AN ALGEBRA FOR OPGENGIS® COVERAGE BASED ON TOPOLOGICAL PREDICATES

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Master Thesis in Applied Computing Science, advised by
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ABSTRACT

Map algebra is a collection of functions for handling spatial datasets where each data contains a set of geometries of the same type which bound to a geographical reference. The current theory for Map Algebra uses ad hoc operators proposed by Dana Tomlin. His proposal has had great practical success, and most GIS implementations provide its operations. However, there is a lack of theoretical foundations for the operations proposed in Tomlin’s map algebra. This is a limitation for the proposal of international standards for map algebra. Specifically, the Open Geospatial Consortium’s proposal for handling a map (the coverage data type) lacks a set of functions to manipulate its content. To address this problem, our work proposes a specification for an algebra for Open GIS® coverages which uses a dimension-extended version of Egenhofer and Herring’s 9-intersection predicates to express spatial operations. The proposed coverage algebra includes all Tomlin’s functions, as well as operations that are not part of Tomlin’s algebra, but are useful in practice. Our proposal could be the basis for setting up standards for operations on Open GIS coverages. The use of standards for operations in coverages would be a significant advance for increased interoperability of spatial data.
RESUMO

Álgebra de mapas é uma coleção de funções para a manipulação de dados espaciais onde cada dado contém um conjunto de geometrias do mesmo tipo ligado a uma referência geográfica. A atual teoria para Ágebras de Mapas utiliza operadores ad hoc propostos por Dana Tomlin. Sua proposta obteve um grande sucesso prático, e a maioria das implementações de Sistemas de Informações Geográficas disponibiliza essas operações. Entretanto, existe uma carência de bases teóricas aos operadores propostos na álgebra de mapas de Tomlin. Já a proposta do Open Geospatial Consortium para a manipulação de mapas (ou coverages) necessita de um conjunto de funções para manipular esse conteúdo. Nosso trabalho propõe a especificação de uma Álgebra de Mapas para a coverage do Open Geospatial Consortium que utiliza uma versão estendida dos predicados topológicos propostos por Egenhofer e Herring. A álgebra para coverages aqui proposta inclui todas as funções propostas por Tomlin, bem como operações que não são parte, mas que na prática são úteis. Nossa proposta pode ser uma base para o desenvolvimento de um padrão para as operações sobre coverages. O uso de padrões para as operações sobre coverages seriam um avanço significativo para o avanço da interoperabilidade dos dados espaciais.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been a significant effort to standardize the technology of geographical information systems (GIS). This effort is motivated by the large diffusion of GIS worldwide, the need to share geographical data, and for long-term maintenance of geographical archives. Sharing geographical data requires that different institutions, using diverse technologies, have access to the same data sets. Long-term archive maintenance needs that data outlives both its original media support and the software used to build it. Thus, sharing and maintenance of geographical data need standardization. The Open Geospatial Consortium (OGC) is developing standards for modelling, accessing, storing, and sharing geographical data. The extent of the effort involved in OGC’s mandate is significant. Therefore, despite the progress already achieved, there are still areas where OGC’s task is not complete. One of the missing parts of OGC’s specification is a set of functions for manipulation of coverages, a subject commonly referred to as ‘map algebra’. The current version of OGC’s specification for coverages (Kottman, 2000) mentions unary and binary operations, and does not consider spatial operations. Since there is a literature on map operations (Berry, 1987) (Frank, 1987) (Tomlin, 1990), it is important to consider how these operations can be used for handling OGC’s coverages. This work will discuss how to extend OGC’s coverage data type to create an algebra for coverages.

The main contribution to map algebra comes from the work of Tomlin (Tomlin, 1990). Tomlin proposed a set of operations that has proven useful in practice. Extensions to Tomlin’s map algebra include the GeoAlgebra of Takeyama and Couclelis (Takeyama; Couclelis, 1997) and MapScript, a language that includes dynamical models (Pullar, 2001). Extensions of map algebra for spatio-temporal data handling are discussed by Mennis et al. (Mennis et al., 2005) and Frank (Frank, 2005). All these works use Tomlin’s algebra as a basis for their work. The main problem with Tomlin’s algebra and its extensions is their ad hoc basis. There is no foundation for
assessing the completeness of his algebra. Thus, there could be other types of operations that are missing in his algebra.

Therefore, one of the open challenges in spatial information science is to develop a theoretical foundation for a comprehensive set of operations on coverages. We need to find out if Tomlin’s map algebra is part of a more general set. We state these questions as: “What is the theoretical foundation for spatial operations on coverages?”, “Could this theoretical foundation provide support for a comprehensive spatial algebra for coverages?” To respond to these questions, we take the topological predicates of Egenhofer and Herring (1991) as a basis for defining an algebra for coverages. Using these predicates, we develop a coverage algebra that includes Tomlin’s map algebra as a subset.

In what follows, we briefly review the literature about coverages, map algebra and spatial predicates in chapter 2. In chapter 3, we present an algebraic specification of an algebra for coverages. In chapter 4, we show the implementation of the algebra in the Haskell language, some examples of its use, including some problems that are not expressible in Tomlin’s work and the implementation of it into a GUI interface. To conclude, in chapter 5 we present our conclusions and point out future lines of research.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, we review the main basis for our work: OGC’s definition of coverages, Tomlin’s map algebra, and Egenhofer’s topological operators.

2.1 The OpenGIS® Coverage

OGC’s definition of coverage provides a support for the concepts of ‘fields’ and ‘maps’ (Kottman, 2000). A coverage is a spatial representation that covers a geographical area and divides it in spatial partitions that may be either regular or irregular and assigns a value to each partition. The computer representation of a coverage consists of a coverage function over a discrete domain, called the *DiscreteC_Function*. Its domain is a collection of geometries and its range is a set of vectors of attributes. The OGC specification describes the *DiscreteC_Function* as having four operations, shown in Figure 2.1:

- **Num**: finds the number of geometries in the coverage.
- **Values**: finds the possible values of the coverage function.
- **Domain**: finds the geometries in the domain of the coverage function.
- **Evaluate**: given a geometry, return a vector that represent the values of the coverage function for the associated location.
An example is the coverage whose domain is the geometries that describe the states of a country, and the range is each state’s population in 2004. A second example would be a coverage whose domain is a set of regular cells and the range is a set of values representing the maximum and minimum yearly temperatures of the region covered by the set of cells. OGC considers a set of coverage subtypes, where each subtype uses a different spatial data structure to build its domain. The subtypes include polygons, images, TINs, surfaces, and point sets. OGC describes how to evaluate the discrete coverage function for different coverage subtypes (Kottman, 2000).

2.1.1 The Discrete Spatial Domain

The discrete spatial domain of a DiscreteC_Function may be any geometry or collection of geometries.

The domain can be represented by a raster, i.e., a region composed by a planar-enforced set of closed homogeneous rectangles (named “pixels”, “cells” or “locations”), like an image or a cell space. A coverage with this kind of domain maps from “locations” to values.

Furthermore, a domain can be composed of a collection of homogeneous geometries. A geometry can be represented by a point, line or region. A coverage with this kind of domain maps from geometries to values. Examples of elements in this
domain are rivers and roads, represented by lines, or states and forests, represented by polygons. The Figure 2.2 shows all the subtypes domains that a Coverage Function can assume.

![Coverage Subtypes](image)

Figure 2.2 – Coverage Subtypes

Source: (Kottman, 2000)

2.1.2 The Range of a Coverage and the DiscreteC Function

The range of a **DiscreteC Function** is a set of vectors of attributes. For any geometry of the domain, the DiscreteC Function maps to a vector of attributes.

**DiscreteC Function**: *(geometry in spatial domain) → (v₁, v₂, v₃, ... , vₙ)*

The **DiscreteC Function** can be seen like a set of functions with the same spatial domain, where each function maps to a unique attribute range.

\[ f₁: p → v₁, ... , fₙ: p → vₙ \text{ where } p \text{ is a geometry in the spatial domain.} \]

For example, considering that the domain is composed by all states in a country, the **DiscreteC Function** may assign to each state its population of the years 2004 and 2005, and the percentage of deforestation area. Besides, considering the domain the region of a forest partitioned in a discrete way - a set of pixels - for each pixel the function may assign its temperature, elevation, dampness, and deforestation value.

2.2 Topological operators for spatial relations

The OGC specification describes a set of topological predicates for spatial relations between geometries of simple features (Herring, 2006). These predicates use a
dimension-extended version of the 9-intersection model proposed by Egenhofer and Herring (Egenhofer et al., 1991). The 9-intersection model considers a geometrical object \( A \) as composed by a set of boundary points \( \partial A \), a set of interior points \( A^0 \), and a set of exterior points \( A^- \).

This model allows identifying 512 binary relations in \( \mathbb{R}^2 \). For area-area relations the model presents a standard set of seven predicates \{‘disjoint’, ‘equal’, ‘touch’, ‘inside’, ‘overlap’, ‘contains’, ‘intersects’\}, as adopted by the Open Geospatial Consortium (Figure 2.3). The predicate ‘intersects’ is included for user convenience, following OGC’s proposal (OGC, 1998). ‘Intersects’ is defined as

\[
\text{intersects}(a,b) \Leftrightarrow \neg \text{disjoint}(a,b)
\]

Figure 2.3 – Topological predicates for area-area based on the 9-intersection matrix.

Adapted from Egenhofer and Herring (1991)

For line-area relations, the model proposes the set \{‘disjoint’, ‘touch’, ‘within’, ‘cross’, ‘intersects’\}. For point-area relations, the model proposes the set \{‘disjoint’, ‘touch’, ‘within’\}. Other topological relations are described in (Egenhofer et al., 1991).

The works of Winter (1995) and Winter and Frank (2000) extends the Egenhofer’s 9-intersection model to application in raster representations. Application of
the Egenhofer’s 9-intersection model is only defined over entities that have a set of interior and exterior points. In a discrete raster representation of the geographical space its entities don’t satisfy this requirement. Winter and Frank (2000) present a new hybrid raster model, where they define a raster element with boundary, interior and exterior (Figure 2.4). So, “In this hybrid raster representation, topological relations relate again to general topology in Euclidean space, and the four or nine-intersection can be applied in full accordance to vector representations.” Winter and Frank (2000).

![Figure 2.4 – The Hybrid Raster Representation](image)

Source: (Winter et al., 2000)

In what follows, we define that spatial operations in coverage algebra should use OGC’s topological predicates.

### 2.3 Map Algebra

The main contribution to map algebra comes from the work of Tomlin. Tomlin’s map algebra (1990) includes first-order and higher-order functions for maps. First order functions take values as arguments (these are the functions associated to the map values). Higher order functions are functions that have other functions as arguments. Higher order functions are the basis for map algebra operations (Frank, 1997). These functions apply a first-order function to all elements of map. Tomlin (Tomlin, 1990) proposes three higher-order functions:

- **Local function**: produce a new map, whose value in each location \( p \) depends only of the values in \( p \) in the input maps, as in “classify as unsuitable for farming all areas with slope greater than 15%”. A local operation is a mapping between the ranges of the input and output fields (Figure 2.5).
• **Focal function**: produce a new map, whose value in each location $p$ depends only of the values of a neighbourhood around $p$ in the input map, as in the expression “for each county, calculate the average population of its neighbours” (Figure 2.6). Focal functions use the condition of adjacency, which matches the spatial predicate *touch*.

• **Zonal function**: produce a new map, whose value in each location $p$ depends on the values of a region in an input map. This region is defined by a restriction on a third map, called the reference map. Example is “given a map of cities and a digital terrain model, calculate the mean altitude for each city” (Figure 2.7). Zonal functions use the condition of topological containment, which matches the spatial predicate *inside*.
We can express Tomlin’s spatial operations using Egenhofer and Herring’s (Egenhofer et al., 1991) topological predicates. The focal operation uses the condition of adjacency, which matches the spatial predicate ‘touch’. The zonal operation uses the condition of containment, which matches the spatial predicate ‘within’. Since ‘touch’ and ‘within’ are part of a more general set of predicates, Tomlin’s operations use only a subset of all possible topological relations between areas. Tomlin’s algebra uses spatial predicates in a limited way. It applies the ‘touch’ relation (focal function) only over the same input map. It also only applies the ‘within’ relation (a zonal operation) over a reference map. If we remove the limits of Tomlin’s algebra, we can have a coverage algebra based on the full set of topological predicates, whose operations don’t restrict the way in which the predicates are used.
CHAPTER 3

A GENERALIZED ALGEBRA FOR COVERAGES

This chapter presents the design of an algebra for coverages. The proposed algebra extends the coverage data type defined by the Open GIS® consortium (Kottman, 2000) and has nonspatial and spatial higher-order functions. The nonspatial operations are Tomlin’s local operations. The spatial operations perform operations on coverages using topological predicates.

3.1 Conventions used in the text

We define the coverage operations using an algebraic specification of data types. In our definitions, we use CASL, the Common Algebraic Specification Language (Bidoit, 2004). CASL is a general-purpose language for both requirements and design specifications. A basic specification in CASL consists of a set of declarations of symbols, and a set of axioms and constraints, which restrict the interpretations of the declared symbols. For a detailed syntax for CASL specifications, see (Bidoit, 2004). We provide examples from the CASL user manual (Bidoit, 2004) to allow the reader to better follow our proposal. The first example has a unique sort and a predicate, showed in Figure 3.1:

```
spec STRICT_PARTIAL_ORDER =
  sort Elem
  pred __ < __: Elem × Elem
  axioms
    forall x,y,z: Elem
    · x ≤ x   % (reflexive)%
    · x=y if x ≤ y ∧ y ≤ x % (antisymmetric)%
    · x ≤ z if x ≤ y ∧ y ≤ z % (transitive)%
```

Figure 3.1 – Example of CASL syntax

The STRICT_PARTIAL_ORDER specification uses a sort Elem and a binary infix predicate symbol ‘<’. Argument sorts are separated by the sign ‘×’. CASL uses ‘__’
(pairs of underscores) as place-holders for arguments. The predicate ‘<’ is associated to three axioms: reflectivity, antisymmetry and transitivity. CASL provides the keyword **type** to shorten declarations of sorts and constructors, as in the example of the Figure 3.2:

```casl
spec CONTAINER [ sort Elem ] =
type Container ::= empty \ insert (Elem : Container)
pred __inside __ : Elem × Container
axioms
  ∀ e, e': Elem; C: Container
  • ¬(e inside empty)
  • e inside (insert (e', C)) ⇔ (e = e' \∨ e inside C)
end
```

Figure 3.2 - Declaration of sorts and constructors in CASL

### 3.2 The Coverage Data Type

This section presents an algebraic specification for an extended version of Open GIS coverage. A coverage is a discrete $c_{function}$ : $G \rightarrow V$ over a finite collection of geometries $G$ and a set of attribute values $V$. Without loss of generality, we will discuss the case of coverages where each geometry has only one value. The generalization to a coverage that returns a vector of values is simple, but would need a slightly more complicated notation. We will assume that $Geometry$ and $Value$ sorts are those used by OGC. The reader should refer to (Kottman, 2000) for details. We begin by defining a set of auxiliary specifications (Table 3.1–5) : list (a list of elements), single and multiargument functions, comparison predicates and topological predicates. For brevity’s sake, we provide a limited list of single and multiargument functions and of selection predicates. We can extend these lists of functions if needed.

**Table 3.1 - Single Function Specification**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ops</th>
<th>Value \rightarrow Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Log:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sin:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sqrt:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

End
Table 3.2 - Multiargument Function Specification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>spec</th>
<th>MULTI_FUNCTION =</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sort</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sum: Value × Value → Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>product: Value × Value → Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>maximum: Value × Value → Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mean: Value × Value → Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>minimum: Value × Value → Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3 - List Specification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>spec</th>
<th>LIST [ sort Elem ]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>type</td>
<td>List := empty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>length: List → Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.4 - Comparison Predicate Specification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>spec</th>
<th>COMPPRED =</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sort</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>==</strong> : Value × Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>&lt;</strong> : Value × Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>&gt;</strong> : Value × Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>!=</strong> : Value × Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.5 - Topological Predicate Specification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>spec</th>
<th>TOPO_PRED =</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sort</td>
<td>Geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>within</strong> : Geometry × Geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>overlap</strong> : Geometry × Geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>disjoint</strong> : Geometry × Geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>equal</strong> : Geometry × Geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>touch</strong> : Geometry × Geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>contains</strong> : Geometry × Geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>cross</strong> : Geometry × Geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>intersects</strong> : Geometry × Geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using these definitions, we provide an abstract specification of the Coverage data type (Table 3.6). It uses the operations defined by OGC (see Figure 2.1 above) and includes three constructors, a new predicate and a new operation.
Table 3.6 - Abstract specification of the Coverage data type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>spec</th>
<th>Coverage [sort Geometry, sort Value, sort List] =</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>type</td>
<td>Coverage ::= empty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pred _contains Coverage × Geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>_:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|        | axioms
|        | ∀g, g': Geometry; v: Value; C: Container |
|        | • contains (C, g) ⇔ g ∈ domain (C) |
|        | • evaluate (C, g) == error ⇔ contains (C, g) == false |
|        | • evaluate (insert (C, (g, v)), g) = v |
|        | • v = evaluate (C, g) ⇔ v ∈ values (C) |
|        | • num (C) = length (domain (C)) |
|        | • values (C) = List [evaluate (C, g), ∀ g ∈ domain (C)] |
|        | • subset (C, List[g]) ⇔ (C₁ = empty ())∧ insert (Cᵢ, (g, v)), ∀ g ∈ List [g] ∧ v = evaluate (C, g) |

The first constructor (empty) builds an empty Coverage. The second constructor (new) builds a new Coverage by providing a list of (Geometry, Value) pairs. The third constructor (subset) builds a new Coverage by extracting a subset of the original locations. The predicate contains verifies if a certain instance of Geometry is in the Coverage. Insert includes a new (geometry, value) pair in the coverage. Evaluate takes a coverage and a geometry and produces an output value (“give me the value of the coverage at location g”). Domain returns the geometries of the coverage’s domain. Num returns the number of geometries on the coverage’s domain. Values returns the list of values of the coverage’s range. The axioms point to the various restrictions on the Coverage specification. The last axiom shows that creating a Coverage from a subset of
locations of an existing one is the same as building an empty Coverage and then inserting a list of (Geometry, Value) pairs.

### 3.3 Coverage operations

Operations on coverages are operations that produce a new coverage, and include nonspatial and spatial ones. For nonspatial operations, the value of a location in the output coverage depends on the values of the same location in one or more input coverages. They include logical expressions such as “classify as high-risk all areas without vegetation with slope greater than 15%” and “find the average of deforestation in the last two years”. We consider three types of nonspatial operations: single (single argument operations), multiple (multiple argument operations) and select (nonspatial selection using a comparison predicate).

Spatial operations are higher-order functions that use a topological predicate and generalize Tomlin’s focal and zonal operations. They include expressions such as “calculate the local mean of the coverage values” and “given a coverage of cities and a digital terrain model, calculate the mean altitude for each city”.

Spatial operations take two coverages (the reference coverage and the input coverage) and produce a new coverage, which has the same geometries as the reference coverage. A spatial operation has two parts: spatial query and composition. The spatial query operation starts by finding the matching geometry in the reference coverage for each location in the new coverage. Then it applies a topological predicate between that geometry and all geometries of the input coverage. The result of the spatial query is a new (temporary) coverage containing the input geometries that match the predicate. The composition operation then applies a function to the values on the new coverage to produce the result (Figure 3.3).

Take the expression “given a coverage of cities and a coverage of altitudes, calculate the mean altitude for each city”. In this expression, the input coverage is the altitude one and the reference coverage is one with cities. To evaluate the expression, we first select the terrain values within each city. This uses the selection operator with
the *within* predicate. Then, we calculate the average of each set of these values. This uses the composition operator with the *mean* function.

**Figure 3.3 – Spatial Operations (selection + composition).**
Adapted from (Tomlin, 1990)

To provide the abstract specification for the coverage operations, we distinguish between nonspatial and spatial operations. For spatial operations, we define two auxiliary functions (*query* and *compose*). We use the CASL *local … within*’ construct for such needs. This construct distinguishes between operations which are visible outside the specification and auxiliary functions.

**Table 3.7 - Abstract specification for the coverage operations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>spec</th>
<th>COVERAGE_OPERATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[sort Geometry, sort Value, sort Coverage, sort SingleFunction, sort MultiFunction, sort List, sort CompPred sort TopoPred]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ops</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>single:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multi:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>select:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>local ops</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sp_query:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compose:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>within op</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
The first axiom describes the \textit{single} operation, which applies a function to all values of the input. The second axiom describes the \textit{multiple} operation, which applies a multivalued function to all values of the input. The third axiom describes the nonspatial selection operation. The fourth axiom shows that the \textit{spatial query} selects a subset of the original coverage whose geometries satisfy a topological predicate ("select all deforested areas within the state of Amazonas"). The fifth axiom describes the composition operation.

The last axiom describes the \textit{spatial} function. It builds a new coverage by providing a list of \((\text{Geometry}, \text{Value})\) pairs. The geometries of the new coverage are the same as those of the reference coverage. We get the values of the new coverage by combining a \textit{spatial query} and a \textit{composition}. In the next section, we show how these operations for coverages are enough for a comprehensive algebra.
3.4 Expressiveness of Topological Operators for Coverage Algebra

All coverage subtypes proposed by OGC are implemented as discrete geometrical spatial data structures. Thus it is important to consider what extent the topological operators can cover the spatial relations between these coverage subtypes. As discussed in section 3.3, spatial operations have two parts: a spatial query and a composition on the values selected by the query. The expressive power of the spatial query is limited by the capacity of computing them in each spatial data structures. Based on OGC’s proposal for coverage subtypes (Kottman, 2000), we can distinguish different types of discrete data structures for coverages:

- **2.5D structures:** TIN coverages.
- **2D Area-based structures:** grid coverages, images, polygon coverages, surfaces.
- **1D Line-based structures:** segmented line coverages, line string coverages.
- **0D point-based structures:** discrete point coverages, nearest neighbor coverages, lost area interpolation.

Since the dimension-extended version of the 9-intersection model only handles 2D, 1D and 0D data structures, the proposed coverage algebra cannot be used for TIN coverages. Also, consider that a spatial query operation involves two coverages: the reference and the input coverages (see Section 3.2). Thus, application of topological operators depends on the geometries of the reference and the input coverages, as outlined in Table 3.1.

Table 3.8 – Topological operators applicable to spatial operations on coverages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input coverage type</th>
<th>Reference coverage type</th>
<th>Operators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>area</td>
<td>area</td>
<td>{'disjoint', 'equal', 'touch', 'within', 'overlap', 'contains', 'intersects'}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>area</td>
<td>line</td>
<td>{'disjoint', 'touch', 'intersects', 'contains'}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>area</td>
<td>point</td>
<td>{'disjoint', 'touch', 'contains'}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>line</td>
<td>area</td>
<td>{'disjoint', 'cross', 'touch', 'within',}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.5 Examples of Coverage Algebra

To provide examples of the proposed coverage algebra, we propose a shorthand notation for the operations, as follows:

Table 3.9 – Convenience shorthand for non-spatial operators

| new_cov:= single singlefun in_cov; | % single value functions%
| new_cov:= multiple multifun [in_cov]; | % multivalued functions%
| new_cov:= select in_cov comp_pred value; | % selection%
| new_cov:= spatial multifun in_cov topo_pred ref_cov; | %for spatial operations%

The parameters for the operations are:

- **new_cov** is the coverage with the new values.
- **singlefun** is a single argument function as given in section 3.2.
- **multifun** is a multiargument function as given in section 3.2.
- **in_cov** is the input coverage.
- **[in_cov]** is a list of input coverages.
- **comp_pred** is a comparison predicate.
- **value** is the comparison value.
- **topo_pred** is a topological predicate *(section 3.2)*
- **ref_cov** is the reference coverage used as a basis for applying the topological predicate.

The examples of the Table 3.10 show the use of non-spatial operators applied to coverages. Table 3.11 shows examples of spatial operations.
“Find the square root of the topography”  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informal description</th>
<th>Coverage Algebra Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Find the square root of the cities’ population”</td>
<td>popSqrt := single sqrt cityPop;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Find the average of deforestation in the last two years”</td>
<td>defAve := multiple mean (defor2004, defor2003);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Select areas higher than 500 meters”</td>
<td>highM := select topography &gt; 500;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Select the cities with the population higher than 50,000”</td>
<td>highPop := select cityPop &gt; 50000;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.11 – Examples of Spatial Operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informal description</th>
<th>Coverage Algebra Expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Given a coverage of cities and one of states, find the total population for each state”</td>
<td>statePop := spatial sum cityPop within statePop;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“For each cell, calculate the average deforestation of its neighbours”</td>
<td>fsum := spatial sum defor touch fsum;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Given a coverage of rivers and one of cities with population, find the number of people that live along each river”.</td>
<td>riversPop := spatial sum cityPop intersects rivers;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Given a coverage of cities and one of deforestation, find the average deforestation of each city”.</td>
<td>ave_city_defor := spatial average defor within city;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Given a coverage containing roads and a one of deforestation, calculate the mean deforestation along each road”.</td>
<td>defRoads := spatial mean defor intersects roads;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consider the operation: “For each cell, calculate the average deforestation of its neighbors”. In Tomlin’s algebra, this is a focal operation (Figure 2.6). Considering the
deforestation coverage \(\text{defor}\) as input and the focal sum coverage \(\text{fsum}\) as output, we state the operation as shown in Figure 3.4.

\[
\text{fsum} := \text{spatial sum defor touch fsum};
\]

Figure 3.4 – Focal sum of deforestation

Note one interesting feature: the result \(\text{fsum}\) is also the reference coverage for the spatial predicate \(\text{defor touch fsum}\). This syntax may seem odd at first sight, but it follows from the generality of the proposal. By taking the reference coverage and the new coverage to be the same, we ensure the outcome satisfies the condition (“local mean”). Had we used a third coverage as a reference, the result would be different if this coverage would not have the same spatial partitioning as the output coverage.
This chapter shows how the proposal map algebra was implemented using the Haskell functional language and integrated with a spatial database using TerraLib. A graphical interface was build to help the users to write and maintains his programs. We also show some examples of its use and compare our proposal to Tomlin’s map algebra.

4.1 TerraHS

To make our algebra useful was necessary to implement it in a computer language. The implementation was made in the Haskell functional language (Jones, 2002), (Peyton Jones et al., 1999) and (Thompson, 1999). Functional programming is a programming paradigm that considers that computing is evaluating mathematical functions. Functional programming languages are convenient to translate algebraic specifications into testable code (Frank e Kuhn, 1995; Frank e Medak, 1997) and functional languages express the semantics of abstract data types directly, an essential property for formal specification languages (Frank e Kuhn, 1995). The Haskell report describes the Haskell language as:

“Haskell is a purely functional programming language incorporating many recent innovations in programming language design. Haskell provides higher-order functions, non-strict semantics, static polymorphic typing, user-defined algebraic datatypes, pattern-matching, list comprehensions, a module system, a monadic I/O system, and a rich set of primitive datatypes, including lists, arrays, arbitrary and fixed precision integers, and floating-point numbers” (Jones, 2002).

TerraLib is a spatial database programming environment that provides support to storage and retrieve spatial data (Câmara et al.). TerraHS (Costa et al., 2006) was created as an application that enables developing geographical applications in the Haskell functional language using data stored in a spatial database manipulated with TerraLib.
4.2 Haskell Implementation

The Haskell implementation of the algebra was presented in (Costa, 2006). In this section we will show this implementation, concentrating in how to translate the data storage in a TerraLib database to coverages and in the syntax language that a user will use to write his programs.

4.2.1 Data Type

Based on the Coverage specification on section 3.2, in TerraHS was defined the type class Coverages in Haskell, described in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1 - Type class Coverages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>evaluate</td>
<td>: (Eq a, Eq b) =&gt; cov a b → a → Maybe b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>domain</td>
<td>: cov a b → [a]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>num</td>
<td>: cov a b → Int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>values</td>
<td>: cov a b → [b]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>new_cov</td>
<td>: [a] → (a → b) → (cov a b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fun</td>
<td>: (cov a b) → (a → b)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The functions of type class Coverages are parameterized on the input type \( a \) and the output type \( b \).

- **evaluate** is a function that takes a coverage and an input value \( a \) and produces an output value.

- **domain** is a function that takes a coverage and returns the values of its domain.

- **num** returns the number of elements of the coverage’s domain.

- **values** returns the values of the coverage’s range.

- **new_cov**, a function that returns a new coverage, given a domain and a coverage function.

- **fun**: given a coverage, returns its coverage function.
The instance of the type class Coverages to the Coverage data type is shown:

Table 4.2 - Instance of type class Coverages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>instance Coverages Coverage where</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>new_cov a f = (Coverage (f, a))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>evaluate f o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>domain (Coverage (f, a)) = a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>num f = length (domain f)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>values f = map (fun f) (domain f)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fun (Coverage (f, _)) = f</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TerraHS provides support to the object-set data type storage in TerraLib. Object-set in TerraLib database is represented by a layer of geo-objects in a vector representation and a table of attributes. Where each object of the layer is linked with one line of the table. When we map an object set to a Coverage Function, we can take the layer as the domain of the function and the range of one column of attribute as the range of the function. The mapping of the function is given by the relationship of the object and its attribute. The Figure 4.1 shows an example of retrieving and storing a coverage.
As showed in the example, to retrieve and store the information from a TerraLib database we need to inform the host, dbname, user name and password to make the connection with the database.

The `loadMap` function connects to the database, loads the geo-object set, converts these geo-objects into a coverage, and return it as output. The `saveMap` function converts a coverage to a geo-object set that will be saved in the database. If the column of attribute name does not exist in the layer, it will be created.

### 4.2.2 Operations

We use a generic type class for the coverage algebra operations (Table 4.3).
Table 4.3 - Generic type class Operation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>single :: (b → c) → (cov a b) → (cov a c)</td>
<td>Non-spatial operation on a single coverage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multiple :: ([b]→c) → [(cov a b)] → (cov a b)→(cov a c)</td>
<td>Non-spatial operation on multiple coverages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>select :: (cov a b) → (a → c → Bool) → c → (cov a b)</td>
<td>Spatial selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compose :: ([b] → b) → (cov a b) → b</td>
<td>Spatial composition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spatial :: ([b] → b) → (cov a b) → (a → c → Bool) → (cov c b)</td>
<td>Spatial operation: selection + composition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The implicit assumption of these is that the geographical area of the output coverage is the same of the reference coverage.

The instantiation of the coverage operations is provided by Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 - Instantiation of the Operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>instance CoverageOps Coverage where single f1 c = new_cov (domain c) (f1 . (fun c))</td>
<td>Non-spatial operation on a single coverages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multiple fn clist c = new_cov (domain c) (\x -&gt; fn (faux clist x))</td>
<td>Non-spatial operation on multiple coverages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>select cov pr o = new_cov sel_dom (fun cov)</td>
<td>Spatial selection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>where sel_dom = [l</td>
<td>l &lt;- (domain cov) , (pr l o)]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compose f cov = (f (values cov))</td>
<td>Spatial composition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spatial fn cl predic cref = new_cov (domain cref) (\x -&gt; compose fn (select cl predic x))</td>
<td>Spatial operation: selection + composition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The single function has two input arguments: a coverage (input_cov) and a first-order function (f1), and produce a new coverage as output (new_cov). Its general syntax is:

let new_cov = single f1 input_cov

The word “let” is a keyword of the language, and the word “single” is used to specify the kind of operation.

The multiple function has three input arguments: a multivalued function (fn), a coverage list, and a reference coverage (ref_cov), and produces a new coverage as output. Its general syntax is:
let new_cov = multiple fn [input_cov1, input_cov2, ..., input_covN] ref_cov

The spatial selection has three input arguments: an input coverage, a predicate (predicate) and a reference element (geo), and generates a new coverage as output. Its general syntax is:

let new_cov = select input_cov predicate geo

The composition function has two input arguments, an input coverage and a multiple arguments function and generates a single value as output. Its general syntax is:

compose fn input_cov

The spatial function has three input arguments, a reference coverage, a multivalued function and a select predicate, generating a new coverage as output. Its general syntax is:

let new_cov = spatial fn input_cov predicate ref_cov

4.3 Integration into GUI software

A graphical interface was developed to the create and edit of the TerraHS programs. This graphical interface was integrated with TerraView (Câmara et al.) as a plugin.

4.3.1 Main Window

The main window has a text box that allows the edition of the programs (Figure 4.2). When the user creates a new program, the text starts with the includes necessaries to compile and run the Haskell program, and also sets the variables necessaries to the database connection, according to the database connection opened in the TerraView.
The interface presents two buttons relatives to the program generation; these buttons assist the user to insert a coverage and to insert a operation in the program, respectively Insert Coverage and Insert Operation. We also place three buttons to compile and run a program. The Clear button is used to delete the intermediate files generated by previous compilation of the program. The Build button is used to compile the program and to generate an executable file. The RUN button executes the program.

Figure 4.2 – The main window
4.3.2 Algebra Interfaces

The sort of windows showed above are used to Insert a Coverage, Insert a Single Argument Function, Insert a Multiple Argument Function and Insert a Spatial Function. When we conclude the procedure of insertion, it generates the correspondents code of the operation and inserts this text in the text box of the Main Window.

The window of the Figure 4.3 is used to insert a Coverage. To insert a coverage we select the layer and the attribute; after this we give a name to the coverage.

![Figure 4.3 – Insert Coverage](image)

To insert a single argument function we need to select the output coverage, the single argument function and the input map (Figure 4.4).
Figure 4.4 - Insert Single Argument Function

To insert a multiple argument function we need to select the output coverage, the multiple argument function and the list of input coverages (Figure 4.5).

Figure 4.5 - Insert Multiple Arguments Function

To insert a spatial function we need to select the output coverage, the multiple argument function, the input coverage, the spatial predicate and the reference coverage (Figure 4.6).
4.4 Examples

The examples use INPE’s database of deforestation of the Brazilian Amazonian (Aguiar, 2006). We selected a data set from the central area of the Pará state, composed of three coverages: deforestation (grid cells of 25 x 25 km$^2$), roads (lines), and protected areas (polygons), as shown in Figure 4.7.

The Figure 4.10 shows the main header of the program used for all the programs of the examples below.
module Main(main) where

-- import

-- db connection

host = "localhost";
dbname = "tedbteste";
user = "root";
password = "";

db = database ( dbname, host, user, password, MySQL )

-- layers and attributes

layer_def = "def_cel"
ldef = layer (db, layer_def)
att_def = attr (ldef, "luc_def")

layer_roads = "roads_lin"
lroads = layer (db, layer_roads)
att_roads = attr (lroads, "object_id_3")

layer_pa = "pa_pol"
lpa = layer (db, layer_pa)
att_pa = attr (lpa, "object_id_1")

-- MAIN

main:: IO ()
main = do

    cov_def <- loadMap att_def
    cov_roads <- loadMap att_roads
    cov_pa <- loadMap att_pa

Figure 4.8 - Main header of the TerraHS programs

The three main coverages of the example are instanced:

- **cov_def**: the deforestation coverage
- **cov_roads**: the roads
- **cov_pa**: the protection areas
The first example considers the expression: “Given a coverage of deforestation and a classification function, return the classified coverage”. The input is the deforestation coverage and the output is a classified coverage (\(\text{cov\_def\_class}\)). The classification function defines four classes: (1) dense forest; (2) mixed forest with agriculture; (3) agriculture with forest fragments; (4) agricultural area. This function is:

\[
\text{classify} \, :: \, \text{Value} \rightarrow \text{Value} \\
\text{classify} \ v \\
\mid v < 0.2 \quad = \ "1" \\
\mid ((v \geq 0.2) \&\& (v < 0.5)) \quad = \ "2" \\
\mid (v \geq 0.5) \&\& (v < 0.8) \quad = \ "3" \\
\mid v \geq 0.8 \quad = \ "4" 
\]

We get the classified map (Figure 4.9) using the expression

\[
\text{let cov\_def\_class} = \text{single classify cov\_def} 
\]

![Figure 4.9 – Resulting coverage with classified deforestation](image)

As a second example, take the expression: “Calculate the mean deforestation for each protection area”. The inputs are: the deforestation coverage (\(\text{cov\_def}\)), a spatial predicate (\(\text{within}\)), a multivalued function (\(\text{mean}\)) and the coverage of protected areas (\(\text{cov\_pa}\)). The output is a coverage of the protected areas (\(\text{cov\_def\_prot}\)) with the same objects as the reference coverage (\(\text{cov\_pa}\)) and the deforestation average for each area (Figure 4.10). The final expression is:

\[
\text{let cov\_def\_prot} = \text{spatial mean cov\_def within cov\_ap} 
\]
The third example is the expression: “Given a coverage containing roads and one with deforestation, calculate the mean of the deforestation along each road”. We have as inputs: the deforestation coverage (\texttt{cov\_def}), a spatial predicate (\texttt{intersect}), a multivalued function (\texttt{mean}) and a road map (\texttt{cov\_roads}). The product is a roads coverage with one value for each road. This value is the mean of the cells that intercept this road (Figure 4.11). The expression for this operation is:

\begin{verbatim}
let cov_def_roads = spatial mean cov_def intersect cov_roads
\end{verbatim}
Table 4.5 presents a comparison between the spatial operators as expressed in our proposal and in Tomlin’s map algebra. The examples show that the proposed map algebra expresses the focal and zonal functions of Tomlin’s map algebra, using the ‘touch’ and ‘within’ topological predicates. Operations involving ‘overlap’, ‘contains’ and ‘intersects’ predicates are part of our proposed coverage algebra and are not directly expressible by Tomlin’s algebra. This shows that the proposed algebra is richer than Tomlin’s, as well as having a solid conceptual basis.

Table 4.5 – Comparison of spatial operators with Tomlin’s map algebra

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informal Description</th>
<th>Generalized Map Algebra</th>
<th>Tomlin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Focal mean of topography”</td>
<td>fmean := mean topo</td>
<td>FOCALMEAN OF TOPOGRAPHY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>touch fmean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Given a coverage of cities and one of topography, find the mean altitude for each city.”</td>
<td>altcit := mean topo within city</td>
<td>ZONALMEAN OF TOPOGRAPHY WITHIN CITIES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Given a coverage of national forests, get the deforestation at the edges of each forest”</td>
<td>defBord := sum defor overlaps forests</td>
<td>(no equivalent)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Calculate the mean of the deforestation along the road”</td>
<td>defRoad := mean defor intersects road</td>
<td>(no equivalent)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORKS

Map algebra is a fundamental class of operations for spatial data sets. Most of the current implementations of map algebra use Tomlin’s Map Algebra (Tomlin, 1990) proposal for local, focal and zonal operations. However, Tomlin’s proposal uses ad hoc concepts and lacks a sound theoretical basis. This work addresses this problem, by proposing a new foundation for operations involving coverages. We have designed a coverage algebra that uses topological predicates to express spatial operations and that includes Tomlin’s algebra as a subset.

There is one important set of operations on coverages that is not part of our proposal nor of Tomlin’s: convolution operators. A convolution operation requires two coverages $C_1$ and $C_2$ and produces a third coverage $C_3$. The value of each point $p$ of $C_3$ is the integral of the product of $C_1$ and $C_2$, when $C_2$ is shifted so that its central point is coincident with $p$. From a conceptual point of view, convolutions are not part of map algebra, since the geometrical support for the second coverage $C_2$ (also called a mask) changes for each point of the output coverage. Convolution does not involve topological relations, but rather the definition of an integral function.

Our proposal points to a situation where all modeling of topological relations in two-dimensional spatial datasets can be handled by the 9-intersection model (dimension-extended), both for simple features and for coverages. Spatial data sets of higher dimensions (e.g., TIN coverages) need a different foundation. The foundation for handling spatial relation of higher dimensions requires topological operators that operate on 3D surfaces (Egenhofer, 2005). Convolution operations are a special case and need to be handled separately. A possible extension to our algebra would be to consider directional relations (Frank, 1992), which would be useful to express operations such as “find the population of all cities north of the river”.
The development of the coverage algebra application using TerraHS in the Haskell Language enabled it faster, easy and precise implementation. The use of this implementation in real problems demonstrate the usability of the algebra. It is desirable that in the future the implementation of coverage algebra can manipulate all kinds of geographical data available at TerraLib.

Another possible future work is to extend our algebra to the spatiotemporal domain. Examples of the proposal spatiotemporal algebras are presented in (Güting; Schneider, 2005), which defines an algebra for moving objects and (Medak, 2001), which proposes an algebra for modeling change in socio-economical units. To do this we need to extend the geographical elements of the coverage to spatiotemporal domain, extend our algebra operations and extend the topological predicates to include temporal predicates.

Even considering the limitations, the expressiveness of the proposed coverage algebra is considerable. Given that it is based on a solid foundation, it could be considered as the basis for setting up standards for operations on Open GIS coverages. The use of standards for operations in coverages would be a significant advance for increasing interoperability of spatial data.
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