

LAND SURVEY-2

LAB MANNUAL

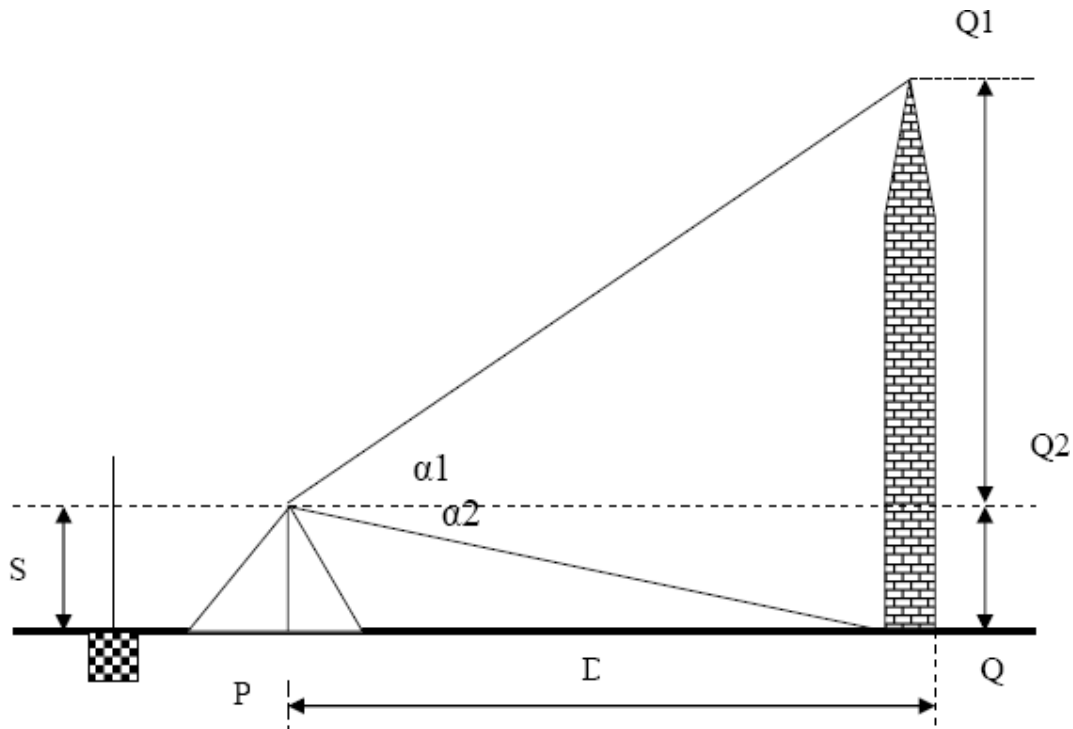
CONTENTS

1. DETERMINE HEIGHT OF THREE OBJECTS WHOSE BASES ARE ACCESSIBLE.
2. DETERMINE STADIA CONSTANT OF TACHEOMETER.
3. DETERMINE HORIZONTAL DISTANCE AN ELEVATION WITH STAFF VERTICAL, BY STADIA METHOD.
4. SETTING OUT A SIMPLE CIRCULAR CURVE BY TAKING OFFSET FROM LONG CHORD.
5. SETTING OUT SIMPLE CIRCULAR CURVE BY OFFSETS FROM THE TANGENT.
6. SETTING OUT SIMPLE CIRCULAR CURVE BY OFFSETS FROM CHORD PRODUCE.
7. SETTING OUT SIMPLE CIRCULAR CURVE BY RANKINES METHOD OF TANGENT ANGLE.
8. SETTING OUT THE FOUNDATION LINE FOR A CULVERT.
9. DIVIDING AN AREA INTO PLOTS OF A GIVEN SIZE.
10. STUDY OF DIFFERENT TYPES MAP AND MAP SERIES.

DETERMINING AN HEIGHT OF OBJECT BY MEASURING VERTICAL ANGLE

OBJECTIVE:

Determining a height of object by measuring vertical angle.



EQUIPMENTS:

1. Theodolite
2. Leveling Stop
3. Tape or Chain
4. Pegs
5. Plumb bob

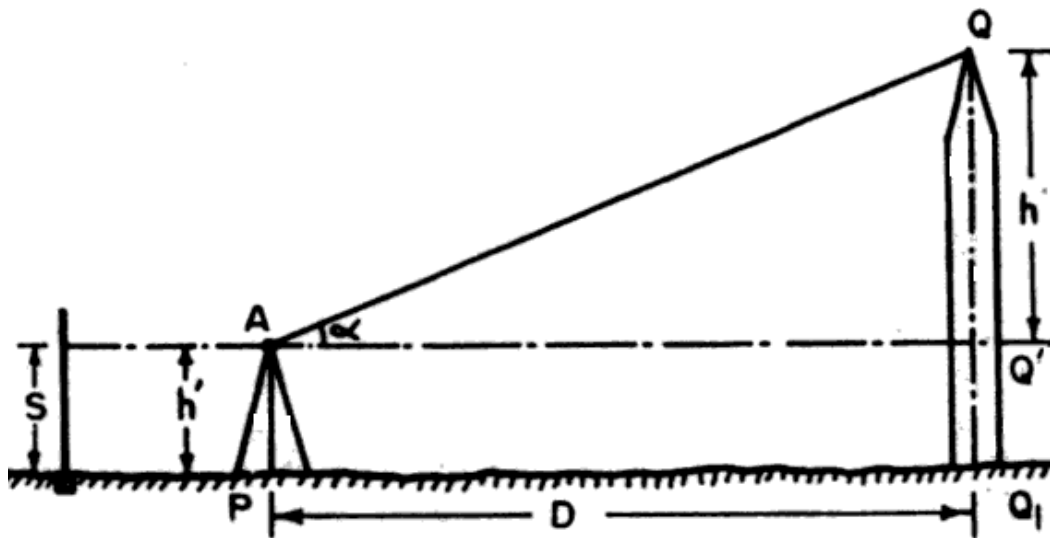
PROCEDURE:

1. Set up the instrument at station P.
 2. Perform all temporary adjustments.
 3. Bring the line of collimation horizontal.
 4. Enter the initial readings in the tabular form.
 5. Swing the telescope and take staff reading over the given B.M.
 6. Swing the telescope toward the object.
-

7. Release the vertical clamp screw, sight the top of the object Q1, and clamp the vertical clamp screw.
8. Read C and D verniers and enter the readings.
9. Release the vertical clamp screw, sight the bottom of the object Q, and clamp the screw.
10. Read vernier readings and enter in the tabular form.
11. Measure the horizontal distance between the instrument station and the object.
12. The above procedure will be repeated with the face right observation.
13. The average of the two observations by transiting the telescope taken with different faces will be vertical angle.
14. Calculate the height of the top point Q1 from horizontal line (h_1) and height of the bottom point Q0 from horizontal line (h_2) by using formula $h = d \tan \alpha$

Methods:

1. Measurement of Height of an object when base is accessible (on level ground)



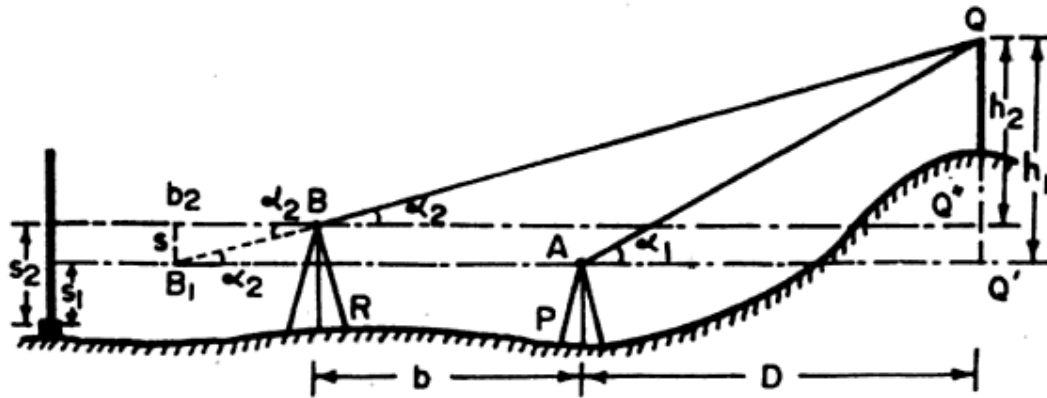
BASE ACCESSIBLE.

$$h = D \tan \alpha$$

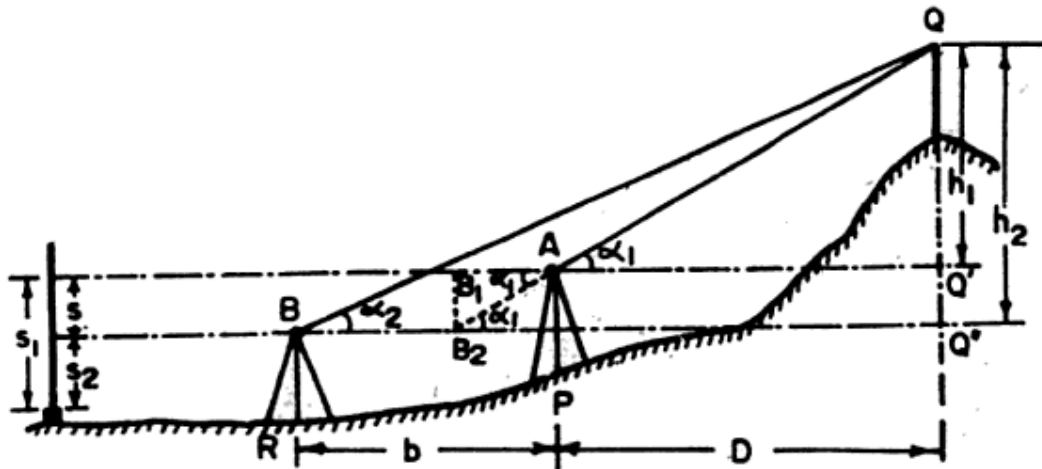
$$\text{Height of the object} = s + h$$

$$\text{R.L. of top of the object} = \text{R.L. of B.M.} + s + h$$

2. Measurement of Height of an object when base is inaccessible



When P is Lower than R



When P is higher than R

$$D = \frac{(b \pm s \cot \alpha_2) \tan \alpha_2}{\tan \alpha_1 - \tan \alpha_2}$$

Use + sign with $s \cot \alpha_2$ when the instrument axis at A is lower and - sign when it is higher than at B.

$$\text{R.L. of } Q = \text{R.L. of B.M.} + S_1 + h_1$$

$$h_1 = D \tan \alpha_1$$

DETERMINATION OF CONSTANTS OF A TACHEOMETER

OBJECTIVE

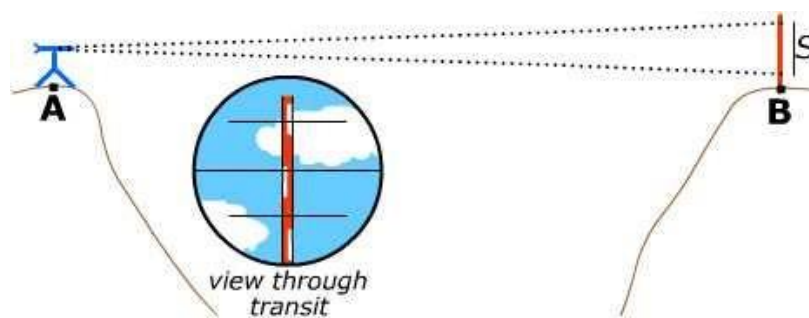
To determine the multiplying constant and additive constant of the given theodolite.

EQUIPMENTS

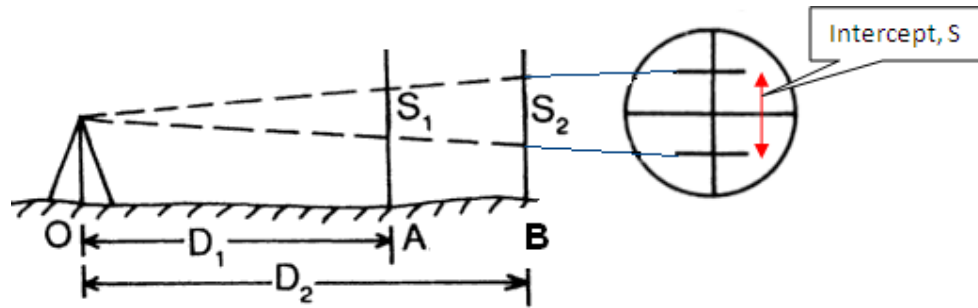
- Theodolite
- Ranging Rods
- Levelling Staff
- Tape

PROCEDURE

1. Stretch the chain in the field and drive pegs at 10m, 20m interval.
2. Set the theodolite at the zero and do the temporary adjustments.
3. Keep the staff on the pegs and observe the corresponding staff intercepts with horizontal sight.
4. Substitute the values of distance (D) and staff intercept (s) for different points in the equation $D = ks + C$, where k & s are the tacheometric constants. k is the multiplying constant & C is the additive constant.
5. Solve the successive pairs of equations to get the value of k & C and find out the average of these values.



Measurement of Horizontal Distance



Instrument Station	Staff Station	Distance	Stadia Reading			Stadia Intercept (S)
			Top	Middle	Bottom	
O	A					
	B					

$$D = K \cdot S + C$$

$$D_1 = K \cdot S_1 + C \quad D_2$$

$$= K \cdot S_2 + C$$

Solve Two Equations & find K & C

RESULT:

Multiplying constant, $K = \frac{D_1 - D_2}{S_1 - S_2}$

Additive constant, $C = \frac{D_1 - K \cdot S_1}{1}$

MEASUREMENT OF HORIZONTAL DISTANCE & VERTICAL HEIGHTS USING TACHEOMETRIC SURVEYING

OBJECTIVE:

Determination of elevation of points by Tacheometric surveying

EQUIPMENT:

- Tacheometer with tripod,
- Tape,
- Leveling staff,
- Ranging rods

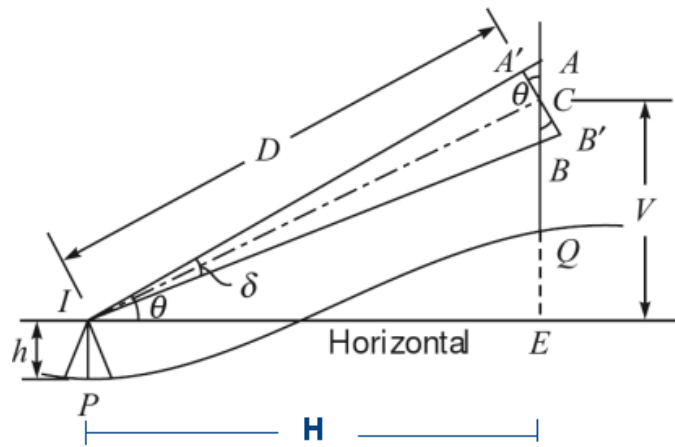
THEORY:

The Tacheometer is an instrument which is generally used to determine the horizontal as well as vertical distance. It can also be used to determine the elevation of various points which cannot be determined by ordinary leveling. When one of the sights is horizontal and staff held vertical then the RLs of staff station can be determined as we determine in ordinary leveling. But if the staff station is below or above the line of collimation then the elevation

or depression of such point can be determined by calculating vertical distances from instrument axis to the central hair reading and taking the angle of elevation or depression made by line of sight to the instrument made by line of sight to the instrument axis.

Procedure:

- 1) Set up the instrument in such a way that all the points should be visible from the instrument station.
 - 2) Carry out the temporary adjustment and set vernier zero reading making line of sight horizontal.
 - 3) Take the first staff reading on Benchmark and determine height of instrument.
 - 4) Then sight the telescope towards the staff station whose RLs are to be calculated. Measure the angle on vernier if line of sight is inclined upward or downward and also note the three crosshair readings.
 - 5) Determine the RLs of various points by calculating the vertical distance
-

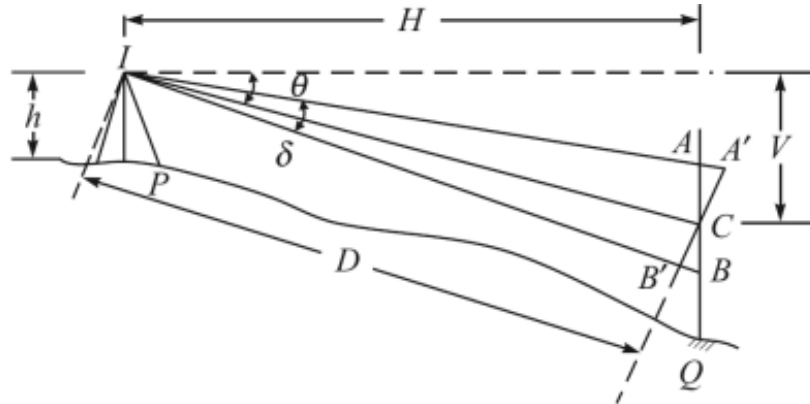


Inclined sight (elevation)

$$H = D \cos \theta = KS \cos^2 \theta + C \cos \theta$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2} KS \sin 2\theta + C \sin \theta$$

$$\text{R.L. of } Q = \text{R.L. of } P + h + V - CQ$$



Inclined sight (depression).

$$D = KS \cos \theta + C$$

$$H = D \cos \theta = KS \cos^2 \theta + C \cos \theta$$

$$V = D \sin \theta = KS \sin \theta \cos \theta + C \sin \theta$$

$$\text{R.L. of } Q = \text{R.L. of } P + h - V - CQ$$

1. AB and BC are known as the *tangents* to the curve (Fig. 10.10).
2. B is known as the *point of intersection* or *vertex*.
3. The angle ϕ is known as the *angle of deflection*.
4. The angle I is called the *angle of intersection*.
5. Points T_1 and T_2 are known as *tangent points*.
6. Distances BT_1 and BT_2 are known as *tangent lengths*.
7. When the curve deflects to the right, it is called a *right-hand curve*, when it deflects to the left, it is said to be a *left-hand curve*.
8. AB is called the *rear tangent* and BC , the *forward tangent*.
9. The straight line T_1DT_2 is known as the *long chord*.
10. The curved line T_1ET_2 is said to be the *length of the curve*.
11. The mid-point E of the curve T_1ET_2 is known as the *apex* or *summit of the curve*.
12. The distance BE is known as the *apex distance* or *external distance*.
13. The distance DE is called the *versed sine* of the curve.
14. R is the *radius* of the curve.

Offsets or Ordinates from a Long Chord

Let AB and BC be two tangents meeting at a point B , with a deflection angle ϕ . The following data are calculated for setting out the curve (Fig. 10.11).

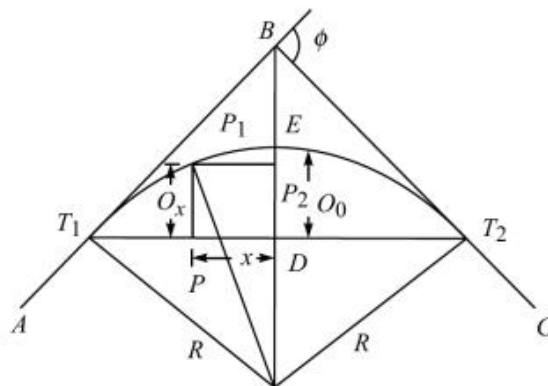


Fig. 10.11 Offsets from a Long Chord

1. The tangent length is calculated according to the formula; $TL = R \tan \phi/2$
2. Tangent points T_1 and T_2 are marked.
3. The length of the curve is calculated according to the formula:

$$CL = \frac{\pi R \phi^\circ}{180^\circ}$$

4. The chainages of T_1 and T_2 are found out.
5. The length of the long chord (L) is calculated from

$$L = 2R \sin \phi/2$$

6. The long chord is divided into two equal halves, the left half and the right half. Here the curve is symmetrical in both the halves.
7. The mid-ordinate O_0 is calculated as follows:

$$(a) O_0 = DE = \text{versed sine of curve} = R(1 - \cos \phi/2) \quad (10.3)$$

$$(b) \text{ Again, } OF = R \text{ and } OD = R - O_0$$

$$\text{From triangle } OT_1D, \quad OT_1^2 = OD^2 + T_1D^2$$

$$\text{or} \quad R^2 = (R - O_0)^2 + \left(\frac{L}{2}\right)^2$$

$$\text{or} \quad R - O_0 = \sqrt{R^2 - (L/2)^2}$$

$$\text{or} \quad O_0 = \sqrt{R^2 - (L/2)^2} \quad (10.4)$$

Thus, the mid-ordinate O_0 can be calculated from Eq. (10.3) or (10.4).

8. Considering the left half of the long chord, the ordinates O_1, O_2, \dots are calculated at distances X_1, X_2, \dots taken from D towards the tangent point T_1 .

The formula for the calculation of ordinates is deduced as follows.

Let P be a point at a distance x from D . Then PP_1 (O_x) is the required ordinate. A line P_1P_2 is drawn parallel to T_1T_2 . From triangle OP_1P_2 ,

$$OP_1^2 = OP_2^2 + P_1P_2^2$$

$$\text{or} \quad R^2 = \{(R - O_0) + O_x\}^2 + x^2 \quad [\text{where, } OP_2 = (R - O_0) + O_x]$$

$$\text{or} \quad R - O_0 + O_x = \sqrt{R^2 - x^2}$$

$$\text{or} \quad O_x = \sqrt{R^2 - x^2} - (R - O_0) \quad (10.5)$$

9. The ordinates for the right half are similar to these obtained for the left half.

SETTINGOUT OF SIMPLECIRCULAR CURVEBYRANKINEMETHOD

OBJECTIVE:

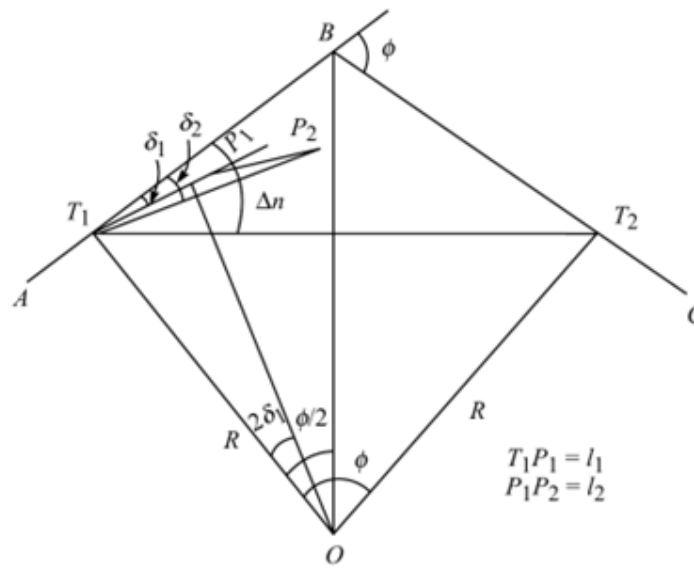
SettingoutofsimplecircularcurvebyRankinemethodoftangentialangle.

EQUIPMENT:

- Theodolite with Tripod
- Ranging rods
- Arrows
- Tape

Horizontal Curve Setting by Ranking Method

Let AB and BC be two tangents intersecting at B , the deflection angle being ϕ (Fig. 10.18). The tangent length is calculated and tangent points T_1 and T_2 are marked.



Instrumental Method

Let P_1 = first point on the curve,
 $T_1P_1 = l_1$ length of first chord (initial sub-chord)
 δ_1 = deflection angle for first chord
 R = radius of the curve
 Δ_n = total deflection for the chords

Here, $\angle T_1OP_1 = 2 \times \angle BT_1P_1 = 2\delta_1$

Again,

Chord $T_1P_1 \sim$ Arc T_1P_1

Now, $\frac{\angle T_1OP_1}{l_1} = \frac{360^\circ}{2\pi R}$

$$2\delta_1 = \frac{360^\circ \times l_1}{2\pi R}$$

or $\delta_1 = \frac{360^\circ \times l_1}{2 \times 2\pi R}$ degrees = $\frac{360 \times 60 \times l_1}{2 \times 2 \times \pi R}$ mins

$$= \frac{1,718.9 \times l_1}{R} \text{ mins}$$

Similarly, $\delta_2 = \frac{1,718.9 \times l_2}{R}$ mins

$$\delta_3 = \frac{1,718.9 \times l_3}{R} \text{ mins and so on.}$$

Finally, $\delta_n = \frac{1,718.9 \times l_n}{R}$ mins

Again, when degree of curve D is given,

$$\delta_1 = \frac{D \times l_1}{60} \text{ degrees}$$

$$\delta_2 = \frac{D \times l_2}{60} \text{ degrees and so on.}$$

Finally, $\delta_n = \frac{D \times l_n}{60}$ degrees

Arithmetical check: $\delta_1 + \delta_2 + \delta_3 + \dots + \delta_n = \Delta_n = \phi/2$

PROCEDURE:

1. Set the theodolite at the point of curve T1.
2. With both the plates clamped to zero, direct the theodolite to bisect the point of intersection V. The line of sight is thus in the direction of the rear tangent.
3. Release the vernier plate and set angle 1 on the vernier. The line of sight is thus directed along chord T1A.
4. With zero end of tape pointed at T1 and arrow held at distance T1A = C along it, swing the tape around T1 till the arrow is bisected by the cross hairs.
5. Thus the first point A is fixed.
6. Set the second deflection angle 2 on the vernier so that the line of sight is directed along T1B.
7. With the zero end of the tape pinned at A, and an arrow held at distance AB = C along it, swing the tape around A till the arrow is bisected by the cross hairs, thus fixing the point B.
8. Repeat steps 4 and 5 till last point is reached.

Reading Topographic Maps and Making Calculations

A topographic map is printed on a flat piece of paper yet it provides a picture of the terrain and man-made features through the use of contour lines, colors, and symbols. Contour lines represent the shape and elevation of the land, such as ridges, valleys, and hills. Colors and symbols are used to represent other features on the land, such as water, vegetation, roads, boundaries, urban areas, and structures.

The USGS produces a series of topographic maps that are extremely accurate. The United States was systematically divided into precise quadrangles based on latitude and longitude lines and these maps are commonly referred to as “quads.”

This chapter starts with tips on how to read the margins of a topographic map. Then it describes how to interpret contour lines. Finally, it covers how to estimate slope, aspect, acreage, distances, and percent contained using a topographic map.

Reading the Margins

This section addresses how to read the information that is in the margins of a USGS topographic map. It starts with the upper left corner of the map and moves clockwise around the map.

Agency or Author Who Created Map (upper left corner of map)

In Figure 2-

1, the United States Department of the Interior Geological Survey is the agency that created the map. This same information can also be found in the bottom left corner.

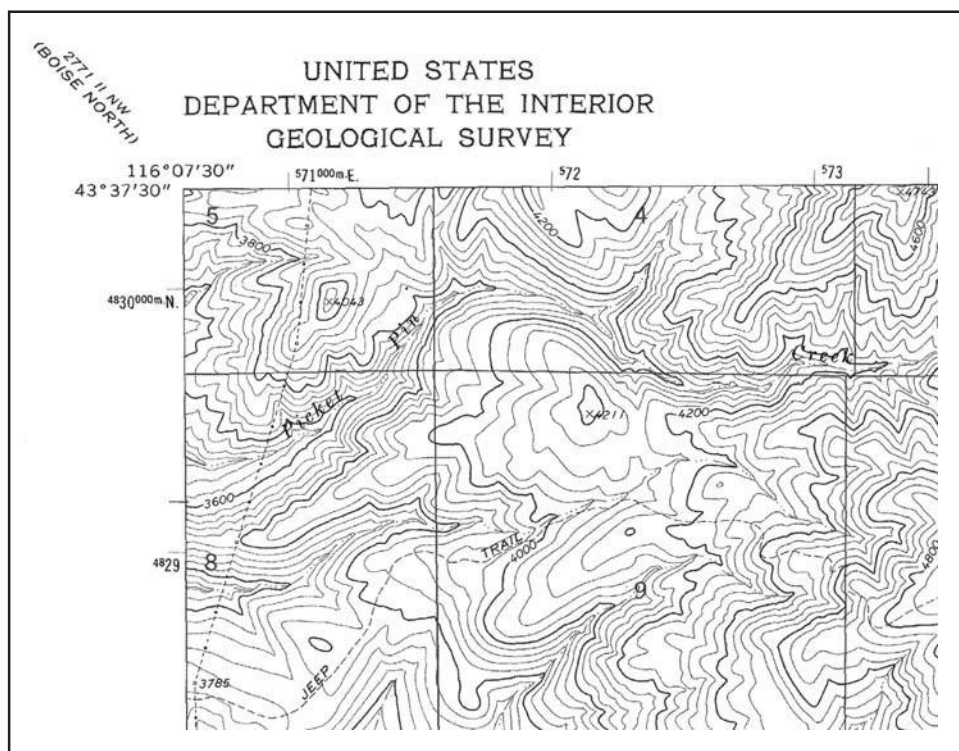


Figure 2-1. Agency or author who created map.

Map Title (upper right corner of map)

This corner section provides the name of quadrangle, state (and sometimes the county) where the quadrangle is located, and map series. Quadrangles are often named after a prominent town or feature that is in the quadrangle. In Figure 2-2, the name of the quadrangle is "Lucky Peak" which is located in Idaho. The map series indicates how much land area is on the map; for example, in Figure 2-2 the Lucky Peak quadrangle is a 7.5 minute series which indicates it covers a four-sided area of 7.5 minutes of latitude and 7.5 minutes of longitude.

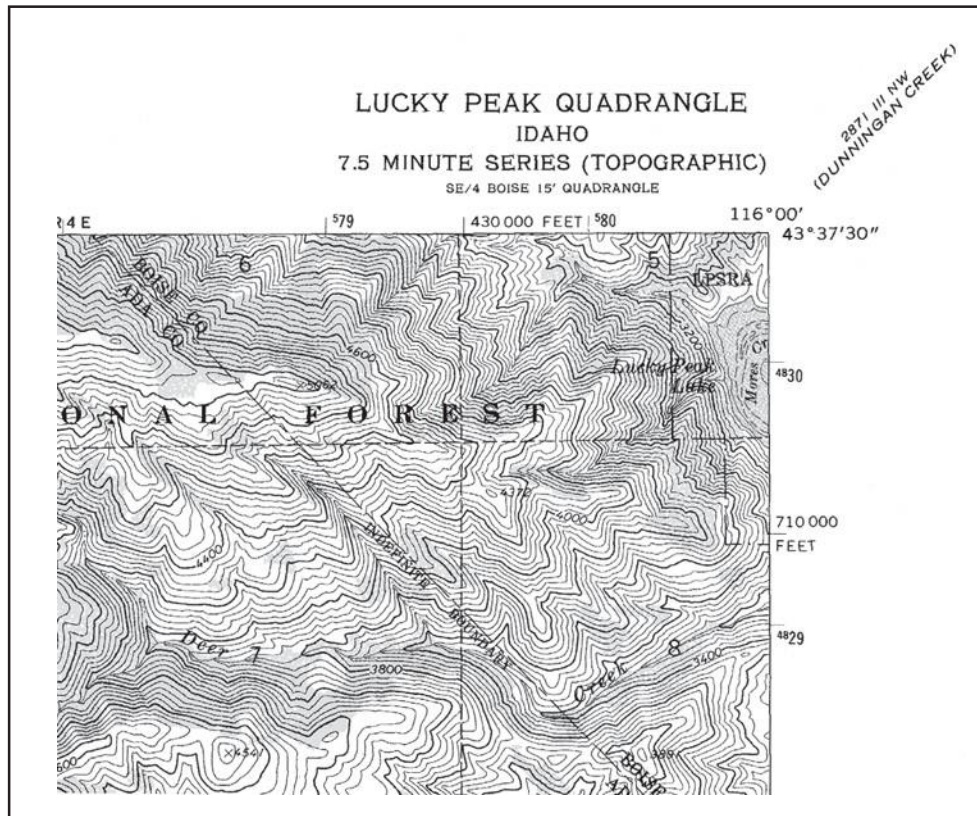


Figure 2-2. Map title.

Road Classification (bottom right corner of

map) Road and trail symbols may be found in this legend (Figure 2-

3). Revision Date (bottom right corner of map)

Some maps have a revision date, which is when the map was last updated. If the map is old, it may not be accurate. In Figure 2-

3 the revision date is 1972. Refer to the “Map Production Information” block in the bottom left corner for additional information on map dates.

Quadrangle Location (bottom right corner of map)

The location of the quadrangle is pinpointed on a map of the state (Figure 2-3).

Adjoining Quadrangle Legend (corners of map)

Names of adjoining quadrangles are frequently indicated in the corner margins of USGS topographical maps; *Mayfield* is the adjoining quadrangle in Figure 2-3.

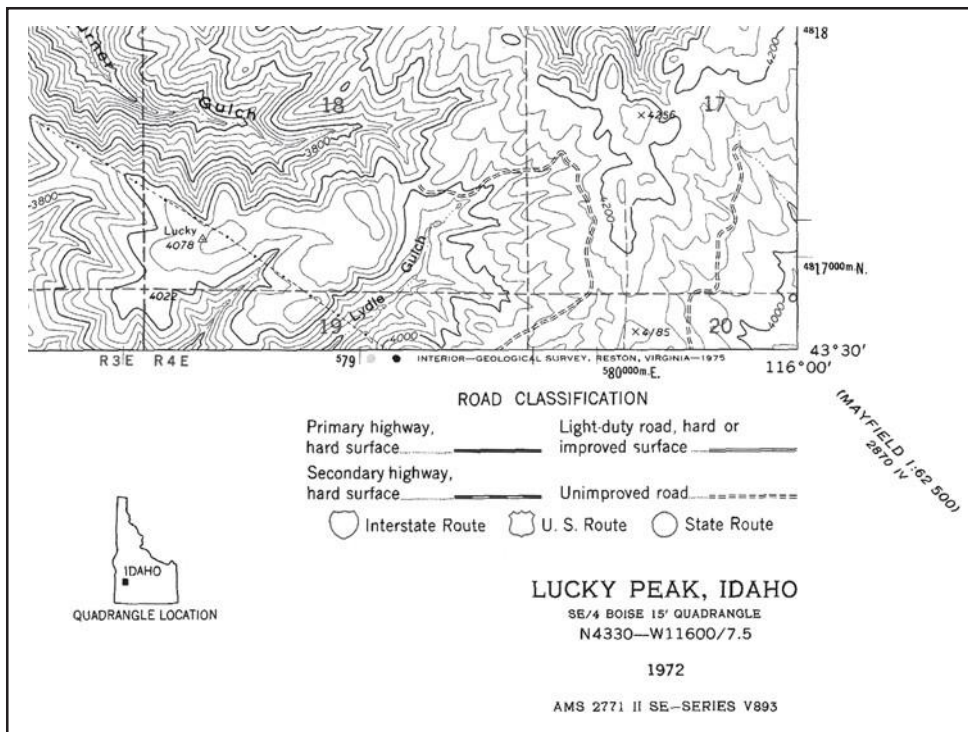


Figure 2-3. Road classification, revision date, quadrangle location and adjoining maps.

Sometopographicmaps will have an adjoining quadrangle legend (Figure 2-4).

1	2	3	1. NORTHEAST EMMETT 2. MONTOUR 3. HORSESHOE BEND 5. CARTWRIGHT CANYON 6. STAR 7. EAGLE 8. BOISE NORTH
4	PEARL	5	
6	7	8	

Figure 2-4. Example of an adjoining quadrangle legend.

Map Scale (bottom center of map)

The map scale indicates the ratio or proportion of the horizontal distance on the map to the corresponding horizontal distance on the ground (Figure 2-5).

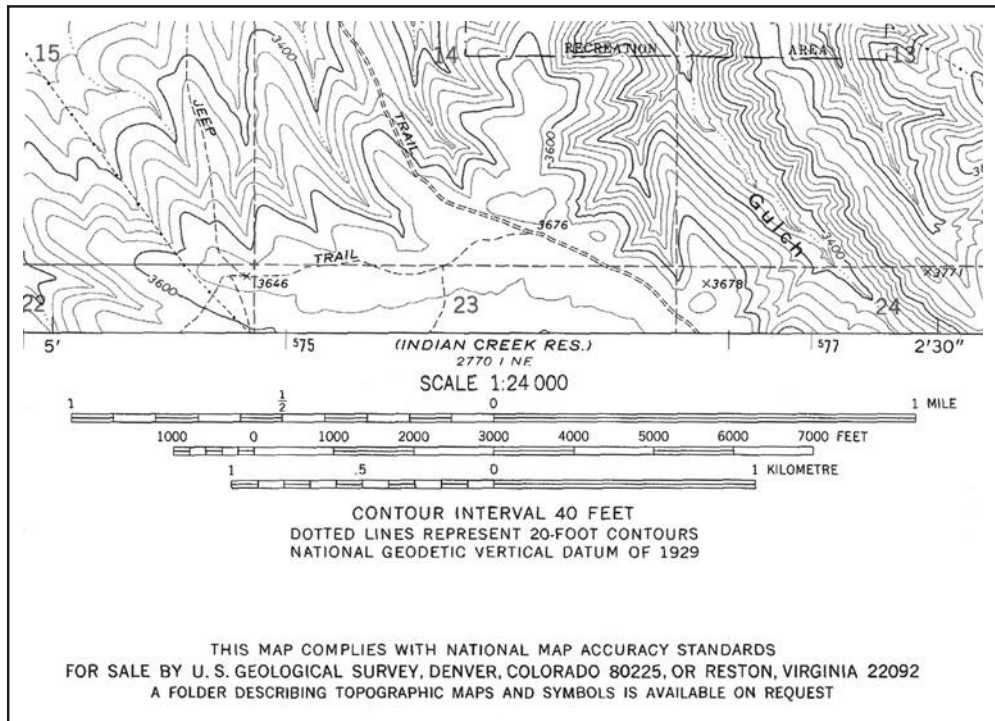


Figure 2-5. Map scale (fractional scale and bar scale) and contour interval.

There are two types of scales on the topographic map:

▣ **Fractional Scale**

The fractional scale expresses the ratio of the map distance to the ground distance in **like** units of measurements. It is usually written as a fraction or ratio. For example, the map in Figure 2-5 has a map scale of 1:24,000 which means one inch on the map is 24,000 inches on the ground.

Typically, USGS produces maps using the 1:24,000 scale, but will also produce maps using 1:62,500 and 1:250,000 scale. The 1:24,000 scale provides larger and clearer detail than the 1:250,000, but it does not cover as large an area.

The maps produced at a 1:24,000 scale (1 inch represents 24,000 inches or 2000 feet) are commonly known as 7.5-minute quadrangle maps; each map covers 7.5 minutes of latitude and 7.5 minutes of longitude, which is approximately 8 miles (north/south) and 6 miles (east/west). The primary scale used in Alaska topographic maps is 1:63,360 (1 inch represents 1 mile) due to the size of the state. The Alaska quadrangle map covers 15 minutes of latitude and varies from 20–36 minutes of longitude.

▣ **Bar or Graphic Scale**

A graphic scale or comparison scale is entirely different from the representative fraction scale. It usually compares map distance to the ground distance in **different** units of measurements.

Usually a graphic scale is a line marked off on a map indicating so many inches or millimeter equal to so many feet, kilometers, chains, or miles on the ground. A comparison scale of 1 inch to 2000 feet means that 1 inch on the map is proportioned to 2000 feet on the ground. We are comparing inches and feet which are **different** units of measurement.

Contour Interval (bottom center of the map)

Contour interval is the difference in elevation between two adjacent contour lines. In Figure 2-5, the contour interval is 40 feet. On USGS maps, contour intervals are usually 1, 5, 10, 20, 40, and 80 feet. If the contour interval is not printed on the map, it can be calculated (which is discussed later in this chapter).

North Arrow, Declination, and Map Production Information (bottom left corner of map)

It is common practice for maps to be oriented with true north at the top. Most USGS maps have a symbol of an arrow pointing to the geographic North Pole (shown by a star), magnetic north (MN) and grid north (GN). Grid north shows the difference between geographic north (latitude/longitude) and the UTM grid.

In Figure 2-

6, the magnetic north is 18.5 degrees east. The difference between the geographic North Pole and magnetic north is the magnetic declination for that map.

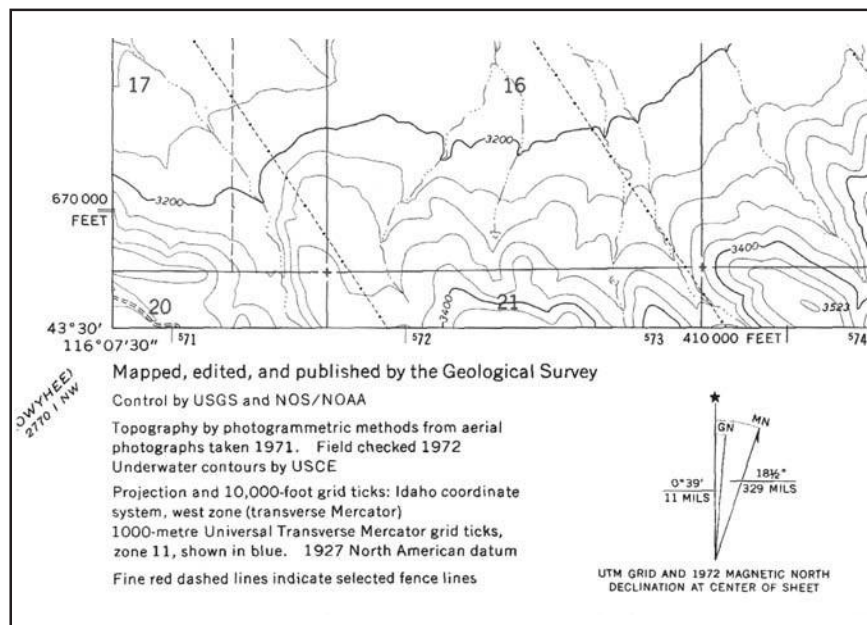


Figure 2-6. North arrow and magnetic declination.

If the declination is not indicated on the arrow diagram, it can be found in the “Map Production Information” which is in the lower left corner of the map (Figure 2-7). The map production information section provides additional information on how and when the map was created. Sometimes the magnetic declination is printed here.

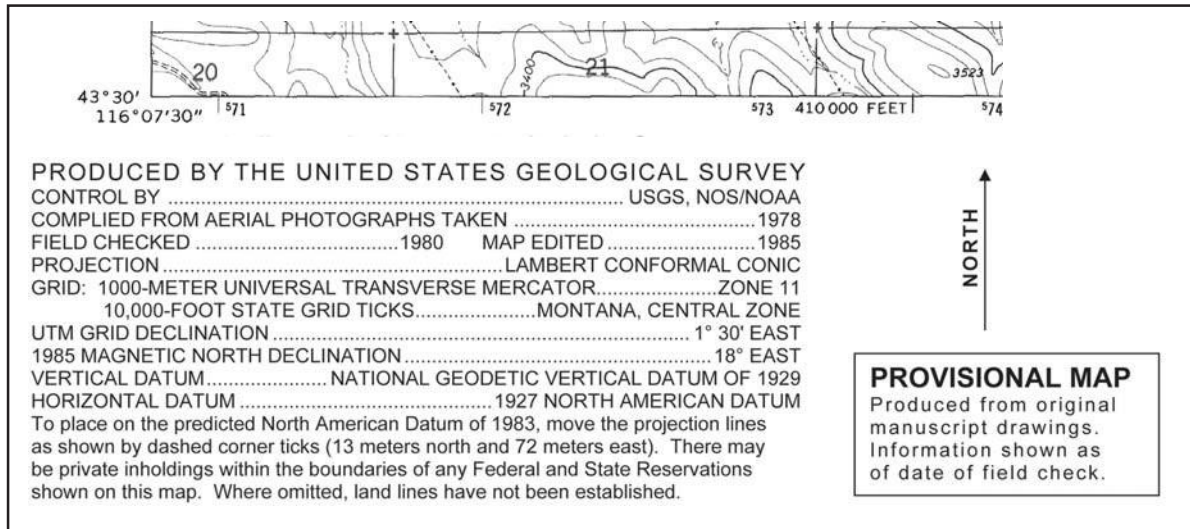


Figure 2-7. Map production information block often includes revision dates, datum, and UTM zone

Datum and UTM Zone

The datum and UTM zone, which are extremely important when using a GPS receiver, can also be found in this block (Figure 2-7). Vertical and horizontal datums may be listed on the map; however, if the map lists only one datum then the vertical and the horizontal datum are the same.

LatitudeandLongitude(edgesofmap)

Latitudeandlongitudelinesareindicatedwithfineblacktickmarksalongtheedgesofthemap(Figure2-8).Topographicmapsdonotshowthelatitude/longitudelines—justthetickmarks. Thenumbersnexttothetickmarksindicatedegrees(°),minutes(')andseconds('').

On1:24,000scalemaps,latitudeandlongitudetickmarksareindicatedevery2.5minutes.

- ▣ Longitudetickmarksareonthetopandbottomedgesofthemapandlatitudetickmarksareontherightandleftedges. Notethatthedegreesmaybeleftoff(asanabbreviation)andyoumayonlyseetheminuteand/orseconddesignations.
- ▣ Referencecoordinatesforlatitudeandlongitude(degrees,minutes,andseconds)areblackandlocatedonthefourcornersofthemap.
- ▣ Theintersectionoflatitudeandlongitudelinesarenotedbycross-marks(+).

Whenreadinglatitude/longitude,paycloseattentiontotheunits(degrees,minutes,seconds)becauseitiseasytomisreadthem. RefertoChapters3and6foradditionalinformationonlatitudeandlongitude.

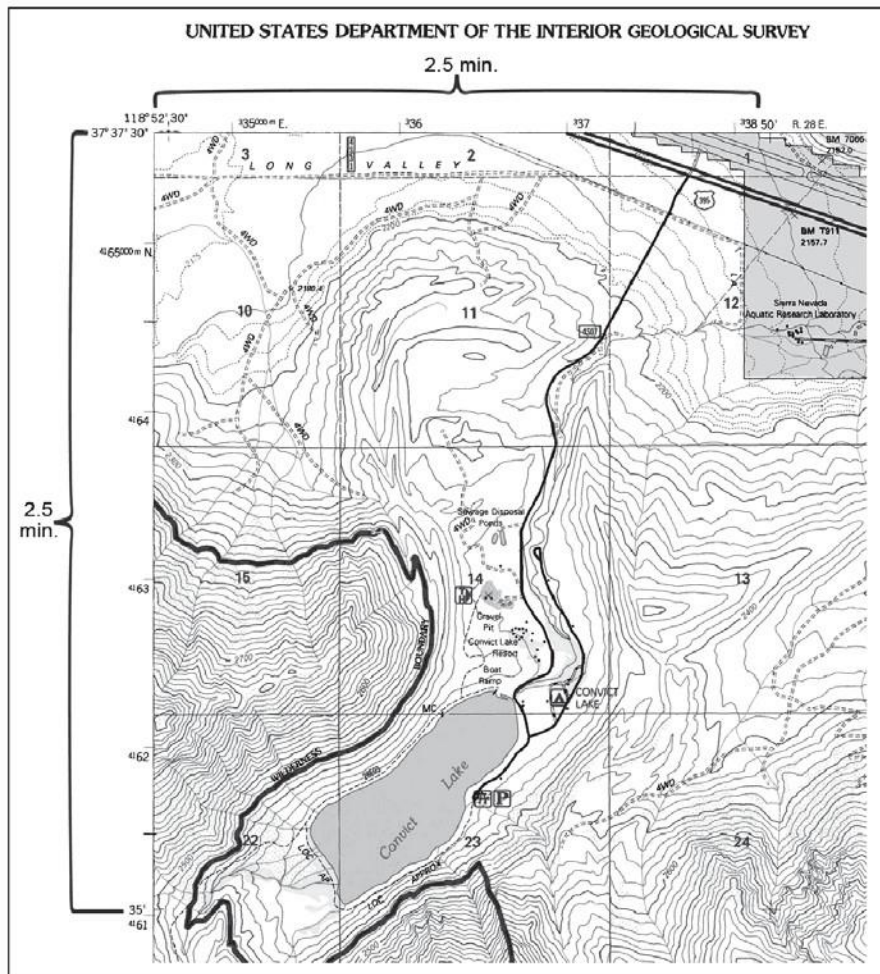


Figure 2-8. Longitudetickmarks(50'),latitude tick marks (35'),referencecoordinates (118°52'30"and37°37'30"), andcross-mark(+)inbottomrightcorner.

Universal Transverse Mercator (UTM) (edges of map)

Prior to 1978, USGS topographic maps used blue tick marks along the edge of the map to illustrate where the UTM grid lines were located. Since 1978, USGS topographic maps actually show

UTM grid lines (black) on the map and the coordinate values are in the margin. On USGS topographic maps, 7.5 quadrangle, the UTM grid lines are marked at 1,000 meter increments (Figure 2-9).

- ▣ Abbreviated easting values, for example ³36, are located on the top and bottom edges of the map.
- ▣ Abbreviated northing values, for example ⁴¹64, are located on the right and left edges of the map.
- ▣ Reference coordinates for UTM are located near the southeast and northwest corners of the map. Notice that the large bold numbers increase as you go north and east.

Refer to Chapters 3 and 6 for additional information on UTM.

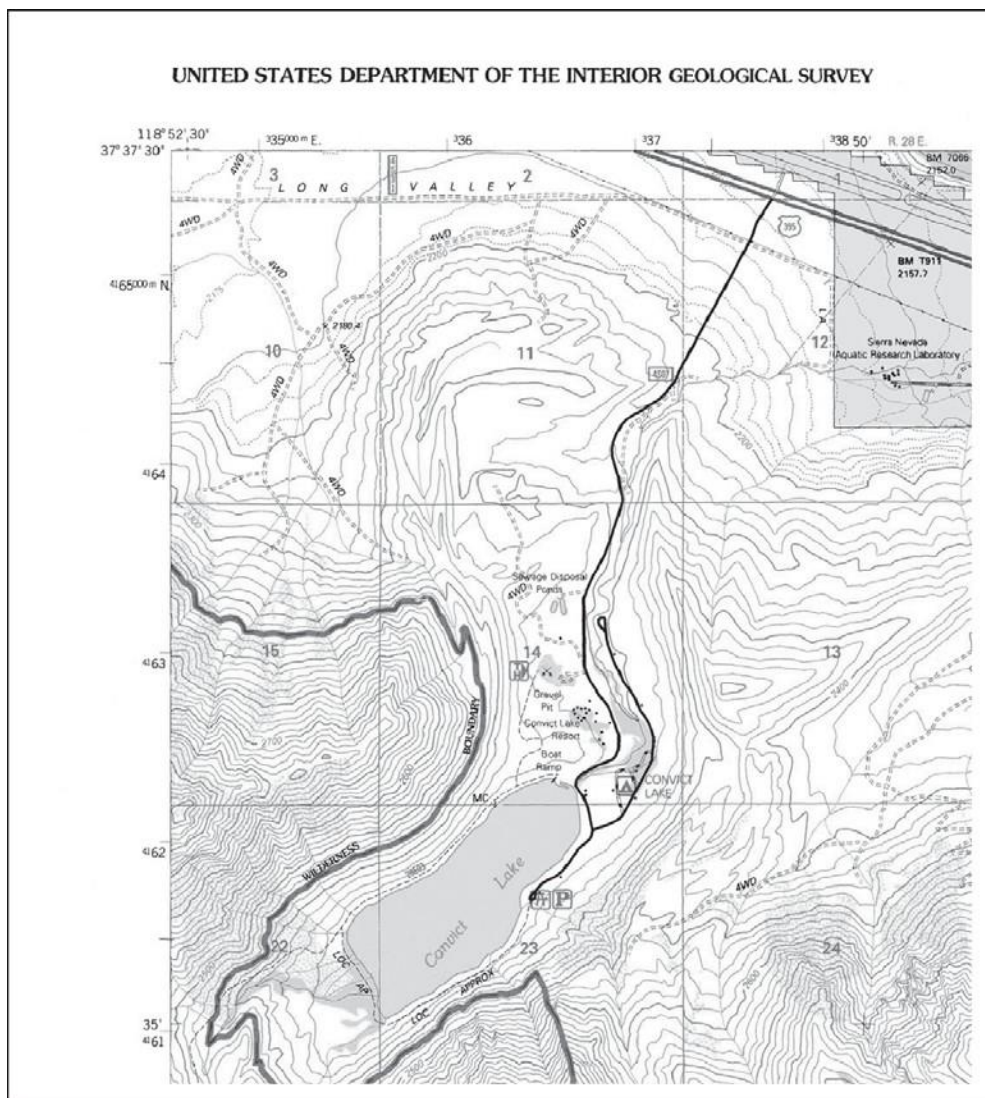


Figure 2-9.
Easting (³36, ³37, ³38)
and northing
(⁴¹64, ⁴¹63, ⁴¹62, ⁴¹61)
value tick
marks and refer
ence coordinates
(³35000m E. and
⁴¹65000m N.).

Section, Township, and Range (edges of map)

Section, township, and range numbers are red.

- ▣ Section numbers may be printed along the edge, but they are typically printed in the center of the section. In Figure 2-10, some of the section numbers include 15, 16, 17, 18, 19.
- ▣ Township numbers are printed along the right and left edge of the map. In Figure 2-10, the township numbers are T.2S and T.3S.
- ▣ Range numbers are printed on the top and bottom edge of the map. In Figure 2-10, the range numbers are R.1E and R.2E.

Refer to Chapter 3 for additional information on section, township, and range.

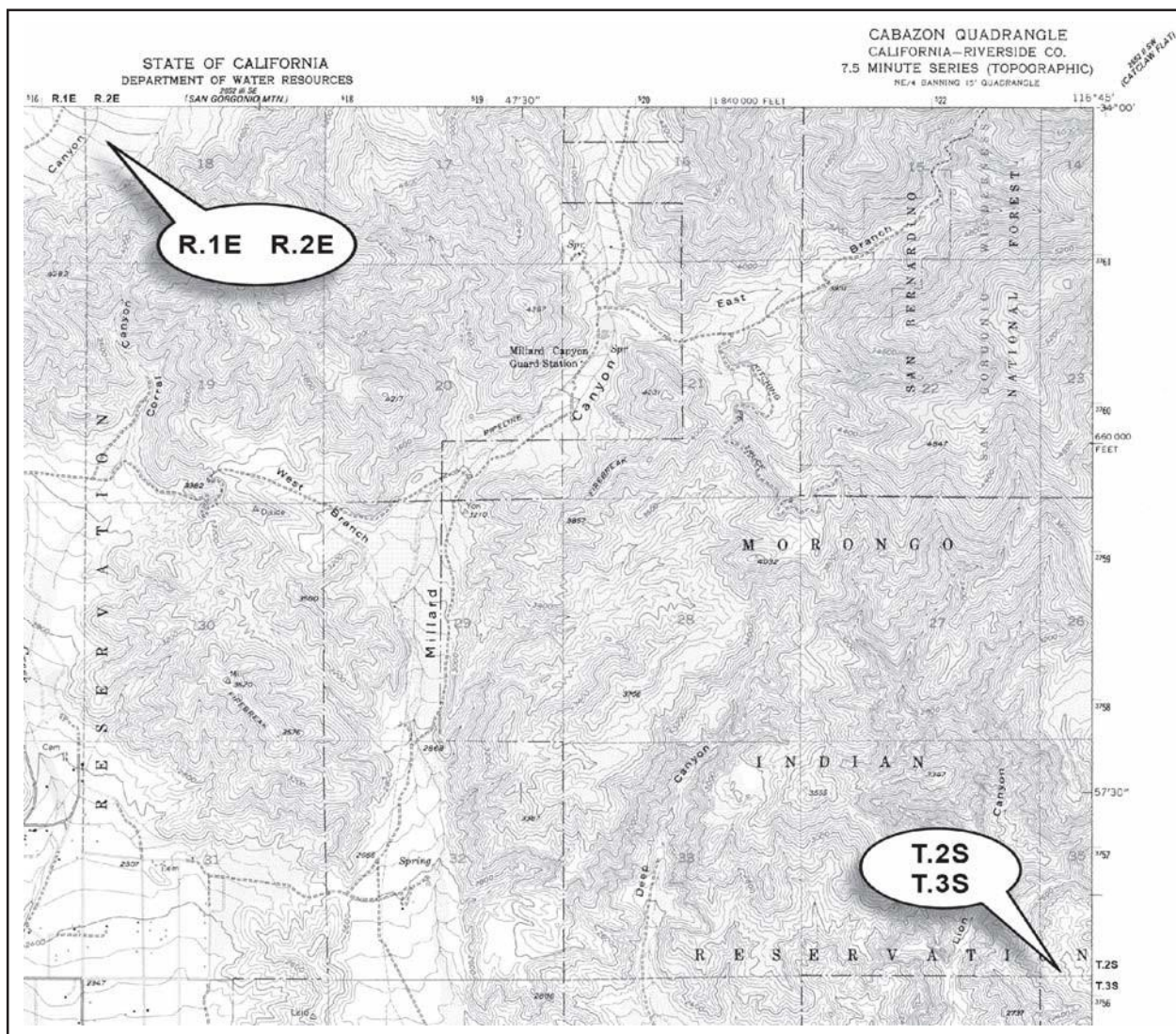


Figure 2-10. Sections, townships, and range.

Interpreting Contour Lines

Contour lines on a map show topography or changes in elevation. They reveal the location of slopes, depressions, ridges, cliffs, height of mountains and hills, and other topographical features. A contour line is a brown line on a map that connects all points of the same elevation. They tend to parallel each other, each approximately the shape of the one above it and the one below it. In Figure 2-11, compare the topographic map with the landscape perspective.

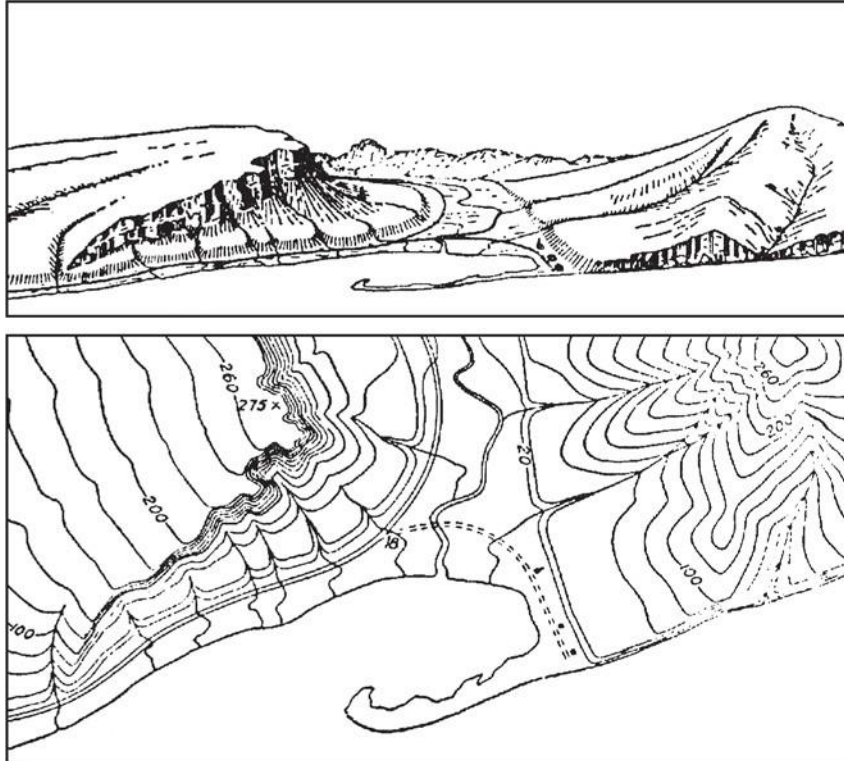


Figure 2-11. A contour map and what it looks like from a landscape perspective. Note that contour lines are far apart for level land and almost touch for cliffs.

Contour Characteristics

Contours have general characteristics; some of which are illustrated in Figures 2-12 and 2-13.

- ▣ Concentric circles of contour lines indicate a hill.
- ▣ Evenly spaced contours indicate a uniform slope.
- ▣ Widely spaced contours indicate a gentle slope.
- ▣ Widely spaced contours at the top of a hill indicate a flat hilltop.
- ▣ Close together contours indicate a steep slope, wall, or cliff.
- ▣ Close together contours at the top of a hill indicate a pointed hilltop.
- ▣ Crossing or touching contours indicate an overhanging cliff.

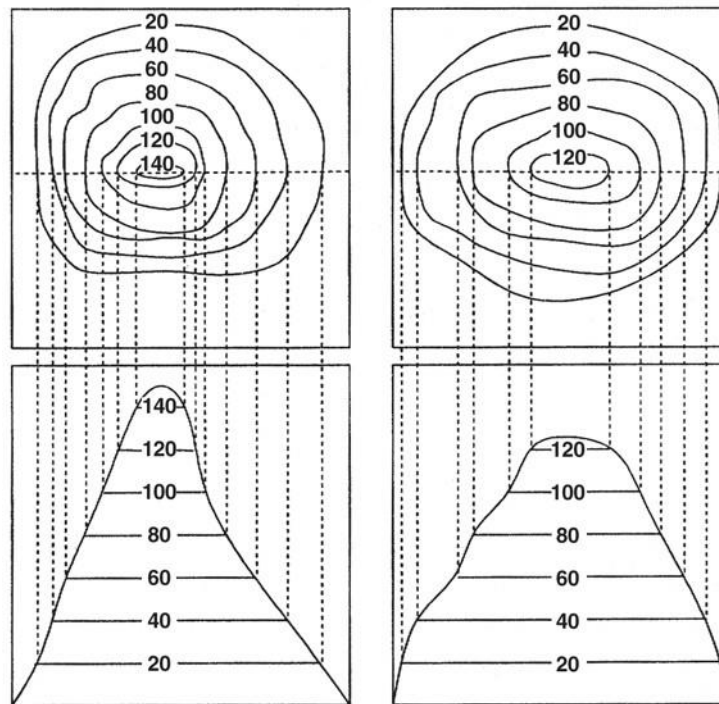


Figure 2-12. Evenly and widely spaced contours indicate type of slope and shape of hilltop.

- ▣ Jagged, rough contours indicate large outcrops of rocks, cliffs, and fractured areas.
- ▣ “V” shape contours indicate streambeds and narrow valleys with the point of the “V” pointing uphill or upstream.
- ▣ “U” shape contours indicate ridges with the bottom of the “U” pointing down the ridge. A saddle is a ridge between two hills or summits.
- ▣ “M” or “W” shape contours indicate upstream from stream junctions.
- ▣ Circles with hachures or hatch lines (short lines extending from the contour line at right angles) indicate a depression, pit, or sinkhole.
- ▣ Spot elevations (height of identifiable features) such as mountain summits, road intersections, and surface of lakes may also be shown on the map.

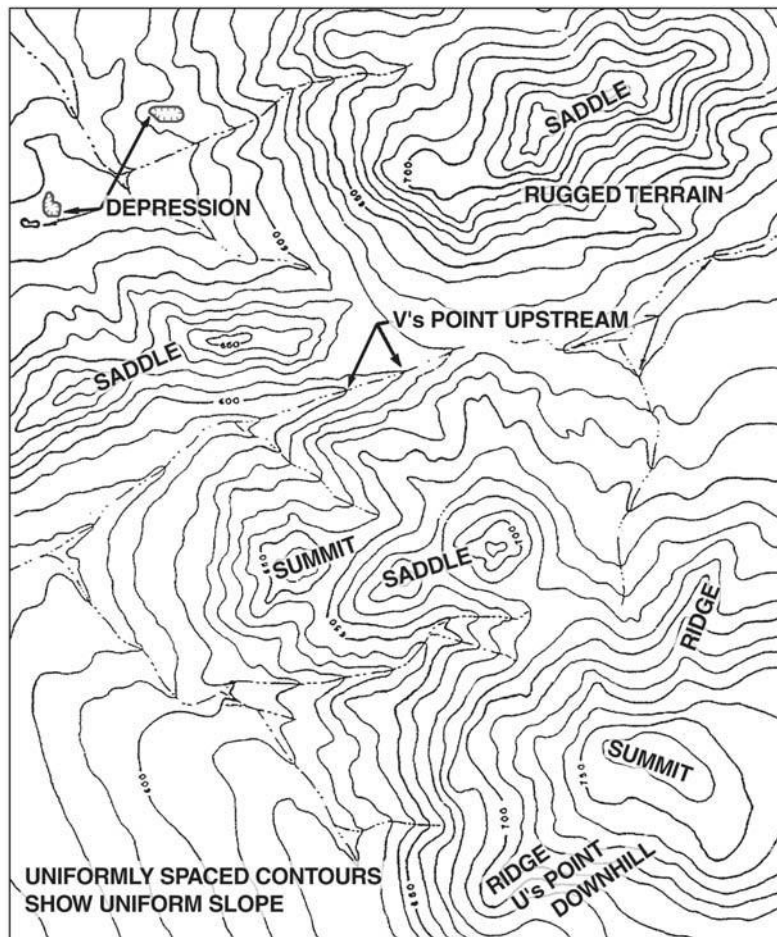


Figure 2-13. Contour lines and topographic features.

Contour Interval

Contour interval is the difference in elevation between two adjacent contour lines. On USGS maps, contour intervals are usually 1, 5, 10, 20, 40, and 80 feet. Occasionally you will find a map with a 25-foot contour interval or metric units, but not often. To make the contours easier to read, every fifth one is the **index contour** which is printed darker and has the elevation in feet from mean sea level marked on the line (Figure 2-14). The thinner or lighter colored contour lines are called **intermediate contours**.

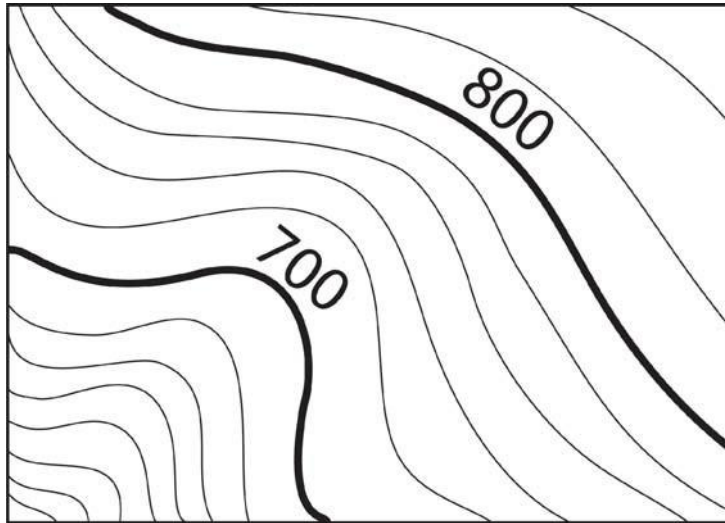


Figure 2-14. Topographic map showing elevation of two index contours (700 and 800).

The contour interval is typically printed at the bottom of the map; however, if the contour interval is unknown, there is a way it can be calculated. Follow the steps in Table 2-1 to calculate the contour interval of the topographic map below.

Table 2-1. Calculating the contour interval.

Steps	Directions
1	Find two index contours near each other: The index contours marked 4400 and 4600 .
2	Determine the difference in elevation between the two index contours: $4600 \text{ ft.} - 4400 \text{ ft.} = \mathbf{200 \text{ ft.}}$
3	Count the number of contour lines between the two index contours: There are 5 lines. Note: There are actually 4 contour lines between the two index contours, but you always count one of the index contours as well as all of the contours in between.
4	Divide the difference (step 2) by the number of lines (step 3): $200 \text{ ft.} \div 5 = \mathbf{40 \text{ ft.}}$ This is the contour interval.

