

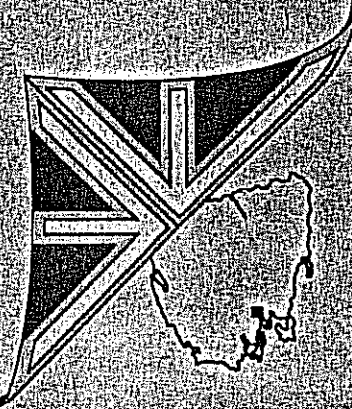
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The Future GIS - an Expert System?*

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Abstract

The essential topics in Geographic Information Systems (GIS), spatial and temporal reasoning, are difficult and require powerful tools and a formal systems approach. Future GIS will include tools and methods developed in artificial intelligence research and will resemble today's expert systems. An expert system is defined here to be a computer-based mechanism that produces results comparable to those obtainable from a human expert in some field. Moreover, intelligent user interfaces and reasoning about data quality can also benefit from the power of expert systems.

1 Introduction

Future computer-based Geographic Information Systems (GIS) will employ methods and tools developed in artificial intelligence research and they will resemble what is now called an expert system. This will allow a GIS to provide great power and flexibility to a diverse user community.

This paper begins by discussing some of these methods and tools and their applicability for use in an 'intelligent' system. The assertion is made that the use of these methods and tools is indispensable for building an effective GIS.

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An intelligent systems paradigm is first introduced and is followed by some discussions concerning knowledge representation, search strategies and machine learning. Significant emphasis is placed on the use of expert systems which may assist the user in specific task areas such as geography, cartography, data quality, and spatial relations in general. The envisioned services of a GIS are so powerful that users will need some help in using them. The GIS itself is expected to provide that assistance as well.

Some of the techniques and methods discussed in this paper apply generally to any information system, but they are most necessary for spatial information systems given the additional complexity of geometrical data processing and graphical output. In this paper, therefore, we will use the terms *Spatial Information System* and *Geographical Information System* without intending to differentiate between them.

2 AI Tools and Techniques

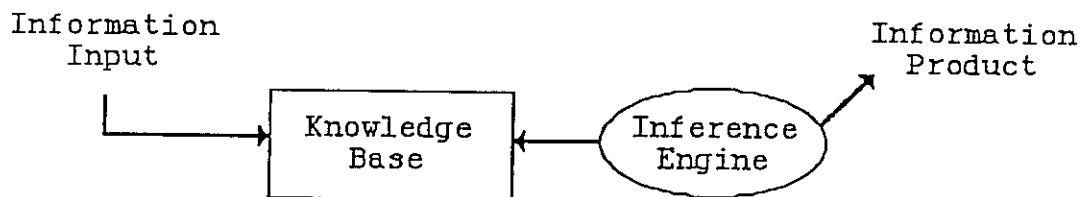
Artificial Intelligence (AI) research can be segmented into specialty areas concentrating in such subject matters as natural language processing, intelligent data retrieval, expert consulting systems, theorem proving, robotics, automatic programming, combinatorial and scheduling problems, and perception [Nilsson 1980]. Most of these are also areas of concern in the development of a GIS. Therefore, the tools produced to assist in the solution of AI problems are often directly applicable to GIS implementations, e.g. efficient search strategies, heuristic control of processes, interesting and efficient schemes for knowledge representation, etc. Some of these tools will be discussed in this section.

2.1 Intelligent Systems Paradigm

One of the most productive ideas to come from studies in AI is that of maintaining a definite separation between knowledge and the mechanisms which operate upon and control the processing of knowledge. This separation is not usually found in programs written in procedural computer languages such as Pascal or Fortran; in these, the results are obtained by coding the processes by which the results may be obtained. In an AI system, results are obtained by simply describing what knowledge is required, leaving it up to the control mechanism of the system to infer the results in the best way it can. For this reason these control mechanisms are often called *inference engines*.

The assertion is made here that, given current technologies, this separation is the essential step to machine intelligence. Procedural descriptions of knowledge are, by themselves, insufficiently flexible to permit the variety of responses expected of an intelligent entity. Some reliance on procedural methods will probably always

be required, however, and a successful implementation of an intelligent machine will no doubt feature an eclectic blend of procedural and descriptive programming.



Separate Knowledge from its Control

Strict independence is not always easy (or sometimes even possible) to maintain. The advantage of this architecture, however, is that more powerful tools for operation or control can be developed independent of any specific knowledge domain. Moreover, modified or even entirely new knowledge domains can be constructed and applied to an existing inference engine to solve a variety of problems. It is a modular design philosophy allowing for the reuse of one or more of the systems components by a different system.

Changes in the knowledge base (which are to be expected in any system which attempts to model reality) do not require corresponding changes to the general control machinery. More importantly from the user's view, it is possible to update the knowledge base without having to reprogram or even to fully understand the internal operations of the AI system. Ideally the user is only required to understand a simpler model of the behaviour of the inference system because inference engines are generally based upon a simple mathematical model describing very fundamental relations. It is usually not necessary for a user to comprehend the complexity of technical operations or to know the tricks-of-the-trade which are incorporated into the inference engine to enhance its performance. These latter concerns should be invisible to the user, freeing him or her to express relevant knowledge in a purer form. Complex programming problems which apply only to the inference engine can be addressed by people with the proper background in computer science. This partitioning allows each specialist to remain more productively in his or her own realm of expertise.

Functional independence has obvious benefits to a GIS implementation. Geographic information is rarely static and, therefore, must undergo constant revision to remain current and accurate. Factual data such as owner and tax assessment information on parcels requires frequent updating. Even the rules occasionally change, for instance zoning board or environmental agency decisions may alter land use possibilities. Personnel more familiar with geography than with computer programming may modify the information component with relative ease if it is detached from programming concerns and if it can be formulated in familiar terminology.

2.2 Knowledge Representation

Divorcing the knowledge base from the inferencing mechanism means that knowledge representation schemes are generally declarative in nature; it is only necessary to state what something is, not how to make one. Any procedural decisions are performed by the inference engine. The knowledge base is a collection of specific and general facts and descriptions of relations between them (e.g. the area of Lot 6 is .45 acres; the north side of the 2300 block of Madison Street is zoned for light industry; if the traffic density along Pulaski Avenue at North Avenue reaches 58 vehicles per minute, increase the traffic signal timer by 15 seconds; etc.). Most geographic information is of this kind. The format used for the conceptual representation of knowledge is very important as it determines what inference strategies can be used.

2.2.1 Logic

There is great interest in the use of logic for knowledge representation purposes. The first order predicate calculus (which is primarily declarative) easily lends itself to knowledge-based systems and there are readily available programming languages, such as Prolog and Lobster [Frank 1984], designed to work directly with the predicate calculus.

There are on-going discussions in the AI community concerning the adequacy and suitability of a first order logic for general knowledge representation [Winograd 1975] [Kowalski 1979] [Minsky 1981]. Many of the early arguments against it were guided by the perception that the predicate calculus is cumbersome and computationally inefficient [Newell 1981], but many of these problems can be overcome as more is learned about the controls that can be placed on the deductive process [Moore 1982]. Many other problems, however, are not yet satisfactorily resolved, for example those which concern time, uncertain or unknown values, and the identity of components of homogeneous substances. As an example of this last problem consider that a particular window is still identifiable after it becomes part of a house, but what about the water in River A after it joins Lake B?

To resolve some of these questions multi-valued logics, those with more than just true or false as values, are being examined. Some interesting possibilities are: 3-valued logics, for instance using values TRUE, FALSE, and MAYBE, or TRUE, FALSE and UNKNOWN; probability logic in which a valid response may be that something has a .345 chance of being true.

Fuzzy Logic is another interesting case of multi-valued logic that has utility in a GIS. It uses measures similar to probabilities, but applies them in a different way. Probability relates a value that is known to be exact (i.e it has a 'true value') to a degree of uncertainty about the accuracy of its measured value, whereas Fuzzy Logic relates a value which may be measured exactly to uncertainty about its true value. As an example in conventional probability, the measurement of a point in space is represented by an error ellipsoid representing the probability of the actual point being enclosed. In Fuzzy Logic, the concern might be to determine to what degree a collection of 100 points in space is considered a 'large' collection. Fuzzy Logic has utility in the semantic interpretation of knowledge.

2.2.2 Meta-level Knowledge

Meta-knowledge is knowledge about the organization of, or relationships among, other pieces of knowledge. There are meta-levels on top of meta-levels as well; no limits should be placed upon the levels of construction for meta-knowledge. Computational control can be based upon meta-level knowledge and it is imperative that meta-knowledge play an important role in the operation of an AI system. It is the only way in which the separation of knowledge base and inference engine can be maintained in non-trivial situations and it provides operational efficiencies the lack of which would make even small systems computationally intractable.

Knowledge Abstraction: To incorporate meta-level knowledge it is important that the system provide support for basic knowledge abstraction. Procedures for classification, generalization, and aggregation need to be part of the system's design. [Frank 1986]

Classification is the recognition that there is representative structure for individual objects, actions or concepts that share common properties. It is a fundamental organizational tool for making the complex myriad detail of reality more comprehensible. Classification provides a method for describing what it means to be one of those things the class represents.

Generalization is the meta-level extension of classification. Additional organizational power is obtained by generalizing classes by common properties in a way similar to classification.

Aggregation is the recognition of the collective as an entity in its own right. The aggregate can provide a focus for knowledge concerning its component parts the

way the class does for its membership only in this case the knowledge concerns interrelationships among the components.

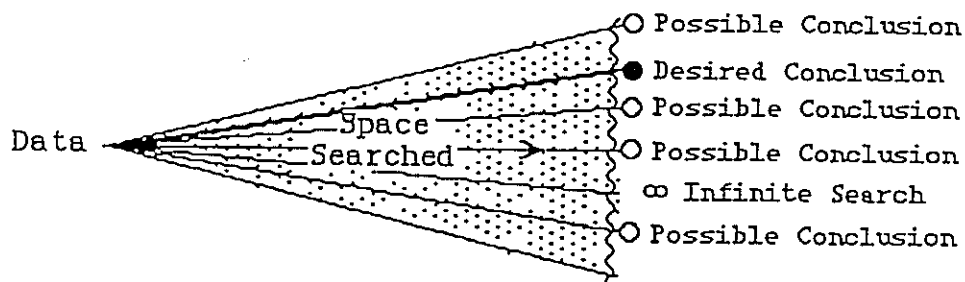
Without these abstraction concepts the meta-knowledge will tend to be haphazard and difficult to comprehend and to use correctly. Aside from providing a formal mechanism for understanding the knowledge contained in the system, knowledge abstraction may also assist in data storage utilization by allowing common knowledge to be stored once at the meta-level (class or aggregate) instead of repeatedly with the individual entities.

2.3 Search Strategies and Heuristic Control

The database of information for a GIS is expected to be large and the mechanisms for accessing that information need to be powerful and efficient. Many of the early successes in AI research were developments of search techniques that make more efficient data retrieval possible and that can still guide a search to optimal or near-optimal results. In general terms, a solution in an information system is found by searching through the database until all the relevant information has been found. Obviously a strategy of sequential search is only usable as long as the database is relatively small. For realistically large databases, more appropriate search strategies are required.

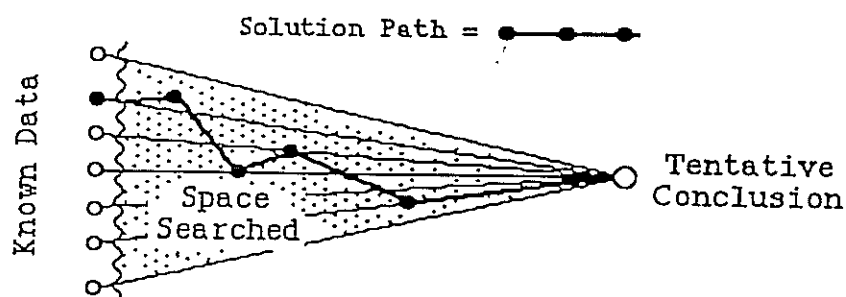
All possible search paths for a particular problems are called the search space. By recognizing certain structuring possibilities in the search space, various search strategies can be advantageously employed. Often, if the search space can be arranged hierarchically or as a graph, one of two basic search techniques, either forward or backward chaining, is used.

The former technique starts with some facts and rules and then searches for interesting conclusions which can be derived from them. It is sometimes called a data-driven search. If there are many possible search paths, this technique may investigate many unproductive ones before success is met. If the search space is infinitely large, the search algorithm is undecidable and may never meet with success.



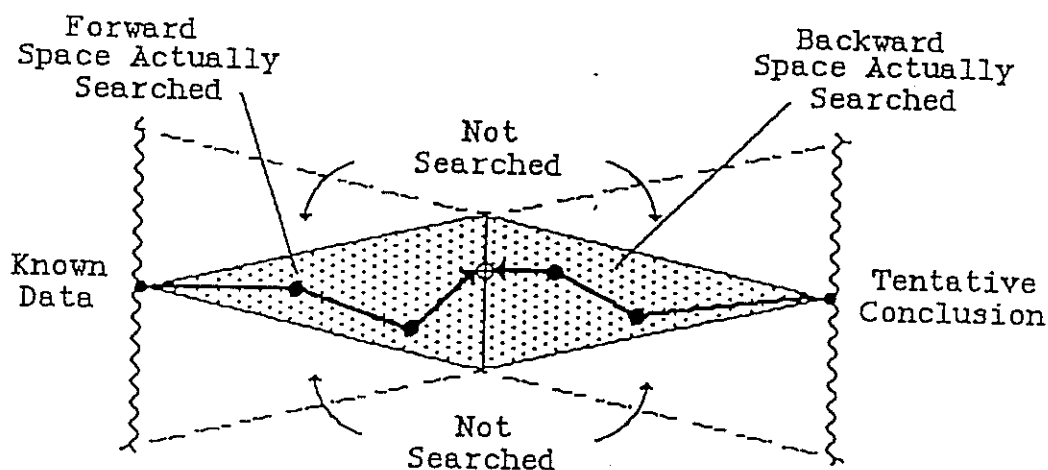
Forward chaining search space

With backward chaining, a conclusion is tentatively proposed and an attempt is made to show that the conclusion can be derived from facts and rules stored in the database. The search in backward chaining is usually, but not necessarily, finite and is considered to be more easily directed because the search is made from a known goal to known data values.



Backward chaining search space.

It may be possible to combine the two search methods to gain considerable efficiency. This is called a bi-directional search. The intersection of the two search spaces can be significantly smaller than with either technique alone.



Bi-direction search may meet half way.

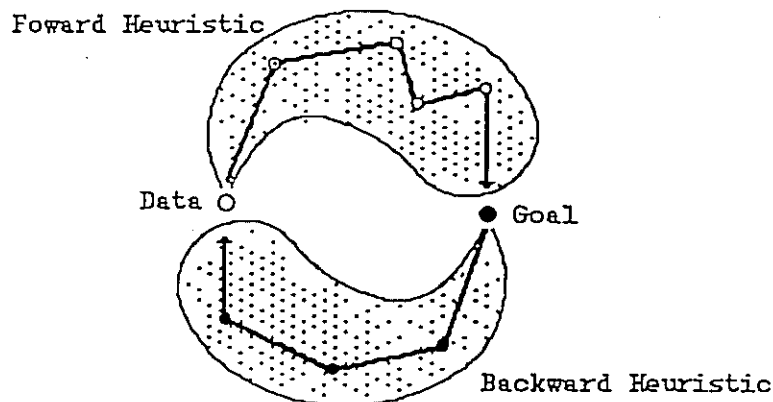
2.3.1 Heuristic Searches

In many instances the search directions can be controlled or assisted by additional information concerning the problem domain. In this case the search is called a

heuristic search. Branch and bound algorithms, such as A* and AO* [Nilsson 1980], use task-dependent knowledge and can often find optimal solutions without a full search of all those possible. Occasionally heuristic methods are used to find solutions which may not be optimal. They may still be satisfactory, however, and can be obtained at costs far below more complete search methods. Any information which will help to limit unproductive search, whether it is highly specific to the problem, a general rule-of-thumb, or just plain common sense, can be used as a heuristic.

A simple example of heuristic search control would be to cancel a request to search a long list of parcel records to see which parcels in area X have residential tax rates greater than some value Y when it is discovered that area X is zoned heavy industry and that there would be no values returned because there aren't any residences there.

This technique has its disadvantages because there is often the chance that the best advice available turns out to be bad advice. In the example above there may have been some residences remaining in area X from a time before the area was re-zoned to industry. In the case of a bi-directional search, heuristic control may cause the search paths to by-pass one another resulting in twice the work to find a solution.



Bi-directional heuristic searches may take twice the work of a single direction heuristic search.

2.3.2 Machine Learning

One of the most interesting areas of AI research concerns machine learning. It is a continuing theme that computer programs contain only the intelligence that the programmer and the knowledge engineer program into them; however, there are a

number of examples of programs that have the ability to learn on their own. Example problems or constructions of increasing complexity are presented to these programs. The programs search for common properties and relationships among data entities, possibly comparing the new information with knowledge previous acquired. The new information is then integrated with the old, increasing the knowledge base.

Most of the questions in this area are still unanswered; however, there are a few initial efforts in this area concerning GIS. One of these is SRAS [Robinson 1987], a system concerned primarily with the acquisition of *fuzzy* natural language concepts of spatial relations. The KBGIS programs [Smith 1984] [Smith 1986] [Glick 1985] planned to have learning capabilities as well. Since the knowledge acquisition techniques currently used to create intelligent systems require the employment of highly trained (and expensive) human knowledge engineers, machine learning is a field that has enormous potential for growth as the recognition of the utility of expert systems increases.

3 Expert Systems

The most useful product of AI research is, and will for a long time continue to be, the concept of the expert system: a computer-based mechanism that produces results comparable to those obtainable from a human competent in a particular field of interest. Although a strict definition of an expert system is elusive, one should attempt to include a sense of flexibility in the use of the knowledge under its control. This usually requires an implementation of the intelligent systems paradigm discussed above in section 2.1.

As with human experts, expert systems can be found with different levels of expertise. Sophisticated systems attempt such tasks as medical diagnoses, spectral analyses, and combat situation evaluations and these can take many people-years to construct.

Expert systems incorporate many of the tools introduced above to provide an appropriate response in situations where human experts are too costly or are not readily available. The expert system can provide advice in the acquisition and integration of primary data, assistance in optimal data storage, guidance in the appropriate operations to perform upon data, and direction in the ways and means of retrieving either primary data or conclusions that can be drawn from the data. Moreover, the expert system can assist in the analyses and control the presentation of results as well.

Current expert systems, however, are characterized by rather narrow knowledge domains. Their expertise is generally very specialized to the task at hand. In order to accomplish the entire range of tasks mentioned in the previous paragraph a collection of systems would probably be required, each one specializing in one area. Perhaps

another system could serve as an expert manager for the others.

3.1 Types of Expert Systems

There are a number of organizational schemes for expert systems. Most current expert systems are based upon a type of IF_THEN rule structure. It goes by various names, such as a situation-action or a production rule system. The general technique in all of these rule-based systems is that the recognition of one or more pre-condition states somehow triggers a transformation to a post-condition state. "If we have A, B, and C then we can get to D." Rule-based systems can be implemented in a variety of ways: large case statement structures, list-pattern matching, or as theories in logic which employ resolution to deduce results [Hayes-Roth 1985].

The concept of a knowledge frame [Minsky 1981] employs a data structure into which directly pertinent knowledge about some object or event is concentrated. The frame localizes information on one subject, and provides slots for default values and an interface to other related knowledge frames. For instance a frame could be constructed for a typical parcel. Information about location and current owner could be included along with some default values like residential tax rate. Connections to frames for adjoining parcels are provided as well. A frame for a different parcel would still have location and owner information, but perhaps with a commercial tax rate replacing the default value for residential.

The use of associative (or semantic) networks is another approach [Findler 1979]. Knowledge is arranged into a directed graph structure such that arcs represent relations between various pieces of knowledge which are stored at the graph nodes. The associative network concept may be combined with the rule-based approach if the rules for traversing the network are stored at the nodes.

At this time working with frames or networks is considered difficult because of the problems inherent in standardizing the knowledge structures to gain working efficiencies; however, there is a growing interest in these forms as some of the underlying problems are gradually resolved [Gevarter 1983].

4 Expert Systems Essential For GIS

Any future GIS will necessarily include techniques developed for use in expert systems. Expert systems are of such great utility that we assume that this is a common movement for all forms of database development and to refer to an "expert GIS" would be redundant; however, as mentioned above, currently expert systems have very narrow scopes of interest.

A GIS must be quite expansive in its knowledge domain to provide competent and useful information on geography, cartography, and fundamental spatial relationships.

The wide scope of expertise required for a GIS is too complex for current technologies to handle, however; a GIS as an expert system is, at this time, only a dream. Even a system to handle cartographic output requires knowledge that has not yet been successfully organized.

Despite the size of the problem, however, it is assumed that a comprehensive expert GIS will someday exist. All of the common definitions of a GIS imply that power. When the problems are eventually solved and a system is constructed, it will provide assistance to a diverse user group including private citizens, resource managers, highway and utility planners, and legal and governmental services. To accomplish its mission, a GIS will need to integrate a number of specialized knowledge domains or possibly combine a number of expert systems into one cohesive unit.

4.1 Spatial Organization Experts

A GIS is a spatial information system and it is, therefore, important to consider how best to represent spatial relationships among objects. Humans place special emphasis on the geometric properties of things; they want to know if two objects are near to one another (and usually how near) or if they are touching at a point or along a border line, etc. Perhaps they overlap, intersect, or penetrate. There is an enormous amount of information in even a simple graphic image and a GIS should have access to it all. Unfortunately no one has yet invented a single method for the computer representation of the spatial aspects of objects in a way that is entirely satisfactory. An important research effort is to develop a formal system for reasoning about spatial relations.

The two major technologies that have evolved in an attempt to treat this problem are raster and vector. Raster is concerned with the direct organization of space and vector is concerned with the organization of objects in space. The differences are not easily reconcilable at the technical level; however, they both address the same problem. Some operations are easier in one system than the other. It is assumed that future systems will find a way to accommodate both raster and vector, but it will probably take another expert system to decide which form or combination of forms is better suited to a particular solution.

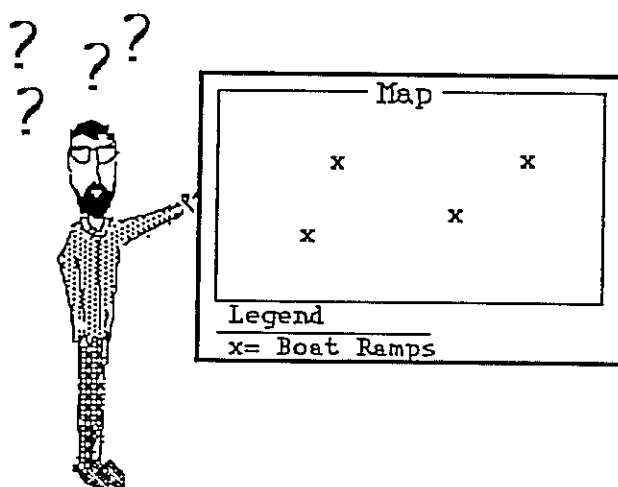
4.2 Cartography Experts

Expert system technology will be crucial to the construction of systems that are to produce cartographic output on demand. Maps that are mass-produced and stocked for subsequent distribution must make compromises in their information content because their audience can not be narrowly defined. The major advantage of a spatial information system over current mapping efforts is that the spatial

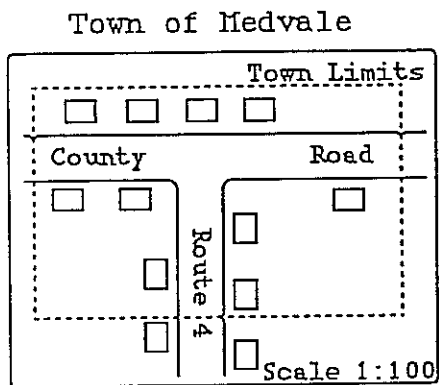
information system is intended to produce maps that closely match the specific needs of the individual user.

The graphic quality of a map produced by a GIS must remain at an acceptable level, although not necessarily as good as a human cartographer's effort. To accomplish this requires that rather sophisticated decisions be made as to map form and content. Some progress in this area has been made concerning the automatic placement of names of cities and towns, etc. such that overlaps and other conflicts are avoided [Ahn 1984] [Freeman 1984]. At least two levels of problems still remain, however. One is the proper selection of map entities to be displayed and the other is the proper selection and placement of representative symbols for those entities.

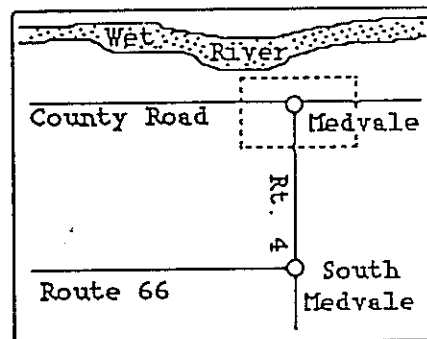
A user about to go fishing may ask for a map of all public boat ramps in Maine, but a map that only shows boat ramps will be of little use unless the sea coast and lakes and perhaps a few connecting roads are also shown. Choosing what to display as context for the primary information request requires expert intervention.



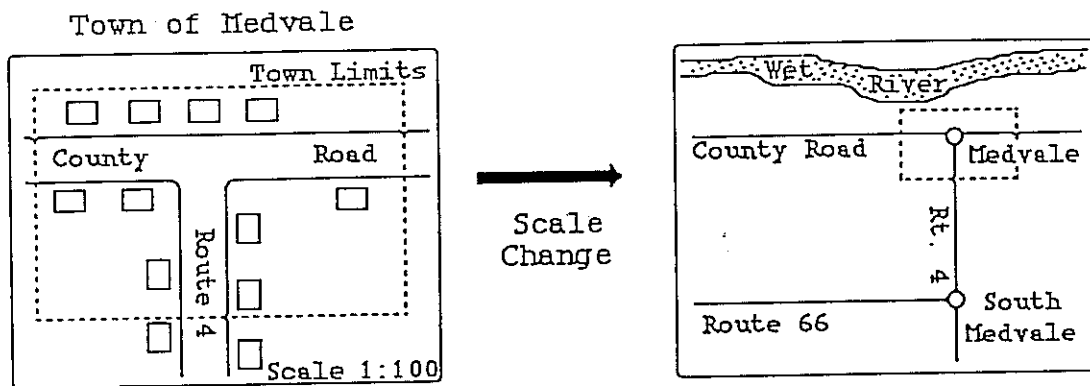
At some point during changes in scale a single detailed symbolic representation of some entity or a closely grouped collection of symbols must be either be eliminated or replaced by a simplified or generalized symbol. The entity may be a street map of a town which is changed to a plain colored area showing only major thoroughfares or which is replaced entirely by a small circle, the size of which is proportional to the town's population. The tightly grouped collection of symbols may be small squares representing houses along a street which may simply be eliminated altogether at larger scales. Deciding when and how to modify a symbol in these instances also requires some cartographic expertise.



Scale
Change



Scale changes cause symbol changes.



Scale changes cause symbol changes.

4.3 User Interface Experts

Users must be able to express their needs clearly and simply, in a way that does not require a deep understanding of the technology of the GIS. They should not have to write programs to extract needed results. A system should accept a description of the information required and find ways on its own to produce it with minimal further input. An expert system must make allowances for imprecise information requests and provide assistance in guiding a search for specific information.

In order for this to happen, the system must provide a language that both user and system can tolerate. This language must permit expressions of spatial relationships, such as inside, next-to, overlapping, as well as other, more conventional, queries. For instance, a request to a GIS might be to identify all of the spruce and pine forests within 15 miles of navigable rivers in Washington County, Maine, or determine that piece of land which is zoned as light industry and which is nearest to the town of Orono. It is preferable, but not absolutely necessary, that the language be close to a natural language in form and style.

To respond best to a user's request, a system needs some internal model of the user and his or her current focus. Human responses are somewhat adapted to the perceived audience and a GIS should have similar capabilities. Is the user interested in just an overview or some specific, detailed piece of information? Does he or she want an analysis of the results? Is the user interested in highway construction, utility planning or environmental issues? Does the user have extensive experience in this subject or does he or she need help in finding information or with understanding the information? Is this user color blind? Terminology, verbosity and help levels should all be variables in a GIS-user interface. Progress has been slow in this area [Friedell 1982] and much more work needs to be done.

4.4 Data Quality Experts

The quality of information product of a GIS is intimately associated with its reliability in decision-making. To make effective use of a GIS a user should know what the level of confidence to place in the results of the system. The expression "garbage in – garbage out" stills holds, but it is also possible to get garbage out even with a respectable input. An information system is a data processing system and all non-trivial computer transformations introduce errors which may compound as they propagate through the system [Hudson 1987]. As an expert in geographic information the system itself may be used to track data quality and provide the following:

- a listing on demand of the statistical confidence level of any piece of data displayed.

- warnings that the transformations employed have compounded errors to the point that the data requested is now useless.
- warnings against the inappropriate use of certain operations. The arithmetic mean of Portland and Bangor should not be computed.
- guidance in the proper collection and quality requirements of primary geographic data such as a suggestion that to obtain an output of a particular precision A requires that the primary input data be at least of precision B.

5 Conclusion

The work done by AI researchers to find general purpose solutions to the problems of getting a computer driven system to act intelligently can often be adapted successfully to the more specialized requirements of a Geographic Information System. Particular methods and tools developed in the field of AI, such as heuristically controlling searches, maintaining a separation between the representation of knowledge and the control of its processing, and giving the GIS the ability to learn in order to acquire new knowledge on its own, are indispensable in the construction of a viable GIS. The incorporation of expert systems is necessary because of the size and complexity of the problems expected to be encountered in a GIS. Ordinary procedurally oriented programming techniques will be insufficient to accomplish the task.

Acknowledgement

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