Abstract

This paper will explore the potential for a generalized animation library and user interface scheme to facilitate the understanding of geospatial datasets as they change over time. By creating an easy way to (1) load, annotate, and interact with shapefiles (a proprietary GIS format developed by ESRI), (2) animate and morph complex polygons across shapefiles in a time series, and (3) integrate this functionality with popular mapping APIs (such as Modest Maps and Google Maps), a GIS visualization framework can be created to assist users in identifying patterns and trends in spatio-temporal data. At the root of this problem is the need to find a good way to match polygons across shapefiles, and to solve the Polygon Vertex Matching problem, one of the most important underlying problems of creating visual changes between sets of polygons in a display. There currently does not exist any good way of presenting...
the changes of two areas represented in shapefiles because of the very complex nature of the polygons that fail most matching criteria of current algorithms. As a result morphing shapes (tweening) is reduced in most visualization packages to simple tweens between regular well known shapes like triangles or squares and is currently simply used in visualizing scatter plots or similar displays. Visual morphing or tweening would be of great importance in understanding changes in physical areas that are represented by complex polygons in shapefiles. In addition to a proposed Flash-based UI, this paper presents an algorithm that achieves a good vertex matching between sets of polygons without making serious assumptions about the properties of said shapes and that reduces vertex matching artifacts.

Introduction

Shapefiles and GIS Software

Shapefiles [1] currently represent the most ubiquitous format used to store, retrieve and visualize map data and spatial features. Large collections of shapefiles exist in a variety of data arenas and can store spatial and attribute data about political, economic, ecological, transportation, and parcel information, among other things. Though these shapefiles represent spatial information as a snapshot in time, many of these shapefiles exist among a collection of other similar shapefiles corresponding to a different date as part of a time series (weekly, monthly, yearly). In this scenario, it makes sense for GIS technologies to provide a way in which to visually represent these changes over time, given that the most important properties of shapefile records are the shapes of the actual regions themselves. Ott and Swiaczny note in their book on Time-Integrative GIS that “a crucial motivation for the development of time-integrative GIS techniques is the fact that enormous amounts of data have been collected in the last decades by census offices, research projects, and not the least companies, which can be reevaluated and reused” and that there are not simple ways to visually display “the forest boundaries between 1850 and 1950” [2]. Simply observing the overlap of regions between two shapefiles can make it difficult to interpret shape differences between the overlaid polygons, and if more than two shapefiles are considered the transitions become nearly impossible to understand or represent. Many GIS experts hold that “animation can be used as an exploratory tool to detect similarities or differences in distribution within a series of maps. This is especially possible when one can interactively access the individual frames in an animation and quickly switch between individual maps or map sequences [3].”

Tweening

Tweening, an important tool in the field of visualization, is the process by which one image is transformed into another image by generating intermediate frames between the two to give the appearance of a smooth transition. While the concept of animation is not by any means new to visualization, techniques for the animating of more complicated shapes – those for which no simple, underlying structure (table, tree, scatter plot, etc.) exists – have not been well developed. Polygon tweening is one of the remaining problems to be solved efficiently and correctly for complicated shapes. Some complex morphing capabilities exist in the newest version of Flash, but these capabilities rely upon ‘hints’ given by the programmer, and do not work well for polygons with large vertex, which are typical in shapefiles.

Related Work

Existing Spatio-Temporal Data Visualizations

From the GIS perspective, a number of GIS applications have been built with some capacity for GIS animation. Perhaps the closest of these is TimeMap, which has separate Java-based and Flash-based web map viewers that support spatio-temporal sense-making. The Flash-based viewer can animate GIS files by tweening vector polygons, but exploratory tasks currently must be done in a separate Java-based viewer where data is animated by playing a number of successive frames which toggle features on and off according to a date filter. The GeoTime time-space visualization framework allows users to interactively create their own event-based stories over time and animate them on demand, but in this case the events are point-based and do not provide for smooth transitions between polygons. ESRI also has several desktop-based applications and plug-ins such as Arc Hydro and STARS that allow for basic animation of geospatial data. Regarding the ability to easily view shapefiles on the web, Edwin van Rijkom wrote a simple library to import shapefiles into Flash.
Existing Vertex Set Matching Algorithms

There exist a good number of polygon vertex set matching algorithms in the literature but it seems that every one comes with very stringent requirements on the type of polygons it can handle, or with exceptions that cannot be easily handled by shapefile polygons. Some interesting algorithms on this topic are:

Morphing using Extended Gaussian Image [4] converts a convex polygon into its Extended Gaussian Image (EGI) and then uses this representation on both images to construct the intermediate values. The algorithm first computes the ECI of the source and of the target polygons. Next it matches source and target normals on the ECI circle creating source-target normal pairs. Then it linearly interpolates weights and angles between normal pairs to derive the ECI of intermediate steps. Finally, it reconstructs the convex polygon corresponding to the ECI obtained by interpolating the normals. This algorithm works well but only for convex polygons whose EGI is unique. Most shapefile polygons are unfortunately far from convex.

Line length and inner angle interpolation [5] method uses the representation of the polygon as a set of lines and inner angles and simply linearly interpolates between this set for the initial polygon and the final polygon. While this approach has the advantage of being inherently simple and fast the choosing of the correct vertices when the polygon vertex number doesn’t match between the initial and final polygon make this method not applicable towards shapefile polygons as these are unlikely to ever match if the polygon shape has changed.

Triangulation Algorithms [6] transform the polygon into a set of triangles with a skeleton link and then changes the triangulation from one set to another by minimizing ‘physical force’ required to move triangles from the initial configuration to the final. These algorithms are perhaps the most promising for the purpose of guaranteeing no fake intersections or topological changes in the intermediate polygons. The problem with this algorithm though is the particular requirement for ‘compatible polygons’, namely creating a common graph of the centers of both polygon triangulations with the same linking structure which is not. The Steiner tree problem also that it uses to find the final link between triangles is an NP-complete problem so an approximation of the Steiner tree must be calculated. The algorithm would create much more movement in the matching to keep parts connected and non-intersecting. Still this approach would present the best alternative algorithm for generating polygon matching especially since it has the ability to best represent texture and texture morphing on the polygons should this feature be desired.

Methodology

Domain and Data Selection

We decided to explore one of the many scenarios in which smooth-transition polygon morphing could be applied to a visualization problem – changes in land-use over time. Though we realized that the way in which land-use evolves doesn't necessarily follow a smooth pattern of linear growth, the movement of the edges of certain polygons would be a much strong visual cue of geographic change that simply turning each data layer on and off and requiring the use to make the determination based on iterative comparisons. We found a time-series, geospatial dataset for land use in Hillsborough County, Florida that consisted of a series of shapefiles that had been generated for 1999, 2004, 2005, and 2006 from aerial photography. These files were downloaded from the Southwest Florida Water Management District's public access website and re-projected from the FL Albers coordinate system into WGS84 using ArcGIS desktop software from ESRI. Since the dataset was quite large, only a subset of the land-use data – those polygons associated with farmlands for a small area of the county – was ultimately used, as a proof of concept.

User Interface

We decided to build the application infrastructure on top of Flash, Flex, and Flare, because of the robust support that Flash has for vector graphics, animation, and creating smooth transitions between shapes. Several pre-existing technologies were integrated together to create a mapping interface for the land use shapefiles. We used a pre-existing Flash library created by Edwin van Rijkom to parse and display shapefile polygons in a Flex application. To give these shapefile polygons some context, we decided to use the Modest Maps API to support map tiling, panning, and zooming. Each of the polygon shapefile
layers was symbolized, and a section was added to enable users to turn the layers on and off so that they could manually compare the differences in land use across the given years. Finally, upon map initialization, the four shapefiles were pre-loaded into the Flex application from the file system and cached in memory for quick retrieval. Though this technique would not work for large sets of shapefiles, it worked for our purposes as a proof of concept.

**Polygon Matching Algorithm**

Initially, we naively assumed that it would be possible to use some sort of unique polygon attribute to match polygons from one temporal snapshot to another. That is, we had hoped that a polygon from the 1999 land use shapefile could be mapped to a polygon in the 2004 shapefile using some sort of unique identifier. In reality, we found that typically no such historical continuity is explicitly recorded across spatio-temporal GIS snapshots (for a number of reasons), so we had to use methods for approximating polygon intersection. Since we wanted to focus primarily on the actual polygon morphing problem, we developed a simple algorithm for mapping overlapping polygons to each other by:

1. Calculating the areas and centroids of each polygon, \( P_1 \) and \( P_2 \).
2. Calculating a "polygon radius," based on the area such that:
   \[ R_1 = \frac{A_1}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \quad R_2 = \frac{A_2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \]
3. Calculating the distance between the two polygon centroids:
   \[ D = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2} \]
4. Asserting that if \( D < R_1 + R_2 \), then the polygons intersect

![Figure 3 Centroid & Radius Matching (match if \( D < R_1 \cdot R_2 \)](image)

Using this method, we iterated through each shapefile, and matched each polygon to a preceding polygon and a succeeding polygon if intersection was determined. We stored this matching information in a data structure in memory so that it could be accessed quickly for the animation routine.

**Vertex Set Matching Algorithm**

The first step in matching two polygons is finding the minimum distance between a vertex on the initial polygon and a second vertex on the second polygon. This first step is one of the most important assumptions in this algorithm as a bad match here can result in very bad behavior in the match. Most polygons presented though will satisfy this property that the closest pair of points between any two points will represent a correct matching. Usually this can be thought of as the part of the polygon that stays unchanged or the part of the polygon that moves the least.

After this pair is found, since the vertex list for both polygons can be thought of as a circular linked list, the vertices are reordered with the new pair of vertices being the first element in either polygon. This matching gives the algorithm a reference point from which to check for edge intersections at the level of the vertices assigned in the assignment problem step.

Next another simple step is taken in finding the second minimum distance between two vertices with this second matching used to create an initial line from which distances can then be calculated by the vertex alignment part. The selection of this second minimum vertex is also a delicate task as it has a major influence over the rest of the code. However unlike the first step this second matching can be at some point changed during the course of the algorithm which is not true for the initial matching.

With these two pairs of vertices and the list in the reordered fashion a distance matrix between all pairs of points is calculated. The appropriate changes are made to the original distance matrix received to simulate the value of the matrix after the assignment problem algorithm would have selected those vertices. The steps are subtracting the value of the matching distance \( m(k_0, l_0) \) from all the first row where \( k_0 \) is the first vertex in the reorganized first polygon and \( l_0 \) is the first vertex in the reorganized second polygon. The other step is similar only it involves creating the row
and column values of the assignment problem for \( i_{\text{min2}} \) and subtracting this from the matrix.

The main part of the vertex set algorithm now starts, which runs the normal assignment algorithm with the same steps in changing the matrix for each iteration but with the following major changes:

In order to preserve edge order if \( x \) is the truth assignment matrix:

\[
\forall t, f, k, l \ s.t. (t, f) \in \text{Paths}(x) \text{ and } (k, l) \in \text{Paths}(y) \text{ then if } \begin{cases} i < j \\ x_{lk} = 1 \rightarrow k < l \\ x_{jl} = 1, \end{cases}
\]

What this means, if we are looking at the matrix \( x \), is that given any matching at row \( i \) at position \( k \), there can be no matching in a row \( j \) unless it matches with a higher column number \( l \). This condition imposes a limit on how far to the left or right a column \( j \) can look to improve a value in the assignment problem. This also imposes a limit on the initial population of the minimum distance to a column since not all free rows can reach all columns. This limitation also brings an important question as to whether the algorithm will ever finish since there is a possibility that no improvement can be done but in this case the algorithm sees that no change has been done and produces a temporary output from the non-matched vertex creation part of the algorithm. The only true property other than the algorithm that is kept from the assignment problem is that at the level of the assignment matrix no vertex is allowed to be matched with more than one other vertex.

![Figure 4](image.png)

Given a partial assignment matrix we check whether we can run the vertex creation algorithm, namely whether all current non-matched vertices are lying along an edge on the matching. This means that there exists no pair \( i, j \) for which the matching skips both the line \( i \) and the column \( j \). If the partial assignment matrix doesn’t check out then we proceed to the next step. Mathematically the test for the vertex creation part can be expressed as:

\[
\exists t, f \ s.t. \text{ both } t, f \text{ not matched, and both } \begin{cases} x_{lk} = 0 \\ x_{jl} = 0, \end{cases}
\]

The vertex creation algorithm creates two new temporary lists for each polygon. The algorithm adds both first vertices to the new temporary lists and starts in the top-left corner (position 0,0) of the assignment matrix and works its way down from the \( i, j \) position where \( x_{ij} = 1 \) towards the \( n_r, n_c - 1 \) position by the following pattern (we treat the array as if there existed \( x_{nr, nc} = 1 \)):
Matching a point to an edge happens by selecting the closest point on the edge to the point we want to match. The method for doing this is calculating the perpendicular point that crosses the line of the edge and then depending on which side of the segment it falls into (outside or inside the segment) selecting one of the endpoints of the segment or the actual perpendicular distance to the point.

Figure 5 Matching a point to a segment (point – gray dot, segment – blue line, NewP – orange dot)

From these two temporary vertex arrays we can calculate an approximate sum or value of how good our approximation is by simply taking the distance between matching i-i pairs of points. Because of the construction of the temporary arrays they have the same number of points, that the matching is i to i, and all points are in order.

$$\text{sum}_{\text{twostep}} = \sum_{i=1}^{\text{dim}} \sqrt{(V_\text{temp}^i_x - V_\text{NewP}^i_x)^2 + (V_\text{temp}^i_y - V_\text{NewP}^i_y)^2}$$

The final part of the algorithm is at every step of adding another part to the assignment checking whether the current sum is worse than the previous sum case in which we stop. We also check that we have not reached the number of vertices of one of the polygons.

Algorithm speed is approximately $O(n^3)$ worst case scenario (where $n = \min(n_1, n_2)$ but matching needs to be run only once at load time of shapefiles so calculating time may be hidden. Algorithm performs well when one of the $n_1$ is small < 300 regardless in majority to the size of $n_2$. The algorithm slows significantly when presented with matching two extremely large polygons $n_1, n_2 > 1000$. For this case in particular a special part was added to the algorithm to specify the maximum time that it can spend trying to match two polygons. If the algorithm reaches that time and still has not found ‘best’ solution the algorithm gives the last previous temporary stored array which represents the best approximation at the time of the matching.

Algorithm Preprocessing of Polygons

By inspection on the normal types of polygons that were asked to be matched certain pre-algorithm changes to the program appeared to work very well in helping the algorithm give a good match in most cases:

Figures that suffer translation in the physical image can provide very bad initial data should vertices from opposite sides overlap because of the transition. Also in most cases position of the object should not affect how it changes its shape so the first pre-processing option is subtracting the centroid values of both polygon at the start of the algorithm and adding them back after the matching has happened. This will center both polygons on the same spot to better allow for matching.

In the same way that translation can be partially taken out of the equation of matching by subtracting the centroid of the polygon, another important part of preprocessing is relative scaling (scaling the polygon by a factor of the ratio of areas of the two polygons). This procedure will make both polygons be the ‘same size’ and will allow for a much better match in general.

In the code the relative scaling can only be turned on when selecting centroid removal also because scaling would bring some questions of what point remains the same (the top-left corner of the bounding box, the centroid of object, etc.). In the Relative Scaling case with centroid removal the scaling location is well defined and does not need to choose any options.

Since the preprocessing mentioned above isn’t always the best approximation, all three possible versions are computed (no preprocessing, centroid subtraction only, centroid and relative scaling) and the best distance between groups of given vertices is kept as the best solution. The general percentages of success between the three procedures seem to be 10% no preprocessing, 10% centroid subtraction and 80% centroid and relative scaling in selecting the best solution. This suggests that a simple acceleration of the algorithm with the penalty of correctness might be to simply run all polygons with the option of centroid and relative scaling.
Animating the Map

Once the vertices of all of the matched polygons were recalculated above, Flare’s Sequence and Transition classes were used to orchestrate the tweening. Since the calculations were all done in the matching stage the rendering of the tween is a simple O(n) operation which allows for great visual effect by providing the capability of tweening large sets of polygons simultaneously.

Results

Using the methodology described above, we were able to match and tween polygons across shapefile snapshots. Flare had no trouble tweening hundreds of polygons in parallel, which was very promising, and the polygon animation seemed to be a much easier way to detect polygon shape changes – especially subtle changes – as compared to turning layers on and off. Further user testing would be needed to confirm this.

User Interface

As described in the methodology and as seen in Figure 1, we created an interactive, web-based map viewer with a basic navigation structure (panning and zooming), the ability to turn the time-series shapefiles on and off, and the ability to request the application to match and tween polygons. Though the sample shapefiles were small (approximately 120 polygons each), they loaded and rendered as sprites (Flash-based vector shapes) quite quickly. Flash event handlers were used so that as the map panned and zoomed, the polygon sprites were re-factored and synchronized with the underlying base map tiles.

Polygon Matching

We found a number of challenges in matching polygons, which are beyond the scope of this paper, but which provide ample opportunities for future work. First, we found that, not surprisingly, our intersection heuristic was not sufficient for determining polygon intersection and a much more comprehensive algorithm should be used. This became apparent when we observed that polygons were actually
 tweening to adjacent, rather than overlapping polygons from the subsequent Shapefile in the time series. One way in which this could be addressed would be to incorporate the polygon union and intersection functions that are part of the open-source Java library, JTS [7]. Another issue that we noticed was that a one-to-one polygon matching algorithm was overly simplistic. There are in fact cases where an animation would be better characterized by splitting a source polygon and having it tween to several destination polygons, for example in the event that a section of land is bisected by a new roadway. Similarly, there are cases where several source polygons should tween to a single destination polygon, for example if several parcels of land were incorporated into a larger area. Hence, many-to-many polygon matching support should be incorporated into the library.

**Vertex Set Matching**

The polygons that were processed and tweened from the shapefiles varied in sizes and shapes, so we were able to gain a fairly wide range of the possible polygon tweening scenarios with which the procedure had to contend. There were some performance issues when matching one large polygon (over 3,000 vertices) to another large polygon, and a strategy would be needed to address certain Flash timeout errors that occurred when processing large geometries. The algorithm implementation itself, however, was quite successful in creating smooth, natural transitions between polygons. We observed various shapes in order to determine ‘errors’ in the morphing. Note that while the algorithm guarantees that there will not be any edge crossing in the initial step of assignment, in the non-matched vertex problem this assumption can be broken.

Figure 7 Sample results a) tweening a hole into a polygon b) matching 7(5:2)-7(2:5) vertex polygons produces 10 vertex polygons c) matching a test polygon with a real polygon
Figure 7 presents a set of polygon tweens implemented with the algorithm described in the paper which all presented different challenges:

**Discussion**

The matching algorithm discussed in this paper has been implemented as a class object in the Flare Visualization toolkit [8]. The data is read in from the shapefile using a modified version of the Van Rijkom libraries [9] for shapefiles. The class was created to extend previous existing classes in order to allow for other tweens like color, rotation, and even embedding to be done as simply as using another common shape like a rectangle or circle.

From this proof of concept, it seems feasible – through (1) improved polygon matching heuristics, (2) a batch-processing of vertex matching between large polygons, and (3) some indexing strategy to handle large shapefiles – to have a generic framework by which shapefiles can be animated across temporal snapshots in a generic manner. These animations, in conjunction with addition visualization tools, will greatly improve the way in which spatio-temporal datasets can be explored.

**Future Work**

*Tweening Enhancements*

While the algorithm to morph simple polygons to other polygons was completed, much of the theory that was thought of for this project initially never managed to get it to the code so a short description of the rest of the algorithms that were developed will follow now and will end with algorithms that need to be developed for better tweening but that were not thought of during the time of the class project:

*Tweening polygons which contain holes* represent are a surprisingly important part of shapefile tweening, as almost all polygons have some hole or another. The algorithm to render the holes already exists in the code and consists of rendering the entire object in one single pass but by creating ‘cuts’ that reach the holes. The algorithm for the holes would start by matching the outer polygon shape to final polygon. The holes would then be ‘moved’ to the final position by weighted distance sum with closest vertices getting weight based on the inverse of the distance to a point. We would find the matching between holes in final polygon by simple polygon matching algorithm (the centroid radius approach described in the paper). We create an initial adding of the holes into the representation of the polygon by means of the special cuts. While there are still holes not matched we find the closest centroid to an edge and connect the centroid (the intersection with the edge of the hole) to the edge of the outer polygon and then repeat making sure to now consider the hole as part of the ‘outer’ polygon. This algorithm is $O(h^2 n)$ where $h$ is the number of holes and the $n$ is the number of vertices on the outer polygon. Finally we match the connecting cuts to the final polygon again by weighted distance sum.

*Tweening many to many polygons* will probably represent the final step in a polygon matching algorithm as this would depend on all other parts working and itself recursively narrowing the number in the groups of polygons that need to be matched. We match the convex hulls of the groups of polygons one to another. The convex hull around the group of ‘initial’ polygons creates a ‘hole’ the inside of which represents the empty space between the all polygons. This ‘hole’ is moved by weighted distance sum to final position. The moved initial convex hole is matched to final convex hole (problem is recursive but even in a worst case scenario the polygons in a group decrease by one until it represents a simple matching) An algorithm is still needed to keep track of what the hole represents empty space or polygons (hole’s within hole’s are actually polygons) and algorithm is also needed to reconstruct the matching of vertices from all intermediate steps.

*Selecting between best preprocessing technique based on topological errors not the linear sum*. This would allow for a much more ‘correct’ representation of the polygon tween but no simple algorithm was thought of.

*Polygon Matching Enhancements*

In addition to tweening enhancements, a better way of matching polygons to one another must be developed (as explained in the “Results” section), perhaps using the open-source libraries available from the JTS Topology Suite. A many-to-many polygon matching data structure must also be implemented to better
mirror the way in which geometries change in the real world.

**Memory Management and Performance Enhancements**

Performance-wise, to make this type of generic application scalable, a methodology must be developed to manage large shapefile datasets. It is impractical to load millions of records worth of shapefiles into memory, so the ability for the tool to support a one-time batch process by which shapefiles are indexed and matched. With the matching and indexing already complete, loading the necessary “PolySprites” on demand will be trivial for Flash.

**Data Exploration Enhancements**

Finally, we would like to expand this tool so that it is not simply an animation tool, but also a data exploration tool. Since we are already calculating areas, centroids, and polygon mappings across shapefiles, it follows that we should also support the user’s ability to ask spatial questions and perform spatial queries to answer questions like, “In which direction and to what extent has the population of City A grown over the past 30 years?”, “How did the river affect various flood zones during the last few weeks of rainfall?”, or “How has the expansion of this roadway affected development in this area?” (which are all questions that Ott and Swiaczny identify to be difficult to do with the existing GIS frameworks).

**References**