

1 Automatic processing, quality assurance and serving of
2 real-time weather data

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6 **Abstract**

7 Recent advances in technology have produced a significant increase in the avail-
8 ability of free sensor data over the Internet. With affordable weather monitoring
9 stations now available to individual meteorology enthusiasts, a reservoir of real
10 time data such as temperature, rainfall and wind speed can now be obtained for
11 most of the world. Despite the abundance of available data, the production of us-
12 able information about the weather in individual local neighbourhoods requires
13 complex processing that poses several challenges.

This paper discusses a collection of technologies and applications that har-
vest, refine and process this data, culminating in information that has been tai-
lored toward the user. In this instance, this allows a user to make direct queries
about the weather at any location, even when this is not directly instrumented,
using interpolation methods provided by the INTAMAP project. A simplified
example illustrates how the INTAMAP web processing service can be employed
as part of a quality control procedure to estimate the bias and residual variance
of user contributed temperature observations, using a reference standard based
on temperature observations with carefully controlled quality. We also consider
how the uncertainty introduced by the interpolation can be communicated to the
user of the system, using UncertML, a developing standard for uncertainty rep-

resentation.

14 *Key words:* User-contributed data, UncertML, INTAMAP, data quality,
15 interpolation

16 **1. Introduction**

17 The term ‘mashup’ in Web development refers to the combination of different
18 services and data into a single integrated tool. This paper discusses a mashup in
19 which weather data from hundreds of individual sensors is harvested, refined and
20 processed using several interoperable standards, to provide information that has
21 been customised to a user’s requirements. To support the practical use of this
22 data, streamlined interfaces have been developed that provide access for small
23 footprint devices, e.g. mobile phones. The combination of these technologies
24 results in a tool capable of navigating seemingly complex data and providing
25 answers to highly specific queries such as “What is the temperature in my garden
26 right now?” and “Will the roads be icy on my way home?”.

27 Section 2 introduces the mashup architecture with an overview of the data
28 flow. Section 3 details the harvesting process and the interface to the data. Sec-
29 tion 4 notes the importance of uncertainty propagation through the system, and
30 describes the methods and standards used to achieve this. Section 5 discusses
31 the refining and processing stages that occur as part of the INTAMAP interpola-
32 tion service ¹. Section 6 describes a technique used to estimate the uncertainty
33 of the user-contributed data, using the INTAMAP service, and Section 7 gives
34 more detail on client applications that use the framework to gather information
35 that has been tailored for them. Finally, we gather conclusions and insights in
36 Section 8.

¹<http://www.intamap.org>
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37 2. Overview

38 The system discussed in this paper provides access to user-contributed weather
39 data through open standards. Wrapping Weather Underground data with an in-
40 teroperable interface allows more structured access than presently available. The
41 system also provides a mechanism for estimating the uncertainty and bias of the
42 Weather Underground data; providing users with more detailed information.

43 The interfaces used within the system employ the latest technologies from
44 the Open Geospatial Consortium (OGC). The OGC is a standards organisation
45 that develop and maintain XML standards for geospatial services. Specifically,
46 a Sensor Observation Service (SOS) (Na and Priest, 2007) interface provides an
47 access layer to the underlying weather data. A SOS interface provides the ba-
48 sic create, update, retrieve and delete functionality, commonly associated with
49 databases, for sensor-observed data. Data can be filtered spatially, temporally or
50 by specific attribute values. The uncertainty estimation process is provided by
51 the INTAMAP (INTerpolation and Automated MAPping) project. INTAMAP
52 is a Web Processing Service (WPS) (Schut, 2007), providing near real-time in-
53 terpolation of sensor data (Williams et al., 2007). The WPS interface is more
54 abstracted than the SOS, providing a loose framework within which any arbi-
55 trary process may reside. Data communicated between the services and clients
56 is encoded using the Observations & Measurements (O&M) (Cox, 2007) stan-
57 dard. O&M provides a common encoding for all sensor-observed data. However,
58 the properties of an observation within O&M are flexible, allowing the integra-
59 tion of other XML specifications. Specifically this system integrates UncertML,
60 a language for quantifying uncertainty (Williams et al., 2009). UncertML ² is

²<http://www.uncertml.org>

61 a relatively new XML vocabulary and is currently under discussion within the
62 OGC. Embracing the open standards laid out by the OGC results in a collection
63 of loosely-coupled, autonomous, services. These design criteria underpin the
64 philosophy behind Service Oriented Architectures (SOAs) (Erl, 2004, 2005).

65 Each of the components depicted in Figure 1 provides specific functionality
66 that combines to produce a usable system. This section gives a brief overview of
67 the main components, while Sections 3 – 7 investigate the finer details.

68 The system components can be logically divided into three groups: data ac-
69 quisition, processing services and client applications. The data is acquired from
70 the Weather Underground Web site and stored in a database (Step 1). Access to
71 the data is provided by a SOS, (discussed in Section 3.2.2), which is essentially
72 a Web Service providing simple insertion and retrieval methods for observation
73 data. The observations returned by the SOS are encoded in the O&M schema, as
74 discussed in Section 3.2.1.

75 Steps 2-5 cover the processing and correction of the data. Processing of
76 the data is handled by a WPS, a standardised interface for publishing geospatial
77 processes. The WPS used here was developed by the INTAMAP project. It
78 provides bleeding-edge interpolation methods through a WPS access layer, and
79 is discussed in greater detail in Section 5. Section 6 outlines a Matlab application
80 that utilises INTAMAP and the SOS interface to estimate uncertainties on the
81 user-contributed data collected from Weather Underground.

82 Step 6 is the stage at which data is actually consumed or updated by client
83 applications using the processing and access components, and these applications
84 are discussed in Section 7. The whole system demonstrates the benefits of IN-
85 TAMAP and of the interoperable infrastructure to which INTAMAP lends itself.

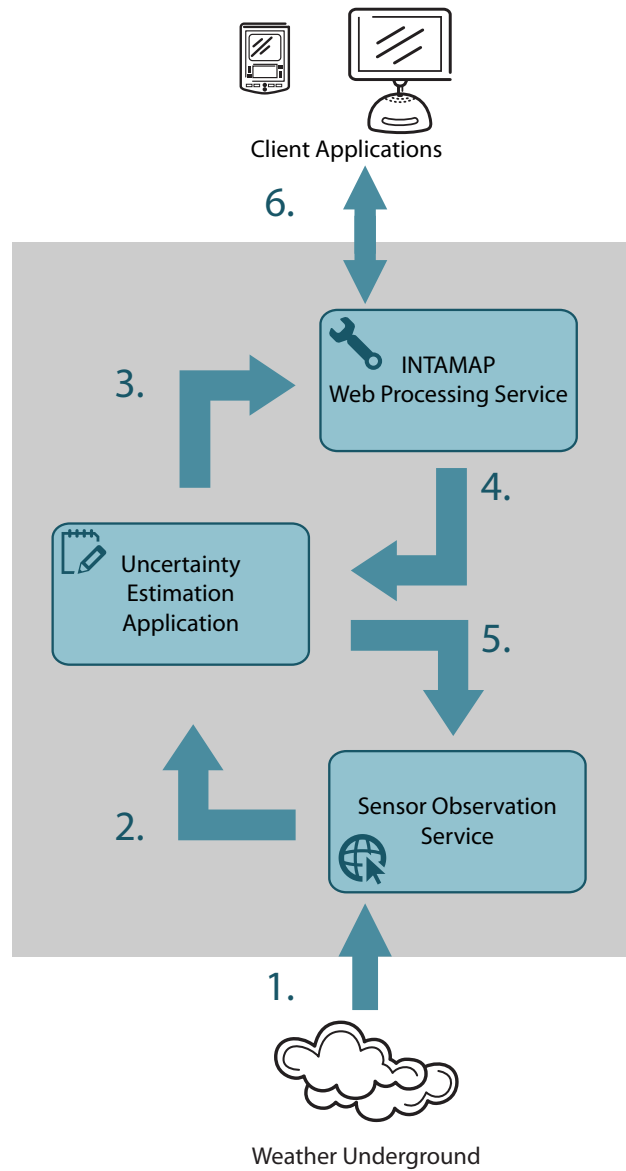


Figure 1: An overview of the system architecture shows the flow of data from the Weather Underground Web site to the end-user client application. A SOS provides an interoperable interface to the data. Uncertainty of the user-contributed data is estimated using the INTAMAP service, and used to update observations. The uncertainty (in this case, the prediction variance) of the final interpolated map is also conveyed to the client.

86 3. Data acquisition, storage and access

87 The system outlined in the previous section revolves around user-contributed
88 data. All data used within this system is weather data, specifically temperature
89 values in degrees Celsius. However, the software and statistical methods dis-
90 cussed have general applicability and might be used with a variety of datasets,
91 including other weather variables such as pressure, soil contamination measure-
92 ments, bird sightings (transformed into density maps) or disease reports from
93 monitoring networks.

94 3.1. Weather Underground

95 Weather Underground³ is an online community of weather enthusiasts pro-
96 viding up-to-the-minute information about current weather conditions around
97 the globe. Under its surface lies a vast repository of freely available weather data
98 recorded by thousands of individual weather stations. This data is proprietary
99 to Weather Underground Inc. and may be used for non-commercial purposes
100 provided that the source is clearly acknowledged. Commercial use, however, is
101 not permitted without advance written consent⁴. For this experiment we used a
102 subset of data gathered from the Weather Underground repositories.

103 Each of the contributing stations on Weather Underground has a ‘current
104 conditions’ XML file which is updated each time the station sends a new set of
105 observations. However, this XML file does not conform to any recognised XML
106 Schema standard, severely hindering third party consumption. Supplementing
107 the ‘current conditions’ file is a ‘historic observations’ file containing all previ-
108 ous data; however, this is formatted in Comma Separated Values format, which

³<http://www.wunderground.com>

⁴<http://www.wunderground.com/members/tos.asp>

109 obstructs interoperability. Furthermore, access to the data is hidden behind a
110 series of Web pages that offer no interoperable API, and limited querying func-
111 tionality. Section 3.2 discusses how we solved these problems by providing an
112 interoperable infrastructure to the Weather Underground data.

113 While user-contributed data is vast in quantity, it may vary drastically in qual-
114 ity. Issues such as quality of sensing equipment and location of sensor will affect
115 the accuracy and precision of any observed values. Quantifying these uncer-
116 tainties probabilistically allows more informed and sophisticated processing, for
117 example through a Bayesian framework (Gelman et al., 2003). Weather Under-
118 ground currently does not provide any uncertainty information with the observa-
119 tion data, and so Section 6 outlines a technique for estimating these uncertainties
120 using interpolation. The reference level for this technique is based on temper-
121 ature measurements from the UK’s Met Office⁵, which have well-characterised
122 uncertainty.

123 *3.2. Interoperable Weather Underground infrastructure*

124 This section discusses solutions to several important issues with Weather Un-
125 derground data, namely:

- 126 • no recognised interoperable standard for describing observation data,
- 127 • no interoperable interface to query and access the data, and
- 128 • no quantified uncertainty information.

129 These are issues which are likely to arise with many user-contributed data
130 networks, so these solutions could be adapted to many other contexts.

⁵<http://www.metoffice.gov.uk>

131 3.2.1. Observations & Measurements

132 Weather Underground data does not conform to a recognised XML standard,
133 and is therefore cumbersome and difficult to integrate into existing standards-
134 compliant software. For the purpose of the system outlined in Section 2, the
135 Observations & Measurements (O&M) standard was adopted. O&M was devel-
136 oped and agreed by the OGC, and is a conceptual model and encoding for de-
137 scribing observations (Cox, 2007). The conceptual model outlined in the O&M
138 specification is perfectly suited to describing data recorded at weather stations,
139 and consequently is ideal for encoding data from the Weather Underground. The
140 base of the model can be broken down into a *feature of interest*, i.e. the obser-
141 vation target (which usually includes a geospatial component), and an *observed*
142 *result*. Further information is captured within other properties, some of which
143 are detailed below:

144 **observedProperty** the phenomenon for which the result describes an estimate.

145 **procedure** a description of the process used to generate the result, typically
146 described using the Sensor Model Language (Botts and Robin, 2007).

147 **resultQuality** quality information about the observed value. This is pertinent to
148 the third issue outlined in Section 3.2.

149 Utilising the O&M language as a transportation device lays the foundations
150 of an interoperable weather data exchange platform. To build on these founda-
151 tions we employ another OGC standard, the Sensor Observation Service.

152 3.2.2. Sensor Observation Service

153 With the standard closed interface, access to and subsequent processing of
154 the Weather Underground data is difficult. Providing an open, XML-based, API

155 opens up this wealth of information for consumption by standards-compliant
156 software. The Sensor Observation Service (SOS) standard (Na and Priest, 2007)
157 complements O&M by providing a series of methods for accessing observation
158 data. The SOS is a Web Service which outputs requested observations in the
159 form of an O&M instance document. By utilising the OGC Filter encoding spec-
160 ification (Vretanos, 2005), complex queries can be performed, filtering by time,
161 space, sensor or phenomenon.

162 The SOS employed in this system was built around the 52 North SOS imple-
163 mentation⁶. Currently, no existing SOS implementation provides the function-
164 ality to serve observations with attached uncertainties. For the purposes of this
165 system, therefore, we developed an extension of the 52 North SOS that allows
166 uncertainty to be included in the SOS output through the use of UncertML. This
167 extension provides the functionality to describe observation errors by a variety
168 of means; as statistics (variance, standard deviation etc), as a set of quantiles, or
169 as probability distributions. The generated UncertML is inserted into the O&M
170 **resultQuality** property. UncertML is discussed in detail in the following section.

171 **4. Propagating uncertainty through a series of interoperable services**

172 Uncertainty exists within all data measured by sensors, and the magnitude
173 of this uncertainty increases greatly in the case of user-contributed data. Issues
174 such as poor quality measuring equipment, ill-positioned sensors and observa-
175 tion operator errors all contribute to unreliable measurements. Processing this
176 data through models, such as interpolation, propagates these uncertainties, and
177 this is a particularly important consideration in the case of spatially-referenced

⁶<http://52north.org/>

178 data, where recorded sensor location may also be unreliable Heuvelink (1998).
179 In order to optimally utilise any data (for example, within a decision making sup-
180 port tool) users require as complete a numerical description of its uncertainties
181 as possible.

182 Traditionally, environmental models and decision support tools have been
183 implemented as tightly-coupled, legacy software systems (Rizzoli and Young,
184 1997). When migrating to a loosely-coupled, interoperable framework, as dis-
185 cussed here, a language for describing and exchanging uncertainty is essential.
186 UncertML, a language capable of describing and exchanging probabilistic rep-
187 resentations of uncertainty, was used throughout this system.

188 *4.1. UncertML overview*

189 UncertML is an XML language capable of quantifying uncertainty in the
190 form of various statistics, probability distributions or series of realisations. This
191 section provides a brief overview of UncertML; for a complete guide we refer
192 the user to Williams et al. (2009).

193 All uncertainty types discussed here (e.g., the `Statistic`, the `Distribution`
194 and the `Realisations`) inherit from the `AbstractUncertaintyType` element
195 (Figure 2). This allows all types to be interchanged freely, giving an abstract
196 notion of ‘uncertainty’, whether it be described by summary statistics, density
197 functions or through a series of simulations. It should be noted that the scope of
198 UncertML does not extend to issues covered by other XML schemata including
199 units of measure and the nature of the measured phenomena. This separation of
200 concerns is deliberate, and allows UncertML to describe uncertainty in a broad
201 range of contexts.

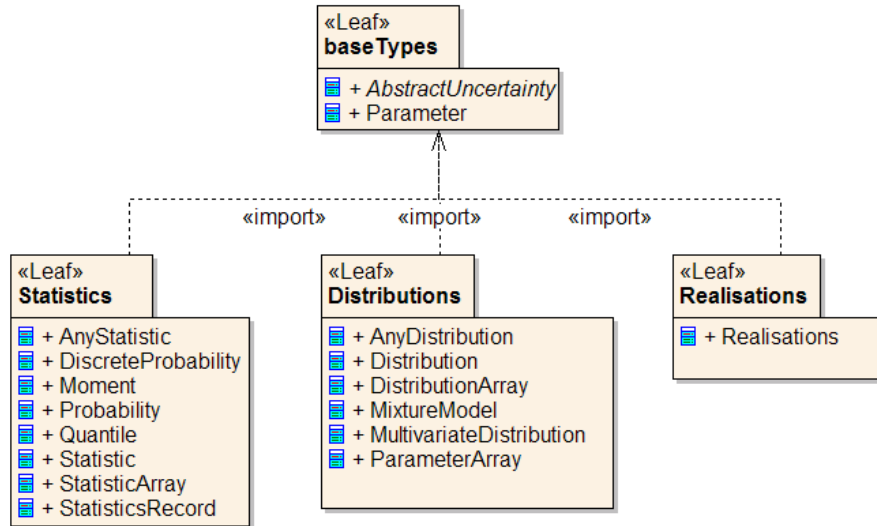


Figure 2: An overview of the UncertML package dependencies.

```

<un:Statistic definition="http://dictionary.uncertml.org/
  statistics/mode">
  <un:value>34.67</un:value>
</un:Statistic>
  
```

Listing 1: A *Statistic* describing the mode value of a random variable.

202 4.1.1. Statistics

203 Most statistics are described using the *Statistic* type in UncertML. As with
 204 all types in UncertML, the *Statistic* references a dictionary via the *definition*
 205 attribute. It is this semantic link, combined with a *value* property, that enables
 206 a single XML element to describe a host of different statistics. Listing 1 shows
 207 an UncertML fragment describing the statistic ‘mode’.

208 UncertML also provides two aggregate statistic types. The *StatisticsRecord*
 209 is used to group numerous different statistics and the *StatisticsArray* is a con-
 210 cise method for encoding values of the same statistic type. Aggregates may be
 211 used within one another, i.e. a *StatisticsArray* of *StatisticsRecords* and

```
<un:Distribution definition="http://dictionary.uncertml.org/distributions/gaussian">
  <un:parameters>
    <un:Parameter definition="http://dictionary.uncertml.org/distributions/gaussian/mean">
      <un:value>34.564</un:value>
    </un:Parameter>
    <un:Parameter definition="http://dictionary.uncertml.org/distributions/gaussian/variance">
      <un:value>67.45</un:value>
    </un:Parameter>
  </un:parameters>
</un:Distribution>
```

Listing 2: A Gaussian Distribution with mean and variance parameters.

212 vice versa.

213 4.1.2. Distributions

214 Within UncertML, parametric distributions are syntactically similar to statis-
215 tics. However, semantically, distributions provide a complete description of a
216 random variable and are therefore an integral component. The `Distribution`
217 type in UncertML is used to describe any parametric distribution; the addition of
218 ‘parameters’ instead of a single value differentiates the `Distribution` from the
219 `Statistic` (Listing 2).

220 A `DistributionArray` allows multiple distributions to be encoded con-
221 cisely. Types for describing mixture models and multivariate distributions also
222 exist.

223 4.1.3. Realisations

224 In some situations, a user may not be able to simply represent the uncertain-
225 ties of the data with which they are working. In such a situation, a sample from

226 the random quantity might be provided, allowing uncertainty to be described
227 implicitly. Within UncertML this is achieved using the `Realisations` type.

228 *4.2. Propagating UncertML through interoperable services*

229 UncertML was integrated into several key areas throughout the system out-
230 lined in Section 2. Firstly, the access and storage of the user-contributed data
231 is handled by an extended (i.e., ‘uncertainty-enabled’) implementation of the 52
232 North Sensor Observation Service (Section 3). Secondly, the INTAMAP Web
233 Processing Service, which provides advanced interpolation methods in an auto-
234 matic context, can utilise UncertML-encoded information. The only mandatory
235 input to INTAMAP is a collection of observations encoded in the Observations &
236 Measurements schema. Where observation errors are known, they are encoded
237 as UncertML and included in the O&M instance. In this system the observations
238 came directly from the UncertML-enabled SOS. Thirdly, the output of the IN-
239 TAMAP service is an UncertML document including any propagated uncertain-
240 ties. Client applications are then able to produce visualisations of the predictions
241 and accompanying uncertainty.

242 **5. INTAMAP**

243 Providing weather information that has been tailored toward the user relies
244 on either *knowing* the weather at the user’s location, or, more frequently, *predict-*
245 *ing* the weather at the user’s location using observed data at known locations.
246 This process of prediction is typically called interpolation. The INTAMAP (IN-
247 Teroperability and Automated MAPping) project provides an open interface to
248 complex geostatistical algorithms (Williams et al., 2007). Combining an inter-
249 operable interface and *automated* interpolation methods allows INTAMAP to be

250 accessed by inexperienced geostatistical users.

251 INTAMAP uses, as an interface, the interoperable framework provided by
252 the OGC's Web Processing Service (WPS) specification. This framework sup-
253 plies a formal structure that enables the description of any geostatistical process
254 through its inputs and outputs. INTAMAP has a single mandatory input - a series
255 of observations encoded in the Observations & Measurements standard. How-
256 ever, several other *optional* inputs exist to allow the user to customise the work
257 flow. Using these options, a user can, for example, specify the prediction lo-
258 cations using Geography Markup Language (GML) (Portele, 2007), or request
259 exceedance probabilities using UncertML. Ultimately, however, the capacity of
260 INTAMAP to automate many choices is what makes the service accessible. For
261 example, if users supply the bare minimum inputs, without specifying an algo-
262 rithm or supplying a GML-encoded spatial domain for their results, the service
263 will select the most appropriate interpolation algorithm based on the statistical
264 characteristics of the input observations, and will automatically calculate the ex-
265 tent and resolution of the output maps, based on their spatial arrangement. This
266 allows users to easily test and explore INTAMAP's capabilities, and refine their
267 requirements as they learn more about the options offered. A typical output of
268 INTAMAP is the mean (predicted value) and prediction variance (a measure of
269 uncertainty), encoded in UncertML, at a single location, at several locations or
270 over a regular grid. Complementing the Web Processing Service is an Appli-
271 cation Programming Interface (API) written in Java. This API handles XML
272 writing and parsing, allowing INTAMAP to be integrated into existing Java ap-
273 plications with very few lines of code. Tools within the API also allow the cre-
274 ation, where applicable, of GeoTiff files to visualise the results.

275 Behind the WPS interface lies an interpolation engine written in the statistical

276 language ‘R’⁷. Several differing interpolation methods are available, catering for
277 a range of scenarios. Automap (Hiemstra et al., 2008) provides an automatic im-
278 plementation of Ordinary Kriging. For contexts where the data contains extreme
279 values, or “hot spots”, a Copula Kriging method (Kazianka and Pilz, 2009) is
280 provided. A third method, Projected Spatial Gaussian Process (PSGP) (Ingram
281 et al., 2008) addresses two issues:

- 282 • the cubic growth in computational complexity for likelihood based infer-
283 ence in Gaussian process models (model-based geostatistics) which limits
284 their application to smallish data sets of less than 2000 observations;
- 285 • the inability of most geostatistical methods to deal with non-Gaussian er-
286 rors on observations, or non-linear sensor models.

287 The first point makes PSGPs particularly useful when tackling large datasets
288 (more than 2000 observations). However, it is the second point that enables the
289 PSGP method to propagate the observation errors within the user-contributed
290 data. INTAMAP is able to select an appropriate interpolation method for a spe-
291 cific dataset using several criteria; data characteristics (e.g., the presence of ex-
292 treme values); time constraints; and the presence or absence of quantified uncer-
293 tainties on the observations.

294 **6. Using INTAMAP to estimate observation error on user-contributed data**

295 The data obtained from Weather Underground is submitted by a range of
296 users, who will apply differing levels of quality control to their data, and site
297 their sensors in a wide variety of locations and exposures. In contrast, weather

⁷<http://www.r-project.org>

298 data collected by professional meteorological services undergoes rigorous qual-
299 ity control, and is collected under standardised conditions, including specifica-
300 tion of the instrument housing and height, the surrounding enclosure and the
301 exposure of the site (Oke, 1982). When instruments (and in particular the ther-
302 mometers which we consider here) are sited in urban areas, their readings are
303 likely to be strongly affected by the micro-climates that exist around build-
304 ings. These micro-climates, which can particularly affect readings from easily-
305 accessible monitoring locations such as domestic homes and gardens, are largely
306 related to changes in thermal storage and associated radiative balance (World Me-
307 teorological Organization, 1983). It is also quite possible that some instruments
308 might not be correctly screened from direct radiation, or are attached to walls
309 that are themselves exposed. In the following section we explore how statistical
310 methods, based on using the INTAMAP web service, can be used in a simplis-
311 tic manner to estimate the observation bias and residual observation variance in
312 these user-contributed data. We note that the methods applied here are intended
313 to be illustrative. Therefore they often employ rather simplistic assumptions,
314 which will be discussed later.

315 In order to address the issue of bias in the Weather Underground data, we
316 need to determine a reference level or standard. In this work we use temper-
317 ature observations from the Met Office synoptic observing network, (denoted
318 T_{MO}), which were obtained from the British Atmospheric Data Centre. Hourly
319 temperature data were obtained at 203 synoptic stations covering the UK for the
320 27th of May 2009. This day was chosen because it was relatively challenging to
321 the simplifying assumptions made in the analysis. A warm front was crossing
322 the UK from the west, with clearer conditions over northern Scotland, thus the
323 weather situation was complex, with cloudy skies over most of the UK, a situa-

324 tion that might be expected to minimise any biases due to micro-climatic effects,
325 but clearer skies over the north and east of Britain which could show significant
326 biases. The Weather Underground temperature data (denoted T_{WU}) was also ob-
327 tained for the same period, and the observations closest in time to the hourly
328 synoptic data were selected for each site, so long as they were within 15 minutes
329 of the synoptic observation time.

330 A gross outlier removal method excluded all observations outside the range
331 $-25^{\circ}C$ to $+30^{\circ}C$ which is climatologically reasonable. The aim of the outlier
332 removal is to remove outliers in the Weather Underground data that are the re-
333 sult of instrument failure, transmission errors and other processes which produce
334 very implausible observations. Visualising the resulting data reveals no further
335 clearly defined outliers. After this selection around 500 Weather Underground
336 stations were available for each hour.

337 A more sophisticated treatment of outliers is possible, and ultimately desir-
338 able, for automated preprocessing and quality control of user-contributed data.
339 Several detailed reviews on the topic offer and evaluate techniques which will
340 be of value for further development of such systems. These include algorithm
341 comparison and benchmarking exercises for interpolating noisy data, such as the
342 Spatial Interpolation Comparison (EUR, 2003, 2005), and more detailed consid-
343 erations of spatial outliers (points whose values are particularly unusual in the
344 context of their local spatial neighbourhoods) (Shekhar et al., 2003; Chawla and
345 Sun, 2006). Spatial outliers are especially important in the context of automated
346 decision support because of the capacity of 'false positive' values to trigger alerts
347 and the opposing need to capture genuine extreme events (Sharma et al., 1999;
348 Pilz and Spock, 2008). A number of studies have considered how existing statis-
349 tical methods to detect clusters and spatial outliers might be extended for auto-

Algorithm 1 Outline of the simple bias estimation algorithm applied to the Weather Underground data.

- 1: Remove gross outliers from the Weather Underground data
 - 2: Randomly split the Met Office data into training and validation sets
 - 3: **for** hour = 1 to 24 **do**
 - 4: Use the psgp method on the INTAMAP system to predict \hat{T}_{WU} using T_{MO} with a variance estimated to be $0.36^{\circ}C^2$
 - 5: Compute $\delta T_{WU} = T_{WU} - \hat{T}_{WU}$
 - 6: **end for**
 - 7: Compute $T_{WU}^{bias} = E[\delta T_{WU}]$
 - 8: Compute $T_{WU}^{var} = \text{var}[\delta T_{WU}]$
-

350 mated systems (Patil and Taillie, 2003; Brenning and Dubois, 2008) while recog-
351 nising the influence of heterogeneous covariates (Goovaerts and Jacquez, 2004).
352 This body of work offers some robust solutions for future quality control Web
353 Services; however, for this simple exploratory example, such treatment was not
354 deemed necessary.

355 The basic idea of this analysis is that we employ the INTAMAP interpolation
356 system to predict the temperature at the Weather Underground locations, based
357 on the Met Office synoptic station observations, which we assume are unbiased.
358 In order to withhold a set of observations for validation of our approach the
359 synoptic station data is split into two halves using random sampling. One half
360 is used for prediction at the Weather Underground locations and the other half
361 retained for validation. Since random sampling is used for the locations of the
362 training and validation sets, it is possible that the results could be sensitive to
363 this partition; however, a sensitivity analysis reveals that the results shown in the
364 paper are stable with respect to this partition, presumably because 100 stations is
365 a sufficiently large number to attain reasonable coverage of Britain. A summary
366 of the overall approach is shown in Algorithm 1. The approach is very simplistic,

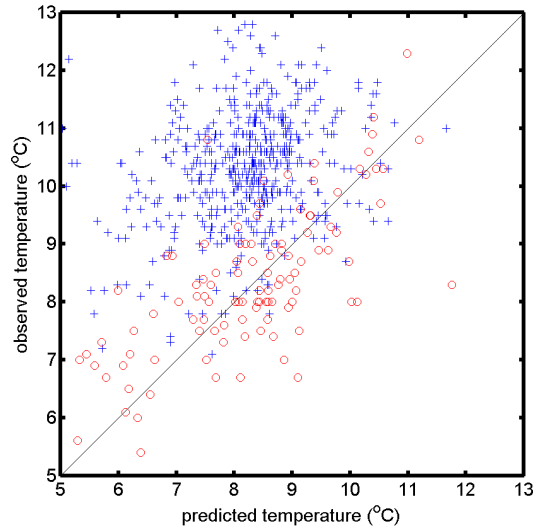


Figure 3: Predicted versus observed temperatures for Weather Underground (blue crosses) and Met Office (red circles) stations at 09:00 on the 27th May 2009.

367 but illustrates well the dangers of using uncorrected user-contributed data.

368 Figure 3 shows a plot of predicted versus observed temperatures. It is well
 369 known that temperatures are extremely sensitive to elevation, particularly in lo-
 370 cations such as Britain (Cornford and Thornes, 1996). Therefore, prior to all in-
 371 terpolation a linear trend in both x,y and elevation is removed. The trend model
 372 is estimated using least squares methods, which is strictly not appropriate here
 373 due to the correlated residuals, but does allow the INTAMAP service to be used
 374 without modification. A more refined version could employ universal kriging
 375 or regression kriging (Hengl et al., 2007), however for this illustration the dif-
 376 ferences are likely to be small. The typical lapse rates estimated for the period
 377 examined range from 3.5 to $5.1^{\circ}C/km$, and the inclusion of the lapse rates im-
 378 proves the estimation of the variograms in the interpolation process as might be
 379 expected. The residual process is spatially correlated and a variogram is fitted in

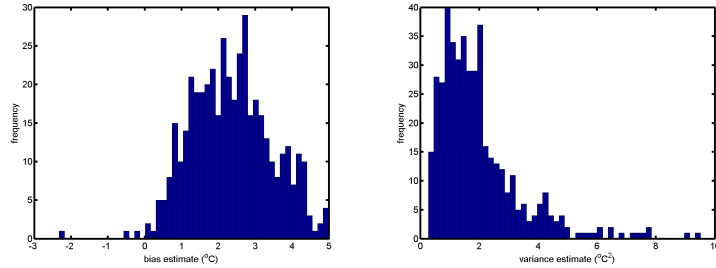


Figure 4: Histograms of the estimated bias (left) and residual variance (right) for Weather Underground temperatures for 27th May 2009.

380 the INTAMAP system with range parameters typically between 100 and 200 *km*,
 381 sill variances typically $2^{\circ}C^2$ and nuggets typically $0.5^{\circ}C^2$, this varying with time
 382 of day. The average minimum distance between Met Office stations in the train-
 383 ing data is ~ 40 *km* making spatial prediction of the regression residuals using
 384 kriging appropriate. The predictions are based on the training set of Met Office
 385 stations, and are made at both Weather Underground and Met Office validation
 386 set locations. It is immediately clear that the Weather Underground stations are
 387 significantly biased, being typically some $2^{\circ}C$ warmer than might be expected
 388 (the mean bias is $2.34^{\circ}C$ and the standard deviation is $1.09^{\circ}C$). The validation
 389 set of Met Office stations remains essentially unbiased. The scatter is reduced
 390 for the Met Office stations compared to earlier work which ignored the effect of
 391 elevation. The scatter for the Weather Underground stations is larger, and is not
 392 significantly changed by the addition of elevation as a predictor, suggesting that
 393 there might be other factors affecting these which are not connected to elevation.

394 Looking at the statistics of the bias and residual variance based on these
 395 predictions, on average the Weather Underground stations are significantly posi-
 396 tively biased (although not all are), and many have rather large residual variances
 397 (Figure 4). The positive bias might be expected – Weather Underground stations

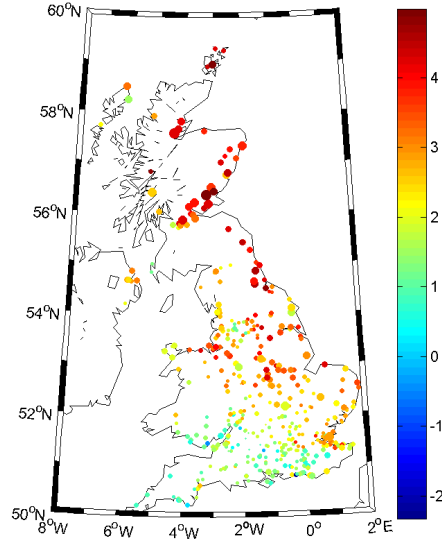


Figure 5: Mapping the estimated bias (colour) and residual variance (symbol size) for Weather Underground temperatures for 27th May 2009.

398 are often sited in urban areas, since they are often in the owners' gardens, which
 399 tend to be more sheltered and closer to large buildings than the standard Met Of-
 400 fice enclosures. Figure 4 shows that while many Weather Underground stations
 401 are significantly biased, some are not biased at all with respect to the synoptic
 402 station measurements. This emphasises the degree of variability in the estimated
 403 biases – a single bias estimate for the whole Weather Underground station net-
 404 work would not be sufficient. The same pattern can be seen in the variance.

405 Figure 5 shows the spatial distribution of both the estimated bias (colour)
 406 and variance (size) at the Weather Underground sites where data was available
 407 for the full 24-hour study period. There are interesting patterns in this plot, but
 408 it is rather difficult to ascribe these to specific causes – they might be related to
 409 meteorological conditions, social differences in the locations of instruments and

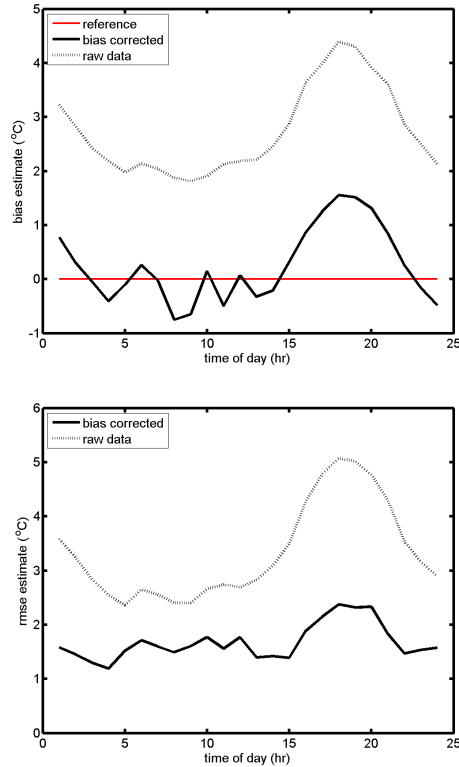


Figure 6: Testing the bias correction, using corrected and raw Weather Underground data to predict at the withheld Met Office stations. Prediction bias (left) and root mean square error (right) for 27th May 2009.

410 local environment, or, most likely, a combination of the above. It should also be
 411 noted that the bias correction will be most reliable when the Met Office stations
 412 are close to the Weather Underground stations, due to the use of a random field
 413 model. If this method for bias estimation were to be used in a more serious appli-
 414 cation, further developments of the model would be required and more extensive
 415 model validation would be necessary to ensure the robustness of the results.

416 Such a bias-corrected set of observations from Weather Underground could
 417 have two important advantages, as follows.

418 Firstly, it would allow Weather Underground data to be used as standardised
419 data inputs in a wide variety of application domains - for example;

- 420 • monitoring climate change;
- 421 • numerical weather model data assimilation streams
- 422 • mapping surface air temperature to explore vegetation growth in the UK.

423 - with the caveats that to make full use of the data a more complete characterisa-
424 tion of the micro-meteorological environment of the stations would be required.

425 There might be some concern that such processed data would not be suitable for
426 monitoring climate change, because the bias correction is based on the reference
427 stations (the Met Office network). However this network is carefully quality
428 controlled and represents the best estimate we have of surface climate change.

429 An interesting point for future analysis would be to monitor how the bias and
430 variance changes with changing climate – do the micro-climatic effects change
431 as climate changes? If these data were to be used in a climate change setting it
432 is important that a more rigorous error analysis and propagation should be per-
433 formed. In the data assimilation context the corrected measurements would have
434 realistic error variances, which would down-weight the impact of less represen-
435 tative observation locations, but still allow the observations to be used. If further
436 predictors were available, the variance in the observations might be explained as
437 a bias dependent on, for example, local site characteristics. This would allow a
438 further bias correction in each observation and increase the information content
439 (in a variance / entropy reduction sense) making the observation more useful for
440 data assimilation.

441 Secondly, it would allow Weather Underground users to establish the bias
442 and uncertainties in their observations, which could help identify siting prob-

443 lems and lead to improved instrument location practice amongst amateur weather
444 recorders. Figure 6 shows the effect of the bias correction. Here the INTAMAP
445 interpolation service is employed twice for each hour of Weather Underground
446 observations - once correcting for bias and using the estimated variance (from
447 the procedure described above), once using the raw data. As expected, the pre-
448 dictions at the Met Office test locations (i.e., the validation data locations which
449 were not used in the bias estimation at all) are almost totally unbiased if the
450 Weather Underground data is bias corrected, and the root mean square prediction
451 error is greatly improved using the bias correction and variance estimates. Note
452 that there remains a time-varying signal in the bias correction which indicates
453 that, unsurprisingly, the time-stationary bias model is probably too simplistic.

454 We note that the approach described herein is an initial attempt to address
455 the uncertainty in user-contributed data, and has several potentially significant
456 limitations:

- 457 • we do not account for external variables and their influence on surface air
458 temperature, other than elevation;
- 459 • we treat the bias and variance as being constant in time;
- 460 • we do not fully utilise the uncertainty in the predictions from the IN-
461 TAMAP system in computing the bias and variance;
- 462 • *spatial* outliers are not explicitly identified or removed in this instance;
- 463 • we do not iterate the algorithm to further improve the performance.

464 In further work it would be possible to develop a more complete Bayesian frame-
465 work for estimating the uncertainties on this user-contributed data (particularly

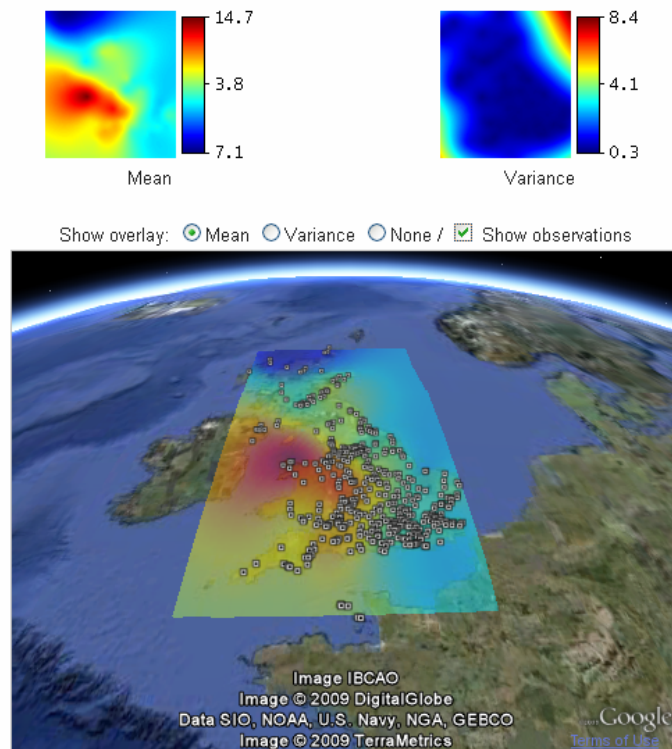


Figure 7: Using the INTAMAP system to interpolate temperature data from Weather Underground for 15:00, 27th May 2009. Note that the PSGP method was used to account for the estimated bias and variance in the observations.

466 where a reference data set is available), based on a spatio-temporal modelling
 467 approach, much like Kalman filtering (Kalman and Bucy, 1961). This ought
 468 to include as additional external inputs as many factors as possible that would
 469 help in explaining the variation in surface air temperatures, including elevation,
 470 distance to coast, urbanisation and a range of other micro-meteorological factors.

471 Having estimated the bias and residual variance of the Weather Underground
 472 stations, we have exploited the ability of the PSGP method on the INTAMAP
 473 interpolation Web service to produce an interpolation for the whole of the UK.
 474 This interpolation used the Weather Underground data and accounted for the spa-

475 tially varying bias and variance in the observations. The resulting interpolation,
476 displayed on Google Earth, is shown in Figure 7. To our knowledge this is the
477 first bias-corrected map of temperatures to be produced from user-contributed
478 data at this level of detail.

479 **7. Clients for using and contributing data**

480 The framework developed here provided a basis for several interesting client
481 applications to be developed. This section discusses two of these applications,
482 demonstrating their operation.

483 *7.1. Contributing data with a mobile device*

484 The mobile client ⁸ was developed using Java Mobile Edition and can run
485 on any device which supports this platform. Interpolation requests and map im-
486 ages are sent and received via the Internet using any available data connection
487 supported by the device (e.g. WiFi, 3G). The client contains several features
488 that have been simplified to allow operation on low-powered mobile devices, in
489 addition to keeping the transferred data packets to a minimum.

490 The internal GPS receiver of a supported device is used to retrieve the lon-
491 gitude and latitude of the user. The client then downloads map images from
492 OpenStreetMap on which the current location of the user is clearly pinpointed
493 with a red marker.

494 The client can retrieve the latest temperature readings from the SOS using
495 a simplified Web interface. This interface relies on HTTP GET requests rather
496 than XML and returns comma separated values (x,y,z). Sacrificing some of the
497 functionality provided by an XML interface allows a typical SOS response to be

⁸<http://www.intamap.org/tryMobileClient.php>

498 reduced in size from 2.1 Megabytes to 13 Kilobytes (a factor of 165). Only the
499 observations that are within the boundaries of the current view are retrieved.

500 With a strong emphasis on user-contributed data, it is of course important
501 to allow clients to upload information as well as access it. Therefore, users can
502 also create and plot their own observations in addition to those retrieved from the
503 SOS. A location can be chosen by either selecting a point on the map, using the
504 current GPS coordinates of the device, or by entering the coordinates manually.
505 Once the coordinates have been entered a temperature value is specified and the
506 data is stored.

507 The user can submit interpolation requests to INTAMAP using the current
508 data plotted on the screen. The client formats the data into an XML document
509 which is then sent to a lightweight INTAMAP proxy. The response contains
510 URLs to images representing the mean and variance of the interpolated data.
511 These images can then be transparently placed over the existing map images.

512 The user can also inspect any given point on the interpolated map. A loca-
513 tion is chosen using the cursor, and the client submits an interpolation request.
514 The mean and variance values for that particular location are calculated by the
515 server and returned to the client. Information regarding the chosen point is then
516 displayed in a pop-up box.

517 *7.2. Demonstrating INTAMAP using Google Earth*

518 The INTAMAP project provides powerful interpolation methods through a
519 simple XML interface. However, the overheads of the WPS interface mean it
520 is not trivial to quickly realise the functionality of INTAMAP. For this reason a
521 Web-based client application built around the Google Earth browser plugin was
522 developed. The client, available at <http://www.intamap.org>, uses an HTML

523 form to submit data to INTAMAP. Data should be formatted as comma separated
524 x,y,z values. If the uncertainty of your data has been quantified as a standard
525 deviation (perhaps using the technique outlined in Section 6) then this can be
526 included as a fourth column. Google Earth works using latitude and longitude
527 values, so if your data is projected into some coordinate system you must spec-
528 ify the EPSG code of that system. Clicking the ‘interpolate’ button sends the
529 data to INTAMAP, resulting in two image overlays: the predicted values and the
530 variance. The images seen in Figure 7 were generated using this Google Earth
531 client.

532 **8. Discussion and conclusions**

533 This paper has demonstrated how integrating various technologies into a
534 ‘mashup’ application provides a complex system, usable by the general pub-
535 lic. Implementing a SOS interface provides a gateway into the system that can
536 satisfy a variety of client applications. Due to the verbosity of XML payloads,
537 simple service interfaces have been developed in parallel to enhance performance
538 on small footprint devices. The individual components are chained, creating a
539 collection of autonomous services which are loosely coupled to form a SOA.

540 UncertML provides quantification of uncertainties that arise as a result of
541 the interpolation process. Utilising this information allows client applications
542 to present realistic estimates which include uncertainty to answer the high-level
543 questions posed in Section 1.

544 Many of the issues raised by the temperature information in this example are
545 generic and will apply to all forms of user-contributed data: biases which can be
546 partially explained by external variables and which differentially affect observa-
547 tions across time and space, a wide but heterogeneous network of sensors which

548 sample at varying frequency, and a limited, but useful auxiliary set of reliable
549 data which can be used to reference the uncertainty estimation. The interoper-
550 erability challenges shown and solved here are also widespread; for example,
551 the need to open up relatively impenetrable interfaces via standards-compliant
552 mechanisms such as Sensor Observation Services, the wealth of data which can
553 thus be exposed, and the huge value which can be added to it by relatively simple
554 operations such as bias estimation.

555 As sensors become cheaper and people are increasingly connected to the Web
556 it seems likely that user-contributed data will proliferate, and that the collection
557 and use of this data could become a significant part of our environmental mon-
558 itoring networks. Quality control and uncertainty assessment will therefore be
559 crucial to the effective use of user-contributed data.

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