set of Australia and is publicly available via  
135 [www.geoscience.gov.au/gadds](http://www.geoscience.gov.au/gadds). This model resulted from a joint effort between the Fenner  
136 School of Environment and Society, Australian National University (ANU) and Geoscience  
137 Australia (GA). The grid of elevations is based on a variety of input data sets, most of which  
138 originate from terrestrial surveying and photogrammetry. This comprises ~5.2 million spot  
139 heights, ~2 million water course lines and cliff lines, water bodies and, additionally, altimetry-  
140 derived elevations (Geoscience Australia 2008). The approach used to construct DEM-9S is  
141 geomorphology-based because of the explicit consideration of Australian drainage patterns  
142 (Hutchinson 2007; Hutchinson et al. 2008). Most of the existing terrain structures with scales of  
143 9" and larger are represented.

144 According to Hutchinson et al. (2008, p.16), DEM-9S provides approximate elevations  
145 at the centre of each 9" by 9" cell. Another description of the elevation type is found in  
146 Hutchinson et al. (2008, p.17), suggesting that DEM-9S provides average (mean) elevations for a  
147 9" by 9" cell. As such, the definition of elevations provided by the DEM-9S model is  
148 ambiguous, although the differences between both definitions may only be significant in

149 complex terrain. Hutchinson (2009 pers. comm.) clarified this by saying "...Formally the DEM  
150 values are estimates of the average height across the cell, but mostly there was no more than one  
151 source elevation data point per grid cell. So in grid cells with a data point, it tends to be close to  
152 the data value in the cell, wherever it was located. In grid cells without data points (the  
153 majority), the continuous surface represented by the grid is fairly smooth, so that as far the model  
154 is concerned there is little distinction between centre and average, and in reality it's probably  
155 somewhere in between".

156 The vertical accuracy of DEM-9S (standard deviation, 1 sigma) is specified to be 10 m  
157 and better in low-elevation terrain, which holds for about 50% of Australia. In rugged or  
158 complex terrain, however, the accuracy may deteriorate to about 60 m, which holds for  
159 approximately 1% of the data. (Hutchinson et al. 2008). This is due to the rapid variation of  
160 elevation across a 9" cell in complex terrain. In other words, the fine structure of the topography  
161 is not sufficiently sampled by a 9" grid, which is termed omission error.

162 DEM-9S is horizontally georeferenced to the Geocentric Datum of Australia (GDA94),  
163 but the methods used to realise this and hence the horizontal accuracy are unknown. While  
164 GDA94 is claimed to be compatible with WGS84, the latest realisation of WGS84-G873 (NIMA  
165 2004) will differ by about a metre due to the northeast-ward tectonic drift of the Australian  
166 continent. Given the uncertainty of the horizontal georeferencing and the grid resolution of 9",  
167 this effect is negligible. A sea mask has been applied to DEM-9S, which distinguishes between  
168 land and sea points since some heights on the Australian Height Datum (AHD; Roelse et al.  
169 1971) can be below mean sea level (e.g., Lake Eyre). DEM-9S is technically a DTM. For the  
170 precise interpolation of DEM-9S, particularly in complex terrain, it is recommended to use  
171 higher order methods such as bicubic or biquadratic interpolation (Hutchinson et al. 2008;  
172 Hutchinson 2009, pers. comm.).

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#### 175 **CGIAR-CSI SRTM ver4.1**

176 The SRTM elevation data cover most land regions between 60 degrees North and 56 degrees  
177 South in February 2000 (Werner 2001). It was the first space-borne mapping mission to produce  
178 a consistent near-global high-resolution elevation data set. The sensor used for the acquisition

179 was a C-band InSAR, which gives heights of the surface including topographic objects (cf. Farr  
180 et al. 2008), i.e., a DSM.

181 Following the first release of a research-grade SRTM data set in 2004, a finished-grade  
182 release became available in 2006. Several research groups subsequently worked on improving  
183 the original releases (see the review by Gamache 2004). The improvements concern both the  
184 introduction of precise coastline and water-body information, as well as the filling of no-data  
185 areas (also called data voids or ‘holes’) in the official releases (e.g., Reuter et al. 2007), an issue  
186 that previously impeded the straight-forward use of SRTM elevation grids in certain applications  
187 such as gravity field modelling (e.g., Denker 2004).

188 From a variety of post-processed releases, the freely available CGIAR-CSI SRTM ver4.1  
189 elevation data base (Jarvis et al. 2008) was selected for this study, purely because of its currency.  
190 This is the latest post-processed SRTM release by the Consortium for Spatial Information (CSI)  
191 of the Consultative Group of International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), Italy. The CGIAR-  
192 CSI SRTM ver4.1 data set is based on the official 2006 finished-grade release of SRTM from  
193 NASA. An important feature of CGIAR-CSI SRTM ver4.1 is the availability of high-resolution  
194 information on shorelines, thus allowing the user to distinguish between land and ocean areas.  
195 The shoreline information used is from the SRTM Water Body Dataset, produced by the US  
196 Geological Survey (2003).

197 Importantly, CGIAR SRTM ver4.1 represents a significant improvement over previous  
198 releases because ‘holes’ are filled using sophisticated interpolation and patching methods.  
199 Depending on the type of terrain, a range of hole-filling interpolation algorithms were applied,  
200 such as Kriging, inverse distance weighting and spline interpolation (Reuter et al. 2007). Larger  
201 holes (e.g., occurring in steep terrain due to limitations in the SRTM observation principle, see  
202 Gamache 2004) were patched by means of auxiliary data sets.

203 Over Australia, CGIAR-CSI used the GEODATA TOPO 100k contour data from GA  
204 (CGIAR-CSI 2009) to fill a total of 255,471 no-data pixels in the SRTM data (Reuter 2009, pers.  
205 comm.). This corresponds to less than 0.03% of the SRTM elevations over Australia and causes  
206 an, albeit weak, correlation between SRTM and DEM-9S.

207 The quality of SRTM elevations has been analysed by Rodriguez et al. (2005) in terms of  
208 90% linear and absolute and relative errors. More common accuracy estimates are root mean  
209 square errors (RMSEs), which correspond to 1 sigma (68.3% confidence) when sufficiently

210 precise ground truth data is available. These measures have been used by several other authors  
211 (e.g., Denker 2004, Marti 2004, Jacobsen 2005, Bildirici et al. 2008). The vertical accuracy  
212 estimates (1 sigma or 68.3 % of the elevations) – obtained from comparisons with national  
213 ground truth data – vary between 4-6 m in low-elevation terrain and deteriorates to 11-14 m in  
214 rugged terrain. It is acknowledged that these figures refer to earlier SRTM releases, but with the  
215 improvements by CGIAR-CSI, no deterioration in accuracy is expected for SRTM ver4.1.

216 SRTM 3D positions are referred to the WGS84 ellipsoid with the heights transformed to  
217 a gravity-related physical height using the EGM96 geoid model (Lemoine et al. 1998). The 3"  
218 CGIAR-CSI SRTM ver4.1 release is distributed in 5 degree x 5 degree tiles containing 6001 x  
219 6001 (mean) elevations. According to the SRTM observation principle (Farr et al. 2008), the  
220 SRTM gives average values for each 3"x3" cell rather than point values and is technically a  
221 DSM.

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#### 224 **ASTER GDEM ver1**

225 ASTER GDEM ver1 is a new global 1" elevation data set that was released in June 2009 by  
226 METI (Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry), Japan and NASA. The ASTER GDEM is  
227 based on optical imagery collected in space with the METI ASTER imaging device that was  
228 operated on NASA's Terra satellite. The approach used for constructing the GDEM is  
229 correlation of stereoscopic image pairs (e.g., Shapiro and Stockman 2001).

230 The complete ASTER GDEM covers land surfaces between 83 degrees South and 83  
231 degrees North, which is an improvement over the SRTM coverage. During an observation  
232 period of more than 7 years (2000-2007), a total of about 1,260,000 scenes of stereoscopic DEM  
233 data of 60 km x 60 km ground areas were collected, so the topography of most regions has been  
234 sampled several times. For the 2009 public release, all sets of individual scene-based DEM data  
235 were merged and portioned to 1 degree x 1 degree tiles (3601 x 3601 mean elevations).

236 The overall vertical accuracy of ASTER elevations is specified to vary between 10 m and  
237 25 m (ASTER Validation Team 2009). Like SRTM, ASTER refers to WGS84, with the heights  
238 transformed via EGM96 to a physical height. Importantly, no accurate information on land or  
239 marine areas is contained in ASTER, nor was an inland water mask applied. This may pose

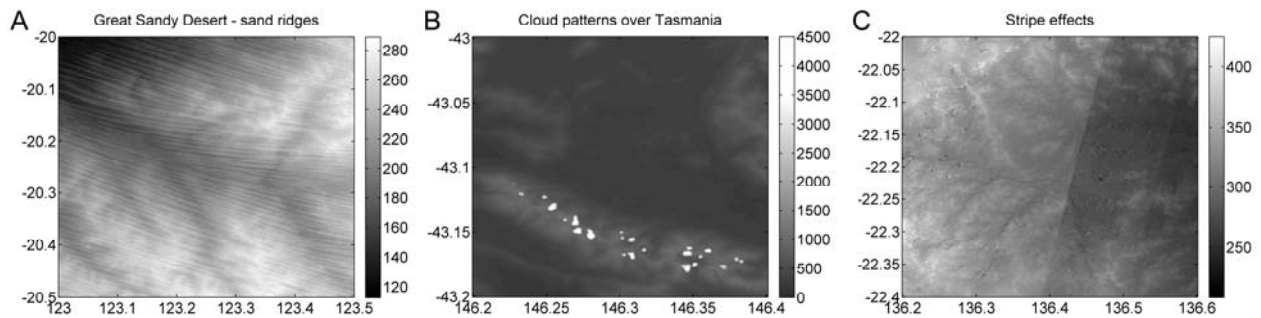


240 problems (e.g., for hydrological applications) unless external information on water bodies is used  
241 as a supplement.

242 ASTER has the highest formal spatial resolution (1" or ~30 m) and best available  
243 coverage to date. Some characteristics of this data set over Australia can be seen in Figure 2. In  
244 Figure 2A, series of sand ridges (Great Sandy Desert, Western Australia) can be seen,  
245 demonstrating the detail captured by ASTER. It is important to note that ASTER GDEM ver1 is  
246 considered to be research-grade (ASTER Validation Team 2009) because a number of artefacts  
247 (systematic errors) remain in the elevation data.

248 Probably the most disturbing effect over Australia is unremoved cloud patterns (Figure  
249 2B), which falsify the elevation model by several kilometres. Fortunately, these artefacts are  
250 only over small areas (in particular over Tasmania) and may be easily removed with statistical  
251 outlier detection algorithms. Another frequently occurring systematic error is the stripe effect  
252 (Figure 2C, see van Ede (2004) for details). Such structures with steps of 10-20 m are generally  
253 present over the whole of the Australian continent. For further, but probably less significant,  
254 systematic effects detected in the ASTER GDEM, we refer to the report by the ASTER  
255 Validation Team (2009).

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259 **Figure 2** Selected examples of the 1" ASTER elevation data. A: Sand-dune ridges in the Great  
260 Sandy Desert. B: Cloud patterns over Tasmania contained in the ASTER data set. C: Stripe-  
261 effects contained in the ASTER data set. Units in metres.

262

263

## 264 DEM EVALUATION

### 265 Data preparation and georeferencing

266 The three DEMs were converted into square tiles of identical binary data format but different  
267 spatial coverage (ASTER: 1 degree x 1 degree, DEM-9S and SRTM: 5 degrees x 5 degrees) and  
268 stored in a 16 bit integer format, which is a sufficiently precise digital representation of the  
269 elevations. For the comparisons among the elevation models, a set of Matlab functions was used  
270 that allow for seamless data extraction of arbitrary areas.

271 When working with elevation data sets, correct georeferencing is an important issue.  
272 Previous investigations showed that systematic horizontal shifts can exist among DEMs (e.g.,  
273 Denker 2004, ASTER Validation Team 2009). Such a shift, sometimes referred to as  
274 'geolocation' errors (Rodriguez et al. 2005), might originate from erroneous georeferencing  
275 inherent in the DEM observations. Also, horizontal shifts of 0.5 or 1 cells can be encountered in  
276 practice by ambiguous or changing definitions of the position to which elevation refers to (cell  
277 corner or centre), as is documented in CGIAR-CSI (2009).

278 Since 'geolocation' errors deteriorate the vertical accuracy of the elevation data, the three  
279 models were initially trialled for correct georeferencing using a simple but effective approach.  
280 For selected, sufficiently rugged test areas, such as the Australian Alps or the Stirling Range  
281 (Western Australia), 0.25 degree x 0.25 degree DEM grids, were extracted. In order to test  
282 relative horizontal offsets among the models, one grid was systematically shifted by small  
283 increments of a half cell size (e.g. 1.5 arc seconds with SRTM) in North-South and East-West  
284 directions in all combinations and compared against another, unshifted grid. The best fit, i.e. the  
285 lowest RMS (root mean square) computed from the differences among the shifted and the  
286 unshifted grid indicates the shifts needed for the correct georeferencing among the models. Our  
287 testing did not reveal any horizontal offsets with respect to the officially stated location of the  
288 grid points (i.e., for DEM-9S, the centres of 9" cells with the edges aligned to whole degrees; for  
289 SRTM, the centres of 3" cells with the centres aligned to the whole degrees). The detailed  
290 analysis or modelling of regional variations of geolocation errors (cf. ASTER Validation Team  
291 2009, p.9) is beyond the scope of the present study.

292

### 293 **Model heights over Australia**

294 Table 2 gives the descriptive statistics of the heights of the Australian continent as implied by the  
295 DEMs. In all three cases, the SRTM land mask was applied to extract the land points only, thus  
296 making the statistics comparable. The elevation of Australian's highest mountain (Mt.

297 Kosciuszko, 2228 m) is well approximated by DEM-9S and SRTM, while the smallest elevation  
298 of DEM-9S represents Australia's lowest region well (Lake Eyre, -16 m, the location of the  
299 extreme values were checked).

300 Furthermore, the mean values of the SRTM, ASTER and GEODATA DEM-9S statistics  
301 show - in good agreement - an average height of the Australian continent of about 270-277 m  
302 and the RMS values of about 335 m, demonstrating the relative smoothness of most of the  
303 Australian topography. Maximum values of about 5 km reveal gross errors from unremoved  
304 clouds in the ASTER data set (cf. Figure 2B).

305

306 **Table 2** Statistics of heights across Australia implied by GEODATA DEM-9S, SRTM and  
307 ASTER. The ASTER statistics contain gross errors due to unremoved cloud reflections. Units in  
308 metres.

<b>Model</b>	<b>Data points</b>	<b>min</b>	<b>max</b>	<b>mean</b>	<b>RMS</b>
<b>DEM-9S</b>	111,582,167	-16.0	2228.0	272.5	333.9
<b>SRTM</b>	1,001,033,318	-188.0	2220.0	277.5	338.4
<b>ASTER</b>	9,000,069,182	-314.0	5268.0	269.7	331.6

309

310 It should be noted that descriptive statistics of the GEODATA (ver1) Australian heights  
311 in Hilton et al. (2003) refer to land and ocean points and not to the land surfaces only, as stated in  
312 that publication. As such, their mean value is an underestimate.

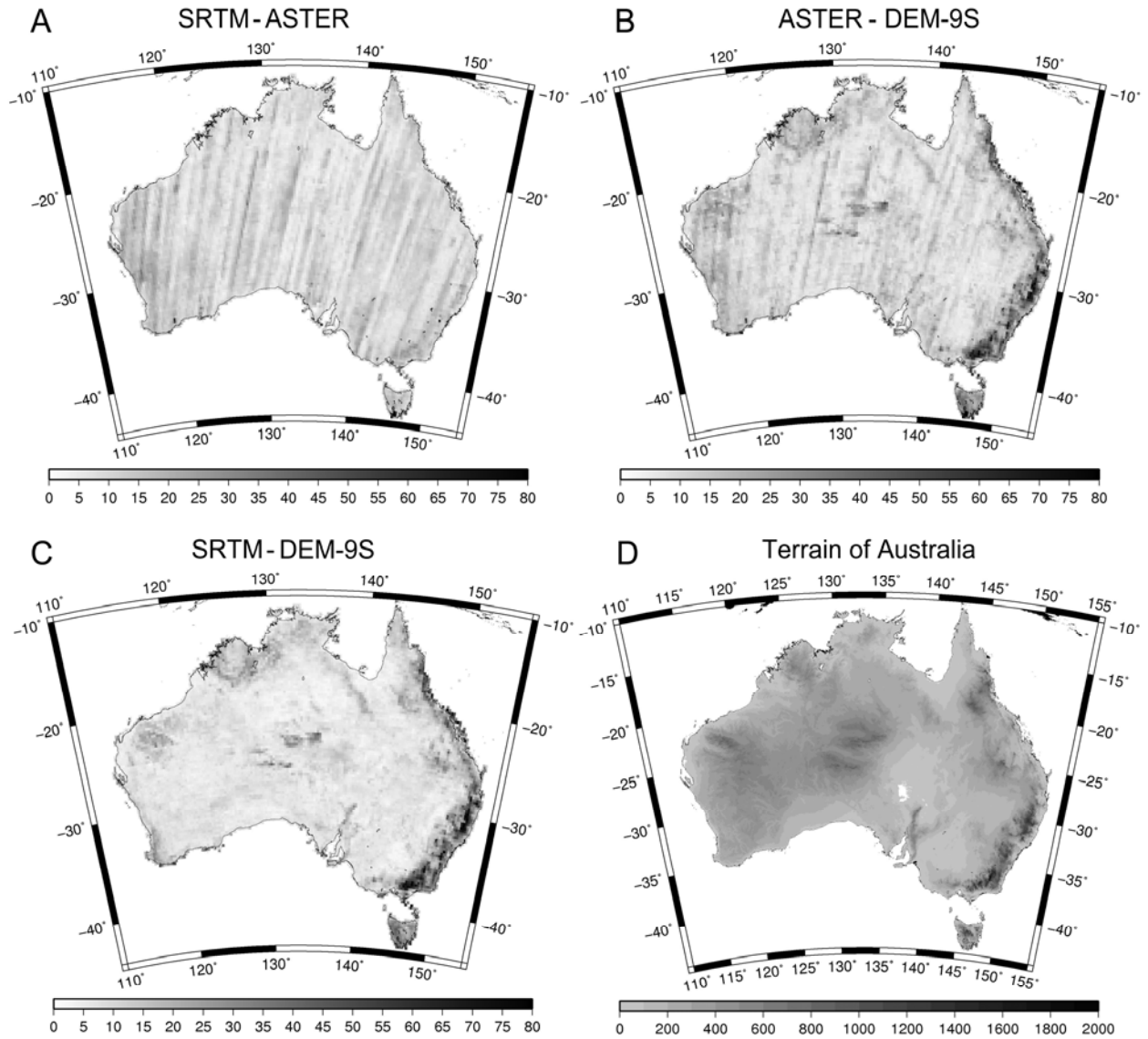
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### 315 **Comparison among the models**

316 The aim of the comparisons among the three DEMs is to show how they fit to each other, to  
317 locate areas of larger discrepancies, and to detect large-scale systematic effects (cf. Hilton et al.  
318 2003). Due to the different spatial resolutions, the comparison requires interpolation. As a  
319 compromise, the SRTM resolution of 3" was chosen as resolution for the comparisons. DEM-9S  
320 was bicubically interpolated to a denser grid, while the 1" ASTER model was generalised by  
321 arithmetically averaging nine adjoining cells. The SRTM land mask was applied consistently to  
322 the elevation data of the three models, thus preventing the ocean points from giving  
323 unrepresentative statistics.

324



325  
 326 **Figure 3** Results of the model-to-model comparisons over Australia. A: RMS differences  
 327 between SRTM and ASTER, B: RMS differences between ASTER and GEODATA DEM-9S, C:  
 328 RMS differences between SRTM and GEODATA DEM-9S, D: Terrain of Australia (from  
 329 SRTM). Units in metres, Lambert projection.

330  
 331 **Table 3** Statistics of the model to model comparison at 1,008,271,495 data points (at 3"  
 332 resolution). Units in metres.

Comparison	Min	Max	Mean	RMS
<b>SRTM – ASTER</b>	-5552.7	437.2	7.7	11.7
<b>ASTER – DEM-9S</b>	-592.8	5675.9	-3.7	15.4
<b>SRTM – DEM-9S</b>	-502.4	553.3	4.0	13.6

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335           The models were compared elevation by elevation: SRTM–ASTER, ASTER–DEM-9S  
336 and SRTM–DEM-9S. Accounting for large numbers of elevation points over Australia (about 1  
337 billion at a 3" resolution), the comparisons were performed by means of small tiles of 0.25  
338 degree x 0.25 degree in size, giving 810,000 differences per tile. The RMS (root mean square)  
339 of the differences indicating the (dis)agreement among the models is shown for each tile in  
340 Figure 3 A-C. The descriptive statistics (of the complete comparison at about 1 billion points) is  
341 given in Table 3.

342           A visual interpretation of Figure 3 shows that the space-based SRTM and ASTER  
343 elevation models (Figure 3A) agree well with the RMS values mostly between 5 m and 20 m and  
344 an overall RMS of 11.6 m (Table 3). However, large-scale stripe effects are visible all over  
345 Australia (Figs. 3A and 3B).

346           The plot of the RMS differences between ASTER and DEM-9S (Figure 3B) also shows  
347 stripe effects, indicating that the source of the stripes is in ASTER. Additionally, significant  
348 discrepancies with RMS values as large as 60-80 m are found throughout most of Australia's  
349 rugged areas: The Great Dividing Range along the Eastern seaboard (New South Wales and  
350 Queensland), the Australian Alps between Victoria and New South Wales (centred at 148W,  
351 37S), the mountains of Tasmania and the MacDonnell Ranges (centred at 132W, 23S), Northern  
352 Territory, cf. Figure 3D which illustrates Australia's topography.

353           Figure 3C shows the RMS differences between SRTM and DEM-9S with similarly large  
354 error patterns in all mountainous regions of Australia, but without the stripe artefacts.

355           Based on the three RMS difference plots, the stripe patterns are unambiguously  
356 associated with the ASTER model, and the large discrepancies seen in rugged terrain are  
357 attributable to DEM-9S. Interestingly, the ASTER stripe effects are not localised phenomena,  
358 but occur on scales of several thousand kilometres.

359           The cause for the considerable differences in the DEM-9S elevation data present in  
360 rugged terrain is signal omission. In these areas, the fine structure of the terrain significantly  
361 varies over scales shorter than the model resolution of 9". Errors of the order of 200 m and more  
362 may be introduced, which is acknowledged by Hutchinson et al. (2008). The effect of omitted  
363 high-frequency terrain signals in DEM-9S also manifests in the larger RMS errors in Table 3.

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367 **Table 4** Statistics of large differences (based on analysis of 1,008,271,495 data points at 3"  
 368 resolution).

Comparison	Number of differences $\Delta H$			Number of differences $\Delta H$		
	$100 \text{ m} < \Delta H \leq 500 \text{ m}$	$500 \text{ m} < \Delta H \leq 1000 \text{ m}$	$\Delta H > 1,000 \text{ m}$	$-100 \text{ m} > \Delta H \geq -500 \text{ m}$	$-500 \text{ m} > \Delta H \geq -1000 \text{ m}$	$\Delta H < -1,000 \text{ m}$
<b>SRTM – ASTER</b>	68,342	0	0	11,347	321	1,052
<b>ASTER – DEM-9S</b>	1,330,300	314	1037	693,725	2	0
<b>SRTM – DEM-9S</b>	1,729,889	21	0	430,690	1	0

369  
 370 Further interesting insight into the errors of the DEMs is given in Table 4, showing the  
 371 complete statistics of large discrepancies over Australia, i.e. differences which exceed 100 m,  
 372 500 m, 1000 m or fall below -100 m, -500 m and -1000 m, respectively. From Table 4, it can be  
 373 concluded that about 1400 outliers (discrepancies of 500 m or larger) are contained in the  
 374 ASTER data set (at a reduced resolution of 3"). Furthermore, it can be seen from SRTM–DEM-  
 375 9S and ASTER–DEM-9S that the differences of roughly about 1.3-1.7 million points fall into the  
 376 range 100 m to 500 m, while a smaller number (-0.4 to -0.7 million) range between 100 m and  
 377 500 m. This provides some evidence that interpolating DEM-9S elevations in Australia's  
 378 mountain regions gives differences that are often systematically too small. It should be noted  
 379 that the results in Table 4 are subject to interpolation (DEM-9S) and generalisation (ASTER).

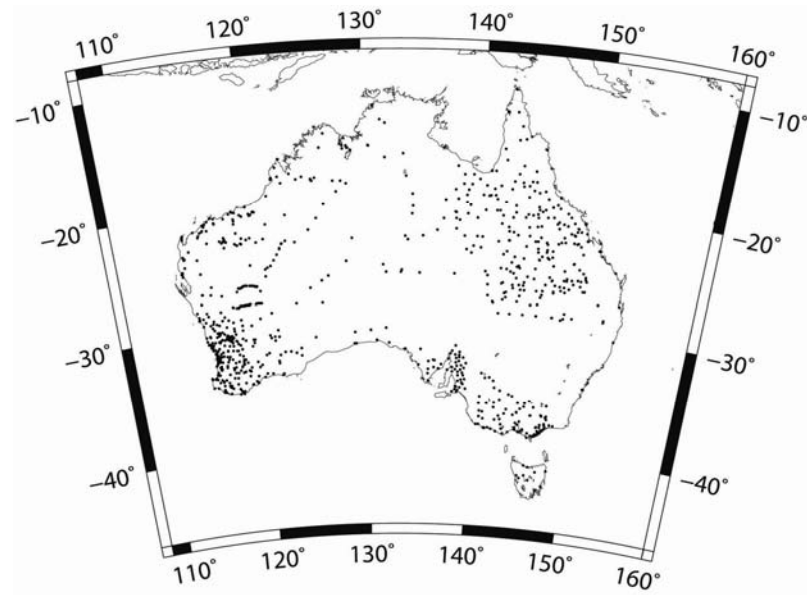
380  
 381 **Model validation with ground truth data**

382 As opposed to comparisons among the DEMs, model validation using ground truth data can  
 383 deliver reasonable accuracy estimates, provided that the height data are independent and  
 384 sufficiently precise (say, 1 m or better). Two such data sets, available at the Western Australian  
 385 Centre for Geodesy, were selected to serve as ground control points (GCPs) because of their  
 386 higher-order accuracy of the height component, and because of a sufficiently precise horizontal  
 387 position.

388 An accurate height is required for comparison to DEMs, but a large uncertainty in the  
 389 horizontal coordinates will lead to the serious degradation of the height. For example, the  
 390 horizontal positions of benchmarks on the AHD were originally scaled from 1:250,000 map  
 391 sheets and recorded to the nearest arc minute of latitude and longitude (Roelse et al. 1971).

392 Thus, the maximum error in horizontal position could be 30" (~ 900 m in latitude). In hilly or  
393 mountainous terrain, the height difference between the benchmark and the topography at the  
394 actual position of the benchmark coordinates could be hundreds of metres; in relatively flat  
395 country it could still amount to a few metres. Ideally, the horizontal positional uncertainty of the  
396 benchmarks used as ground truth should be no more than several metres.

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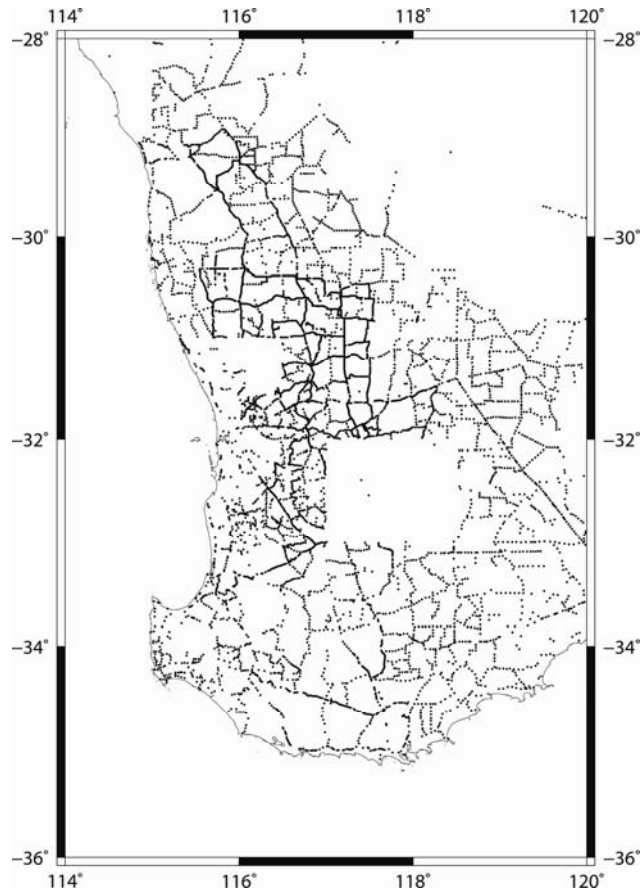


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400 **Figure 4** 911 GCPs (GPS/levelling; provided by GA) over Australia. Lambert projection.

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**Figure 5** Distribution of 6392 AHD levelling benchmarks (provided by Landgate) with horizontal coordinates accurate to 3 m or less. Mercator projection.

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406 The first dataset comprises 911 GPS/levelling points provided by GA (N. Brown pers.  
407 comm. 2009), which has good coverage over Australia (Figure 4). These data have recently been  
408 reprocessed in ITRF2005 at epoch 2000.0 and are expected to have horizontal and vertical  
409 accuracy of a few centimetres with respect to the reference frame ITRF2005 (Hu 2009). For the  
410 comparison with the DEM data, the GPS ellipsoidal heights were transformed to physical heights  
411 using EGM96 (Lemoine et al. 1998). This has the advantage of being consistent with the vertical  
412 georeferencing of SRTM and ASTER.

413 The second dataset comprises 6392 AHD levelling benchmarks (Figure 5) provided by  
414 the Western Australian Land Information Authority Landgate (G. Holloway pers. comm. 2009)  
415 which cover the south-western part of Western Australia. While AHD benchmark coordinates  
416 generally have a horizontal accuracy to the nearest arc minute in the Australian Geodetic Datum  
417 1966 (AGD66), Landgate, where possible, have been gradually updating the accuracy of



418 horizontal benchmark coordinates, often with differential GPS to an accuracy of 3 m or less (G.  
 419 Holloway pers. comm. 2009).

420 However, the AHD is known to suffer from a north-south slope of  $\sim 1$  m (e.g.,  
 421 Featherstone 2004) and distortions of up to  $\sim \pm 0.5$  m in the levelling network due to gross and  
 422 systematic levelling errors (e.g., Filmer and Featherstone 2009). We consider a reasonable  
 423 vertical accuracy estimate of absolute AHD heights to be  $\sim 1$  m, plus an unknown bias with  
 424 respect to global geoid models such as EGM96. Because of the connection to the AHD, the  
 425 6392 GPCs are more consistent with the vertical georeferencing of DEM-9S than with the space-  
 426 based ASTER and SRTM models.

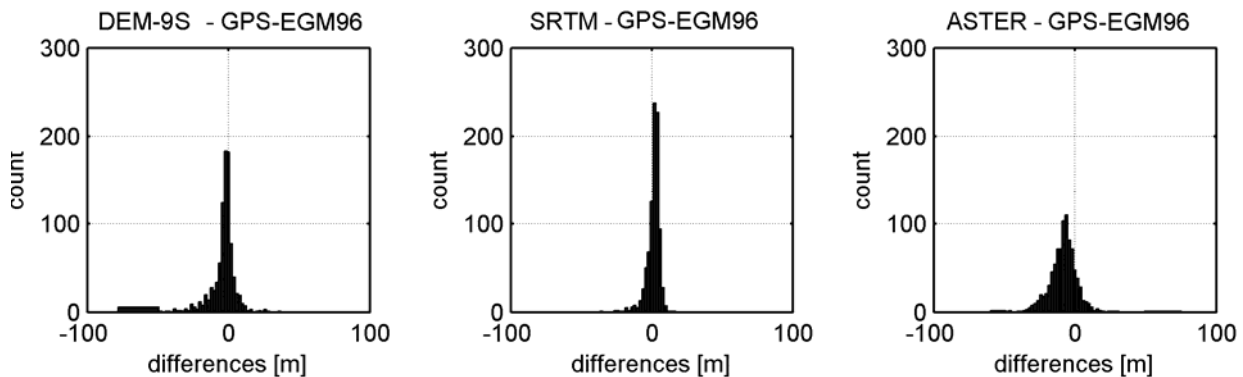
427 For this aspect of the DEM evaluation, the model elevations were interpolated bicubically  
 428 from the surrounding grid points of the original spatial resolution of each model to each GCP.  
 429 The descriptive statistics of the differences against the 911 GPS GCPs (ellipsoidal heights  
 430 referred to EGM96) is reported in Table 5, the histograms are found in Figure 6. In open terrain  
 431 (mostly without forest or buildings), SRTM gives good results with RMS differences as small as  
 432 5.0 m. The other models show larger residuals with RMS differences of 10.5 m (DEM-9S) and  
 433 13.1 m (ASTER).

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**Table 5** Statistics of the model comparison with 911 GPS-EGM96 GCPs. Units in metres.

Comparison	Resolution ["]	Min	Max	Mean	RMS	Std.dev
DEM-9S – GPS-EGM96	9	-78.3	35.6	-3.7	10.5	9.8
SRTM – GPS-EGM96	3	-36.6	15.4	1.3	5.0	4.9
ASTER – GPS-EGM96	1	-60.0	75.4	-8.2	13.1	10.2

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438 **Figure 6** Distribution of the differences among DEM-9S, SRTM and ASTER and 911  
 439 Australian GPS-EGM96 GCPs.

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442 The results from the comparisons at the 6392 levelling GCPs are given in Table 6 and  
 443 Figure 7. Again, SRTM elevations produce the lowest residual errors with an RMS (1 sigma) of  
 444 6.1 m and a low standard deviation of 3.2 m. These values provide some evidence of the  
 445 reasonably good quality of the SRTM elevation data set by CGIAR-CSI over Australia.

446 The accuracy of DEM-9S, as determined using our benchmarks is about 9 m (RMS and  
 447 STD) and the ASTER accuracy is lower with about 16 m RMS and 13 m standard deviation.  
 448 The analysis of mean values of differences shows a very good fit among the GCPs and the DEM-  
 449 9S elevations. Recalling that the vertical datum of both the 6392 GCPs and the DEM-9S is the  
 450 AHD, the good agreement is an endorsement of the modelling and interpolation methods used  
 451 for computing DEM-9S (Hutchinson 1989, 2007).

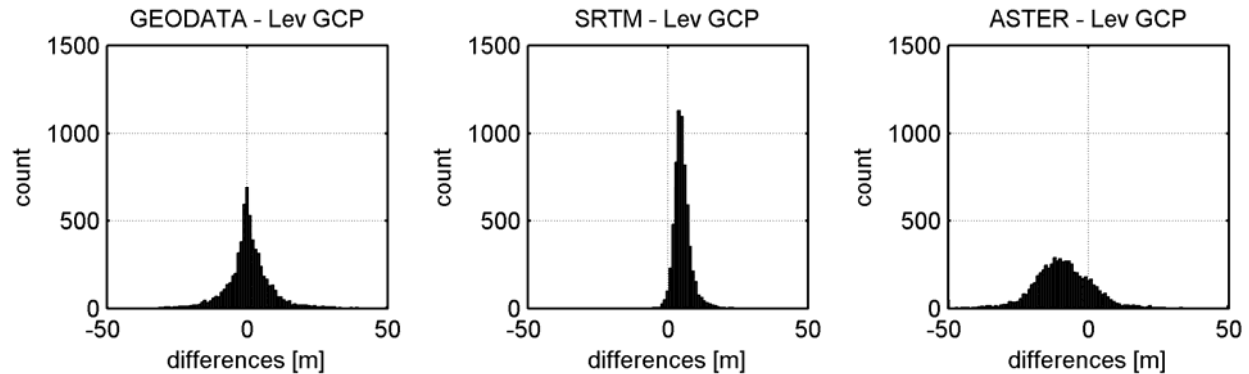
452 The mean values of SRTM and ASTER differences reflect a number of effects: (1) the  
 453 incompatibility of the AHD and WGS84-EGM96 heights, (2) satellite-collected elevation data  
 454 tend to be too high (DSM vs. DTM), and (3) ASTER elevations are subject to large-scale stripe-  
 455 like error patterns (shown earlier). At our 6392 GCPs, SRTM elevations are around 5 m too  
 456 high, while the heights from the ASTER model are about 9 m too low. Further analysis will be  
 457 required (i.e. larger areas with dense sets of GCPs) in order to corroborate these results.

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460 **Table 6** Statistics of the model comparison with 6392 levelled benchmarks (levelling GCPs).  
 461 Units in metres

<b>Comparison</b>	<b>Resolution ["]</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>RMS</b>	<b>Std.dev</b>
<b>DEM-9S – Lev</b>	9	-79.8	63.8	0.5	8.9	8.9
<b>SRTM – Lev</b>	3	-23.0	36.9	5.2	6.1	3.2
<b>ASTER – Lev</b>	1	-167.1	123.4	-9.1	15.7	12.8

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 466 **Figure 7** Distribution of the differences among DEM-9S, SRTM and ASTER and 6392  
 467 Australian levelling benchmarks over WA.  
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## 470 CONCLUSIONS

471 This study has investigated the quality of three new digital elevation models GEODATA DEM-  
 472 9S ver3, CGIAR-CSI SRTM ver4.1 and NASA/METI ASTER GDEM ver1 over Australia, all of  
 473 which are available free of charge. The basic characteristics of the models were described,  
 474 comparisons among the three models drawn, and accuracy estimates by means of comparisons  
 475 against GCPs derived. All models have strengths and weaknesses, which can be summarised as  
 476 follows.

477 The national GEODATA DEM-9S ver3 elevation model that mainly relies on terrestrial  
 478 survey data represents the Australian topography with particular focus on the proper inclusion of  
 479 drainage patterns. The DEM-9S elevations are provided on the AHD. The vertical accuracy of  
 480 DEM-9S elevations is found to be around 9 m from the comparison with levelling GCPs, which  
 481 corroborates the official accuracy estimate by Hutchinson et al. (2008) valid for less-elevated  
 482 terrain. Because of the relatively coarse resolution of 9" (as compared to the space collected  
 483 models), DEM-9S shows large errors of up to a few 100 m in rugged terrain. These errors reflect  
 484 signal omission and may limit its suitability for certain applications.

485 The CGIAR-CSI SRTM ver4.1 elevation data set from InSAR observations comes at a 3"  
 486 resolution. It performs best in both the model-to-model comparisons and in the comparisons  
 487 with GCPs (RMS values of about 6 m). However, this good result is possibly related to the fact  
 488 that our GCPs are located in rather less-vegetated areas. In areas with dense vegetation,  
 489 systematically too high SRTM heights are generally to be expected based on experiences in other  
 490 countries (e.g., Denker 2004, Marti 2004). According to CGIAR-CSI (2009), holes in

491 mountainous areas – the most crucial part in earlier SRTM releases – were filled using auxiliary  
492 data from GA. In summary, we consider the SRTM ver4.1 data to be a serious alternative to  
493 GEODATA for a range of DEM applications in Australia. For hydrological applications,  
494 however, the drainage accuracy remains to be assessed.

495 The ASTER GDEM ver1 elevation data set constructed from optical stereo imagery is  
496 provided at a very high grid resolution of 1". The model contains artificial error patterns (stripes  
497 and cloud anomalies), which is why METI/NASA consider it to be research-grade only.  
498 Moreover, the ASTER elevations showed the lowest accuracy in the GCP comparison with RMS  
499 values of about 15 m. However, this agrees with the formally stated accuracy range of ASTER  
500 elevations (10-25 m, cf. ASTER Validation Team 2009).

501 The currently available DEM-9S or SRTM releases are preferred over ASTER for most  
502 applications, unless the ASTER model can be improved (e.g. outliers and stripes removed) by  
503 the user. It is hoped that efforts towards data cleaning (previously seen with the SRTM data)  
504 will lead to better, post-processed ASTER versions. In particular, it is the unprecedented detail  
505 that will be beneficial for a number of applications.

506

507

## 508 **Acknowledgements**

509 CH and WEF thank the Australian Research Council for financial support through grant  
510 DP0663020. MSF receives financial support from an Australian Postgraduate Award (APA),  
511 The Institute for Geoscience Research and the Cooperative Research Centre for Spatial  
512 Information. Special thanks go to Andreas Lindau for providing useful Matlab scripts and to  
513 Mike Hutchinson for emailed clarifications on DEM-9S, his thorough review and helpful  
514 comments. We would also like to thank John Dawson for his useful remarks on this manuscript.  
515 We would like to thank Geoscience Australia and Landgate (the Western Australian geodetic  
516 agency) for supplying GPS and AHD benchmark data respectively, particularly Graeme  
517 Holloway (Landgate) for helpful clarification regarding WA benchmark information. Figures 3,  
518 4 and 5 were produced using Generic Mapping Tools (GMT; Wessel and Smith, 2007). This is  
519 The Institute for Geoscience Research (TIGeR) publication number XX.

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