

EXPLORING THE USE OF THE SEMANTIC WEB FOR
DISCOVERING AND PROCESSING DATA FROM SENSOR
OBSERVATION SERVICES

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Master of Science in Geomatics

by

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ABSTRACT

[Should fit on one page.]

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ACRONYMS

API	Application Programming Interface	2
CSW	Catalog Service for the Web	12
CORINE	Coordination of Information on the Environment	25
DE-9IM	Dimensionally Extended Nine-Intersection Model	20
EEA	European Environment Agency	25
FOI	Feature of Interest	5
GML	Geography Markup Language	10
GIS	Geographical Information System	25
INSPIRE	Infrastructure for Spatial Information in Europe	1
IoT	Internet of Things	1
IRCEL-CELINE	Belgian interregional environment agency	30
IRI	International Resource Identifier	11
ISO	International Organisation for Standardisation	1
JSON	JavaScript Object Notation	41
KVP	Key-Value Pair	13
OGC	Open Geospatial Consortium	1
O&M	Observations and Measurements	1
OWL	Web Ontology Language	2
PURL	Persistent Uniform Resource Locator	12
RDF	Resource Description Framework	1
RIVM	Dutch national institute for public health and the environment	2
SensorML	Sensor Modelling Language	1
SIR	Sensor Instance Registry	2
SOR	Sensor Observable Registry	2
SOS	Sensor Observation Service	1
SPARQL	SPARQL Protocol and RDF Query Language	1
SSNO	Semantic Sensor Network Ontology	16
SSW	Semantic Sensor Web	2
SWE	Sensor Web Enablement	1
UOM	Unit of Measurement	6
URI	Uniform Resource Identifier	3
URN	Uniform Resource Name	14
URL	Uniform Resource Locator	11
W3C	World Wide Web Consortium	2
WKT	Well-Known Text	12
WPS	Web Processing Service	18
XML	Extensible Markup Language	3

1 | INTRODUCTION

From 2020 onwards all member states of the European Union (EU) should provide sensor data to the Infrastructure for Spatial Information in Europe (INSPIRE) in order to comply with annex II and III of the INSPIRE directive [INSPIRE, 2015]. For this a number of Sensor Web Enablement (SWE) standards are required to be used [INSPIRE, 2014]. The sensor web is a relatively new development and there are still many questions on how to structure it. This thesis aims to design a method to publish and link sensor metadata on the semantic web to improve the discovery, integration and aggregation of sensor data using SWE standards.

1.1 BACKGROUND

In 2008 the Open Geospatial Consortium (OGC) introduced a new set of standards called Sensor Web Enablement (SWE). These standards make it possible to connect sensors to the internet and retrieve data in a uniform way. This allows users or applications to retrieve sensor data through standard protocols, regardless of the type of observations or the sensor's manufacturer [Botts et al., 2008]. Among other standards SWE includes the Observations and Measurements (O&M) which is a model for encoding sensor data, the Sensor Modelling Language (SensorML) which is a model for describing sensor metadata and the Sensor Observation Service (SOS) which is a service for retrieving sensor data [Botts et al., 2007]. O&M has also been adopted by the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) under ISO 19156:2011 [ISO, 2011].

Recently OGC has defined the role which their standards could play in smart city developments [Percivall, 2015]. Smart cities can be defined as “enhanced city systems which use data and technology to achieve integrated management and interoperability” [Moir et al., 2014, p. 18]. Research on smart cities has shown a great potential for using sensor data in urban areas. Often this is presented in the context of the Internet of Things (IoT) [Zanella et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015a]. The IoT can be described as “the pervasive presence around us of a variety of *things* or *objects* ... [which] are able to interact with each other and cooperate with their neighbors to reach common goals” [Atzori et al., 2010, p. 2787].

Parallel to the development of the sensor web other research has focused on the semantic web, as proposed by Berners-Lee et al. [2001]. This is a response to the traditional way of using the web, where information is only available for humans to read. The semantic web is an extension of the internet which contains meaningful data that machines can understand as well. Rather than publishing documents on the internet the semantic web contains linked data using the Resource Description Framework (RDF), also known as the *web of data* [Bizer et al., 2009]. Data in RDF can be queried using the SPARQL Protocol and RDF Query Language (SPARQL) at so-called

SPARQL endpoints. The Web Ontology Language (OWL) is an extension of RDF and was designed “to represent rich and complex knowledge about things, groups of things, and relations between things” [OWL working group, 2012]. Originally, the semantic web intended to add metadata to the internet [Lassila and Swick, 1999]. However, today it is being used for linking any kind of data from one source to another in a meaningful way [Cambridge Semantics, 2015].

Sheth et al. [2008] proposes to use semantic web technologies in the sensor web. This Semantic Sensor Web (SSW) builds on standards by OGC and the World Wide Web Consortium (W3C) “to provide enhanced descriptions and meaning to sensor data” [Sheth et al., 2008, p. 78]. W3C responded to this development by creating a standard ontology for sensor data on the semantic web [Compton et al., 2012].

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Finding sensor data that can be retrieved using open standards is not easy. The implementation of the sensor web is still in an early stage. At the moment there are only a limited number of SOS implementations available on the web and they contain a limited amount of data. In the Netherlands the SOS by the Dutch national institute for public health and the environment (RIVM) is one of the first ones to be developed. It has only recently been launched and contains data on air quality. A number of other organisations still use a custom Application Programming Interface (API) to retrieve data from sensors connected to the internet. The problem of these custom APIs is that it is very hard to create an application that automatically retrieves data from them, because they have not implemented standards regarding the content of their service, the metadata models behind it or the kind of requests that can be made. It forces the application to have knowledge built in on the specifics of the individual APIs that are being used.

It has been researched to what extent a catalogue service could be useful for discovering sensor data from a SOS using the web service interfaces Sensor Instance Registry (SIR) [Jirka and Nüst, 2010] and Sensor Observable Registry (SOR) [Jirka and Bröring, 2009]. Catalogue services have already been available for example for the Web Map Service (WMS), Web Feature Service (WFS) or Web Coverage Service (WCS) [Nebert et al., 2007]. However, for the sensor data sources used in this paper no register or catalogue service has been implemented. Atkinson et al. [2015] also argues that catalogue services have a number of major disadvantages. It places a very high burden on the client to not only know where to find the catalogue service, but also to have knowledge on all kinds of other aspects (e.g. its organisation, access protocol, response format and response content) [Atkinson et al., 2015, p. 128]. Atkinson et al. suggest that linked data is therefore a much better solution for discovering sensor data.

However, for sensor data to be discovered on the semantic web there have to be inward links, from other sources linking towards the sensor (meta)data. Current research on the SSW has focused on publishing sensor data on the semantic web with links that point outwards [Atkinson et al., 2015; Janowicz et al., 2013; Pschorr, 2013]. This gives meaning to the data and is useful in order to work with the data, but it has a very limited effect on the discovery of the sensor data by others.

One of the challenges of using sensor data is the difficulty of integrating it from different sources to perform data fusion [Corcho and Garcia-Castro, 2010; Ji et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015b]. Data fusion is “a data processing technique that associates, combines, aggregates, and integrates data from different sources” [Wang et al., 2015a, p. 2]. Even if the sources comply with the SWE standards it is challenging, since the data can be of a different granularity, both in time and space. Spatio-temporal irregularities are a fundamental property of sensor data [Ganesan et al., 2004].

The question arises to what extent the semantic web could be a better solution for publishing sensor data than the current geoweb solutions like SOS. The geoweb has some very good qualities, such as very structured approaches through which (sensor) data can be retrieved using well defined services. These standardised services have been accepted by large organisations as OGC and ISO. Furthermore, they are often based on years of discussion. This is different from for example web pages where content can be completely unstructured. The response of a SOS also contains some semantics about sensor data. There can be x-links inside the Extensible Markup Language (XML) with Uniform Resource Identifier (URI)s that point to semantic definitions of objects.

Still, the semantic web could be beneficial for the geoweb. Since data on the web has a distributed nature it can be questioned whether centralised catalogue services are feasible to create. It places a burden on the owner of the SOS to register with a catalogue service. Also, there could be multiple of these services on the web creating issue regarding the discovery of relevant catalogues. The semantic web could solve this issue by getting rid of the information silos and storing data directly on the web instead. This allows the interlinking and reuse of data on the web, which makes it easier to find related data. For automatic integration and aggregation it could be useful that the semantic web is machine understandable.

In conclusion, the problem to be addressed is the lack of knowledge on how to exploit the full potential of the sensor web using the semantic web. Creating the right links could greatly enhance the discovery, integration and aggregation of sensor data. However, there is no method yet to establish this linked metadata for sensors, while the standardised nature of a SOS should allow for generating it in an automated process. This thesis will create a design for such an automated process, research how to establish inward links and explore the advantages and disadvantages of publishing sensor metadata on the semantic web with a proof-of-concept implementation.

1.3 MOTIVATION

Sensor data ties together many different fields of research. On the one hand there is research on how to create the most efficient sensor networks that uses the least amount of power to transfer the observed data over long distances [Korteweg et al., 2007; Xiang et al., 2013]. This involves academic fields such as mathematics, physics and electrical engineering. On the other hand there is research that uses sensor data to gain insights into real world phenomenon. This involves academic fields such as geography, environmental studies and urbanism. In order to connect these scientific fields, studies have focused on the use of computer science and standardisation for transferring sensor data over the internet.

In the future more sensor data is expected to be produced [Price Waterhouse Coopers, 2014]. Both experts and non-experts will be involved in this development. Experts will produce more data because of European legislation (INSPIRE). Non-experts will be involved more often via smart cities and IoT developments where users or consumer electronics produce sensor data as well. This vast amount of data could be very useful for academic research, provided researchers are able to find the data they need online and are able to integrate and aggregate data from heterogeneous sources. Publishing sensor metadata on the semantic web could make it easier to find what you need through related data on the internet. Having a automated process for this and being able to seamlessly integrate and aggregate data from different sources could be of great use for research such as van der Hoeven et al. [2014], Van der Hoeven and Wandl [2015] and Theunisse [2015]. They are examples of studies that try to understand phenomenon in the built environment using sensor data. Currently data collection and processing takes up a large part of the research, while with the implementation of SWE standards and the use of the semantic web this might be significantly reduced.

Sensor data is becoming more important in the every day life of many people. Therefore, the gap between the logical data requests of users and the technical requests defined by sensor web protocols should be bridged. A logical sensor data request contains at least a geographical area, a type of observation and a time range. An example of a simple logical request is: The average air temperature per month over the last five years of sensors located in Delft. To translate this to a technical request specific knowledge is required about things like URIs, encodings, data models, service models and data formats. This thesis looks into the use of the semantic web to allow sensor data to be easily retrieved from the internet, by understanding the user's logical request and executing it automatically.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This thesis aims to design a method that uses the semantic web to improve sensor data discovery as well as the integration and aggregation of sensor data from multiple sources. The following question will be answered in this research:

To what extent can the semantic web improve the discovery, integration and aggregation of distributed sensor data?

Subquestions:

- To what extent can sensor metadata be automatically retrieved from any SOS?
- To what extent can sensor metadata from a SOS be automatically converted to linked data and published on the semantic web?
- What is an effective balance between the semantic web and the geo web in the chain of discovering, retrieving and processing sensor data?
- To what extent can already existing standards for retrieving data be (re)used for a service that supplies integrated and aggregated sensor data?

2 | RELATED WORK

A number of research topics are relevant for this thesis: how to use existing standards for publishing sensor data to the semantic web, developing ontologies that are suitable for many different kinds of sensor data and how to aggregate sensor data based on geographical features and time. This chapter discusses the recent relevant literature on these topics. However, first it will introduce the Sensor Web Enablement suite of standards and the semantic web.

2.1 SENSOR WEB ENABLEMENT

Botts et al. [2007] present Sensor Web Enablement (SWE), which is a suite of standards developed by OGC. It contains two parts: the information model and the service model. The information model includes O&M, SensorML and SWE common. O&M defines the data model and encoding for observation data and SensorML defines the data model and encoding for sensor metadata. SWE common is a low-level data model for exchanging sensor related data. The service model contains the SOS, Sensor Planning Service (SPS), Sensor Alert Service (SAS) and Web Notification Service (WNS). A SOS can be used to retrieve observation data, a SPS to plan actions of a sensor, and a SAS to receive alerts about subscribed events. With a WNS users can have asynchronous dialogues (message interchanges) with one or more other services. Recently the SensorThings API has been added to the list of SWE services (see <http://ogc-iot.github.io/ogc-iot-api/index.html>). The SensorThings API is a service for retrieving observation data and sensor metadata for IoT applications. This thesis focusses on O&M, SensorML and SOS. The following paragraphs will therefore described these standards in more detail.

2.1.1 Observation and measurements

In the Observations and Measurements (O&M) data model an observation is modelled using a number of concepts. First of all, there is a feature of which sensor data is wanted. This is the so-called Feature of Interest (FOI). This feature has a property that can be observed, also known as an observable property. For example, the air at a certain location (FOI) has a certain temperature (observable property). A FOI can also be a geographical feature such as a river or a forest area. O&M uses the concept of FOI rather than the sensor location, because for some observations the exact location may not be trivially available. Furthermore, specific specimens are in some cases removed from their sampling location and observed at another location afterwards. This would create problems when defining a location of observation, hence the use of Feature of Interests in the O&M data model. An observation is defined as the “act of measuring or otherwise determining the value of a property” [ISO, 2011, p. 3]. The observation uses a procedure, which is a

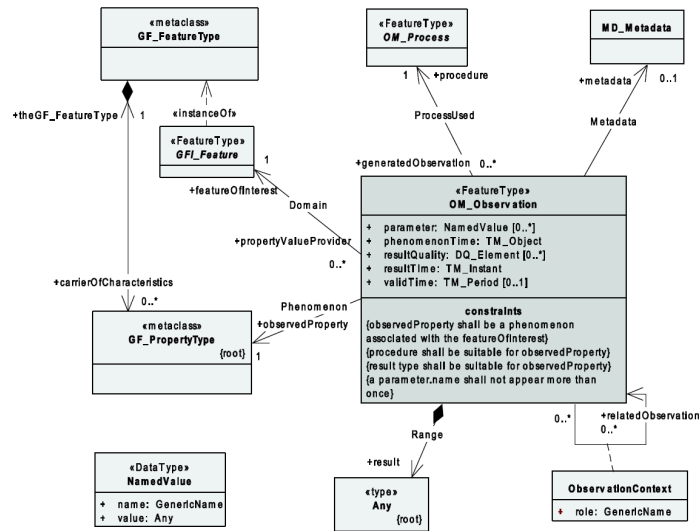


Figure 2.1: Basic observation in the O&M data model [ISO, 2011, p. 9]

method, algorithm or instrument, or system of these. A procedure can therefore be a sensor, an algorithm processing the raw observation data and/or a system of sensors observing a property of the FOI. The output of the procedure is a result. The result consists of a value and a corresponding Unit of Measurement (UOM). For example: 15 (value) degrees Celcius (UOM).

A procedure can produce many results about the same FOI over time. Therefore, three temporal concepts have been modelled: result time, phenomenon time and valid time. The result time is the timestamp of the observation result, or in other words: the moment the observation result became available. It is not necessarily the time that corresponds to the phenomenon, depending on when the observation procedure is performed (specimens can be taken from a sampling location and observed later) and the amount of time it takes to perform a procedure. Therefore, the phenomenon time describes the time that the observation applies to the property of the FOI. The valid time is a time range that indicates when an observation is a valid indication of the property of the FOI. When observing glacier motion at a speed of several meters per year an observation result might be valid for a day. On the other hand, observations with large fluctuations during the day might only be valid for a number of minutes up to an hour. This is the case for example with air quality observations in cities, that have large fluctuations with peaks during the rush hours.

Additional metadata about an observation can be added using the metadata class in the data model. To provide context about an observation the ‘related observations’ class has been added to the O&M model as well. Figure 2.1 shows the Unified Modeling Language (UML) diagram containing the different concepts explained in this paragraph and the relations between them.

2.1.2 SensorML

The Sensor Modelling Language (SensorML) aims to “provide a robust and semantically-tied means of defining processes and processing components associated with the measurement and post-measurement transformation of observations” [OGC, 2014, p. ix]. Creating interoperability at the syntactic and semantic level allows processes to be better understood by machines,

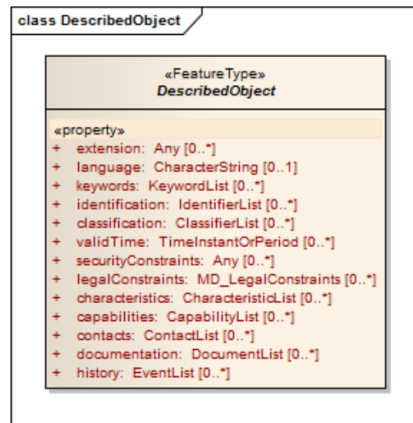


Figure 2.2: ‘DescribedObject’ class in SensorML [OGC, 2014, p. 39]

utilized automatically in complex workflows, and to be easily shared between intelligent sensor web nodes. SensorML is a framework that can be used to define the geometric, dynamic, and observational characteristics of sensors and sensor systems in order to achieve syntactic and semantic interoperability.

In SensorML there is a distinction between two types of processes: physical and non-physical processes. For a physical process information about the spatio-temporal position is important. This is the case with for example detectors, actuators, and sensor systems. Non-physical processes are mathematical operations or functions. A process is modelled as a specialisation of the ‘DescribedObject’ class. This class provides a set of metadata which are useful for all process classes in SensorML. Figure 2.2 shows the properties of a described object class instance. The ‘AbstractProcess’ class is derived from the described object and includes the properties: inputs, outputs, parameters, typeOf, featureOfInterest, configuration and modes. This forms the basis for defining both physical and non-physical processes.

Although SensorML is not dependent on O&M the result of a process modelled by SensorML is typically considered as an observation result. This is the case if it is measuring a physical property or phenomenon. Therefore, the output values described in SensorML and resulting from a sensor or process may be encoded as an O&M Observation. Inversely, the procedure property of an O&M Observation instance can be described using SensorML [OGC, 2014].

2.1.3 Sensor observation service

There are three core requests that can be made to retrieve sensor (meta)data from a SOS: GetCapabilities, DescribeSensor and GetObservation. GetCapabilities returns a complete overview of what the SOS has to offer. The DescribeSensor request returns detailed information about individual sensors. These three core requests are mandatory in a SOS under the 2.0 specifications [Bröring et al., 2012]. There are also a number of optional extensions to a SOS: GetFeatureOfInterest, GetObservationById, InsertCapabilities, InsertObservation, InsertSensor, DeleteSensor, InsertResult, InsertResultTemplate and GetResultTemplate. Requests can be made as a HyperText Transfer Protocol (HTTP) GET request or a HTTP

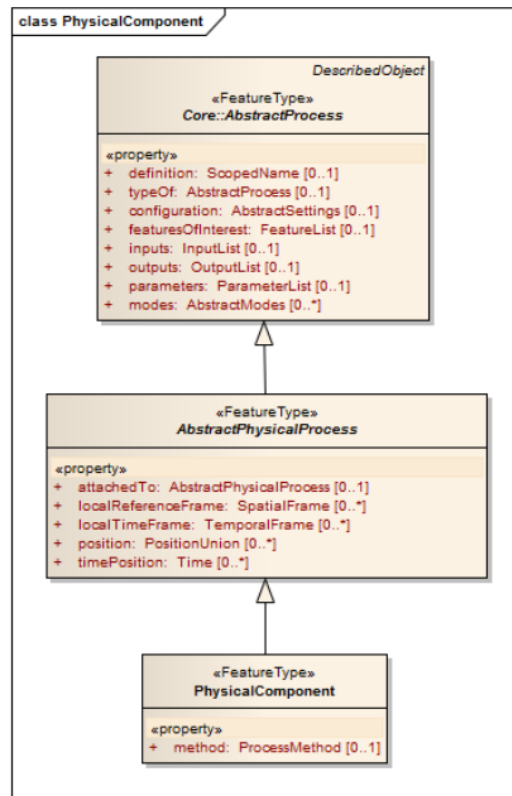


Figure 2.3: Definition of a physical process in SensorML [OGC, 2014, p. 57]

POST request. There can be different response formats, but there is always at least the option to retrieve the response as an XML document. Based on the specification by Bröring et al. [2012] the following paragraphs describe the core and optional requests of a SOS, as well as the structure of their responses.

Get capabilities

The `GetCapabilities` request is the first step in communicating with a SOS. The request is made by taking the HTTP address of the SOS and adding `service=SOS&request=GetCapabilities`. It returns a document including information on what the service has to offer. The document contains a number of sections: service identification, service provider, operations metadata, filter capabilities and contents.

In the service identification section there is general information about the service, such as the title and supported SOS versions, but also whether there are fees or access constraints. The service provider section contains details on which organisation provides the SOS and lists their contact information. The operations metadata section lists the supported request types. It also contains an overview of all features-of-interest, observed properties, procedures and offerings. Offerings are similar to layers in a WMS, grouping together observations collected by one procedure.

The contents section describes the data that can be retrieved, grouped in offerings. Each offering has an identifier, together with information on the procedure, observable properties and the feature-of-interest type. Which filters can be applied in a request is described in the filter capabilities section.

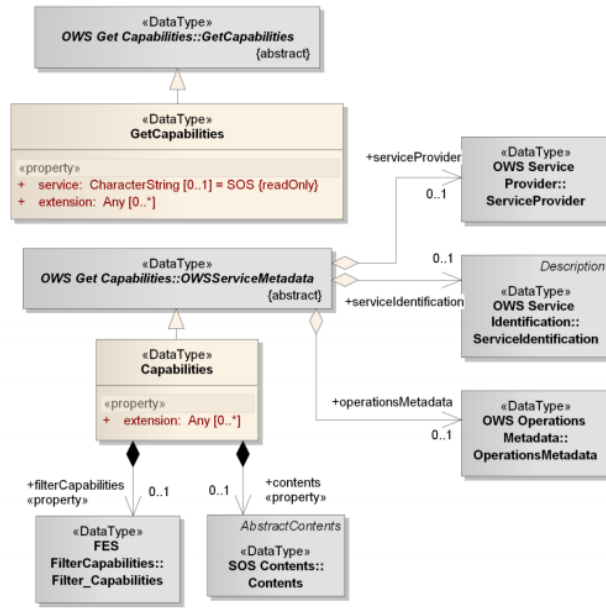


Figure 2.4: Data model behind the capabilities document of a SOS [Bröring et al., 2012]

The supported parameters for both spatial and temporal filters are listed here.

Describe sensor

The DescribeSensor request gives detailed information on a specific sensor. The request is built by taking the HTTP address of the SOS and adding `service=SOS&version=2.0.0&request=DescribeSensor&procedure=aprocedure&proceduredescriptionformat=aformat` where the procedure and procedure description format have to contain values defined in the capabilities document.

Get observation

Using GetObservation actual measurements can be retrieved. The request is made by taking the HTTP address of the SOS and adding `service=SOS&version=2.0.0&request=GetObservation`. This returns a response with the default parameters, which can differ from one SOS to another. To further specify the request, optional parameters can be added such as: observed property, procedure, feature-of-interest, offering and outputformat. Spatial and temporal filters can be added if these are supported by the service.

The GetObservationByID request is an extension that let's users retrieve an observation using an identifier that points to a certain observation.

Get feature of interest

The GetFeatureOfInterest request allows to retrieve information about the feature of interest of a certain observation. The response can be all features of interest or only ones that are related to a specific observed property, procedure or spatial filter. This request also allows logical operators, for example: "GetFeatureOfInterest (observedProperty := temperature AND procedure := thermometerX OR anemometerY)" [Bröring et al., 2012, p.

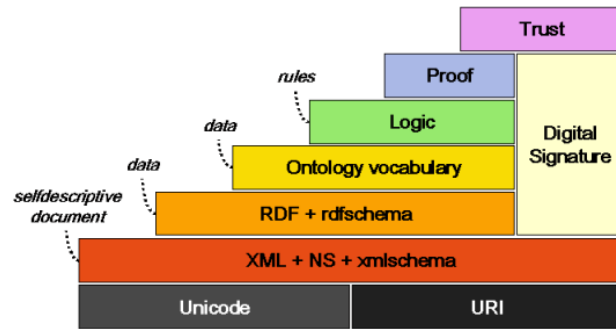


Figure 2.5: Hierarchy of the semantic web [Koivunen and Miller, 2002]

40]. The response is a document with ‘GFI.features’ (ISO 19109) [International Organisation for Standardisation, 2005], which are implemented in the Geography Markup Language (GML) (ISO 19136) [International Organisation for Standardisation, 2007] by the element `gml:AbstractFeature` and type `gml:AbstractFeatureType` [ISO, 2011, p. 38].

Transactional extensions

It is possible to update the content of a SOS using transactional request. There are six of these requests that could be implemented: `InsertCapabilities`, `InsertObservation`, `InsertSensor`, `DeleteSensor`, `InsertResultTemplate` and `InsertResult`. `InsertCapabilities` allows a request to add data to the capabilities document described in Paragraph 2.1.3. The request contains three mandatory parameters and one optional parameter: it is required to have the `procedureDescriptionFormat`, `FeatureOfInterestType` and `ObservationType`. Optionally, `SupportedEncoding` could be added to the request. An `InsertCapabilities` should be made in combination with a `InsertObservation`, `InsertSensor` or `InsertResult` request.

A `InsertResultTemplate` request allows to upload a template for result values. It should contain data about the offering, the observation template, the result structure and result encoding. The actual results can be added later using an `InsertResult` request. This request is different from the `InsertObservation` request, as it only inserts the result value of an observation, assuming that the metadata is already present in the SOS. This is useful when there is limited communication bandwidth and processing power. This request has two mandatory parameters: a pointer to the template and the observation value to be inserted. An `InsertObservation` request allows observations to be added to a registered sensor system. It also has two mandatory parameters: a pointer to an offering and the observation to be inserted.

Individual sensors can be inserted or deleted using `InsertSensor` and `DeleteSensor` requests. For inserting a sensor the following parameters are required: the procedure description format, a procedure description, the observable property, a feature of interest type and an observation type. For deleting a sensor an identifier that points to a specific sensor needs to be passed as a parameter.

Delft	is a	municipality
Subject	predicate	object

Delft	has geometry	POLYGON(x_1, y_1 x_2, y_2 ... x_n, y_n)
Subject	predicate	object

Figure 2.6: Triples of object, predicate and subject define Delft as a municipality with a geometry

2.2 SEMANTIC WEB

2.2.1 Resource Description Framework

For publishing geographic data on the semantic web a conversion of Shapefiles to RDF is required. For this the method by [Missier \[2015\]](#) will be used. First the Shapefile is loaded into a Postgres database with the Postgis extension. After that a Python script retrieves the records from the database. Attributes of the records will be mapped to classes from predefined ontologies. Then the script creates an RDF graph and serialises it to a certain RDF notation. This is written to a file. The final step is to publish the RDF on the web and create a SPARQL endpoint to query the data [[Missier, 2015](#)].

In RDF data is stored as so-called ‘triples’. These triples are structured as: subject, predicate and object [[Berners-Lee et al., 2001](#)]. The subject and the object are things and the predicate is the relation between these two things. For example, to define a geographic feature such as the municipality of Delft on the semantic web a number of triples can be made. Figure 2.6 shows how Delft can be defined as a municipality with a certain geometry using triples of subject, predicate and object.

Three types of data can make up these triples [[Manola et al., 2014](#)]. The first type is an International Resource Identifier (IRI). This is a reference to a resource and can be used for all positions of the triple. A Uniform Resource Locator (URL) is an example of an IRI, but IRIs can also refer to resources without stating a location or how it can be accessed. An IRI is a generalisation of an URI, and also allows non-ASCII characters. In the example of the municipality of Delft, IRIs can be used to define ‘Delft’ and ‘Municipality’, but also for the predicates ‘is a’ and ‘has geometry’. The second type of data is a literal. A literal is a value which is not an IRI, such as strings, numbers or dates. These values can only be used as object in a triple. In the example of Delft, a literal could be used to store the actual geometry of the boundary: POLYGON((x_1, y_1 x_2, y_2 ... x_n, y_n , x_1, y_1)). A literal value can have a datatype specification [[Cyganiak et al., 2014](#)]. This is added to the literal with the `^^` symbols, followed by the IRI of the datatype specification. In Figure 2.7 the datatype is ‘geo:wktLiteral’.

Sometimes it is useful to refer to things without assigning them with a global identifier. The third type is the blank node and can be used as an subject or object without using an IRI or literal [[Manola et al., 2014](#)].

2.2.2 Notation

There are a number of different notations for writing down these triples (serialisation), such as XML [[Gandon and Schreiber, 2014](#)], N3 [[Berners-Lee and Connolly, 2011](#)] and Turtle [[Beckett et al., 2014](#)]. Turtle will be used in this thesis, because it is commonly used notation which is also relatively

```
PREFIX geo: <http://www.opengis.net/ont/geosparql#>
<http://example.com/Delft> a <http://dbpedia/resource/Municipality> ;
  geo:hasGeometry " <http://www.opengis.net/def/crs/EP5G/0/4258> POLYGON(( x1 y1, x2 y2, ... xn yn, x1 y1 ))"^^geo:wktLiteral
```

Figure 2.7: Triples of Figure 2.6 in the Turtle notation

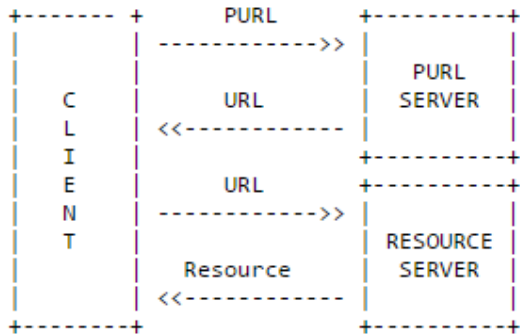


Figure 2.8: Persistent Uniform Resource Locator (PURL) resolves to the current resource location [Shafer et al., 2016]

easy to read for humans. The DBPedia IRI is used for the object ‘Municipality’. The ‘is a’ predicate is represented by a built-in RDF predicate which can be written simple as ‘a’. The second predicate is ‘hasGeometry’ for which the GeoSPARQL IRI is used. The geometry is a literal in the Well-Known Text (WKT) format. Note that the subject is only written once when there are multiple triples with the same subject. Triples that shares the same subject are divided by semicolons. A point marks the end of the last triple with a specific subject.

2.2.3 Persistent Uniform Resource Locators

URLs are an essential part of the web. However, if an URL changes the existing links towards this URL are broken. To prevent this Persistent Uniform Resource Locators (PURLs) are being used. A Persistent Uniform Resource Locator is a “naming and resolution service for general Internet resources” [Shafer et al., 2016]. This allows organisations to change the location of their data without changing the URL to which can be linked. A PURL server receives the URL and redirects the client to the current location of the resource. If the location of the resource changes, the server can be informed. It will then redirect clients to the new location (Figure 2.8).

2.3 SENSOR METADATA IN CATALOGUE SERVICES

The OGC has developed a way of including sensors into a catalogue service using sensor registries. The different services related to this are described in this paragraph, starting with the Catalog Service for the Web (CSW), after which the Sensor Observable Registry (SOR) and Sensor Instance Registry (SIR) services will be presented.

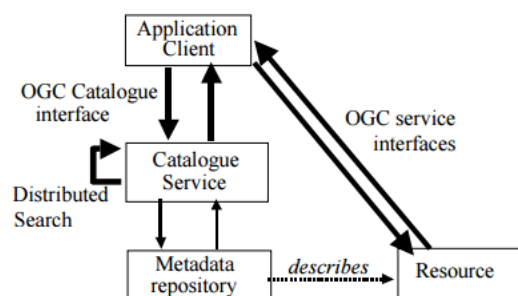


Figure 2.9: CSW model architecture [Open Geospatial Consortium, 2007, p. 26]

2.3.1 Catalog service for the web

The CSW is an OGC standard for a geoweb service that contains “collections of descriptive information (metadata) for data, services, and related information objects” [Open Geospatial Consortium, 2007, p. xiv]. Figure 2.9 shows the intermediary role of this service between client and data sources. It also shows that the CSW can use data from three different sources to return to a client: a local metadata repository, a resource service, or another CSW. The resource service can use an OGC interface, but this is not required.

The CSW has the following requests for retrieving metadata: `GetCapabilities`, `DescribeRecord`, `GetDomain`, `GetRecords` and `GetRecordByID`. Metadata producers can use the `Transaction` and `Harvest` requests to respectively change or add content of a CSW. The `GetCapabilities` request returns a capabilities document to the client showing what the service has to offer. This request and response is required for all OGC geoweb services and contains sections such as: service identification, service provider, operations metadata and filter capabilities. The service identification section lists general information about the service, such as the title and supported CSW versions, but also whether there are fees or access constraints. The service provider section contains details on which organisation provides the SOS and lists their contact information. The operations metadata section lists the supported request types. The filter capabilities show the different filters that are supported by the CSW instance.

The `DescribeRecord` request allows the client to retrieve a description of (a part of) the information model inside the catalog service. Parameters for namespaces or type names can be added to retrieve a part of the information model. The optional `GetDomain` request can be used to retrieve information about the range of values for a metadata record element or request parameter. A `GetRecords` request can be made to search for and retrieve catalogue records or to see if they are present. The query element is the encoding for the search part of the `GetRecords`. The constraint parameter contains the query element and the constrain language parameter set the language that is being used to make the query. To see whether a record is present the `outputSchema` parameter and the `‘ElementName’` or `‘ElementSetName’` parameter(s) should be used. The `GetRecordsByID` request returns records using their identifier.

The `Transaction` request can be used to create, modify and delete catalogue records. HTTP GET requests using Key-Value Pair (KVP) are not supported for this operation, because it is not a convenient way to encode the transaction payloads. Instead POST requests should be used exclusively

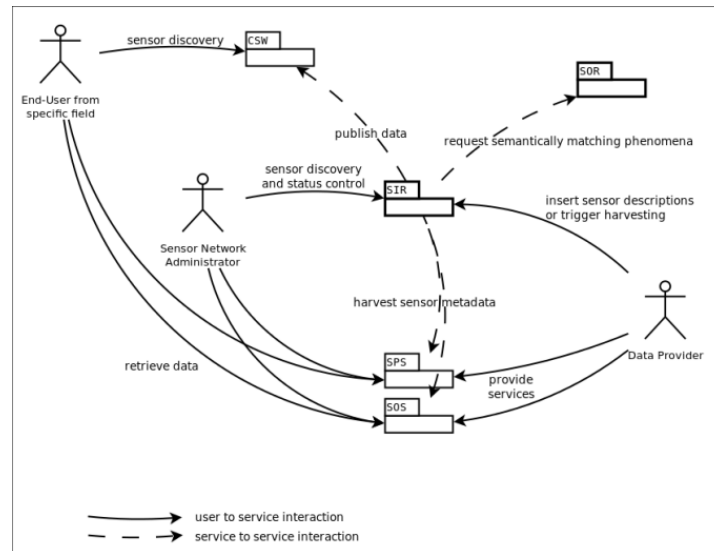


Figure 2.10: Overview of the interaction between CSW, SIR, SOR and potential users [52 North, 2016]

for this. The transaction element in the request contains the type of action: insert, update and/or delete.

2.3.2 Sensor observable registry

The SOR is “a web service interface for managing the definitions of phenomena measured by sensors as well as exploring semantic relationships between these phenomena” [Jirka and Bröring, 2009, p. vi]. This is a web service developed by OGC to enable semantic reasoning on sensor networks, especially concerning phenomenon definitions. This should make it easier to discover sensors that observe a certain phenomenon and to interpret sensor data.

The SOR has four different requests: *GetCapabilities*, *GetDefinitionURNs*, *GetDefinition* and *GetMatchingDefinitions*. The *GetCapabilities* request provides an overview of what the SOR has to offer. The capabilities document that is returned to the client contains four sections. These sections are required for every OGC geoweb service and the first three are the same as described in Paragraph 2.3.1. The fourth section is the content section. This part of the capabilities document contains the following information: the number of entries inside the SOR instance, keywords describing the content of the SOR instance, the application domain for which a specific SOR can be applied and an ‘ontologyRepositoryURL’. This URL points to a repository that contains an ontology used by this SOR.

GetDefinitionURNs returns a list of Uniform Resource Names (URNs) identifying the definitions that are present in the SOR. Optionally a client can add a ‘SearchSensor’ parameter to filter URNs. This parameter takes a substring that shall occur within the definition URNs to be returned. Also, a maximum limit for the amount of returned URNs can be added using the ‘maxNumberOfResults’ parameter. The optional parameter ‘startResultElement’ can be used to input the number of the first returned result element. For retrieving the definition of a specific URN a *GetDefinition* request can be made. This request takes an URN of the phenomenon for which a def-

inition should be retrieved as input. The definition is returned as a GML dictionary entry.

`GetMatchingDefinitions` allows clients to retrieve definitions of observables which in some way are related to another given phenomenon. The relations ‘generalization’, ‘specialization’ and ‘equivalency’ are currently supported for finding matching definitions [Jirka and Bröring, 2009] and have to be specified in the request using the ‘matchingtype’ parameter. This parameter can take one of three values: `SUPER.CLASS`, `EQUIVALENT.CLASS` or `SUB.CLASS`. Additionally, the request can have the ‘searchDepth’ parameter, which represents the maximum amount of steps that are allowed in case of a transitively related phenomena.

2.3.3 Sensor instance registry

Another web service interface specification by OGC is SIR. SIR is aimed at “managing the metadata and status information of sensors” [Jirka and Nüst, 2010, p. xii]. The goal of this web service is to close the gap between metadata models based on `SensorML`, which is used in SWE, and the metadata model used in OGC catalogue services. Furthermore, it provides functionalities to discover sensors, to harvest sensor metadata from a SOS, to handle status information about sensors and to link SIR instances to OGC catalogue services.

There are 14 different requests that can be made at a SIR. First of all, there is the `GetCapabilities` request, which provides an overview of what the service has to offer. For searching and retrieving sensor metadata there are the `SearchSensor` and `DescribeSensor` requests.

The `HarvestService` request allows to retrieve all metadata from an SWE service.

Transactions for individual sensors can be made using `InsertSensorInfo`, `DeleteSensorInfo` and `UpdateSensorDescription`.

Sensor status information can be managed using `GetSensorStatus`, `SubscribeSensorStatus`, `RenewSensorStatusSubscription`, `CancelSensorStatusSubscription` and `InsertSensorStatus`.

Managing the connection between a SIR and a OGC catalog can be done using `ConnectToCatalog` and `DisconnectFromCatalog` requests [Jirka and Nüst, 2010].

2.4 SEMANTIC SENSOR DATA MIDDLEWARE

Henson et al. [2009] and Pschorr [2013] suggest adding semantic annotations to a SOS which they call Semantically Enabled SOS (Sem-SOS). In Sem-SOS the raw sensor data goes through a process of semantic annotating before it can be requested with a SOS service. The retrieved data is still an XML document, but with embedded semantic terminology as defined in an ontology. The data retrieved from Sem-SOS is therefore semantically enriched.

Pschorr et al. [2010] has created a prototype that is able to find sensors from a SOS using linked data. The user can input a location and find sensors that are located nearby. They acknowledge the advantages of linked data over a catalogue service. However, the method presented by Pschorr et al. [2010] is still limited to retrieving sensors from a single source in a buffer around a point location.

Janowicz et al. [2013] has specified a method that uses a Representational State Transfer (REST)ful proxy as a façade for SOS. When a specific URI is requested the so-called Semantic Enablement Layer (SEL) translates this to a SOS request, fetches the data and translates the results back to RDF. In this method the sensor data is converted to RDF on-the-fly. This allows the data to be interpreted by both humans and machines.

Atkinson et al. [2015] have identified that “distributed heterogeneous data sources are a necessary reality in the case of widespread phenomena with multiple stakeholder perspectives” [Atkinson et al., 2015, p.129]. Therefore, they propose that methods should be developed to move away from the traditional dataset centric approaches and towards using linked data for cataloguing. This has the potential to bring together data and knowledge from different areas of research about the same (or similar) features-of-interest. It is also argued that using both linked data services and data-specific services could ease the transition into the linked data world.

2.5 SENSOR DATA ONTOLOGIES

Ontologies are necessary to provide meaning to data on the semantic web and to create semantic interoperability. Three recent efforts for developing a standard ontology for sensor data based on SWE standards will be discussed here.

2.5.1 Semantic sensor network ontology

W3C has developed an ontology for sensors and observations called the Semantic Sensor Network Ontology (SSNO). This ontology aims to address semantic interoperability on top of the syntactic operability that the SWE standards provide. To accommodate different definitions of the same concepts the broadest definitions have been used. Depending on the interpretation these can be further defined with subconcepts. The SSNO is based on the stimulus-sensor-observation pattern, describing the relations between a sensor, a stimulus and observations (Figure 2.11). Sensors are defined as “physical objects ... that observe, transforming incoming stimuli ... into another, often digital, representation”, stimuli are defined as “changes or states ... in an environment that a sensor can detect and use to measure a property” and observations are defined as “contexts for interpreting incoming stimuli and fixing parameters such as time and location” [Compton et al., 2012, p. 28]. The ontology can be used to model sensor networks from four different perspectives (sensor, observation, system, and feature & property), which they discuss together with additional relevant concepts.

2.5.2 Observation capability metadata model

Hu et al. [2014] have reviewed a number of metadata models (including SensorML and SSNO) for the use of earth observation (including remote sensing). They argue that all of the current metadata models are not sufficient for sensor data discovery. This conclusion is based on an evaluation of six criteria. Three steps were identified in the process of obtaining relevant sensor data for earth observation, which have been used to derive criteria for their evaluation framework. These steps are sensor filtration, sensor optimi-



Figure 2.11: The stimulus-sensor-observation pattern [Compton et al., 2012, p. 28]

sation and sensor dispatch. The filtration of sensors should result in a set of sensors that meets the requirements of the application: It should measure the right phenomenon, be active, be inside the spatial and temporal range, and have a certain sample interval. In sensor optimisation the selected sensors should be combined to complement or enhance each other. To do this, the observation quality, coverage and application is relevant. In the last step – sensor dispatch – the data should be retrieved, stored and transmitted. In every evaluated model the same sensors can be described in different ways or only partially, which affects the outcome of the sensor dispatch.

Therefore, a metadata model is proposed that “reuses and extends the existing sensor observation-related metadata standards” [Hu et al., 2014, p. 10546]. It is composed of five modules: observation breadth, observation depth, observation frequency, observation quality and observation data. They should be derived from metadata elements described using the Dublin Core metadata element set. These five modules can then be formalised following the SensorML schema which can be queried by users via a ‘Unified Sensor Capability Description Model-based Engine’.

2.5.3 Om-lite & sam-lite ontologies

Cox [2015b] has been working on new semantic ontologies based on O&M. Previous efforts, such as the SSNO have been using pre-existing ontologies and frameworks. However, there are already many linked data ontologies that could be useful for describing observation metadata, such as space and time concepts. Also, the SSNO does not take sampling features into account. Therefore, Cox [2015b] proposes two new ontologies: OWL for observations or om-lite [Cox, 2015a], which defines the concepts from O&M regarding observations and OWL for sampling features or sam-lite, which defines the sampling feature concepts [Cox, 2015d]. A mapping of the SSNO to om-lite is also provided.

Cox [2015b] describes how the PROV ontology [Lebo et al., 2013] can be directly used inside om-lite. The PROV ontology is “concerned with the production and transformation of Entities through time-bounded Activities, under the influence or control of Agents” [Cox, 2015b, p. 12]. This is a very convenient ontology for modelling real world entities, such as sensors, observation processes and sampling processes. Many other ontologies could be implemented in combination with om-lite and sam-lite, depending on

the kind of observations that are being modelled and the data publisher's preference.

2.6 SENSOR DATA AGGREGATION

Sensor data aggregation can be performed for two purposes: To reduce the energy constraint of sensor networks [Korteweg et al., 2007] or to sample a feature-of-interest in space and/or time [INSPIRE, 2014]. Sampling is performed when a feature-of-interest is not accessible, in which case "observations are made on a subset of the complete feature, with the intention that the sample represents the whole" [Cox, 2015a]. Stasch et al. [2011a] proposes a Web Processing Service (WPS) that retrieves sensor data from a SOS service in order to aggregate it based on features-of-interest. The approach by Stasch et al. [2011b] is similar, but takes sensor data as input that is already published on the semantic web.

Ganesan et al. [2004] stresses that spatio-temporal irregularities are fundamental to sensor networks. Irregular sampling can have a potentially large influence on the accuracy of the aggregated outcome. For example, averaging sensor data from a feature-of-interest that is being sampled densely in some parts and more sparsely in other parts could lead to inaccurate results. To counter this the values of the densely sampled area should have a lower weight than the values from the sparsely sampled area. The same holds true for temporal irregularities [Ganesan et al., 2004]. Also, Stasch et al. [2014] argue that in order for automatic aggregation to work there needs to be semantics on which kind of aggregation methods are appropriate for a specific kind of sensor data. Not all kinds of aggregation are meaningful (e.g. taking the sum of temperature values). This requires a formalisation of expert knowledge which they call semantic reference systems.

3

METHODOLOGY

A number of studies related to this thesis have been reviewed in Chapter 2. This chapter discusses why the semantic web will be used for linking sensor metadata and which methods will be used to achieve this. The SWE standards, the om-lite and sam-lite ontologies, and RDF will be described. Also a brief overview of the data use for this thesis is presented.

3.1 SENSOR METADATA ON THE SEMANTIC WEB

Sem-SOS [Henson et al., 2009; Pschorr, 2013] as well as SEL [Janowicz et al., 2013] focus on combining the sensor web with the semantic web, but do not address the integration and aggregation of sensor data. Similarly, Atkinson et al. [2015] proposes to expose sensor data to the semantic web in order to find other kinds of related data about the same feature-of-interest. Data that can be collected for another area of research. However, Atkinson et al. [2015] do not mention the integration of complementary sensor data from heterogeneous sources either. Stasch et al. [2011b] and Stasch et al. [2011a] suggest interesting methods for aggregating sensor data based on features-of-interest. However, also these studies use sensor data from only a single source into account. Moreover, Corcho and Garcia-Castro [2010] and Ji et al. [2014] argue that methods for integration and fusion of sensor data on the semantic web is still an area for future research. Data fusion is “a data processing technique that associates, combines, aggregates, and integrates data from different sources” [Wang et al., 2015a, p. 2].

Jirka and Nüst [2010] and Jirka and Bröring [2009] present methods for including SOS services in an OGC catalogue service using SOR and SIR. Making sensor metadata available in a catalogue service will improve the discovery. However, discovery through the semantic web is likely to be more effective, since links can be created towards the sensor data from many different sources of related information. Another advantage is that links can be created by everybody that publishes linked data on the web, allowing sensor data to be used for implementations that were not identified beforehand by the publisher. Also, the semantic web will be easier to access, while the catalogue service can only be requested at a certain URL which has to be known to potential users.

Since data on the web has a distributed nature it can be questioned whether centralised catalogue services are feasible to create. It places a burden on the owner of the SOS to register with a catalogue service. Also, there could be multiple of these services on the web creating issue regarding the discovery of relevant catalogues. The semantic web could solve this issue by getting rid of the ‘dataset-centric’ approach and adding metadata directly to the web instead.

3.2 SEMANTIC WEB AND THE INTERNET OF THINGS

Barnaghi, Payam and Wang, Wei and Henson, Cory and Taylor, Kerry [2012] describe how the semantic web could be of great importance for the IoT. Jazayeri, Mohammad Ali and Liang, Steve HL and Huang, Chih-Yuan [2015] describe the SOS as one of the protocols that IoT devices could use.

3.3 GEOSPARQL & STSPARQL

GeoSPARQL “defines a vocabulary for representing geospatial data in RDF, and it defines an extension to the SPARQL query language for processing geospatial data” [Perry and Herring, 2012, p. xvi]. It allows for defining geometric data in RDF and performing spatial queries. The Dimensionally Extended Nine-Intersection Model (DE-9IM) [Strobl, 2008] has been implemented to find topological relations between two geometries. GeoSPARQL has been implemented in the ‘Parliament’ SPARQL endpoint [Battle and Kolas, 2012]. The Strabon endpoint uses stRDF, which is “a constraint data model that extends RDF with the ability to represent spatial and temporal data” [Koubarakis and Kyzirakos, 2010, p. 425]. The stRDF model can be queried using stSPARQL, which syntax is similar to GeoSPARQL (listing 3.1 & 3.2). Both extensions of SPARQL use filter expressions to perform spatial operations on WKT or GML geometries. The definition of geometries and the syntax of the filter expression differ slightly.

Listing 3.1: A GeoSPARQL query to find the names of features that contain a point geometry

```
PREFIX geo: <http://www.opengis.net/ont/geosparql#>
PREFIX geof: <http://www.opengis.net/def/function/geosparql/>
PREFIX foaf: <http://xmlns.com/foaf/0.1/>

SELECT
?name
WHERE {
?feature geo:hasGeometry ?geom .
?feature foaf:name ?name.
FILTER
    (geof:sfContains(?geom,"<http://www.opengis.net/def/crs/EPSG/0/4258>
    POINT(4.289244 52.027337)"^^geo:wktLiteral))
}
```

Listing 3.2: A stSPARQL query to find the names of features that contain a point geometry

```
PREFIX strdf: <http://strdf.di.uoa.gr/ontology#>
PREFIX foaf: <http://xmlns.com/foaf/0.1/>

SELECT
?name
WHERE {
?feature strdf:hasGeometry ?geom .
?feature foaf:name ?name.
FILTER (?geom contains "POINT(4.289244
    52.027337);<http://www.opengis.net/def/crs/EPSG/0/4258>"^^strdf:WKT)
}
```

3.4 ONTOLOGIES

When publishing data on the semantic web, ontologies are required to specify what things are and how they relate to other things. The evaluation of observation metadata ontologies by [Hu et al. \[2014\]](#) is interesting, since it exposes what the relevant aspects are in the process of observation discovery. However, their proposed model focusses mainly on including remote sensing and imagery data in metadata models that were not originally created for this kind of data. The SSNO is an ontology that clearly describes the process between sensor, stimulus and observation. However, [Cox \[2015b\]](#) points out that an important aspect of describing a sensor network is missing in this ontology: the sampling. Also, the om-lite and sam-lite ontologies by [Cox \[2015b\]](#) are lightweight ontologies that can be complemented by already existing linked data ontologies. They do not rely on the (heavy) ISO specifications that date from before the semantic web, unlike the SSNO. The om-lite and sam-lite ontologies will therefore be used in this thesis.

The SOS has a number of metadata attributes such as the service provider's details (including contact information), its spatial and temporal extent (spatialFilter & temporalFilter) and the capabilities to query a subset of this extent. It receives data from a sensor which makes observations. An observation can be defined as "an action whose result is an estimate of the value of some property of the feature-of-interest, obtained using a specified procedure" [[Cox, 2015a](#)]. The sensor is placed at a sampling point. The sampling point is part of a sampling feature which intends to resemble the feature-of-interest. In the case of air quality the feature-of-interest is the bubble of air surrounding the sensor, therefore the sampling point equals the feature-of-interest [[INSPIRE, 2014](#)]. The design is that an observation of the sampling feature describes the feature-of-interest through measuring one of its properties. The measurement procedure is described by a short string of text, input and output parameters and the units of measurement of the output. The relation between feature-of-interest and administrative units is added to improve the discovery of sensor data on the semantic web.

To publish data on the semantic web ontologies are required to specify the different classes and their relations. An ontology for static geographic data has to be connected to an ontology for sensor metadata. From the UML diagram in Figure ?? the classes Observation, Process, ObservedProperty and FeatureOfInterest can be mapped to classes belonging to OWL for observations [[Cox, 2015c](#)]. SamplingFeature and Sampling point can be mapped to classes from OWL for sampling features [[Cox, 2015d](#)]. GeoSPARQL can be used for the administrativeUnit class [[Perry and Herring, 2012](#)] and the PROV ontology for the sensor and sensor observation service classes [[W3C Semantic Sensor Network Incubator Group, 2011](#)].

3.5 WEB PROCESSING SERVICE

The OGC Web Processing Service is a standard interface for making simple or complex computational processing services accessible as web services. Originally, it has been created with spatial processes in mind, but it can also

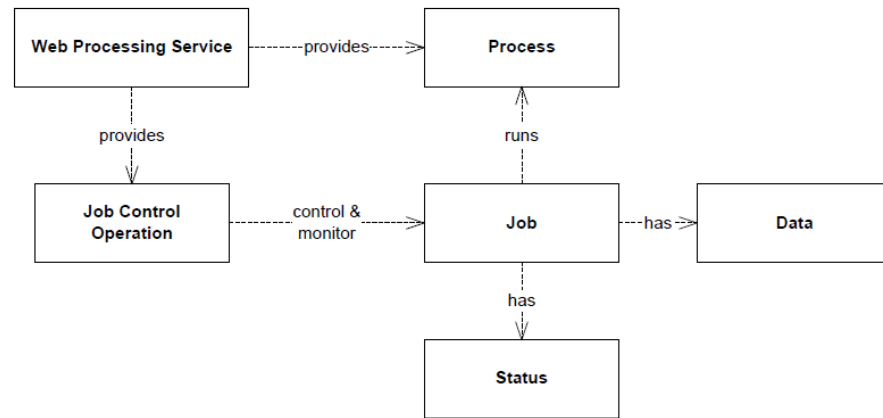


Figure 3.1: Artifacts of the WPS service model [Open Geospatial Consortium, 2015, p. 15]

be used to insert non-spatial processing into a web services environment [Open Geospatial Consortium, 2015, p. 8]. Via the WPS jobs can be controlled and monitored, which run certain processes (Figure 3.1). Similar to WFS, WPS and SOS, the WPS has requests for retrieving metadata: GetCapabilities and DescribeProcess. On top of that there is the Execute request to execute a process, and a number of other requests for various purposes: GetStatus, GetResult and Dismiss. All requests will be briefly described in this paragraph.

3.5.1 Get Capabilities

All OGC web services give an overview of what they have to offer using the so-called GetCapabilities request. The request can be made by taking the HTTP address of the WPS and adding: `service=wps&request=getcapabilities`. This returns a document with information about the service metadata, the basic process offerings, and available processes. Figure shows the model of this capabilities document. The service identification section of the document gives a description of the service, including the versions that it supports and potential fees or access constraints. The service provider section gives information about the organisation or people who maintain the WPS and also includes their contact information. The operations metadata lists the different requests that are implemented in this particular WPS and the HTTP addresses to which the GET and POST requests can be send to. The content section of the capabilities document provides an overview of the available process offerings. For every process an identifier, title and description are listed. Optionally an extensions section can be added that describes additional service capabilities. At the end of the document the language section lists the languages that are supported and the default language that is being used. An example of an capabilities document can be found in Appendix A.1

3.5.2 Describe Process

A more detailed description of a process listed in the capabilities document of the WPS can be retrieved using the DescribeProcess request. This

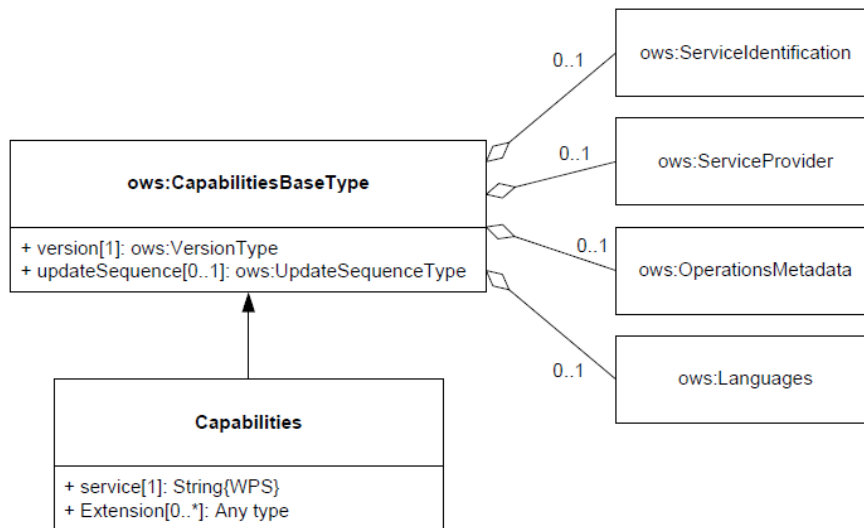


Figure 3.2: UML model of WPS capabilities document [Open Geospatial Consortium, 2015, p. 70]

request requires the identifier of the process to be passed as a parameter. Optionally, a specific language can be requested for the response document (from the list of available languages in the capabilities document). The process description includes information about input parameters and output data, such as their identifiers, data type, mime types or default values. A describe sensor request can be made by putting the base address of the WPS and adding: `service=wps&version=1.0.0&request=describeprocess&identifier=an_identifier` where the version parameter should be in accordance with the supported version(s) from the capabilities document and the identifier should be taken from the process offerings section of the capabilities document. An example of an describe sensor response document can be found in Appendix A.2

3.5.3 Execute

A WPS process can be started using the Execute request. To make this request the HTTP address of the WPS is extended with: `service=wps&version=1.0.0&request=execute&identifier=GetSensors` where the version parameter should be in accordance with the supported version(s) from the capabilities document and the identifier should be taken from the process offerings section of the capabilities document. Additionally, the desired execution mode can be added to the request (synchronous, asynchronous or auto) as well as the desired output format (response document or raw data). By default the execution mode is set to 'document'.

Depending on the individual requirements of the process, input parameters can be added using `&DataInputs=[parameterName1=value1; parameterName2=value2]`. The parameter names are defined in the describe process response document, as well as the allowed values for each parameter. There are two kinds of input parameters that can be put in a Execute request: literal and complex data inputs. Literal data inputs can be a string of characters in consisting of different data types (e.g. Double, Inte-

ger, String), a given value range, and associated units (e.g. meters, degrees Celsius) [Open Geospatial Consortium, 2015, p. 36].

Complex data inputs are made for inputting complex vector-, raster- or other kind of data. This data can be inserted directly in the request or indirectly by referencing to a file. The process will then first retrieve this file from a remote server before running. A complex data input defines the allowed mime types that the process accepts.

When the process finishes an execute response document is retrieved. This document has a process section with the identifier, title and abstract of the finished process. It also contains a status section with the time the process ended and whether it finished successfully. If any output data has been produced an 'ProcessOutputs' section is created that contains the identifiers of the outputs and the corresponding data. An example of an execute response document can be found in Appendix A.3

3.5.4 Other requests

WPS processes can run synchronously or asynchronously. With a synchronous execution the connection with the client stays open until the process has finished. However, for processes that take longer to execute the asynchronous mode is better suited. The process will continue running after the connection has been closed. With a `GetStatus` request the client can check whether the process is still running. This request is structured the same as the execute request, but with the mode set to 'status'. Once it has finished the `GetResult` request allows the client to retrieve the output data. The `Dismiss` request can be made to communicate to the server that the client is no longer interested in the results of a job. This job will then be cancelled and its output deleted. A job identifier is a required parameter for all three of these requests.

3.6 DATA

A number of datasets have been used in this thesis. The following paragraphs will go over the different datasets, describing their sources and contents.

3.6.1 Vector data

Topography

The datasets of Dutch provinces (provincies, Figure 3.4) and municipalities (gemeenten, Figure 3.3) have been downloaded from <https://www.pdok.nl/nl/producten/pdok-downloads/basis-registratie-kadaster/bestuurlijke-grenzen-actueel>. For the Netherlands there are 12 features in the provinces and 393 in the municipalities dataset.

It has been challenging to obtain data of administrative boundaries of Belgium (even from the INSPIRE data portal). Therefore, all data for Belgium was retrieved from <http://www.gadm.org/>. There are also 12 features in the provinces (including the capitol region of Brussels) and there are 589 features in the municipalities dataset.

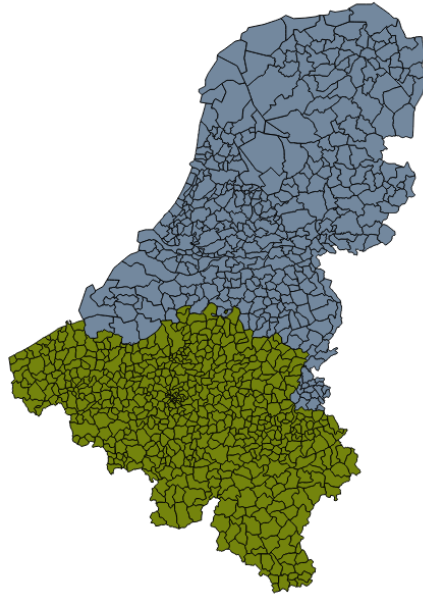


Figure 3.3: Dataset of municipalities in the Netherlands and Belgium in 2015 (from Dutch cadaster and GADM.org)

The country datasets have also been downloaded from <http://www.gadm.org/> (Figure 3.5). The administrative unit data contains the names of the administrative units and their (polygon) geometry.

Land cover

Data on land cover will be used to complement the data of administrative units. A section of the 2012 dataset from the Coordination of Information on the Environment (CORINE) programme will have been selected for this (Figure 3.6). The entire CORINE dataset was retrieved from <http://land.copernicus.eu/pan-european/corine-land-cover/clc-2012>. The features overlapping the Netherlands and Belgium have been retrieved from this dataset using the open source QGIS software and stored in a separate database in Postgres.

The database contains polygon geometries (Figure 3.7) with a unique identifier and a code that refers to the type of landcover. These codes can be looked up in the accompanied spreadsheet file containing the legend table of CORINE 2012.

3.6.2 Raster data

Data is often used in a raster representation for computations in a Geographical Information System (GIS). For natural phenomenon a raster representation is especially well suited. The European Environment Agency (EEA) reference grid is a standard grid which covers Europe. It is available with a resolution of 100km², 10km² and 1km². In this thesis the EEA grid cells with a resolution of 100km² (Figure 3.8) and 10km² (Figure 3.9) have been used that overlap the Netherlands and Belgium. 15 grid cells of 100km² and 843 grid cells of 10km² have been selected from the original dataset.

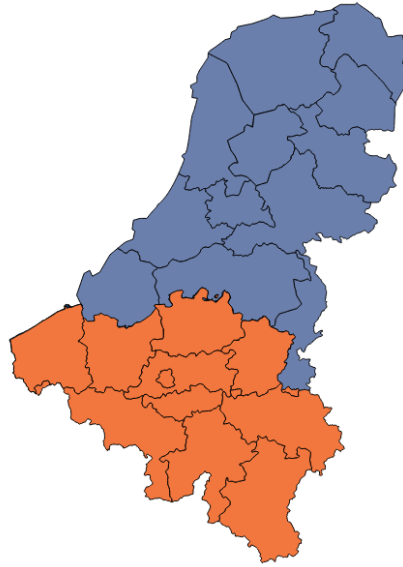


Figure 3.4: Dataset of provinces in the Netherlands and Belgium in 2015 (from Dutch cadaster and GADM.org)



Figure 3.5: Dataset of the Netherlands and Belgium in 2015 (from GADM.org)

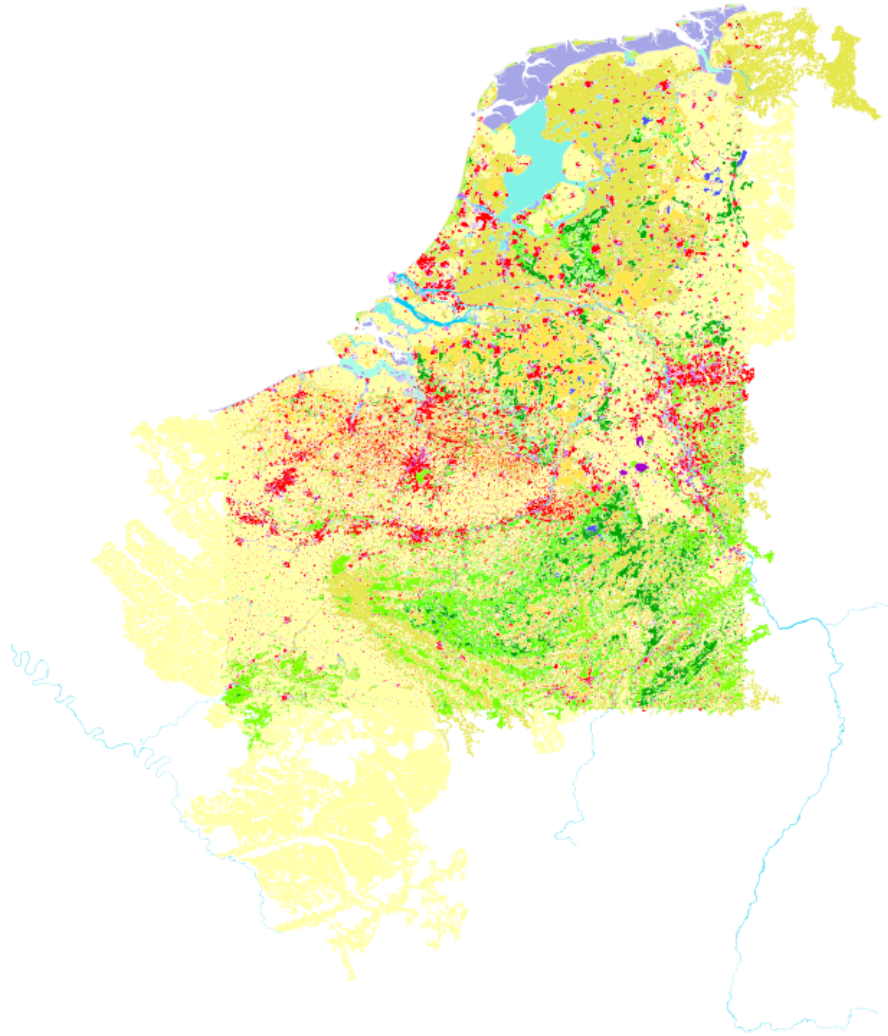


Figure 3.6: Dataset of landcover in the Netherlands and Belgium in 2012 (from Copernicus The European Earth Observation Programme)

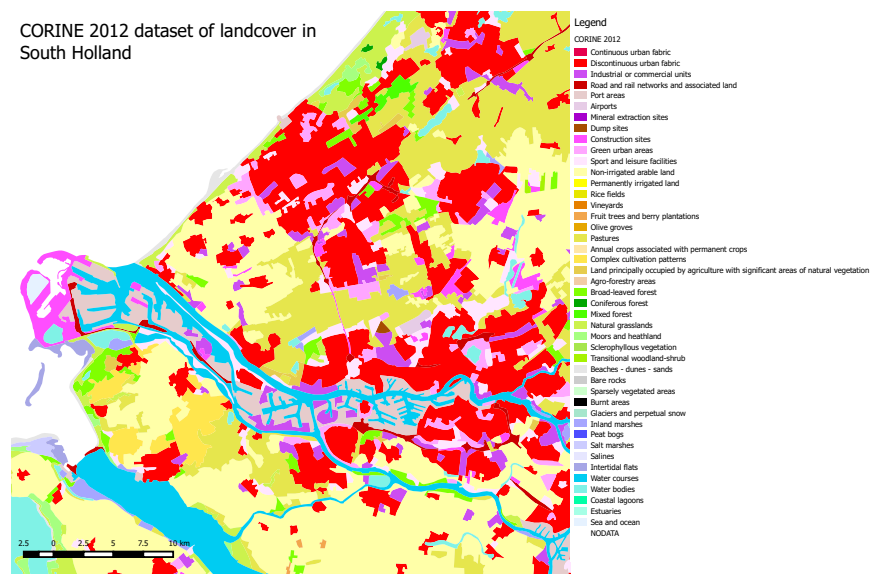


Figure 3.7: Landcover of the province of South Holland (subsection of the dataset from Figure 3.6)

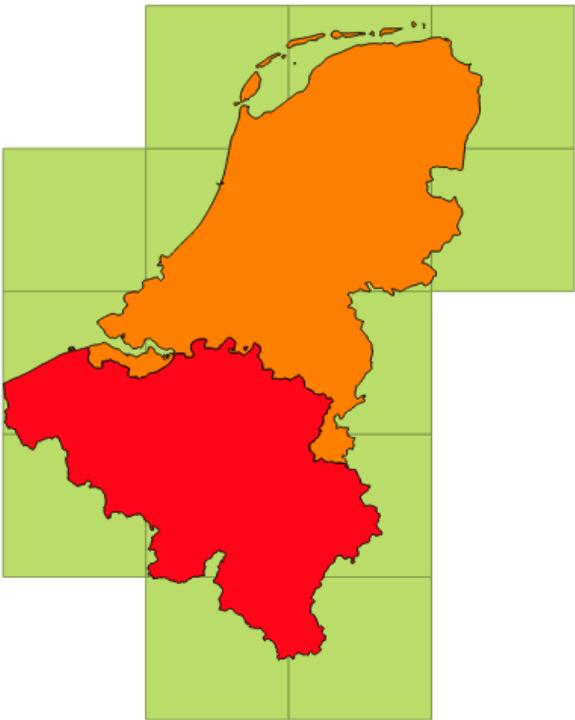


Figure 3.8: EEA reference grid cells with a resolution of 100km² overlapping the Netherlands and Belgium

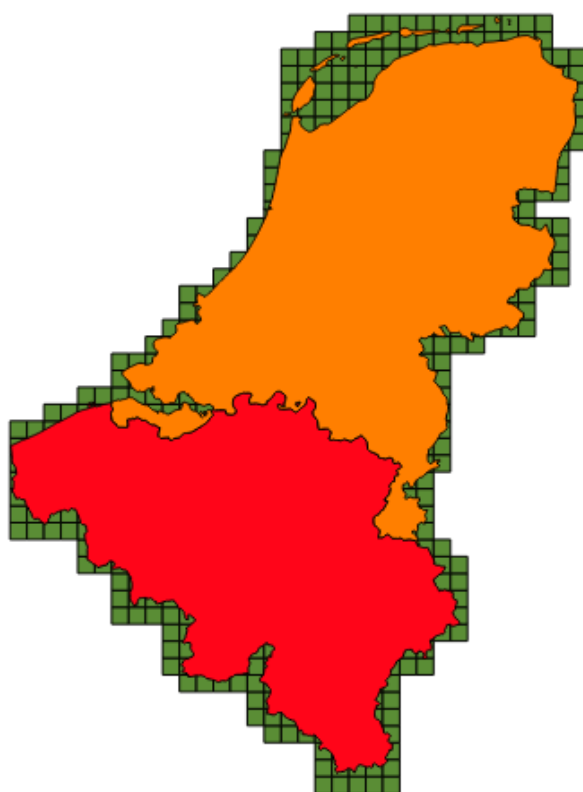


Figure 3.9: EEA reference grid cells with a resolution of 10km² overlapping the Netherlands and Belgium



Figure 3.10: Webmap by the RIVM showing their air quality sensor network (<http://www.lml.rivm.nl/meetnet>)

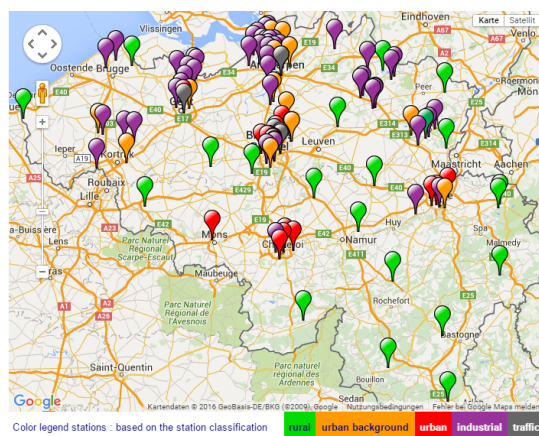


Figure 3.11: Webmap by IRCEL-CELINE showing their air quality sensor network (<http://www.irceline.be/en/air-quality/measurements/monitoring-stations/>)

3.6.3 Sensor data

Air quality sensor data will be used from the RIVM (<http://inspire.rivm.nl/sos/>) and from the Belgian interregional environment agency (IRCEL-CELINE) (<http://sos.irceline.be/>). Both of these organisations have a SOS where data can be retrieved according to the SWE standards. The one of the RIVM has been online since the 21st of August, 2015. IRCEL-CELINE already made the SOS available on the first of January, 2011. Figure 3.10 and Figure 3.11 show the sensor networks of both organisations. They provide different kinds of sensor data, such as particulate matter (PM_{10}), nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) and ozone (O_3). Figure 3.12 shows one of the sensor locations in the city center of Amsterdam.



Figure 3.12: Google Streetview image of RIVM sensor location in Amsterdam in 2015

4 | DESIGN

Proposed design using the methods are described in this chapter.

4.1 PREPARING LINKED DATA

Linked data has been prepared that is used to retrieve and process sensor data on the semantic web (Figure 4.1). This is done for vector data sets of administrative units and land cover features, and for raster data sets of EEA grids with a resolution of 10km² and 100km².

Three types of administrative units have been converted to linked data: countries, provinces and municipalities. Every administrative unit has a name, 'type' and (multi)polygon geometry assigned to it (Figure 4.1). The administrative unit type is defined by DBPedia URIs of country, province and municipality.

The CORINE 2012 land cover dataset contains features with an identifier, a land cover type and a (multi)polygon geometry (Figure 4.1). The identifier has the form of: 'EU-' plus a unique seven digit number. The land cover type is defined by a three digit number, which can be looked up in the provided spreadsheet containing the legend.

The EEA reference grid with resolutions of 10km² and 100km². Every feature is defined by an identifier, a resolution and a point geometry of the origin (Figure 4.1). The identifier is a code given to a feature by the EEA and has the form of: resolution + 'E' + x coordinate + 'N' + y coordinate.

4.2 PUBLISHING LINKED DATA

Setting up the Strabon (Figure 4.2), Apache Tomcat and Pubby software.

The Strabon and Parliament endpoint have been tested since they both handle GeoSPARQL queries. Strabon has been used in the final design, because the Parliament endpoint rejected certain longer queries (see 6.3).

Pubby software in combination with Apache Tomcat allows for a user interface that is easier to navigate through for humans. The links stored in RDF triples are represented as hyperlinks which can be used to navigate between pages about different concepts.

For creating Persistent Uniform Resource Locators the Purlz software (<http://www.purlz.org/>) has been used. All URIs that are created get a PURL assigned to it. The PURL resolves the URI to a DESCRIBE query at the endpoint. This query is structured as a get request: `http://localhost/strabon-endpoint-3.3.2-SNAPSHOT/Describe?submit=describe&view=HTML&handle=download&format=turtle&query=DESCRIBE<an.URI>`. The request has `/Describe?submit=describe` to call the script that deals with

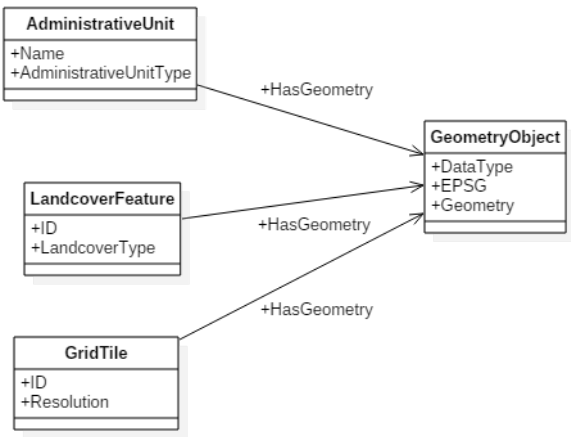


Figure 4.1: Model of vector and raster features

Table 4.1: Types of PURLs [Shafer et al., 2016]		
PURL Type	Meaning	HTTP Shorthand
301	Moved permanently to a target URL	Moved Permanently
302	Simple redirection to a target URL	Found
303	See other URLs (use for Semantic Web resources)	See Other
307	Temporary redirect to a target URL	Temporary Redirect
404	Temporarily gone	Not Found
410	Permanently gone	Gone

describe queries and to tell it that the request is also submitting this kind of query. The parameters ‘view=HTML&handle=download’ indicate that the end-point’s website is requested, but the returned data should be a download file instead of an HTML page. The parameter ‘&format=turtle’ sets the RDF notation of the download file to Turtle and ‘&query=DESCRIBE <an_URI>’ is the SPARQL query that contains the URI between brackets.

Every URI is written to an XML file with the parameters: ID, PURL type, and target address. Optionally, information about the person or organisation maintaining the PURL can be added. The ID is the original URI that is being resolved to the target address. The PURL type is set to 303, which means that it refers the client to the target address. Alternative types can be found in Table 4.1. After all URIs have been added to the so called XML ‘batch’ file [PURL, 2016], the file can be posted to the Purlz server.

Setting it up on the university server

4.3 RETRIEVING METADATA FROM THE SENSOR OBSERVATION SERVICE

The metadata is automatically retrieved from the SOS according to Figure 4.3. A SOS is maintained by an organisation, of which the name is retrieved, as well as whether they charge fees or have implemented access constraints for using the SOS. In most cases the use is free of charge and without access constraints. However, it is possible for an organisation to restrict the use of the SOS in these ways.

stSPARQL Endpoint

On this page you can execute stSPARQL queries against the Strabon backend. The acquired data are then annotated using the stRDF model and can be queried using the stSPARQL query language. On the left sidebar, some example stSPARQL queries to acquire information on the dataset, are provided.

You must be logged in to perform update queries, or run in localhost.

Discovery Queries

- Find all triples in the dataset.
- Select all distinct subjects that appear in the dataset.
- Select all distinct predicates that appear in the dataset.
- Select all distinct objects that appear in the dataset.
- Find all distinct classes of the dataset.
- Find the number of triples that appear in the dataset.
- Present the first ten triples of the dataset.

Explore/Modify operations

stSPARQL Query:

```
PREFIX lgs: <http://linkedgeodata.org/triplify/>
PREFIX lsdgeo: <http://www.w3.org/2003/01/geo/wgs84_pos#>
PREFIX lsdont: <http://linkedgeodata.org/ontology/>
PREFIX geonames: <http://www.geonames.org/ontology#>
PREFIX cll: <http://geo.linkedopendata.gr/corine/ontology#>
PREFIX gag: <http://geo.linkedopendata.gr/greekadministrativeregion/ontology#>
PREFIX geo: <http://www.opengis.net/ont/geosparql#>
PREFIX geof: <http://www.opengis.net/def/function/geosparql/>
PREFIX geor: <http://www.opengis.net/def/rule/geosparql/>
PREFIX strdf: <http://strdf.dl.uoa.gr/ontology#>
PREFIX rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>
PREFIX rdfs: <http://www.w3.org/2000/01/rdf-schema#>
PREFIX xsd: <http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema#>
PREFIX uom: <http://www.opengis.net/def/uom/OGC/1.0/>

SELECT ?a ?b ?c
where { ?a ?b ?c }
```

Output Format: HTML

View Result: Plain

Map Bounds:

Query **Update**

a	b	c
http://localhost:3030/masterThesis/province/noord-holland	http://www.opengis.net/ont/geosparql#hasGeometry	http://www.opengis.net/def/crs/EPSG/0/4258 -MULTIPOLYGON(((4.5833208743146552 5338920687746... more
http://localhost:3030/masterThesis/municipality/raalte	http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#type	http://dbpedia.com/resource/Municipality "
http://localhost:3030/masterThesis/province/noord-holland	http://xmlns.com/foaf/0.1/name	"Noord-Holland"
http://localhost:3030/masterThesis/country/nederland	http://www.opengis.net/ont/geosparql#hasGeometry	http://www.opengis.net/def/crs/EPSG/0/4258 -MULTIPOLYGON(((3.5152781009675251 4073600769044... more
http://localhost:3030/masterThesis/municipality/raalte	http://purl.org/dc/terms/isPartOf	http://localhost:3030/masterThesis/province/Overijssel "
http://localhost:3030/masterThesis/province/noord-holland	http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#type	http://dbpedia.com/resource/Province "
http://localhost:3030/masterThesis/country/nederland	http://xmlns.com/foaf/0.1/name	"Nederland"

Figure 4.2: Strabon endpoint

In the SWE standards a sensor is modelled using two entities: a procedure and a feature of interest. The procedure is the method of sensing and the feature of interest is the feature of which the sensor is sensing a certain property. Therefore, the observable property ties together the procedure and feature of interest. It should be noted that the geometry of a feature of interest is not necessarily always a point geometry. It can also be generalized into larger features (e.g. multiple sensors observing different parts of one lake).

An offering is a grouping of features of interest, which have a common procedure. The purpose of offerings is to allow users to query the observation data more efficiently. Features of interest that are often queried together are grouped into the same offering.

A Python class object is created for the SOS based on Figure 4.3. This class contains the different variables and has built in functions to automatically retrieve the metadata. To collect all the required metadata a number of request have to be made, which is done using the `SOSClass.request()` method which requires only the HTTP address of the SOS as input. First, the capabilities document is retrieved to collect information about the organisation, supported SOS versions and response formats. It also contains lists with identifiers for all features of interest, offerings, observable properties and procedures. In this document the offerings are linked to a certain procedure and to a certain observable property.

Unfortunately, the capabilities document is not able to provide information about which procedure is being applied for which feature of interest. Also, the features' geometries cannot be retrieved from it. Therefore, a `GetFeatureOfInterest` request is made to retrieve the location of each features of interest. However, the `GetFeatureOfInterest` document does not necessarily provide information about the procedures that are related to a certain feature of interest. When a `GetObservation` request is made for

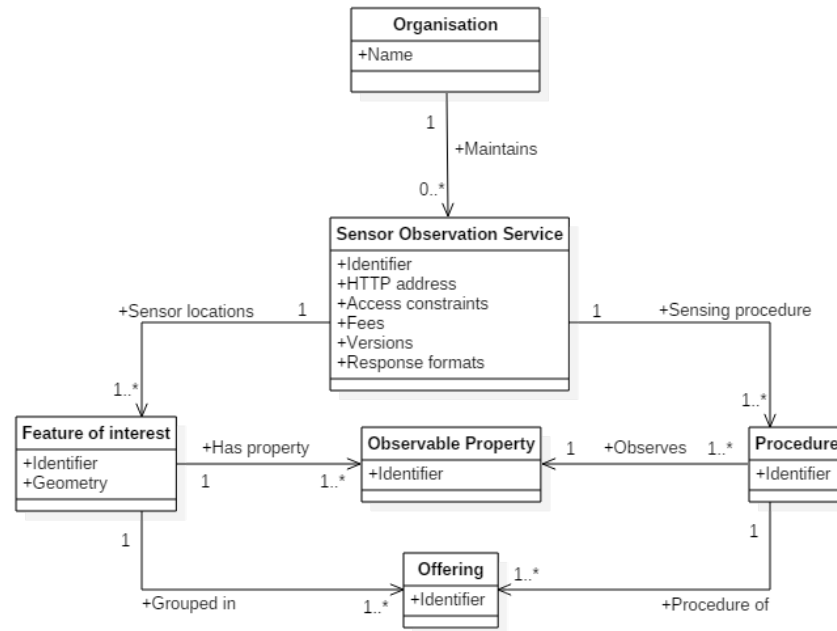


Figure 4.3: Metadata automatically retrieved from a SOS

an offering, the returned observation data is grouped per feature of interest. Therefore, small amounts of data are retrieved from each offering using `GetObservation` requests, when possible with a temporal filter to limit the data traffic. Every procedure and offering can now be related to a set of features of interest with point geometries.

4.4 MODELLING WITH THE OM-LITE AND SAM-LITE ONTOLOGIES

After the metadata has been retrieved from the SOS (Figure 4.3) it has to be converted to linked data. For this the om-lite and sam-lite ontologies

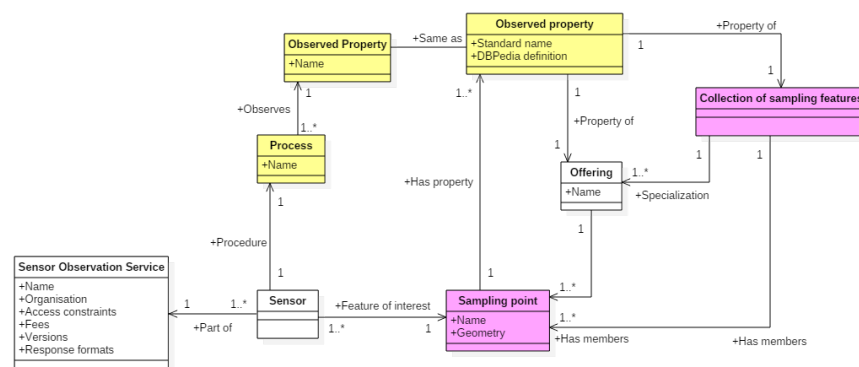


Figure 4.4: Sensor metadata as modelled in RDF (om-lite classes in yellow and sam-lite classes in purple)

are being used in combination with the PROV and GeoSPARQL ontologies. Figure 4.4 shows the semantic relations between the metadata that are stored in RDF triples. Every (instance of a) class in this figure is represented by a URI.

A SOS is modelled as an agent with a specific name, that acts on behalf of a certain organisation. The organisation, access constraints, fees, versions and response formats are properties of the SOS. Every sensor is described by a procedure and a certain feature of interest. The sensor class was not present in the model of Figure 4.3, because the SOS does not define sensors. However, the sensor class has been added to the semantic model to make the relation between procedure and sampling point explicit.

In Figure 4.4 the collection of sampling features only contains sampling points. This is because the feature of interest of an air quality sensor is equal to the bubble of air directly around the sampling point. Other sampling features can be added when the application requires this. Sampling features are grouped into collections of features of which the same observed property is measured. These collections can contain sampling points from multiple Sensor Observation Services. The offering class is a specialization of the collection of sampling features. It contains a subset of the sampling points that are all part of the same offering at a particular SOS.

Every observed property that is defined in a SOS relates to a certain observed property as defined by DBPedia. Since SOS requests require their own identifiers as input the observed property class exists twice in the model: one as defined by the SOS and one as defined by DBPedia. For the same reason all sampling points, processes and offerings have a 'name' attribute in addition to their URI. These store the original identifier that they were given by the SOS.

5

PROTOTYPE IMPLEMENTATION

The prototype implementation serves as a proof of concept. It looks on the semantic web for sensors that observe a certain property in a specific area. It collects the data for these sensors at their corresponding Sensor Observation Service. When multiple data sources are found the data is integrated. The sensor data is aggregated before it is returned to the user.

5.1 INPUT PARAMETERS

The prototype takes a number of input parameters. First of all, a list with observed properties which will be the 'layers' that the process returns. The second parameter is the category of input features. This can be set to administrative units (country, province or municipality), land cover or raster. The third parameter is a list of input feature. This is a list of names or identifiers that correspond to the category. The next parameter is the temporal range. This has to be a list of two ISO datetime strings representing the start and end time. The fifth parameter is the temporal granularity, represented by an ISO delta datetime string. The sixth input parameter is the method of spatial aggregation. This method will be applied to aggregate the data based on the input features. The last input parameter is the temporal aggregation method to aggregate data between start and end time to the required granularity.

5.2 RETRIEVING GEOMETRIES

The input category is a starting point for the process to find the geometries of the input features. It creates a SPARQL query to retrieve the geometries of these features.

5.3 SPATIAL QUERIES

With the found geometries a SPARQL query is made to find a sensor collection that has a certain observed property. From this collection sensors can be selected that overlap the previously found geometries. Unfortunately SPARQL queries are not allowed to exceed a certain number of characters. This creates problems when querying larger vector geometries (provinces and countries). For these queries two alternatives have been implemented: using the EEA reference grid as a spatial index for vector geometries and using bounding box queries at the SOS.

For the first alternative the EEA raster cells are retrieved instead of the vector data. Only the cells are requested that overlap with the vector geometry. For these cells all sensor locations are requested. However, the result of this

is that too many sensor locations are retrieved, also ones that are outside the original vector feature. Therefore the WPS performs the spatial filter instead of the SPARQL endpoint and removes all locations that are outside of the requested feature.

The second alternative checks which Sensor Observation Services have sensor locations within the bounding box of the vector geometry. For all of them that also observe the correct observed property `GetObservation` requests are made. In these requests a spatial filter is added.

5.4 RETRIEVE SENSOR DATA

After all sensor locations have been retrieved from the SPARQL endpoint `GetObservation` requests are made. These require the identifiers that were given to the observed properties and procedures by their SOS, instead of the semantic URLs that were assigned to them. The requests are structured as explained in Paragraph 2.1.3. When possible, the request is extended with a temporal filter to only retrieve data inside the required temporal range. The output format is set to XML.

The received XML document is looped through looking for `'sos:observationData'` elements. These elements contain O&M observations. Some Sensor Observation Services return sensor data as an O&M measurement. However, others use the `'SWE:dataArray'` type. A response document with O&M measurements contains elements for individual observations. Every observation has an element for result, result time, UOM, procedure, feature of interest and observed property.

An SWE data array is an array of observations that share the same meta-data. For all observations that have the same feature of interest, procedure, observed property and UOM the result data is an array of results values together with result or phenomenon times. The result value is separated from the result or phenomenon time using a predefined `'tokenseparator'`. The combinations of result values and result or phenomenon times are separated using predefined `'blockseparators'`.

The data from the received XML documents is directly added to an individual comma separated value string per combination of observed property and UOM. In case the temporal filter could not be used all data is looped over to remove observations outside the temporal range.

5.5 DATA AGGREGATION

After all observation data is retrieved it is first aggregated temporally. An empty dictionary is created to store each temporal granularity range that is inside the requested temporal range for all observations. A loop goes over the comma separated values and sorts them based on their result time per sensor location. The start time is subtracted from the result time, which results the time range from the start of the temporal range to the time of the observation. From this time range a modulo operation calculates how many times the temporal granularity fits in the time range between the start of the temporal range and the time of the observation. The start time is added to the temporal granularity times the outcome of the modulo operation to calculate the dictionary key to sort the observation by.

As soon as all the observations have been sorted the data is aggregated. For all values per key the average, minimum, maximum, median or sum is calculated. The resulting value replaces the values in the dictionary.

If spatial aggregation is part of the sensor data request this is performed after the temporal aggregation. Using Shapely's 9-intersection model functions the sensor locations are ordered per spatial feature. Finally, all values are aggregated per feature per temporal range.

5.5.1 Setting up the Web Processing Services

Creating two Web Processing Services using PyWPS.

Output XML using O&M schema or using JavaScript Object Notation (JSON) with the potential OGC candidate standard for JSON [Cox and Taylor, 2015].

5.5.2 Creating a web application for retrieving sensor data

A web application has been created using the Web Processing Services from Paragraph 5.5.1.

6 | RESULTS

6.1 IMPLEMENTATION DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SENSOR OBSERVATION SERVICES

Even though both Sensor Observation Services use the SWE standards they are not exactly the same. They have different approaches for making identifiers and have slightly different content in their capabilities and describe sensor documents. This has caused the implemented to be more complex than expected. Especially providing a describe sensor document with as much information as possible (containing related features of interest, observed property and offerings) is important for making sense of the metadata. This should also be done using the appropriate SensorML tags, instead of the more general 'swe:keywords' for example.

When retrieving sensor data from the SOS using `GetObservation` requests one implementation provides this data as an array of comma separated values, using the SWE Array Observation class. The other implementation provides the same kind of data embedded in XML tags using the O&M Measurement class.

One of the SOS implementations allowed multiple observed properties to be related to an observation procedure. This was an unexpected finding, because a procedure is defined as a "method, algorithm or instrument, or system of these which may be used in making an observation" [ISO, 2011, p. 4]. When a procedure has different observed properties it is rather a combination of procedures. It is unlikely that the same procedure can observe one property at a certain time and a completely other property at another time. The original implementation of the WPS had to be adjusted to deal with this.

6.2 SEMANTICS IN SENSOR OBSERVATION SERVICES

6.2.1 mapping of observable properties

The metadata in Sensor Observation Services does not necessarily contain semantics. This is an issue when automatically retrieving metadata from different services. In the implementation this has caused a problem with identifying which observable properties in a SOS are the same as observable properties found in another SOS.

6.2.2 Automatically creating an URI scheme

If an URI is automatically created for data from an unknown source there is an amount of uncertainty to what the URI will look like. Either a random identifier can be assigned to it, or the identifier that is already provided by

the data source. This identifier most likely contains some reference to the nature of the real world thing the URI represents and is therefore preferable to a completely random identifier. Adding the given identifier to the URI can create very long and strange URIs because different data sources have a different way of creating URIs since the O&M schema allows simply 'any URI'.

6.3 SPATIAL QUERIES WITH STSPARQL

For retrieving data about a vector feature three methods for spatial querying have been implemented. First of all, spatial queries in which the server side receives the complete geometry of a feature and checks which point geometries it contains. Second of all, spatial queries in which the server side receives the bounding box of the complete geometry and check which points are within it. Third of all, spatial queries in which the server side receives the EEA reference grid cell that overlap the geometry and checks which points each cell contains. With the first method the client does not have to perform any spatial queries anymore. The second and third method will also return points that are not inside the geometry of the vector feature. These points could be filtered out by the client.

6.3.1 Vector queries

GeoSPARQL allows spatial queries in which a geometry can be inserted in the query. The implementation uses this functionality to test for spatial relations between geometries. For example between the point geometry of a sensor and the polygon geometry of an administrative unit. However, when geometries become more complicated their WKT definition becomes more verbose. This leads to the query being rejected based on its number of characters by the endpoint. This indicates that vector queries with complex geometries are not very efficient to include in a SPARQL query.

6.3.2 Raster queries

All raster cells are retrieved that overlap with the vector geometry. For these raster cell sensors are retrieved and later the excess ones are filtered out.

6.3.3 Bounding box queries

Creating a bounding box around a vector feature and make `GetObservation` to the SOS.

6.3.4 Latitude and longitude order

During the implementation a problem has come up regarding the order in which latitude and longitude are being presented in the SOS. The SOS of the RIVM provides point geometries in WGS84 as longitude, latitude and height. However, the Strabon endpoint expects the order to be latitude, longitude and height. This results false outcomes of spatial queries.

6.4 OUTPUT DATA

Data is outputted in XML or JSON according to the O&M schema. However, this schema cannot be used when different processes have been used by the data that has been aggregated.

6.5 COMPARING THE SENSOR INSTANCE REGISTRY WITH A SEMANTIC KNOWLEDGE BASE

Comparing [Jirka and Nüst \[2010\]](#) and [Jirka and Bröring \[2009\]](#) with the outcomes of [Chapter 4](#)

6.6 COMPARING THE SEMANTIC SENSOR MIDDLE- WARE WITH A SEMANTIC KNOWLEDGE BASE

Comparing the outcomes of [Chapter 4](#) with methods for retrieving RDF from a SOS

7 | CONCLUSIONS

This thesis aimed to design a method that uses the semantic web to improve sensor data discovery as well as the integration and aggregation of sensor data from multiple sources. Each of the four subquestions posed in the introduction will be answered in this chapter before addressing the main research question.

SUBQUESTION 1. TO WHAT EXTENT CAN SENSOR METADATA BE AUTOMATICALLY RETRIEVED FROM ANY SOS?

Data inside a Sensor Observation Service can be automatically retrieved from a SOS, using the methods described in Paragraph 4.3. However, there are two things in the SWE standards that should be improved to make the proposed design work better.

First of all, the capabilities document is currently only required to contain a list of all features of interest as a parameter for the `GetObservation` request. Optionally the features of interest can also be mentioned as metadata per offering. In the case of air quality these features represent the sensor locations. However, it is merely required to list the URIs of the features of interest. To retrieve their geometries either `GetFeatureOfInterest` or `GetObservation` requests have to be made. This is especially cumbersome since the `GetFeatureOfInterest` response does not link features of interest to procedures or observed properties. This relation is therefore only visible by either combining the observed properties and procedures per offering to the `GetFeatureOfInterest` response or by requesting observations from each sensor location. Therefore, I propose that the capabilities document should not only list the URIs of the features of interest, but also describe the geometry and observed properties of each of them.

Secondly, in the current implementation of the XML schemas for SOS (<http://schemas.opengis.net/sos/2.0>) and O&M (<http://schemas.opengis.net/om/2.0/>) identifiers for features of interest, observed properties and procedures can be 'any URI'. This means that an URL with semantics can be provided, but a non-semantic URI would also be valid. I propose to make the standard more strict and require a semantic URL that can be resolved to an RDF document. Without these semantics it is hard to use a SOS for both humans and automatic processes, especially when two or more are used in combination with each other. Paragraph 4.2 describes how to use a PURL server for creating persistent semantic URLs that resolve to an RDF document.

Besides the two changes that should be made to the SWE standards there is another issue with automatically retrieving sensor metadata from a SOS, namely the order of coordinates for a feature of interest. Both Sensor Observation Services used in this thesis had a different order for the latitude

and the longitude of their point coordinates. This is a standardisation issue already identified by many authors, which should be decided upon by the geomatics and geoscience community. For the method described in this thesis it is irrelevant which order is being used, as long as its clearly described in individual cases or prescribed using an international standard.

SUBQUESTION 2. TO WHAT EXTENT CAN SENSOR METADATA FROM A SOS BE AUTOMATICALLY CONVERTED TO LINKED DATA AND PUBLISHED ON THE SEMANTIC WEB?

In a SOS there are XML schemas that contain general semantics about the metadata. They identify what the different URIs represent (e.g. observed properties, procedures, features of interest). The *om-lite* and *sam-lite* ontologies have been used to make linked data from this metadata. However, a number of classes should be added to these ontologies to make it suit this process better. First of all, a class is required that distinguishes the *process* of creating an observation from the physical *device* that uses this process. This ‘sensor’ class could be modelled as a device that uses a procedure at a certain sampling point. Adding this class takes away some of the ambiguity between defined processes and actually deployed sensors. Therefore, it will be easier to perform (spatial) SPARQL queries that return deployed sensors of which data can be retrieved.

Another class that should be represented in an ontology is the Sensor Observation Service. The current prototype design (Chapter 4) used a single endpoint for storing all metadata from Sensor Observation Services. Therefore, it was known that the source of data is a SOS, but it has not been properly defined in a linked data ontology. If programs crawling the semantic web can identify a data source such as a SOS and understand its allowed queries (e.g. *GetCapabilities*, *DescribeSensor*, *GetObservation*), they can retrieve data from it without requiring prior knowledge. This way sensor data using other platforms such as the *SensorThings* API could be discovered and retrieved in the same way and used in combination with each other. Therefore the extensions of current ontologies is further discussed as future research in Chapter 9.

SUBQUESTION 3. WHAT IS AN EFFECTIVE BALANCE BETWEEN THE SEMANTIC WEB AND THE GEO WEB IN THE CHAIN OF DISCOVERING, RETRIEVING AND PROCESSING SENSOR DATA?

A number of authors have shown that triple stores do not perform as good as databases when their data is requested via a web application. On the other hand, linked data is very well suited for discovering data as it is literally ‘linked’ to related data. Therefore, this thesis aimed to design a method for using the semantic web in combination with sensor web applications, where the semantic web contains metadata and the geoweb observation data.

However, there is a grey area of functions that could be implemented using either one of these two parts of the web.

For example, the semantic web could have a bounding box per SOS containing all features of interest it offers in combination with a list of all observed properties. In this case spatial and temporal filters would have to be applied at the SOS side when retrieving observation data. On the other hand, the semantic web could also contain detailed information about individual sensors. This way the Sensor Observation Services are only used to retrieve observation data of already selected sensors.

Both options have been considered. The second option has been used in this thesis for a number of reasons. First of all, it was found that not all Sensor Observation Services offer the same filter capabilities. In order for the first option to be viable every SOS should have a minimum amount of filter capabilities implemented by default. Second of all, if a user is interested in sensors located in a specific area the bounding box of all sensors might be misleading. If there is an outlying sensor or if all sensors are inside a curved or diagonal vector geometry a SOS might seem relevant while it actually is not. The result of this is that many unnecessary requests will be sent to a SOS keeping the user waiting and the SOS server busy for no reason.

Third of all, semantic information about specific sensors can be linked to by other related linked data. This can be done by the organisation maintaining the sensor or by other organisations. For example links to the manufacturer, the quality of observations achieved by a certain model of sensors, or the conditions under which the sensor is placed could be useful for anyone interested in the observation data.

However, the downside of the second approach is that the performance is lower. The SPARQL query language is not as fast as for example queries using PostgreSQL and Postgis. Adding spatial filters is possible, but is not very fast for most vector geometries. Furthermore, a larger amount of data needs to be sent over the web in the process of discovering sensors. Since GeoSPARQL and stSPARQL uses the verbose WKT or GML encodings the queries can also be rejected for exceeding the maximum amount of characters. For this reason it is found that spatial filters using vector geometries should best be avoided.

Still, discovering sensors is only a matter of seconds using the second approach. Automatically retrieving sensor data can take up to a couple minutes depending on the amount of sensors for which data is requested and the temporal range. However, it should be noted that performance optimization has not been a part of this thesis. It is likely that this can still be improved significantly (see Chapter 9).

SUBQUESTION 4. TO WHAT EXTENT CAN ALREADY EXISTING STANDARDS FOR RETRIEVING DATA BE (RE)USED FOR A SERVICE THAT SUPPLIES INTEGRATED AND AGGREGATED SENSOR DATA?

All data models and services in this thesis have been used because they are based on open standards. Designs for two processes have been explored: an automated process for creating linked data from metadata in a SOS and a process for discovering, retrieving and processing sensor data. These pro-

cesses were created using OGC Web Processing Services, which is a standard API for spatial data processes on the web. The WPS is well suited for these two applications.

The O&M standard could be reused on the semantic web using the om-lite and sam-lite ontologies. These are lightweight linked data ontologies based on O&M. Performing spatial queries on this linked data is possible using OGC's GeoSPARQL as well as using Strabon's stRDF (Paragraph 3.3).

The O&M observation schema is being reused for the spatially aggregated sensor data that is retrieved from the discovered Sensor Observation Services. However, the schema only allows sensor data from the same procedure. The result of this is that only observations from the same SOS fit in the O&M observation schema, as different procedures were implemented by the different organisations maintaining a SOS. Therefore, I propose to either allow the procedure to be nullable in the schema or to allow the procedure element to contain an array of multiple procedures.

MAIN QUESTION: TO WHAT EXTENT CAN THE SEMANTIC WEB IMPROVE THE DISCOVERY, INTEGRATION AND AGGREGATION OF DISTRIBUTED SENSOR DATA?

In this thesis a method has been designed to create an online knowledge base with linked metadata extracted from Sensor Observation Services. This helps discovering, integrating and aggregation sensor data, while for efficient data retrieval the SOS is still used. The results show that such a knowledge base makes it easy to discover sensors and their corresponding sources. It allows for online processes to automatically retrieve and process sensor data. It can be generated from any SOS, if there are a minimum of semantics provided. Most SWE standards can be (re)used, although some need to be changed for the method presented here to work for every implementation of a SOS. Observed properties and procedures need to be semantically defined by the organisation maintaining a SOS and linked data ontologies should be extended to define the Sensor Observation Service and its offerings.

A number of design decisions have been made which will be further discussed in Chapter 8. Areas for improving and extending the presented methods are described in Chapter 9.

8 | DISCUSSION

8.1 METADATA DUPLICATION

The method presented in this thesis takes metadata from a SOS, converts it to linked data and publishes it on the semantic web. Although the metadata has taken another form, it is now stored twice in two different locations. This may not be desirable, for instance when data is updated in the original source and its linked data equivalent is not. Also more storage space is required for the same amount of data. However, extra functionality is achieved in return.

8.2 METADATA QUALITY

The quality of the metadata in the SOS influences the quality of the metadata SPARQL endpoint.

8.3 AUTOMATED PROCESS

If there is no meaning added to definitions like observed property, the metadata is not machine understandable. In this case, manual work has to be done to make it machine understandable. Only after this manual process it can be published on the semantic web.

8.4 EXPLICIT TOPOLOGICAL RELATIONS

Spatial features have topological relations with other spatial features. These relations can be made explicit on the semantic web. However, in this thesis they have not been made explicit and are calculated on-the-fly with spatial queries using GeoSPARQL. Making topological relations explicit in a subject-predicate-object structure could improve query speed, as they are likely less expensive than spatial queries. However, this is a trade-off with the required storage space. Furthermore, the chances of incorrect or broken links increase as both features and topological relations can change over time.

8.5 THE USE OF A CATALOG SERVICE

The methods presented in Chapter 4 could also be implemented on top of a CSW: the metadata from a SOS would be inside a CSW and this CSW would have a SPARQL endpoint connected to it. Describe pro's and con's.

Include more sensor standards besides SOS, such as tinySOS and SensorThings API.

Include more geoweb standards such as WFS, WCS, etc.

Extend current ontologies with semantics about OGC geo web services such as SOS and their allowed requests.

Improving performance: currently discovering sensors is fast for bounding box or raster queries. Vector queries take up more time, but is still relatively fast. However, real performance improvements could still be gained in the automatic querying of a SOS. Currently for every sensor a request is send, but this could probably be improved by requesting all sensor data from the same SOS using fewer or perhaps even using only a single request.



WEB PROCESSING SERVICE RESPONSE DOCUMENTS

A.1 EXAMPLE CAPABILITIES DOCUMENT

```
<wps:Capabilities xmlns:xlink="http://www.w3.org/1999/xlink"
  xmlns:wps="http://www.opengis.net/wps/1.0.0"
  xmlns:ows="http://www.opengis.net/ows/1.1"
  xmlns:xsi="http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema-instance"
  service="WPS" version="1.0.0" xml:lang="en-CA"
  xsi:schemaLocation="http://www.opengis.net/wps/1.0.0
  http://schemas.opengis.net/wps/1.0.0/wpsGetCapabilities_response.xsd"
  updateSequence="1">
  <ows:ServiceIdentification>
    <ows:Title>PyWPS Server</ows:Title>
    <ows:Abstract>
      See http://pywps.wald.intevation.org and
      http://www.opengeospatial.org/standards/wps
    </ows:Abstract>
    <ows:Keywords>
      <ows:Keyword>WPS</ows:Keyword>
      <ows:Keyword>SWE</ows:Keyword>
      <ows:Keyword>SOS</ows:Keyword>
    </ows:Keywords>
    <ows:ServiceType>WPS</ows:ServiceType>
    <ows:ServiceTypeVersion>1.0.0</ows:ServiceTypeVersion>
    <ows:Fees>None</ows:Fees>
    <ows:AccessConstraints>none</ows:AccessConstraints>
  </ows:ServiceIdentification>
  <ows:ServiceProvider>
    <ows:ProviderName>Delft University of
      Technology</ows:ProviderName>
    <ows:ProviderSite
      xlink:href="http://masterthesistudelft.herokuapp.com/">
    </ows:ProviderSite>
    <ows:ServiceContact>
      <ows:IndividualName>Ivo de Liefde</ows:IndividualName>
      <ows:PositionName>MSc. student Geomatics for the Built
        Environment</ows:PositionName>
    </ows:ServiceContact>
    <ows:ContactInfo>
      <ows:Address>
        <ows:DeliveryPoint>Julianalaan 134</ows:DeliveryPoint>
        <ows:City>Delft</ows:City>
        <ows:PostalCode>2628 BL</ows:PostalCode>
        <ows:Country>the Netherlands</ows:Country>
        <ows:ElectronicMailAddress>i.deliefde@student.tudelft.nl</ows:ElectronicMailAddress>
      </ows:Address>
```

```

    <ows:OnlineResource
      xlink:href="http://masterthesistudelft.herokuapp.com/" />
    <ows:HoursOfService>0:00-24:00</ows:HoursOfService>
    <ows:ContactInstructions>none</ows:ContactInstructions>
  </ows:ContactInfo>
  <ows:Role>
    Created WPS
  </ows:Role>
</ows:ServiceContact>
</ows:ServiceProvider>
<ows:OperationsMetadata>
  <ows:Operation name="GetCapabilities">
    <ows:DCP>
      <ows:HTTP>
        <ows:Get
          xlink:href="http://localhost/cgi-bin/wps?" />
        <ows:Post
          xlink:href="http://localhost/cgi-bin/wps" />
        </ows:HTTP>
      </ows:DCP>
    </ows:Operation>
    <ows:Operation name="DescribeProcess">
      <ows:DCP>
        <ows:HTTP>
          <ows:Get
            xlink:href="http://localhost/cgi-bin/wps?" />
          <ows:Post
            xlink:href="http://localhost/cgi-bin/wps" />
          </ows:HTTP>
        </ows:DCP>
      </ows:Operation>
      <ows:Operation name="Execute">
        <ows:DCP>
          <ows:HTTP>
            <ows:Get
              xlink:href="http://localhost/cgi-bin/wps?" />
            <ows:Post
              xlink:href="http://localhost/cgi-bin/wps" />
            </ows:HTTP>
          </ows:DCP>
        </ows:Operation>
      </ows:OperationsMetadata>
    <wps:ProcessOfferings>
      <wps:Process wps:processVersion="1.0">
        <ows:Identifier>LinkedDataFromSOS</ows:Identifier>
        <ows:Title>Creates Linked Data of SOS
          metadata</ows:Title>
        <ows:Abstract>
          This process takes an HTTP address of a Sensor
            Observation Service (SOS) as input and converts
            the metadata to linked data.
        </ows:Abstract>
      </wps:Process>
    </wps:ProcessOfferings>
  </ows:OperationsMetadata>
</ows:Process>

```

```

<wps:Process wps:processVersion="1.0">
  <ows:Identifier>GetSensors</ows:Identifier>
  <ows:Title>
    Automatically retrieves sensors from heterogenous
    sources using the semantic web
  </ows:Title>
  <ows:Abstract>
    This process takes a sensor data request with
    parameters for spatial features of interest,
    observed property, temporal range and
    granularity, and finds all relevant sensor data
    sources on the semantic web.
  </ows:Abstract>
</wps:Process>
<wps:Process wps:processVersion="1.0">
  <ows:Identifier>GetSensorData</ows:Identifier>
  <ows:Title>
    Automatically retrieves, integrates and aggregates
    heterogenous sensor data using the semantic web
  </ows:Title>
  <ows:Abstract>
    This process takes sensors found by the WPS
    'GetSensors' and automatically integrates and
    aggregates the data from different sources on the
    web.
  </ows:Abstract>
</wps:Process>
</wps:ProcessOfferings>
<wps:Languages>
  <wps:Default>
    <ows:Language>en-CA</ows:Language>
  </wps:Default>
  <wps:Supported>
    <ows:Language>en-CA</ows:Language>
  </wps:Supported>
</wps:Languages>
<wps:WSDL xlink:href="http://localhost/cgi-bin/wps?WSDL"/>
</wps:Capabilities>

```

A.2 EXAMPLE DESCRIBE PROCESS DOCUMENT

```

<wps:ProcessDescriptions
  xmlns:wps="http://www.opengis.net/wps/1.0.0"
  xmlns:ows="http://www.opengis.net/ows/1.1"
  xmlns:xlink="http://www.w3.org/1999/xlink"
  xmlns:xsi="http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema-instance"
  xsi:schemaLocation="http://www.opengis.net/wps/1.0.0
http://schemas.opengis.net/wps/1.0.0/wpsDescribeProcess_response.xsd"
  service="WPS" version="1.0.0" xml:lang="en-CA">
  <ProcessDescription wps:processVersion="1.0"
    storeSupported="true" statusSupported="false">
    <ows:Identifier>LinkedDataFromSOS</ows:Identifier>
    <ows:Title>Creates Linked Data of SOS metadata</ows:Title>
    <ows:Abstract>
      This process takes an HTTP address of a Sensor
      Observation Service (SOS) as input and converts the
      metadata to linked data.
    </ows:Abstract>
    <DataInputs>
      <Input minOccurs="0" maxOccurs="1">
        <ows:Identifier>observed_properties</ows:Identifier>
        <ows:Title>
          Input link to turtle file with mappings of
          observed property identifiers to DBPedia URIs
        </ows:Title>
        <LiteralData>
          <ows:DataType
            ows:reference="http://www.w3.org/TR/xmlschema-2/#string">string</
          <ows:AnyValue/>
          <DefaultValue>http://inspire.rivm.nl/sos/eaq/service?</DefaultValue>
        </LiteralData>
      </Input>
      <Input minOccurs="0" maxOccurs="1">
        <ows:Identifier>input_url</ows:Identifier>
        <ows:Title>
          Input a string containing an HTTP address of a
          Sensor Observation Service (SOS). For
          example: 'http://someaddress.com/sos?'
        </ows:Title>
        <LiteralData>
          <ows:DataType
            ows:reference="http://www.w3.org/TR/xmlschema-2/#string">string</
          <ows:AnyValue/>
          <DefaultValue>http://inspire.rivm.nl/sos/eaq/service?</DefaultValue>
        </LiteralData>
      </Input>
    </DataInputs>
  </ProcessDescription>
</wps:ProcessDescriptions>

```

A.3 EXAMPLE EXECUTE DOCUMENT

```

<wps:ExecuteResponse
  xmlns:wps="http://www.opengis.net/wps/1.0.0"
  xmlns:ows="http://www.opengis.net/ows/1.1"
  xmlns:xlink="http://www.w3.org/1999/xlink"
  xmlns:xsi="http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema-instance"
  xsi:schemaLocation="http://www.opengis.net/wps/1.0.0
http://schemas.opengis.net/wps/1.0.0/wpsExecute_response.xsd"
  service="WPS" version="1.0.0" xml:lang="en-CA"
  serviceInstance="http://localhost/cgi-bin/wps?service=WPS&request=GetCapabilities&version=1.0.0"
  statusLocation="http://localhost/wps/wpsoutputs/pywps-146072575066.xml">
  <wps:Process wps:processVersion="1.0">
    <ows:Identifier>GetSensors</ows:Identifier>
    <ows:Title>
      Automatically retrieves sensors from heterogenous
      sources using the semantic web
    </ows:Title>
    <ows:Abstract>
      This process takes a sensor data request with
      parameters for spatial features of interest,
      observed property, temporal range and granularity,
      and finds all relevant sensor data sources on the
      semantic web.
    </ows:Abstract>
  </wps:Process>
  <wps:Status creationTime="2016-04-15T15:09:52Z">
    <wps:ProcessSucceeded>PyWPS Process GetSensors
      successfully calculated</wps:ProcessSucceeded>
  </wps:Status>
  <wps:ProcessOutputs>
    <wps:Output>
      <ows:Identifier>output</ows:Identifier>
      <ows:Title>Output sensor data</ows:Title>
      <wps:Data>
        <wps:ComplexData mimeType="text/JSON">
          OUTPUT JSON DATA
        </wps:ComplexData>
      </wps:Data>
    </wps:Output>
  </wps:ProcessOutputs>
</wps:ExecuteResponse>

```

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