


Spatial Data Analytics and the Role of  
Geoinformatics Technologies

**Journal of Development Economics and  
Management Research Studies (JDMS)**  
*A Peer Reviewed Open Access  
International Journal*  
ISSN: 2582 5119 (Online)

 Crossref Prefix No: 10.53422  
12 (23), 13 - 40, January – March, 2025  
@Center for Development Economic  
Studies (CDES)  
Reprints and permissions  
<https://www.cdes.org.in/>  
<https://www.cdes.org.in/about-journal/>

---

### **Spatial Data Analytics and the Role of Geoinformatics Technologies**

T. Vasantha Kumaran<sup>1</sup>, O.M. Murali<sup>2</sup>, and R. Joseph<sup>3</sup>

#### **Abstract**

*With the power of GIS, remote sensing, and spatial databases, organisations can unlock valuable insights that drive effective decision-making across numerous domains. It continues to grow and the role of Geoinformatics becomes increasingly vital in addressing complex challenges and enhancing our ability to manage resources sustainably, plan urban environments, and monitor environmental changes. In the context of avenue trees, spatial data science has enabled the monitoring and early detection of tree degradation through remote sensing, LiDAR, and citizen science initiatives. Regarding crime analysis, spatial data science can identify and predict crime hot spots, allowing for more efficient law enforcement strategies. GIS has been crucial in translating complex spatial data into actionable insights. Future research should continue to explore integrating big data sources, such as social media, with traditional spatial data to enhance the accuracy and timeliness of spatial pattern visualisations in these domains. Shapefiles, GeoJSON, and KML are imperative for effective spatial analysis and visualisation. PostGIS plays a crucial role in managing and querying spatial data efficiently. Web GIS is a powerful tool for collaboration and accessibility, reshaping how we engage with Geographical information. Crime harm analysis provides a robust framework for understanding the complex relationship between crime and socio-economic factors. Spatial Data Analytics and Geoinformatics Technologies offer profound insights and applications across various sectors.*

**Keywords:** Spatial data analytics, Decision-making, Remote sensing, LiDAR, Shapefiles, GeoJSON, KML, PostGIS, Geographical information.

---

<sup>1</sup> Retired Professor of Geography, University of Madras.

<sup>2</sup> Independent Researcher, Chennai.

<sup>3</sup> Retired Deputy Registrar General of Census of India.

## Introduction

In an increasingly interconnected world, the significance of spatial data analytics has surged, playing a pivotal role in various sectors, including urban planning, environmental management, public health, and transportation. Spatial data analytics involves the examination of data that possesses Geographical or spatial attributes, enabling organizations to make informed decisions based on location-based insights. The effective use of spatial data analytics can lead to improved resource allocation, enhanced operational efficiency, and informed policy-making. At the heart of this analytical process lies the suite of technologies known as Geoinformatics, which includes Geographical Information Systems (GIS), remote sensing, and spatial databases (Goodchild, 2007). These technologies facilitate the collection, storage, analysis, and visualization of spatial data, thereby enhancing our ability to understand complex spatial relationships and phenomena (Haining, 2003).

### 1. The Role of Geoinformatics Technologies

#### *Geographical Information Systems (GIS)*

**Data Visualization.** GIS allows users to visualise spatial data through maps and interactive tools, making it easier to identify patterns and trends.

**Spatial Analysis.** With GIS, users can perform sophisticated analyses, such as overlaying different data layers, proximity analysis, and hotspot mapping (Sutherland, and Burch, 2013).

**Decision Support.** GIS provides critical insights that support decision-making in various fields, from urban planning to disaster response (DeMers, 2009).

#### **Remote Sensing**

**Data Acquisition.** Remote sensing involves capturing data from satellite or aerial imagery, providing a comprehensive view of large areas without the need for physical presence.

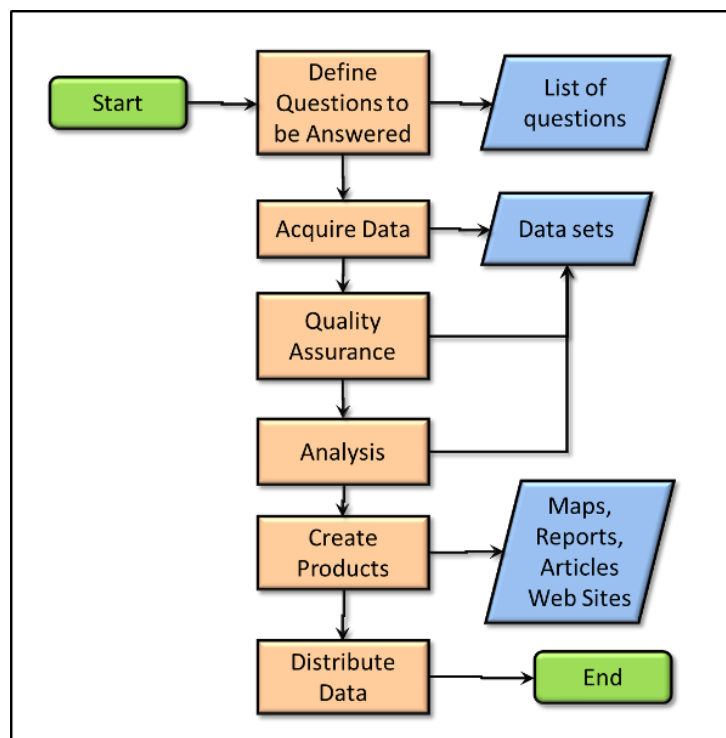


FIGURE 1: Spatial Analysis

**Environmental Monitoring.** This technology is crucial for monitoring environmental changes, such as deforestation, urban sprawl, and climate change.

**Resource Management.** Remote sensing aids in managing natural resources by providing data on land use, vegetation cover, and water bodies.

### **Spatial Databases**

**Data Storage.** Spatial databases are designed to store and manage spatial data efficiently, allowing for quick retrieval and analysis.

**Integration of Data.** These databases enable the integration of various data types, facilitating comprehensive analyses that combine spatial and non-spatial information.

**Support for Big Data.** With the increasing volume of spatial data generated from various sources, spatial databases provide the necessary infrastructure to handle big data challenges, ensuring data integrity and accessibility (Dobson, and Bright, 2000).

## **2. A Review of Spatial Data Science Applications**

(in Spatial Patterns Visualization of Avenue Trees Degradations, Crimes, and Anemia in Pregnant Mothers)

Spatial data science is a rapidly evolving field that integrates spatial data with advanced computational techniques to uncover patterns and relationships within various phenomena. This review focuses on the application of spatial data science in visualizing spatial patterns related to avenue tree degradation, crimes, and anemia among pregnant mothers. Understanding these patterns is critical for urban planning, public safety, and healthcare interventions. This review synthesizes existing literature, highlighting key methodologies and findings in these areas.

### **Avenue Trees Degradation**

Avenue trees play a significant role in urban ecosystems by providing ecological benefits, aesthetic value, and contributing to the overall quality of life in cities. However, urbanization, pollution, and climate change have led to the degradation of these trees. Spatial data science has been instrumental in monitoring and visualizing the degradation patterns of avenue trees.

One of the primary methods used in this domain is remote sensing combined with Geographical Information Systems (GIS). For example, Guo, Xu, Zeng, Liu, and Zhu (2023) used satellite imagery to monitor tree health over time, identifying areas with significant tree canopy loss. Their study utilized Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) derived from satellite data to assess the health of trees in urban avenues, which was then visualized using GIS to pinpoint areas of concern. Similarly, Nguyen, Hartemink, and Vaessen (2021) employed high-resolution aerial imagery combined with machine learning algorithms to detect tree species and assess their health, allowing for the identification of degradation patterns at a granular level.

Another approach involves the use of LiDAR (Light Detection and Ranging) technology. Yang, M., Zhou, X., Liu, Z., Li, P., Tang, J., Xie, B., and Peng, C. (2022) applied LiDAR data to create detailed 3D models of urban trees, which were analysed to detect structural damage and predict future degradation. This method provides a more detailed visualization compared to traditional 2D mapping techniques, offering insights into the physical structure of trees and their degradation over time.

Moreover, citizen science initiatives have been leveraged to gather spatial data on tree health. Buchel, Fink, and Cibulski (2022) explored the use of mobile applications where citizens report tree health issues, which are then mapped and analysed to visualize degradation patterns across urban areas. This approach not only enhances data collection but also promotes public awareness and engagement in urban forestry management.

### ***Crime Analysis***

Spatial data science has been extensively applied in the analysis and visualization of crime patterns, enabling law enforcement and policymakers to make data-driven decisions to enhance public safety. Crime mapping, a key component of this analysis, has evolved significantly with the advent of spatial data science techniques.

Hot spot analysis is one of the most widely used methods in crime mapping. Eck, Chainey, Cameron, Leitner, and Wilson (2017) utilized kernel density estimation (KDE) to identify areas with high concentrations of crimes, providing a visual representation of crime hot spots within urban areas. This method allows for the identification of spatial clusters of crimes, which can be crucial for resource allocation and strategic planning by law enforcement agencies. Additionally, Chainey, Tompson, and Uhlig (2019) integrated temporal analysis with spatial hot spot mapping, offering insights into not only where crimes are concentrated but also when they are most likely to occur.

Another significant application is predictive policing, where spatial data science techniques are used to forecast crime occurrences. Mohler, Short, Malinowski, Johnson, Tita, Bertozzi, and Brantingham (2018) developed a predictive policing model using spatiotemporal data to anticipate future crime hot spots. Their model, based on the self-exciting point process, was able to predict crime occurrences with higher accuracy compared to traditional methods, leading to more efficient deployment of police resources.

The integration of social media data with spatial analysis has also gained traction in recent years. Gerber (2014) analysed Twitter data to detect patterns in criminal activity, correlating geotagged tweets with crime incidents to identify emerging hot spots. This approach highlights the potential of big data in complementing traditional crime data sources, offering a real-time dimension to crime analysis.

Moreover, spatial data science has been applied to understanding the spatial distribution of specific types of crimes, such as domestic violence. Ceccato (2017) examined the spatial patterns of domestic violence incidents in rural and urban settings, using spatial regression models to identify environmental and socio-economic factors that contribute to the risk of domestic violence. The study provided a visual representation of areas with higher risks, which can inform targeted interventions.

### ***Anaemia in Pregnant Mothers***

Anaemia is a significant public health issue, particularly among pregnant women, as it poses risks to both maternal and foetal health. Spatial data science has been increasingly utilized to understand the spatial distribution and determinants of anaemia in pregnant mothers, which is crucial for targeted healthcare interventions.

One of the key methods in this area is the use of spatial regression models to identify factors associated with anaemia prevalence. Ahinkorah, B. O., Ameyaw, E. K., Seidu, A.A., and Njue, C. (2022) discussed the effects of antenatal care visits and health facility delivery on women's choice to circumcise their daughters in sub-Saharan Africa: evidence from

demographic and health surveys. The study revealed significant spatial autocorrelation in anaemia rates, indicating that areas with high anaemia prevalence were often clustered. This spatial pattern was visualized using GIS, providing a clear representation of areas where interventions are most needed.

Remote sensing data has also been employed to assess environmental factors contributing to anaemia. Ebener, Castaneda-Orjuela, Saylor, and Lyons (2017) used satellite data to analyse the relationship between environmental variables such as vegetation cover, proximity to water bodies, and anaemia prevalence in Sub-Saharan Africa. Their study found that areas with low vegetation cover and poor access to clean water had higher rates of anaemia among pregnant women. These findings were visualized through maps that highlighted the spatial distribution of anaemia about environmental factors.

Moreover, Kanchan, Pradhan, and Shetty (2020) used spatial epidemiological techniques to map the distribution of anaemia among pregnant women in India, integrating demographic data with spatial analysis. The study identified regional disparities in anaemia prevalence, with higher rates observed in rural areas compared to urban settings. The visualization of these patterns provided valuable insights for healthcare planners to design location-specific interventions.

In addition to mapping prevalence, spatial data science has been used to track the effectiveness of anaemia intervention programs. Priso, Sop, and Tchunte (2019) employed spatial analysis to evaluate the impact of a nutritional supplementation program in reducing anaemia rates among pregnant women in Cameroon. The study used GIS to map changes in anaemia prevalence over time, demonstrating the spatial effectiveness of the intervention.

### **3. Spatial Data Types and Formats**

Spatial data is a critical component of Geographical information systems (GIS) and spatial analysis, providing insights into the relationships between different Geographical entities (Anselin, and Bera, 1998). Understanding the various types of spatial data and their formats is essential for effective data analysis and visualization (Haining, 2003). This paper will explore the three primary types of spatial data—points, lines, and polygons—followed by a discussion of common formats such as shapefiles, GeoJSON, and KML, along with their respective advantages and disadvantages (Dobson, and Bright, 2000).

#### ***Types of Spatial Data***

##### ***1. Points***

**Definition.** Points are the simplest form of spatial data, representing specific locations on the earth's surface. Each point is defined by a pair of coordinates (latitude and longitude).

**Examples.** Examples of point data include the location of a city, a well, or a landmark.

**Applications.** Points are commonly used in mapping applications where precise locations are necessary, such as GPS tracking, location-based services, and urban planning.

##### ***2. Lines***

**Definition.** Lines are one-dimensional spatial data that connect two or more points, representing linear features on the earth's surface.

**Examples.** Common examples include roads, rivers, and pipelines.

Applications. Line data is essential for transportation networks, hydrological studies, and infrastructure management. It allows for the analysis of connectivity and distance between different locations.

### **3. Polygons**

Definition. Polygons are two-dimensional spatial data that represent areas defined by a series of connected lines, forming a closed shape.

Examples. Examples include land parcels, administrative boundaries, and lakes.

Applications. Polygon data is widely used in land-use planning, environmental management, and resource allocation. It enables the analysis of spatial relationships within defined areas.

## ***Common Spatial Data Formats***

### **1. Shapefiles**

Shapefiles are a popular format for storing vector data in GIS applications, consisting of multiple files that work together to represent geometric shapes and attribute information. The Shapefiles are widely supported by various GIS software and tools, making them a standard choice for spatial data. The format is straightforward, consisting of multiple files (such as .shp, .shx, and .dbf) that separate geometry and attribute data.

There are, however, disadvantages. Shapefiles have a maximum size limit of 2 GB, which can be restrictive for large datasets. The format does not support advanced geometries like curves or 3D shapes, limiting its applicability in certain contexts.

### **2. GeoJSON**

GeoJSON is a format based on JavaScript Object Notation (JSON), designed for representing simple Geographical features, along with their attributes. Being a text-based format, GeoJSON files are easy to read and edit, making them user-friendly for developers and analysts. The format is highly compatible with web applications, allowing for easy integration with web mapping libraries like Leaflet and Mapbox.

The disadvantages are: While GeoJSON excels in representing simple geometries, it may struggle with more complex features such as multi-part geometries.

GeoJSON files can become large for extensive datasets, potentially impacting performance in web applications.

### **3. KML (Keyhole Markup Language)**

KML is an XML-based format designed for representing Geographical data in applications like Google Earth and Google Maps.

The advantages of the KML are: KML supports a variety of features, including 3D visualization, styles, and overlays, enhancing the presentation of spatial data. It is specifically optimized for use with Google Earth, making it a preferred choice for users of that platform.

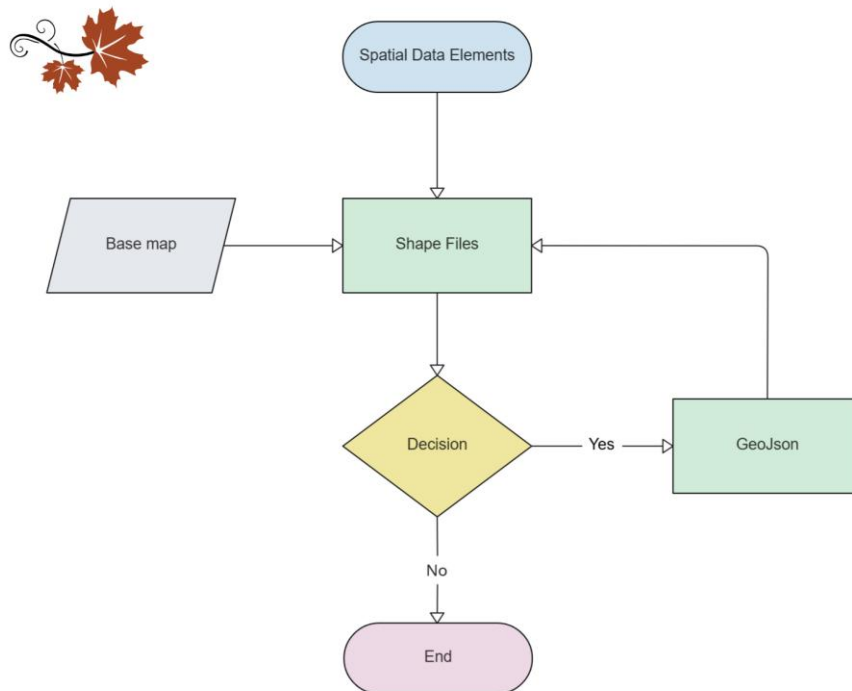


FIGURE 2: Common Spatial Data Formats

The disadvantages are: The XML structure can be complex, making KML files harder to read and edit compared to simpler formats like GeoJSON. While KML is popular in web applications, it is less frequently used in traditional GIS software, potentially limiting its interoperability (Li, and Zhu, 2012).

#### 4. Core Concepts in Spatial Data Analytics

Spatial data analytics is an essential field that leverages Geographical information to derive insights, make decisions, and solve complex problems. Understanding core concepts such as coordinates, projections, and datums is vital for effectively handling spatial data. This paper will explore these foundational concepts, highlighting their significance in spatial data analytics and their practical applications (Foley, and Lechner, 2010).

##### ***Coordinates: Latitude and Longitude as Geographical Addresses***

Coordinates are numerical values that represent specific locations on the Earth's surface. The most common system for defining these locations is the latitude and longitude system. Latitude measures the distance north or south of the equator, while longitude measures the distance east or west of the Prime Meridian (Maling, 1992).

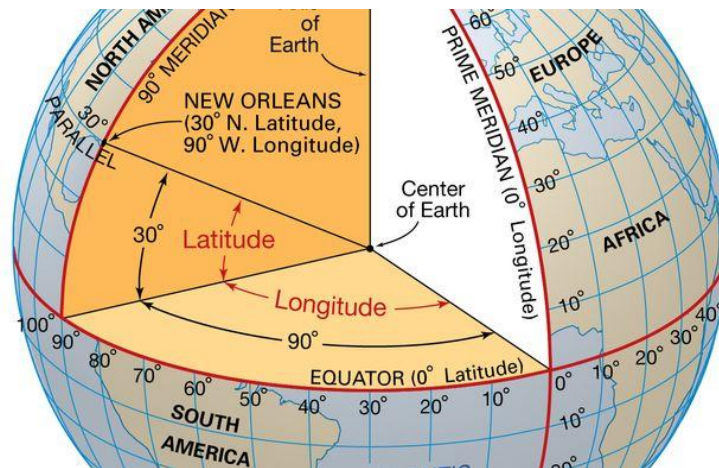


FIGURE 3: Core Concepts of Spatial Data Analytics

Coordinates serve as unique Geographical addresses, allowing for the precise identification of locations. For example, the coordinates of the Eiffel Tower in Paris are approximately:  $48.8584^{\circ}$  N,  $2.2945^{\circ}$  E.

They are crucial for navigation systems, mapping applications, and Geographical information systems (GIS), enabling users to plot routes and visualize spatial relationships effectively.

Coordinates facilitate spatial analysis by allowing researchers and analysts to perform calculations related to distance, area, and proximity among different Geographical features (Thomas, and Gurd, 2009).

### ***Projections: Methods for Mapping 3D Earth onto 2D Surfaces***

Projections are mathematical methods used to represent the curved surface of the Earth in a two-dimensional format, such as maps and digital displays. Since the Earth is an oblate spheroid, representing it accurately in two dimensions involves trade-offs regarding area, shape, distance, and direction.

### ***Types of Projections***

*Cylindrical Projections.* These projections, such as the Mercator projection, represent the Earth as if it were wrapped around a cylinder. They preserve angles but distort area, making high-latitude regions appear larger than they are.

*Conical Projections.* These projections are created by projecting the Earth onto a cone. They are particularly useful for mapping mid-latitude regions, as they maintain shape and area better than cylindrical projections.

*Azimuthal Projections.* These projections focus on a single point on the Earth's surface, projecting the surrounding area onto a flat plane. They are often used for polar mapping and navigation.

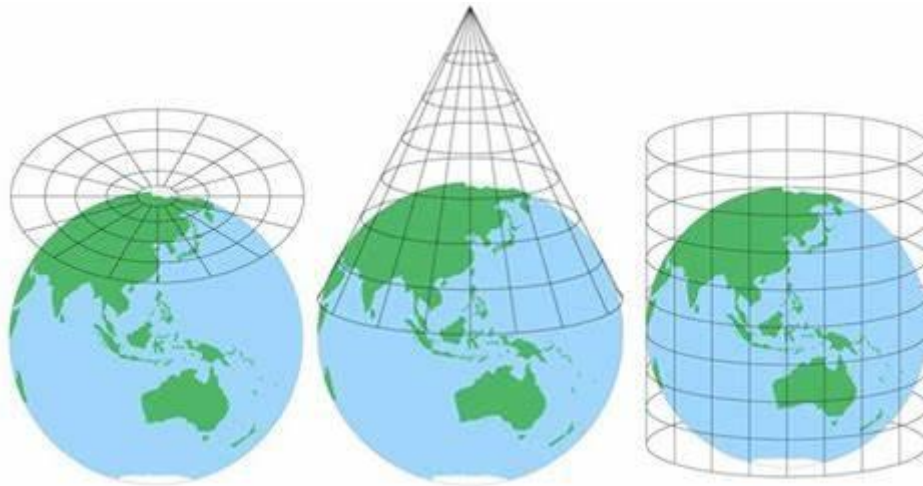


FIGURE 4: Types of Map Projections

### ***Importance***

*Map Accuracy.* The choice of projection influences the accuracy of maps and spatial analyses. Understanding the characteristics of different projections is essential for selecting the appropriate one for a specific purpose.

*Visualization.* Projections allow cartographers and GIS professionals to present spatial data in a visually comprehensible manner, aiding in communication and decision-making processes.

### ***Datums: Reference Systems Defining Earth's Shape and Coordinate Origins***

A datum is a reference system that provides a frame of reference for measuring locations on the Earth's surface. It defines the shape of the Earth (its ellipsoid) and establishes the origin of the coordinate system.

### ***Types of Datums***

*Horizontal Datums.* These datums provide a framework for latitude and longitude measurements. Examples include the WGS84 (World Geodetic System 1984) and NAD83 (North American Datum 1983).

*Vertical Datums.* These reference systems measure elevations and depths, defining the zero point for altitude. An example is the North American Vertical Datum (NAVD88).

### ***Importance***

*Consistency.* Datums ensure consistency in spatial data across different regions and applications. For example, using WGS84 allows for seamless integration of global datasets.

*Accuracy.* The choice of datum affects the precision of spatial analyses and the correctness of Geographical coordinates. Using an inappropriate datum can result in significant errors in location data.

## 5. Spatial Databases and Management

Spatial databases are specialized databases designed to store, query, and manage spatial data, which includes information about the physical location and shape of geometric objects. These databases are essential for applications in Geographical information systems (GIS), urban planning, environmental monitoring, and more. One of the most prominent examples of a spatial database is PostGIS, an extension of the PostgreSQL database management system.

### Spatial Data Model

- Spatial data
  - Location
    - Coordinates
    - Projections
  - Attributes
    - Discrete/Continuous
    - Relationships
- Spatial data presentation
  - Cartographic Symbology
  - Pyramiding and LOD
- Spatial data integration
  - Topographic relationships
  - Spatial analysis

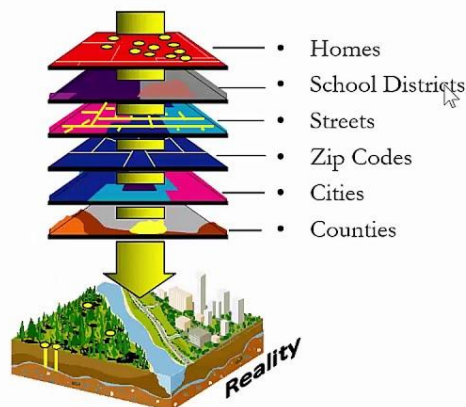


FIGURE 5

#### *Efficient Data Storage and Retrieval*

Spatial databases like PostGIS enhance traditional databases by adding support for spatial data types, spatial indexing, and spatial functions. These features enable efficient storage and retrieval of spatial data.

- **Spatial Data Types:** Spatial databases support various geometric data types such as points, lines, and polygons. These data types allow the representation of real-world objects like cities, roads, and boundaries. For instance, PostGIS supports geometry and geography types, enabling the storage of both planar and spherical data (PostGIS (n.d.) Introduction to PostGIS. Retrieved from PostGIS Workshop).
- **Spatial Indexing:** To efficiently query spatial data, spatial databases use specialized indexing techniques. The most common spatial index is the R-tree, which organizes spatial objects hierarchically. This indexing method allows for quick retrieval of spatial data by reducing the number of objects that need to be examined (PostGIS. (n.d.). Creating a Spatial Database. Retrieved from PostGIS Workshop).
- **Spatial Functions:** Spatial databases provide a rich set of functions to perform spatial operations. These functions include calculating distances, finding intersections, and performing spatial joins. For example, PostGIS offers functions like ST\_Distance, ST\_Intersects, and ST\_Union to facilitate complex spatial queries (GIS Geography (n.d.) Spatial Databases – Build Your Spatial Data Empire. Retrieved from GIS Geography).

### ***Complex Queries and Spatial Indexing Techniques***

Spatial databases are designed to handle complex queries that involve spatial relationships and operations. These queries often require sophisticated indexing techniques to ensure efficient performance.

- ***Complex Queries***: Spatial queries can range from simple point lookups to complex spatial joins. For example, a query might involve finding all parks within a certain distance from a school or identifying overlapping regions between different land use zones. These queries leverage spatial functions and indexes to provide accurate and efficient results<sup>1</sup>.
- ***Spatial Indexing Techniques***: The efficiency of spatial queries heavily depends on the indexing techniques used. The R-tree index is widely used due to its ability to handle multi-dimensional data. It works by dividing the space into nested, hierarchical rectangles, allowing for efficient querying of spatial relationships. Another indexing technique is the Quad-tree, which recursively subdivides the space into quadrants, making it suitable for point data<sup>1</sup>.
- ***PostGIS Indexing***: PostGIS uses the GiST (Generalized Search Tree) index, which supports various types of queries, including spatial ones. The GiST index is flexible and can be customized for different types of data, making it ideal for spatial databases. It allows for efficient querying of spatial relationships, such as containment, intersection, and proximity<sup>1</sup>.

### **6. Web GIS and Collaboration**

The digital age has transformed how we visualize, share, and interact with Geographical information. Geographical Information Systems (GIS), traditionally confined to specialized software and expert users, have evolved into Web GIS—tools accessible via web browsers. This paradigm shift has ushered in a new era of collaborative mapping and spatial analysis, enhancing not just individual capability but also collective efforts within communities, organizations, and governments.

Web-based interactive mapping tools such as Google Maps, ArcGIS Online, and QGIS Cloud exemplify the capabilities of Web GIS. These platforms enable users to create, share, and manipulate maps without requiring advanced technical skills. For instance, Google Maps has redefined navigation and exploration by allowing the public to contribute data through reviews and venue information. Meanwhile, ArcGIS Online offers powerful geospatial analysis tools, enabling users to create customized maps and analyze data collaboratively. These tools enhance productivity by integrating Geographical data with user-generated content, providing insights into spatial relationships that were previously difficult to access (Antoniou and Skopeliti, 2020).

One of the key benefits of Web GIS is its capacity to foster collaboration. Geographical data is inherently spatial, and sharing this information in real-time can streamline communication among diverse stakeholders. For example, urban planners, environmentalists, and community activists can collectively analyze land use patterns, zoning regulations, and environmental impacts using shared interactive maps. This collaborative approach promotes informed decision-making and ensures that all voices, especially those of marginalized communities, are considered in planning processes (Elwood, 2011).

The accessibility of Web GIS significantly reduces barriers to participation. Unlike traditional GIS, which often requires specialized training, Web GIS platforms provide intuitive

interfaces that allow non-experts to contribute. This democratization of Geographical data is crucial in empowering communities to participate in discussions about their environments. Furthermore, mobile access to Web GIS enables users to engage with Geographical information actively, whether they are in the field collecting data or at home analyzing results. As a result, a broader range of stakeholders can contribute insights, greatly enriching the collaborative process (Sui, Elwood, and Goodchild, 2012).

Web GIS also promotes transparency and accountability in governance. Public agencies can use these tools to openly share Geographical data with citizens, allowing them to visualize how government actions impact their communities. For example, interactive maps showing environmental pollutants or public service locations can foster community awareness and advocacy. Moreover, community feedback can be integrated into these maps, creating a dynamic dialogue between citizens and policymakers (Sieber and DeLyser, 2012).

Despite its numerous advantages, the collaborative potential of Web GIS is not without challenges. Issues of data privacy, intellectual property rights, and misinformation can arise when multiple users contribute Geographically relevant data. Therefore, it is essential to establish guidelines and best practices for data sharing and user engagement to maintain the integrity of the information (Wright, 2019).

## **7. Advanced Techniques in Spatial Data Analysis**

Spatial data analysis is a critical component of geography and environmental science, enabling researchers and practitioners to derive insights from complex spatial phenomena. As technology advances, numerous sophisticated techniques have been developed to analyze spatial data effectively. This paper explores three advanced techniques: spatial correlation analysis using variograms, interpolation methods for handling missing spatial data, and 3D visualization for urban planning and infrastructure management. These techniques not only enhance data understanding but also facilitate better decision-making processes.

### ***Spatial Correlation Analysis Using Variograms***

Spatial correlation refers to the relationship between spatially distributed variables, where the value of a variable at one location is related to its values at nearby locations. A powerful tool for quantifying spatial correlation is the variogram, which describes how the degree of similarity between data points changes with distance. The variogram function is characterized by its sill, nugget, and range. The sill represents the variance of the data, the nugget indicates measurement errors or small-scale variation, and the range is the distance at which the spatial correlation diminishes (Cressie, 1993).

Variogram analysis is fundamental in Geostatistics for characterizing spatial continuity and is widely used in fields such as environmental science, geology, and agriculture. By fitting a theoretical model to empirical variograms, researchers can make predictions about spatial patterns and enrich their analysis (Bivand, Pebesma, and Gomez-Rubio, 2008). For instance, in environmental monitoring, variograms can be utilized to assess the spatial distribution of pollutants or natural resources, guiding resource management strategies.

The application of variograms also plays a critical role in kriging, a sophisticated interpolation technique that uses spatial correlation information to provide optimal predictions of unknown values at unsampled locations (Isaaks and Srivastava, 1989). Kriging builds on variogram analysis to produce not only estimates but also uncertainty measures for those estimates, thus providing a comprehensive view of spatial uncertainty.

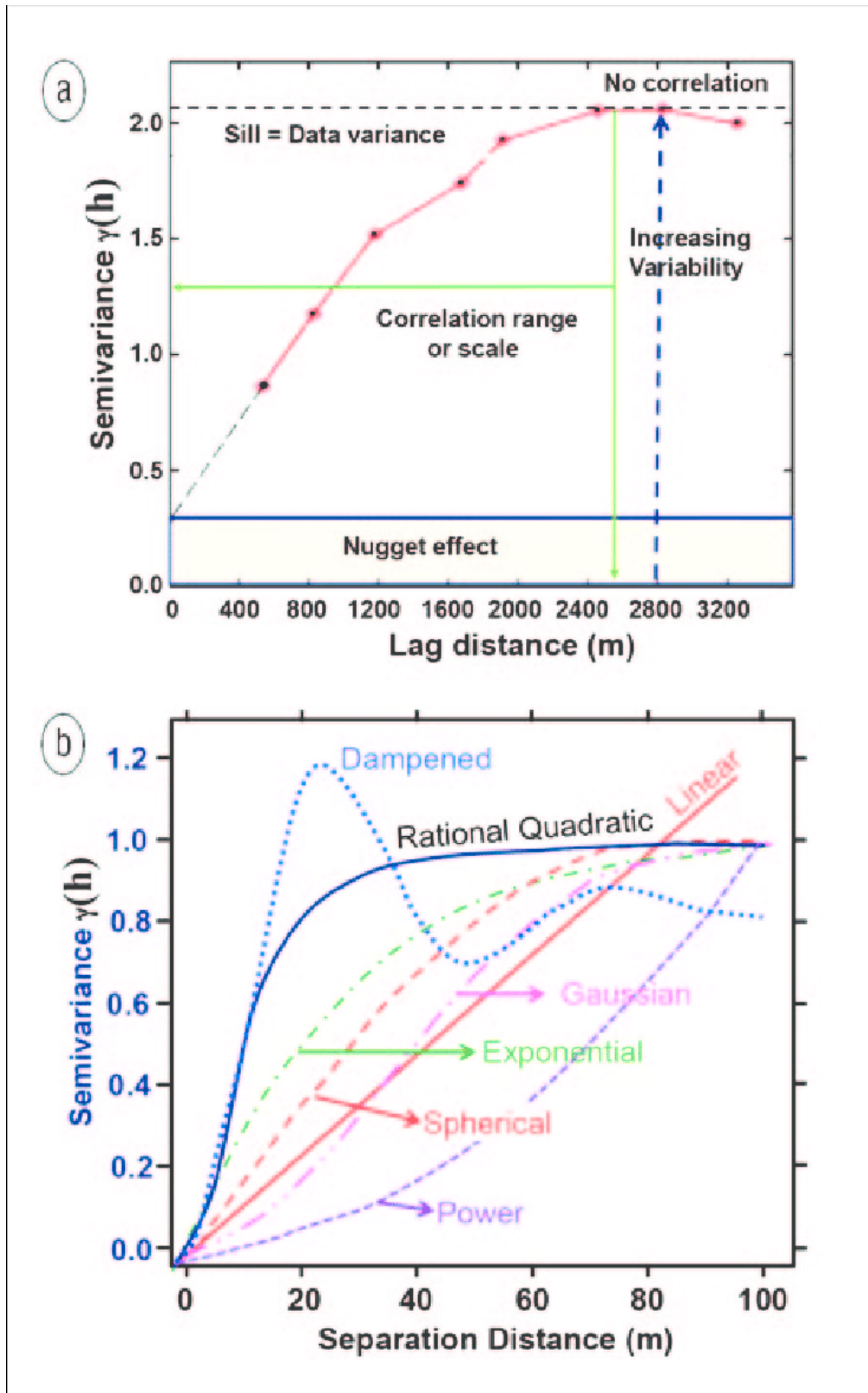


FIGURE 6: Spatial Correlation using Variogram, Sill, Nugget, and Correlation

### ***Interpolation Methods for Missing Spatial Data***

In real-world applications, spatial datasets often contain missing values due to various factors, such as measurement errors, equipment failures, or logistical constraints. Interpolation is the process of estimating missing values based on observed spatial data. Several interpolation methods exist, each with its strengths and weaknesses.

One common technique is inverse distance weighting (IDW), which assumes that points closer to the observation location will have more influence on the interpolated value than those farther away. IDW is relatively simple to implement and widely used in practice, but it can produce biased estimates if the spatial distribution of samples is uneven (Shepard, 1968).

Another robust method is kriging, as previously mentioned. Unlike IDW, kriging accounts for the spatial correlation of sampled points, making it a more statistically driven approach. It allows for the incorporation of variograms to depict spatial relationships, leading to more accurate estimates and uncertainty predictions (Angulo and Vilar, 2016).

Geostatistical methods also include several advanced techniques such as cokriging, which incorporates secondary variables that may correlate with the primary variable being estimated. This approach is beneficial when the primary variable has limited data but can be supported by the secondary data's spatial patterns (Goovaerts, 1997). By leveraging multiple data sources, cokriging enhances the robustness of spatial predictions, particularly in complex environments.

### ***3D Visualization for Urban Planning and Infrastructure Management***

As urbanization accelerates, the need for effective urban planning and infrastructure management has become ever more critical. Three-dimensional (3D) visualization techniques have emerged as invaluable tools for planners and decision-makers. By transforming traditional two-dimensional maps and data into interactive 3D models, stakeholders can better understand spatial relationships, assess impacts, and engage with the community.

3D visualization enables planners to simulate urban dynamics and visualize scenarios such as land use changes, transportation systems, and environmental impacts. For instance, Geographical Information Systems (GIS) combined with 3D modeling software, such as CityEngine or SketchUp, allows urban planners to create detailed simulations that represent building heights, vegetation, and even shadow analysis (Zhou, Kwan, and Wang, 2020). These visual tools provide clearer insights into how interventions will affect existing urban landscapes and help facilitate public participation in planning decisions.

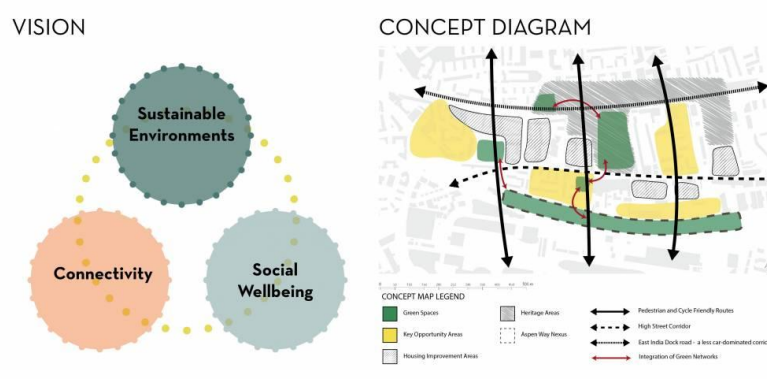


FIGURE 7: Visualization of Urban Planning and Infrastructure Development

Moreover, 3D visualization supports infrastructure management by providing engineers and maintenance personnel with spatially accurate representations of utilities and transportation networks. By visualizing complex networks in three dimensions, decision-makers can identify vulnerabilities, plan maintenance more effectively, and optimize resource allocation (Jiang, Ruas, and Zhan, 2017).

## **8. Methodology for Illustrative Examples: Crime Harm Analysis**

Crime harm analysis is an essential component of public safety and urban management, providing insights into the spatial distribution of crime and its societal impacts. This methodology illustrates how to approach a specific use case of crime harm analysis by collecting relevant spatial data and applying appropriate spatial analysis techniques.

### ***Selecting the Use Case: Crime Harm Analysis***

Crime harm analysis shifts the focus from merely counting incidents of crime to understanding the broader consequences of those crimes. This approach allows law enforcement agencies and urban planners to prioritize resources effectively and devise strategies to mitigate crime's impact on communities (Brunt, 2018). In this analysis, we will specifically focus on property crime, as it often has significant economic repercussions for both individuals and society at large.

### ***Collecting Relevant Spatial Data***

The first step in the methodology is the collection of spatial data related to property crimes. The following data sources would be particularly helpful:

1. **Crime Incident Reports.** Collect data from local law enforcement agencies, which typically provide publicly accessible crime records. This dataset should include the type of crime (e.g., burglary, theft), Geographical coordinates of incidents, time, and dates.
2. **Demographic Data.** Obtain demographic information from the U.S. Census Bureau or other local statistics agencies. Key variables to consider include household income, age distribution, and population density, which may influence crime rates and patterns (Ratcliffe, 2016).
3. **Spatial Infrastructure Data.** Access Geographical data reflecting land use, zoning, and urban infrastructure. Tools like GIS (Geographical Information Systems) can be utilized to integrate this data for spatial analysis.
4. **Socio-economic Indicators.** Gather data on socio-economic factors that may correlate with crime rates, such as unemployment rates and education levels, from sources like local employment agencies or academic databases.

### ***Applying Appropriate Spatial Analysis Techniques***

After data collection, the next step is to apply appropriate spatial analysis techniques to derive insights from the data. Key techniques include:

1. ***Hotspot Analysis.*** Hotspot analysis helps identify areas with a high concentration of crime incidents. This technique can utilize Local Moran's I statistic or Kernel Density Estimation (KDE) to visualize the spatial variation of crime across the study area.

***Application.*** Using the KDE method, we can create a density map highlighting regions with the highest property crime rates. This visualization enables law enforcement to allocate resources effectively to high-crime areas.

3. **Spatial Regression.** To understand the relationship between crime incidence and socio-economic factors, spatial regression techniques, such as Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR) or Spatial Autoregressive models (SAR), can be applied. These methods account for spatial autocorrelation—where crime occurrences in one location may influence occurrences in nearby locations.

**Application.** By modeling property crime rates as a function of socio-economic indicators and demographic data, we can identify significant predictors of crime. For example, a spatial regression model may reveal that areas with lower income levels and higher unemployment show a statistically significant relationship with increased rates of property crime (Fischer et al., 2018).

4. **Temporal Analysis.** Crime data can also be analyzed over time to understand patterns and trends. Time series analysis can be employed to detect seasonality or emerging trends in property crime, helping agencies anticipate and respond to potential crime spikes.

**Application.** By examining monthly crime data, we can identify patterns in crime trends over specific time frames, which can influence seasonal crime prevention strategies.

## 9. Results and Discussion

### Findings from Illustrative Example One

#### Avenue Tree Degradation

The study focuses on the premature elimination of avenue trees in Chennai, a city known for its hot weather and cyclonic storms. The researchers conducted a study covering 317 trees in parts of T. Nagar between 2004 and 2024, identifying signs of premature withering and physical challenges. The data was analysed using chi-square methods and found a clear trend of unsustainable human practices near trees. The study suggests that sustainable urban planning initiatives and policy changes are needed to protect existing green cover and mitigate pollution in metropolitan cities. The study highlights the need for measures to restore a wholesome atmosphere by promoting tree cover to 33.3 per cent of land area.

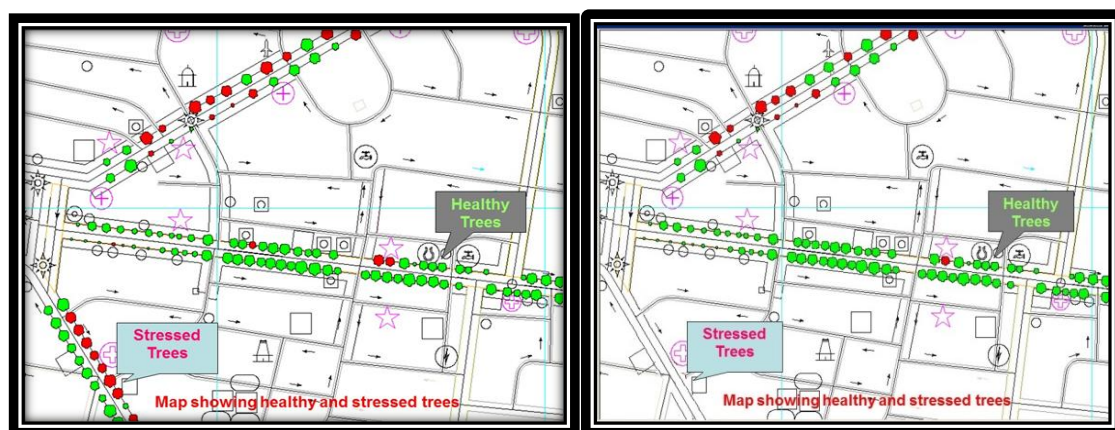


FIGURE 8: Avenue Tree Inventory and Management, 2004 and 2024.

The study involved observing 317 trees in three avenues of T. Nagar, focusing on their biological names, physical features, health status, human-induced factors, wounds, digging, debris dumping, and paving. The data was correlated to identify potential stressors causing premature tree death. 76 trees out of the 317 exhibited stress symptoms, while 241 were healthy.

Forty-one trees dumped debris around the base, 135 were nailed, and 231 paved around the trunk. 89 trees showed external injuries, and 53 were subjected to digging operations (Murali, 2024).

Statistical analysis revealed three significant factors affecting the health and growth of avenue trees: nailing, external injury, digging, debris dumping, and paving. Injury and wounds were found to be the most significant cause of stress, followed by digging operations by government and private agencies. Nailing on trees was the second most significant factor.

A GIS-based Avenue Tree Inventory and Management study in 2004 and 2024 found that the number of trees on three roads increased from 317 to 327 between 2004 and 2024. Only 241 trees were healthy, and 76 were under various types of crises. Garbage was dumped around the roots of 41 trees, and 89 trees had damage such as bark breakage and trenches were dug around 53 trees.

The study highlights the importance of tree cover for maintaining a liveable environment and the biodiversity of other living beings.

### ***Findings from Illustrative Example Two***

#### ***Chennai Crime Harm and Hot Spots***

The Chennai Crime Harm Indices show the percentage breakdown of different types of crimes in Chennai from 2018 to 2022. In 2018, property crimes accounted for 40 per cent of the total harm caused by all crimes, followed by crimes against individuals, cybercrimes, drug-related crimes, and white-collar crimes. In 2019, property crimes continued to dominate, causing 38 per cent of the overall harm. By 2020, cybercrimes took the lead, causing 37 per cent of the harm, possibly due to increased digitalization and online activities during the COVID-19 pandemic. In 2021, cyber-crimes continued to be the primary contributor to harm, rising to 45 per cent of the total. Property crimes decreased to 27 per cent, and crimes against individuals increased to 25 per cent.

Other crimes remained relatively stable, constituting 3 per cent of the overall harm. The chart also shows five major clusters of crimes for Chennai 2023: property-related crimes, interpersonal crimes, cybercrimes, traffic-related offences, and miscellaneous crimes. These clusters highlight the need for comprehensive law enforcement strategies to ensure public safety and security in the city.

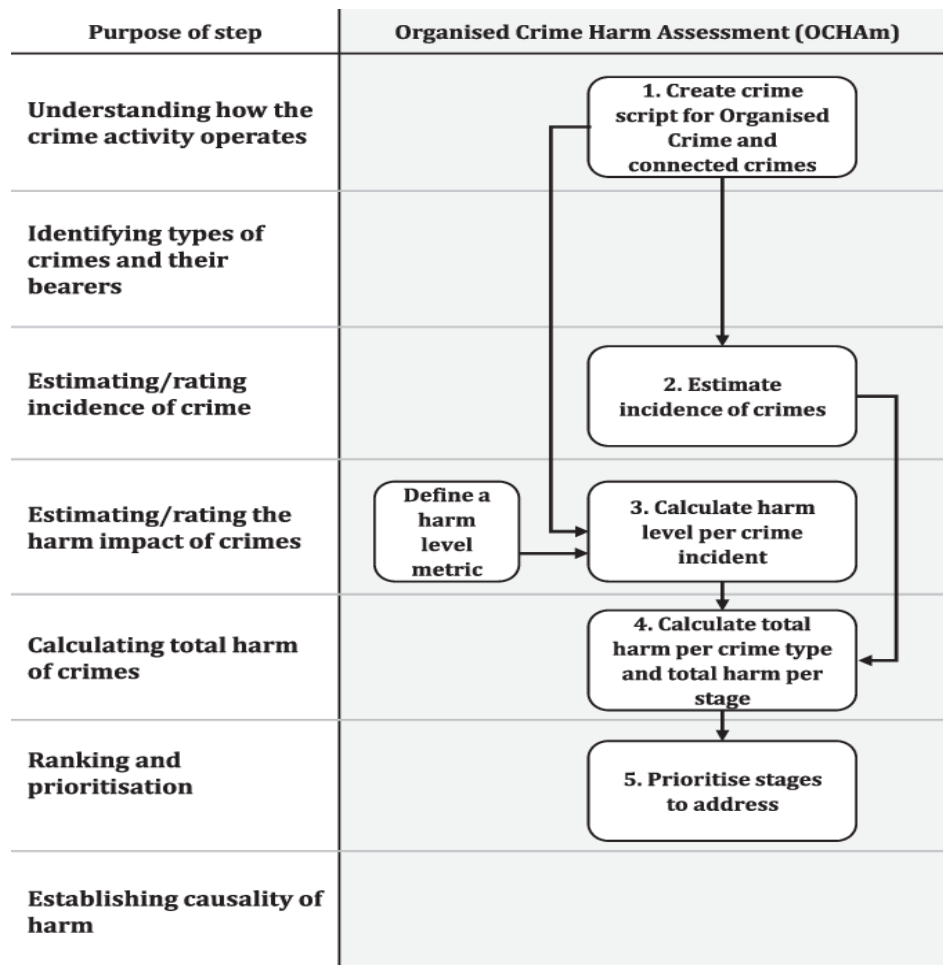


FIGURE 9: Organised Crime Harm Assessment

**Formula**

$$\text{Cambridge Crime Harm index} = \text{No. of minimum days recommended by IPC for a particular offence} * \text{Number of offences}$$

The Predictor Space Chart computed for the data is a model built using a clustering and classification algorithm to visualize the multi-dimensional space where input data is represented. The algorithm has identified three clusters or categories in the data, with K = 3, indicating that the data is structured and structured. The chart shows the cluster centres for five crime categories: murder and murder for gain, dacoity and robbery, housebreaking-by-day, housebreaking-by-night, and theft. The analysis provides insights into the structure and patterns of the data, indicating the complexity or separability of the data. The scatter plot of predictor space with three axes, murder, and murder for gain, dacoity and robbery, and housebreaking-by-day, provides an analysis of different criminal activities based on their occurrence rates. The chart aims to determine how these criminal activities are related to each other and if any patterns or trends can be observed.

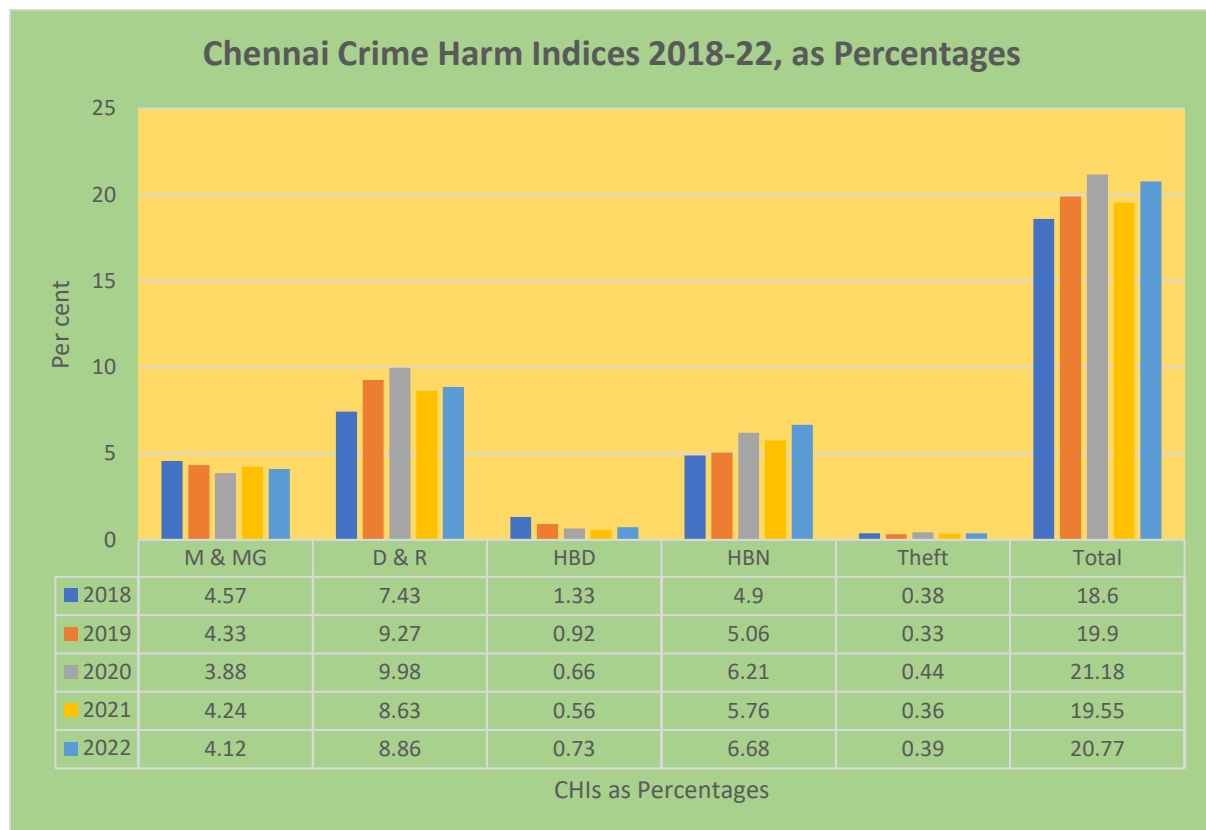


FIGURE 10: CCHI for Murder and murder for gain, dacoity and robbery, housebreaking by day, housebreaking by night, theft, and total crimes. (Courtesy: N.Z. Asiammal, 2024)

In 2022, the South Zone in Chennai Metropolis experienced the highest number of crimes, including robbery and theft. The North Zone had the highest number of murder cases, while the East Zone had a relatively lower number of crimes but a high number of house-breaking cases. The West Zone also reported significant numbers of house-breaking, robbery, and theft cases. The Cambridge Crime Harm Index (CCHI) is a low-cost and adaptable method used to measure the societal impact or harm caused by different types of crimes. The CHI is based on the Indian Penal Code (IPC), which recommends a minimum number of days in prison for each category of bodily offence. The harm value of the crime is solely associated with the offence type parse without adjustment for prior criminal history or the circumstances of the offence (Asiammal, 2024). The study aims to determine the crime that causes higher harm to society among all crimes, focusing on bodily offences such as murder, murder for gain, dacoity, robbery, housebreaking by day, and theft. The CHI is calculated by comparing the number of offences for a particular category of offence with the Crime Harm Index calculated.

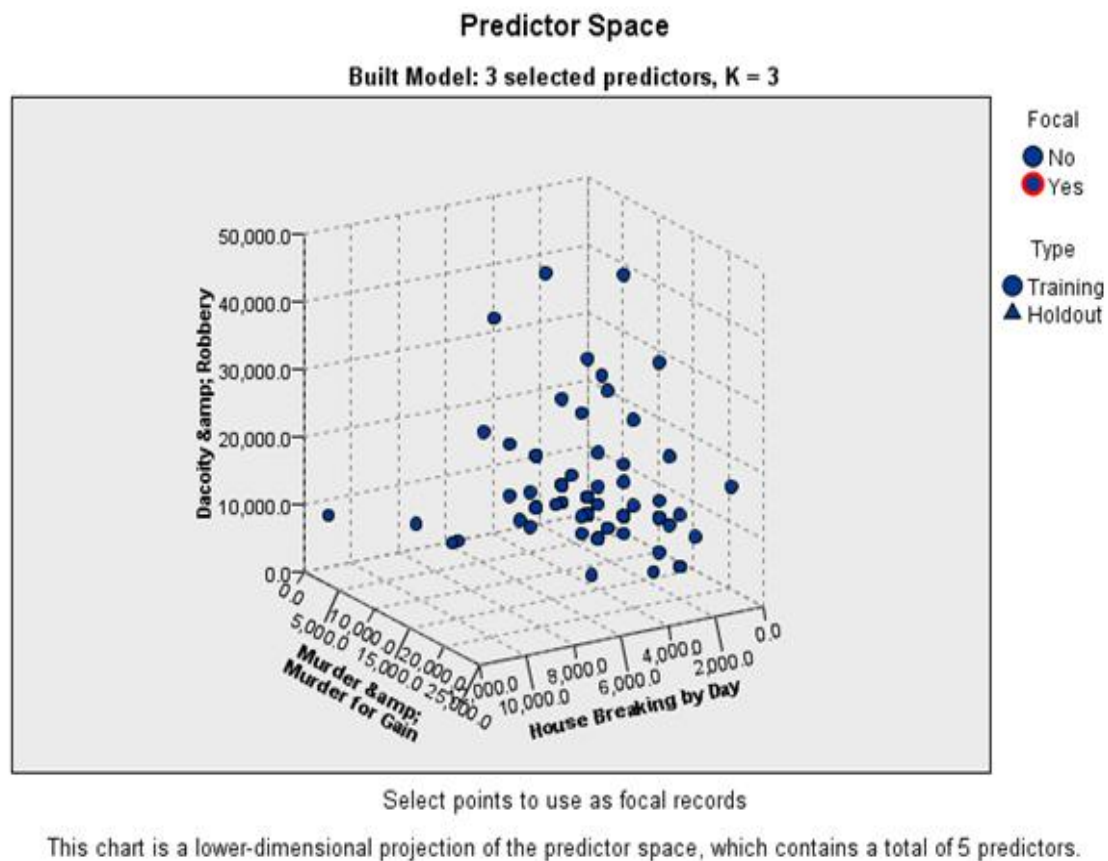


FIGURE 11: Predictor space for Chennai Crimes

(Courtesy: N.Z. Asiammal, 2024)

The Greater Chennai City Police has 102 law and order police stations in four zones: North, South, East, and West. The Crime Harm Index (CHI) for 2018 shows that Flower Bazaar District has the lowest CHI, Washermanpet District has the highest, Pulianthope District has a medium crime rate, Adyar District has the highest, T. Nagar District has a moderate CHI, St. Thomas Mount District has the lowest, Triplicane District has the lowest, Kilpauk District has the highest, Mylapore District has a mid-range CHI, Anna Nagar District has the highest, Koyembedu District has a moderate CHI, and Kolathur District has a mid-to-high-range CHI. The South Zone has the highest total CHI, with Dacoity and Robbery being the most reported categories. This analysis can help in resource allocation, policy making, and crime prevention strategies for 2018.

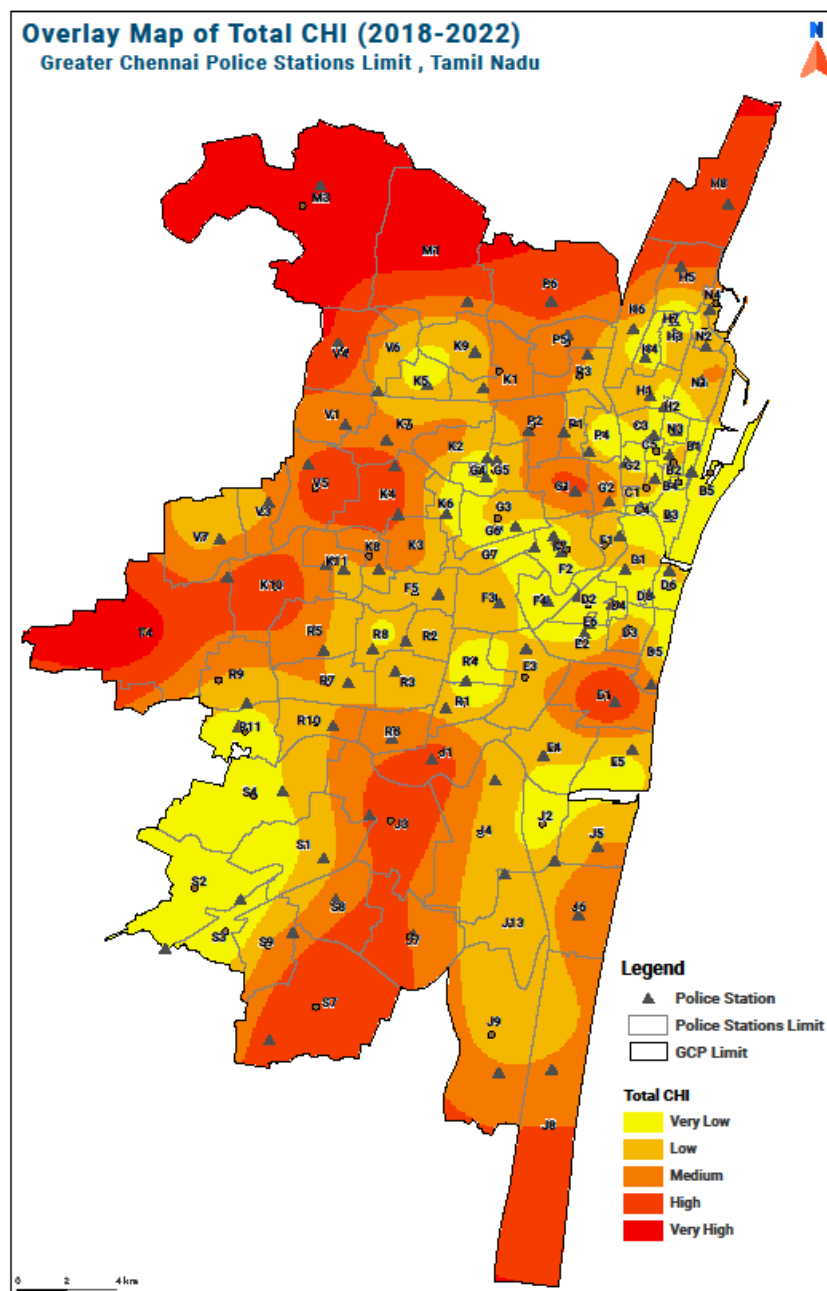


FIGURE 12: Cambridge Crime Harm Index for Total Crime Occurrences  
(Courtesy: N.Z. Asiammal, 2024)

### Findings from Illustrative Example Three

#### Anaemia of Pregnant Mothers (ANC, PNC) of Kolli Hills, Tamil Nadu

Anaemia among pregnant mothers in Kolli Hills, Tamil Nadu, India is a significant health concern that requires attention and intervention. Iron deficiency is one of the causes of anaemia in pregnant mothers, particularly in the Kolli Hills region. The governments of India and Tamil Nadu have taken notice of the nature and magnitude of anaemia in the country, and this study aims to assess the attention given to anaemia in women and the interventions planned and executed as part of healthcare.

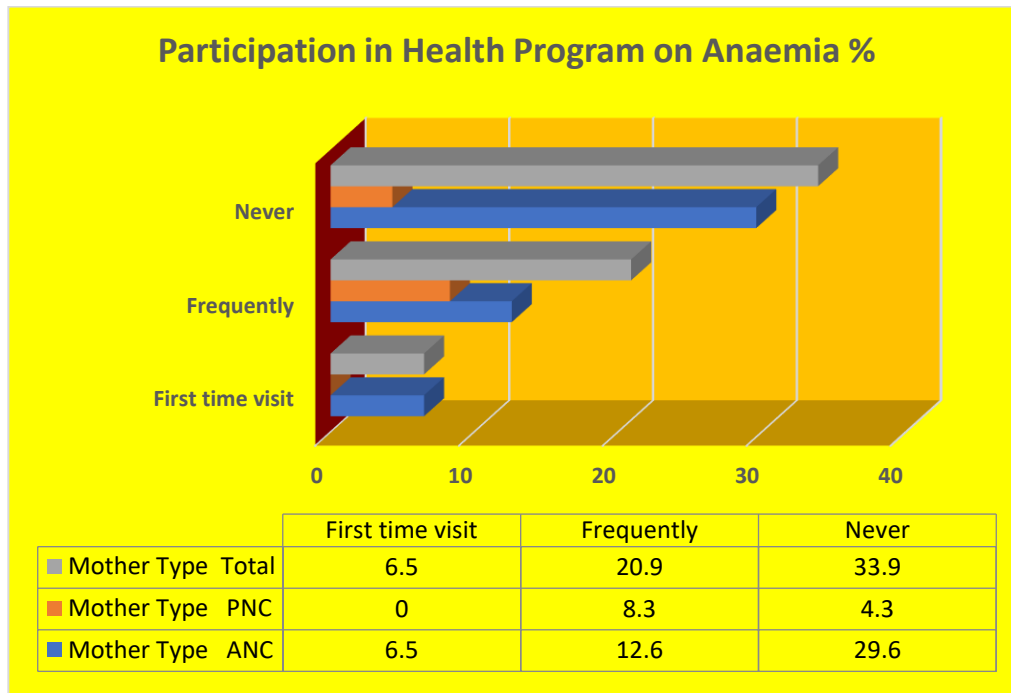


FIGURE 12 (Courtesy: Arunagiri, 2024)

A total of 230 mothers, 170 antenatal and 60 post-natal, were selected using stratified random sampling and interviewed using a custom-designed questionnaire. Most of the mothers interviewed were primary-level educated homemakers and gravidas (females who are pregnant, with confirmed pregnancies) from joint family groups. The majority were Hindu-STs.

The ages of the mothers ranged from 17 years to 39 years, with 22.6 per cent being 20 years and below and 54.8% being from 21-25 years. Most of the mothers were from nearly 260 hamlets divided between 14 tribal villages, called 'Nadus.' The Malayalis, or tribals of Kolli Hills, are agriculturists, with 47% working in agriculture, 30.4 percent in agricultural labour, and 18.3% as homemakers.

Most of the mothers had institutional deliveries and visited PHCs periodically in the first few weeks. They were mostly married for a year or less, with 52% of them having caesarean sections and a couple having twins (Arunagiri, 2024).

In terms of dietary habits, 95.7 percent of the mothers were non-vegetarians, while the rest were vegetarians. Most households owned dryland, but a small proportion owned irrigated lands. Only a small share of ANC and PNC mothers reported long-term, chronic health issues in their households, with 22.2 per cent claiming chronic diseases were caused by their risk behaviours. About 36 per cent of the mothers were not aware of the causes of chronic diseases. Iron Deficiency Anaemia (IDA) was known among 96.5 per cent of the mothers.

## **Implications and Limitations**

### ***Implications***

#### 1. Enhanced Decision-Making

Geoinformatics technologies enable informed decision-making by providing spatial insights that can guide policies, resource allocation, and urban planning.

#### 2. Improved Data Management

Advances in spatial data analytics lead to better methods for handling, visualizing, and interpreting large datasets, facilitating more effective data management strategies.

#### 3. Interdisciplinary Applications

The research highlights the applicability of spatial data analytics across various fields (for example, environmental studies, public health, and crime harm analysis), promoting interdisciplinary collaboration.

#### 4. Real-Time Analysis

The integration of real-time data collection techniques allows for immediate analysis and response, which is crucial in dynamic environments like urban centers or during emergencies.

#### 5. Public Engagement

Enhanced visualizations and accessible spatial data can empower communities and stakeholders, increasing public participation in planning and governance activities.

#### 6. Targeted Solutions

Spatial analytics can help identify specific trends and patterns, allowing for more targeted and effective interventions in areas like health care, education, and socio-economic development.

### ***Limitations***

#### 1. Data Quality and Availability

The accuracy of spatial data depends on the quality and availability of data sources, which can vary significantly across regions and contexts.

#### 2. Technical Barriers

There may be a steep learning curve associated with the use of complex geoinformatics tools, limiting accessibility for non-expert users.

#### 3. Cost

Implementing advanced geoinformatics technologies can require significant financial investment for infrastructure, software, and training, which may not be feasible for all organizations.

#### 4. Privacy and Ethical Concerns

The collection and analysis of spatial data can raise privacy issues, necessitating careful consideration of ethical implications and compliance with regulations.

#### 5. Overreliance on Technology

A heavy dependence on geoinformatics technologies may lead to neglect of qualitative data and human factors that are essential for comprehensive analysis.

#### 6. Temporal Variability

Spatial data analytics may struggle to account for changes over time, impacting the reliability of predictions and recommendations.

#### 7. Interoperability Issues

Different systems and software may not always effectively share or integrate data, creating challenges in data compatibility and collaboration across disciplines.

### **Conclusion**

The intersection of spatial data analytics and Geoinformatics technologies has revolutionized how we understand and interact with the world around us. By harnessing the power of GIS, remote sensing, and spatial databases, organizations can unlock valuable insights that drive effective decision-making across numerous domains. As the demand for spatial data continues to grow, the role of Geoinformatics will become increasingly vital in addressing complex challenges and enhancing our ability to manage resources sustainably, plan urban environments, and monitor environmental changes. The future of spatial data analytics is bright, promising more innovative applications and solutions that can significantly impact our society.

The application of spatial data science in visualizing spatial patterns related to avenue tree degradation, crimes, and anaemia among pregnant mothers has provided valuable insights that are critical for urban planning, public safety, and public health interventions. In the context of avenue trees, spatial data science has enabled the monitoring and early detection of tree degradation through remote sensing, LiDAR, and citizen science initiatives. For crime analysis, spatial data science has revolutionized the ability to identify and predict crime hot spots, allowing for more efficient law enforcement strategies. In the case of anaemia among pregnant mothers, spatial data science has facilitated the identification of spatial determinants of anaemia and the assessment of intervention programs' effectiveness. The integration of these techniques with spatial visualization tools such as GIS has been crucial in translating complex spatial data into actionable insights. Future research should continue to explore integrating big data sources, such as social media, with traditional spatial data to enhance the accuracy and timeliness of spatial pattern visualizations in these domains.

Understanding the various types of spatial data—points, lines, and polygons—along with their corresponding formats—shapefiles, GeoJSON, and KML—is fundamental for effective spatial analysis and visualisation. Each data type and format has its unique advantages and disadvantages, influencing their suitability for specific applications. As technology continues to advance, the evolution of spatial data formats will likely enhance the way we analyze and interpret Geographical information, making it more accessible and versatile for various users and applications.

Spatial databases like PostGIS play a crucial role in managing and querying spatial data efficiently. By supporting spatial data types, spatial indexing, and spatial functions, these

databases enable complex spatial queries that are essential for various applications. The use of advanced indexing techniques like R-trees and GiST indexes ensures that spatial queries are performed efficiently, making spatial databases a powerful tool for managing spatial information.

Web GIS is a powerful tool for collaboration and accessibility, reshaping how we engage with Geographical information. By providing user-friendly interfaces, these web-based mapping tools enable diverse stakeholders to participate in spatial analysis and decision-making. As the importance of Geographical data continues to grow in our interconnected world, leveraging the collaborative potential of Web GIS will be vital in addressing complex challenges and fostering community engagement.

Advanced techniques in spatial data analysis, including spatial correlation analysis using variograms, interpolation methods for missing data, and 3D visualization, have transformed how researchers and practitioners' approach complex spatial phenomena. These tools not only enhance the understanding of spatial relationships but also facilitate informed decision-making in various fields, including environmental science, urban planning, and infrastructure management. As technology continues to advance, the integration of these techniques will undoubtedly yield greater insights and innovations in spatial data analysis.

Crime harm analysis provides a robust framework for understanding the complex relationship between crime and socio-economic factors. By collecting relevant spatial data and applying techniques such as hotspot analysis and spatial regression, practitioners can gain valuable insights that inform policy and resource allocation. This methodology not only enhances public safety but also promotes community resilience by addressing the underlying causes of crime.

A study conducted in Chennai, India, reveals the premature elimination of avenue trees due to unsustainable human practices. The study surveyed 317 trees in T. Nagar between 2004 and 2024, identifying signs of withering and physical challenges. The data showed a clear trend of unsustainable human practices near trees, suggesting the need for sustainable urban planning initiatives and policy changes to protect green cover and mitigate pollution. The study also found that three significant factors affecting the health and growth of avenue trees were nailing, external injury, digging, debris dumping, and paving. The study underscores the importance of tree cover for maintaining a liveable environment and biodiversity. The study also reveals that property crimes accounted for 40% of the total harm caused by all crimes in Chennai from 2018 to 2022. Cybercrimes continued to be the primary contributor to harm, rising to 45% of the total.

The Predictor Space Chart is a model used to visualize the multi-dimensional space of input data, identifying three clusters or categories: murder, murder for gain, dacoity and robbery, housebreaking-by-day, housebreaking-by-night, and theft. The analysis provides insights into the structure and patterns of the data, indicating the complexity or separability of the data. The Cambridge Crime Harm Index (CCHI) is a low-cost and adaptable method used to measure the societal impact or harm caused by different types of crimes. The study aims to determine the crime that causes higher harm to society among all crimes, focusing on bodily offences such as murder, murder for gain, dacoity, robbery, housebreaking by day, and theft. The South Zone has the highest total CHI, with Dacoity and Robbery being the most reported categories. This analysis can help in resource allocation, policy making, and crime prevention strategies for 2018.

Anaemia among pregnant mothers in Kolli Hills, Tamil Nadu, India is a significant health concern that requires attention and intervention. Iron deficiency is one of the causes of anaemia in pregnant mothers, particularly in the Kolli Hills region. The Government of India and Tamil Nadu have taken notice of the nature and magnitude of this health concern.

While the research in Spatial Data Analytics and Geoinformatics Technologies offers profound insights and applications across various sectors, it's crucial to acknowledge and address the inherent limitations to leverage these technologies responsibly and effectively. Balancing innovation with ethical considerations and data integrity will be imperative for advancing the field.

### References:

1. Ahinkorah, B. O., Ameyaw, E. K., Seidu, A.A., and Njue, C. (2022). Effects of antenatal care visits and health facility delivery on women's choice to circumcise their daughters in sub-Saharan Africa: evidence from demographic and health surveys. *International Health*, 14(5), 519–529. doi.org/10.1093/inthealth/ihab066.
2. Angulo, J., and Vilar, L. (2016). *Geostatistical Analysis of Spatial Data*. Springer.
3. Anselin, L., and Bera, A. K. (1998). Spatial dependence in linear regression models with an introduction to spatial econometrics. In *Handbook of Applied Spatial Analysis*, 107-136. Springer.
4. Antoniou, V., and Skopeliti, A. (2020). *Web GIS: Technologies and Applications*. Springer.
5. Arunagiri, S. (2024). *Institutional Health Care for Women of Tribal Households in Kolli Hills, Tamil Nadu, India*. Doctoral dissertation. University of Madras, Chennai, India.
6. Asiammal, N.Z. (2024). *A Geographical Analysis of Crimes in Greater Chennai Police Station Limits, Tamil Nadu, India*. Doctoral dissertation. University of Madras, Chennai, India.
7. Bivand, R. S., Pebesma, E. J., and Gomez-Rubio, V. (2008). *Applied Spatial Data Analysis with R*. Springer.
8. Brunt, G. (2018). Crime Harm Analysis: The Importance of Contextualizing Crime Data. *The British Journal of Criminology*, 58(5), 1120-1138.
9. Buchel, S., Fink, C., and Cibulski, L. (2022). Citizen Science in Urban Forestry: Utilizing Mobile Applications for Monitoring Urban Trees. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*, 65, 127338.
10. Ceccato, V. (2017). Domestic Violence in Rural Areas: A Geographical Perspective. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 50, 110-122.
11. Chainey, S., Tompson, L., and Uhlig, S. (2019). The Utility of Hotspot Mapping for Predicting Spatial Patterns of Crime. *Security Journal*, 32(1), 33-53.
12. Cressie, N. (1993). *Statistics for Spatial Data*. Wiley.
13. DeMers, M. N. (2009). *Fundamentals of Geographical Information Systems (2nd ed.)*. Wiley.
14. Dobson, J. E., and Bright, E. A. (2000). LandScan: A Global Population Database for Estimation of Human Exposure to Environmental Hazards. *Geospatial Data Science*, 56(5), 735-746.
15. Ebener, S., Castaneda-Orjuela, C., Saylor, K., and Lyons, R. (2017). The Role of Environmental Factors in Anemia Prevalence among Pregnant Women: A Study Using Remote Sensing and Spatial Data. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 14(1), 70.
16. Eck, J. E., Chainey, S., Cameron, J. G., Leitner, M., and Wilson, R. E. (2017). *Mapping Crime: Understanding Hot Spots. \*National Institute of Justice Research Report\**.

17. Elwood, S. (2011). Geographical Information Science: Emerging Trends in Data and Collaboration. *Environment and Planning A*, 43(7), 1577-1580.
18. Fischer, M. M., Wernstedt, K., and Krieger, D. J. (2018). Urban Crime Patterns and Their Spatial Interaction: A Spatial Regression Approach. *International Journal of Urban Sciences*, 22(2), 324-340.
19. Foley, J. A., and Lechner, A. M. (2010). The Role of Geography in Spatial Data Analysis. In *Geographical Information Science and Systems*, 23-49. Wiley.
20. Gerber, M. S. (2014). Predicting Crime Using Twitter and Kernel Density Estimation. *Decision Support Systems*, 61, 115-125.
21. Goodchild, M. F. (2007). Citizens as sensors: The role of volunteered Geographical information in disaster management. In *The Geospatial Revolution*, 1-12. National Academies Press.
22. Goovaerts, P. (1997). *Geostatistics for Natural Resources Evaluation*. Oxford University Press.
23. Guo, J., Xu, Q., Zeng, Y., Liu, Z., Zhu, X.X., (2023). Nationwide urban tree canopy mapping and coverage assessment in Brazil from high-resolution remote sensing images using deep learning. *Journal of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing*, 198, 1-15. doi.org/10.1016/j.isprsjprs.2023.02.007.
24. Haining, R. P. (2003). *Spatial Data Analysis: Theory and Practice*. Cambridge University Press.
25. Isaaks, E. H., and Srivastava, R. M. (1989). *An Introduction to Applied Geostatistics*. Oxford University Press.
26. Jiang, B., Ruas, A., and Zhan, Q. (2017). 3D GIS and Applications: Current Status and Perspectives. *Geospatial Information Science*, 20(1), 1-12.
27. Kanchan, T., Pradhan, S., and Shetty, B. S. (2020). Spatial Analysis of Anemia among Pregnant Women in India: Regional Disparities and Risk Factors. *Spatial and Spatio-Temporal Epidemiology* 32, 100311.
28. Li, Z., and Zhu, Q. (2012). Geospatial Data Infrastructure: A framework for spatial data management. In *Geospatial Data Infrastructure*, 1-10. Springer.
29. Maling, D. H. (1992). *Coordinate Systems and Map Projections*. Geodesy for the Layman. Springer.
30. Mohler, G. O., Short, M. B., Malinowski, S., Johnson, M., Tita, G. E., Bertozzi, A. L., and Brantingham, P. J. (2018). Randomized Controlled Field Trials of Predictive Policing. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 113(522), 1399-1410.
31. Murali, O.M. (2024). Slow and Systematic Elimination of Avenue Trees in Chennai based on 1994-2024 study. A Commissioned study for reporting to a symposium on Cooling Chennai, a solution for heatwaves and heat islands, University of Madras.
32. Nguyen, T. T., Hartemink, A. E., and Vaessen, G. (2021). Tree Species Mapping in Urban Areas Using High-Resolution Aerial Imagery and Machine Learning Techniques. *Urban Ecosystems* 24(2), 317-329.
33. Ratcliffe, J. H. (2016). The Spatial Analysis of Crime. In *The Oxford Handbook of Crime and Criminal Justice*, 348-370. Oxford University Press.
34. Shepard, D. (1968). A Two-Dimensional Interpolation Function for Geographical Data. In *Proceedings of the 23rd ACM National Conference*, 517-524.
35. Sieber, R., and DeLyser, D. (2012). Geographical Information Science and the Role of the Public. In *Geographical Information Science and Systems: 4th Edition*. Esri Press.
36. Sui, D. Z., Elwood, S., and Goodchild, M. F. (2012). Crowdsourcing Geographical Knowledge: Vol. 2. Volunteered Geographical Information (VGI) in Theory and Practice. Springer.

37. Sutherland, L. A., and Burch, K. (2013). A Guide to the Use of Geographical Information Systems in Spatial Analysis. *Spatial Data Analysis: Methods and Applications*. Routledge.
38. Thomas, J. M., and Gurd, R. (2009). Understanding Geographical Coordinates and Projections. *Geospatial Information Science*, 13(3), 184-195.
39. Wright, D. (2019). Data Ethics in the Age of Big Data: An Empirical Analysis. *Journal of Data Protection & Privacy*, 2(1), 57-66.
40. Yang, M., Zhou, X., Liu, Z., Li, P., Tang, J., Xie, B., and Peng, C. (2022). A Review of General Methods for Quantifying and Estimating Urban Trees and Biomass. *Forests*, 13(4), 616; <https://doi.org/10.3390/f13040616>. This article belongs to the Special Issue Advances in Forest Growth and Site Productivity Modelling.
41. Zhou, X., Kwan, M. P., and Wang, J. (2020). 3D Urban Models and Their Applications. *International Journal of Geographical Information Science*, 34(10), 1976-1997.

\*\*\*