Representing Three-Dimensional Topography in a DBMS with a Star-Based Data Structure

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Abstract For storing and modelling three-dimensional topographic objects (e.g. buildings, roads, dykes and the terrain), tetrahedralisations have been proposed as an alternative to boundary representations. While in theory they have several advantages, current implementations are either not space efficient or do not store topological relationships (which makes spatial analysis and updating slow, or require the use of a costly 3D spatial index). We discuss in this paper an alternative data structure for storing tetrahedralisations in a DBMS. It is based on the idea of storing only the vertices and *stars* of edges; triangles and tetrahedra are represented implicitly. It has been used previously in main memory, but not in a DBMS—we describe how to modify it to obtain an efficient implementation in a DBMS. As we demonstrate with one real-world example, the structure is around 20 % compacter than implemented alternatives, it permits us to store attributes for any primitives, and has the added benefit of being topological. The structure can be easily implemented in most DBMS (we describe our implementation in PostgreSQL) and we present some of the engineering choices we made for the implementation.

1 Introduction

Several data models to represent 3D topographic objects (e.g. buildings, roads, the terrain and dikes) and to store them in a database management system (DBMS) have been proposed. Some of them store only the geometry of single objects while

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others permit us to explicitly store the topological relationships between objects (and also those between the lower-dimensionality primitives of the representation of an object). Geometry models usually store objects with a boundary representation, called *b-rep*, and one popular data structure used in practice is GML (OGC 2007). It can be seen in the overview of Zlatanova et al. (2004) that many topological models are variations of the *formal data structure* (FDS) (Molenaar 1990; Molenaar 1998), which, unlike its name implies, is a conceptual model—with rules and constraints to preserve the validity—that can be implemented in a DBMS. FDS is a b-rep model in which four primitives are kept (nodes, arc, edge and face; bodies are implicit), and where the topological relationships between them are stored.

An alternative to b-rep models is to use *tetrahedralisations*, where 3D objects are decomposed into tetrahedra and where empty space (e.g. between buildings) is also decomposed into tetrahedra and integrated in the model.[1] Carlson (1987) and Pilouk (1996), among others, argue that tetrahedralisations have several advantages to represent 3D objects, in the same way that triangulations have advantages in 2D (Frank and Kuhn 1986). The advantages the most often cited are: storage is simplified as only one convex primitive is needed (Penninga 2005), spatial analysis operations can perform more efficiently (Ledoux and Gold 2008), and the overall implementation is simpler, thus more robust. However, tetrahedralisations also have theoretical drawbacks as Zlatanova et al. (2004) state in their comparison of the different topological models: "An additional disadvantage of TEN is its much larger database size compared with other representations."

As Penninga (2008) states, the storage penalty is true only if all the primitives of the tetrahedra are explicitly represented (nodes, edges and faces, as with the FDS). He proposes a data structure where only vertices and tetrahedra are represented, and the other primitives are extracted on-the-fly. His data structure can be seen as a variation of *Simple Features* (OGC 2006): vertices are stored in one table and have an ID, and one tetrahedron is formed by the concatenation of 4 vertex IDs into one series of bits. He ensures that all tetrahedra are correctly *oriented* (i.e. the ordering of the vertices is the same for all tetrahedra), which speeds up spatial analysis and the incremental update of a model.

While Penninga (2008)'s data structure is compact—it takes only about 20 % more space than Oracle Spatial's polyhedra for a few tested real-world datasets—the topological relationships between the tetrahedra are not explicitly stored (neither adjacency between tetrahedra nor incidence from one tetrahedron to primitives in other tetrahedra). That means that spatial analysis operations will perform slowly on big datasets, and so will incremental updates to a model. Penninga (2008) advocates using an auxiliary spatial index for each tetrahedron, such as an R-tree (Guttman 1984), although that has not been implemented nor

[1] Notice that this model is often called "TEN", which stands for either TEtrahedral Network, TEtrahedral irregular Network, TEtrahedronised irregular Network or TEtrahedron Network, depending on the authors. For the purpose of this paper, they are all equivalent and a TEN is a tetrahedralisation, as defined in Sect. 2.

tested. The main problems with an auxiliary index are: (1) storage space, the bounding box of a tetrahedron (required by the R-tree) has only one point less than the tetrahedron itself; (2) a R-tree is a rather complex structure and updating incrementally a large tree can be slow. Triangulations in 2D often do not index at the triangle level for the same reasons, see Finnegan and Smith (2010).

We discuss in this paper an alternative data structure for storing tetrahedralisations in a DBMS. Instead of storing explicitly tetrahedra, we store only two lower-dimensionality primitives (vertices and edges), and the *stars* of edges. It has been used previously in 3D in main memory (Blandford et al. 2005), but to our knowledge no attempts has been made to implement it in a DBMS. We define in Sect. 2 the concept of star, which is related to that of a tetrahedralisation. One important advantage of our star-based structure is that it permits us to avoid the use of an auxiliary 3D spatial index, instead the topological relationships between the tetrahedra are exploited (only a standard B-tree is needed to index the tetrahedra). As explained in Sects. 3 and 4, the structure is very compact (around 20 % compacter than that of Penninga (2008)'s) and can be implemented easily in a DBMS. We have implemented it in PostgreSQL, and tested it with one real-world 3D city model. We are currently working on the development of the structure, and in Sect. 5 we discuss some of the engineering choices we made so far, and our future challenges.

2 Constrained Tetrahedralisation and Stars

2.1 Tetrahedralisation

Given a set S of points in 3D space, a tetrahedralisation decomposes the convex hull of S into non-overlapping tetrahedra. It is possible to construct the *Delaunay* tetrahedralisation (DT) of S, i.e. a tetrahedralisation where every tetrahedron has an empty circumsphere; the DT has desirable properties that make them popular in several domains.

2.2 Constrained Delaunay Tetrahedralisation

If the input set contains also edges and/or surfaces (boundaries that have to be respected in the tetrahedralisation; think of a 3D city model, the walls of the buildings have to be present in the resulting tetrahedralisation), then the problem is more complex.

In 2D, a constrained Delaunay triangulation can be used, Fig. 1a shows an example. However, as Shewchuk (2002) explains, in 3D there are two approaches. The first one is the *conforming* DT, where additional vertices (known as *Steiner*

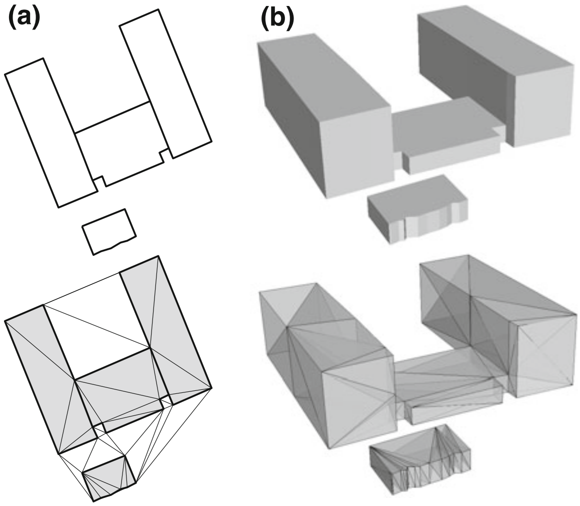

Fig. 1 **a** Two-dimensional polygons representing buildings footprints, and their constrained Delaunay triangulation. **b** Three-dimensional representation of the same buildings [polyhedra in this case, obtained by extruding the footprints in (**a**)] and their constrained Delaunay tetrahedralisation (for clarity only the tetrahedra inside the polyhedra are shown here)

vertices) are inserted to ensure that edges/surfaces are recovered (these extra vertices do not modify the shape of the surfaces/polyhedra). The main problem for a data structure is that *several* new vertices can be required (Cohen-Steiner et al. 2004), and that would require more space.

The second solution, the one we use in this paper, is the *constrained* Delaunay tetrahedralisation (CDT) (Si 2008), as Fig. 1b shows. The tetrahedra created are not fully Delaunay, but this is not a problem and the number of newly inserted vertices is minimised in comparison to the previous two approaches. Another advantage is that robust and efficient implementations of CDTs exist, as they are extensively used in engineering.

2.3 Stars and Links

Let v be a vertex in a d-dimensional triangulation. Referring to Fig. 2, the star of v, denoted star(v), consists of all the simplices that contain v; it forms a star-shaped polytope. For example, in 2D, all the triangles and edges incident to v form star(v), but notice that the edges and vertices disjoint from v—but still part of the triangles incident to v—are not contained in star(v). Also, observe that the vertex v itself is part of star(v), and that a simplex can be part of a star(v), but not some of its facets.

The set of simplices incident to the simplices forming star(v), but 'left out' by star(v), form the *link* of v, denoted link(v), which is a $(d-1)$ triangulation. For example, if v is a vertex in a tetrahedralisation, then link(v) is a two-dimensional triangulation formed by the vertices, edges and triangular faces that are contained by the tetrahedra of star(v), but are disjoint from v.

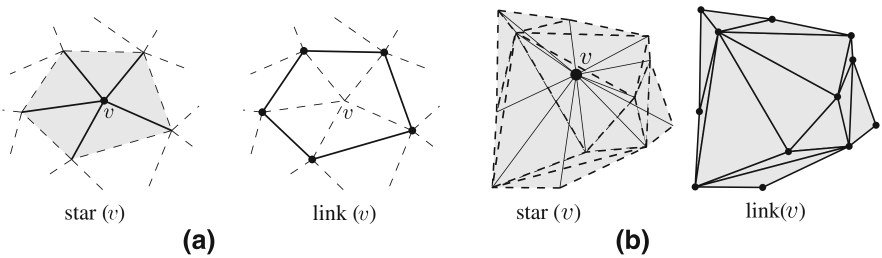

Fig. 2 The *star* and the *link* of a vertex *v* in **a** 2D and **b** 3D

The closely related concepts of star and link also apply to edges in 3D: in Fig. 3 star(ab) is formed by all the incident simplices (6 in this case), and link(ab) is a 1-dimensional triangulation (a polyline).

3 A Star-Based Data Structure

To our knowledge, Cline and Renka (1984) are the first to design a data structure where stars of vertices are used to represent a triangulation, albeit in 2D. Their structure is compact, but does not allow incremental updates (which is arguably important for a GIS data model). Shewchuk (2005) uses a star-based data structure to manipulate 3D triangulations, but his structure is very verbose since the star of every vertex is stored as a 2D triangulation, itself stored with stars. Blandford et al. (2005) fix both issues with their structure, which is valid for 2D and 3D triangulations. Their representation indeed uses about a factor 3 less memory than traditional representations in 3D and at the same time can be queried and dynamically modified. To achieve this compression, they designed a pointer-less structure where each vertex is assigned a label (an integer) and they compress based on labels: if possible they store the integers using 4 bits (they use differences between the labels to achieve that) and use different optimisations to keep the memory footprint low.

While it would theoretically be possible to implement the compression in a DBMS, we are interested in their basic idea of using labels for vertices and store the stars of edges in 3D. In a nutshell, a star-based data structure for a tetrahedralisation in a DBMS is as follows. For an edge ab of the tetrahedralisation, we store its link as an ordered list of labels. The orientation is consistent with the *right-hand rule*: if the thumb points from a to b, the vertices of link(ab) are ordered in the direction of the curled fingers of the right hand. In Fig. 3, link(ab) is the ordered list is $[c, d, e, f, g, h, c]$; notice that this is a circular list and that the starting vertex could be any vertex. The link list is of variable length: its minimum is 2 (one tetrahedron) and its theoretical maximum is the number of vertices in the tetrahedralisation minus 2. A tetrahedron is formed by ab and 2 consecutive vertices in the list; a, b, c, d and a, b, h, c are two examples of tetrahedra implicitly

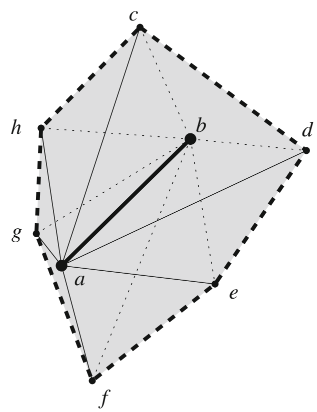

Fig. 3 The link of the edge *ab* in 3D is formed by the *bold dashed polyline* (c, d, e, f, g, h, c)

represented in link(*ab*). Notice that the length of the list gives the number of incident tetrahedra to *ab*. Also, lower-dimensionality simplices (triangles and edges) are present in links: for instance, referring to Fig. 3, the triangle *abc* is present in the links of its 3 edges. Since the link is an ordered list, the simplices implicitly represented are also ordered.

The key idea behind the structure is that if we represent the link of each edge, then we obtain a data structure where relationships such as incidence and adjacency between tetrahedra are present. It is the overlap between the (ordered) links that permits us to represent explicitly that information. Observe that each tetrahedron is represented in the link of 6 edges, and that since these are ordered, we can easily navigate from tetrahedron to tetrahedron. We show in Sect. 4.2 a few examples of queries.

3.1 Representative Edges

Storing the link for each edge of a tetrahedralisation yields a powerful and topological data structure, but also one that is not space efficient. Indeed, if the CDT of a set S of n points contains t tetrahedra, then the number e of edges is significantly higher: Blandford et al. (2005) estimate it at $(7/6)t$ for a CDT where the points are uniformly distributed in space.

To reduce the number of edges whose star is stored, we store only the *representative edges* (RE), as Blandford et al. (2005) suggest. If the label given to each vertex is an integer, a RE is one where its 2 vertex labels are either odd or even. If we randomly label the vertices, that should reduce by a factor of about 2 the number of edges to be stored and still permits us to represent at least once each triangle and each tetrahedron (which is fundamental to ensure that all topological relationships are present). Indeed, it ensures that each triangle has at least one RE:

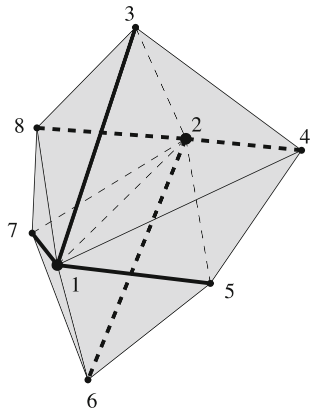

Fig. 4 A set of 8 vertices yields a tetrahedralisation with 8 tetrahedra. Out of the total 19 edges the 6 representative edges (REs) are stored and shown in *bold*: $\langle 1,3\rangle$, $\langle 1,5\rangle$, $\langle 1,7\rangle$, $\langle 2,4\rangle$, $\langle 2,6\rangle$, $\langle 2,8\rangle$

a triangle has either 3 REs (3 odd or 3 even labels) or one RE (1 odd/2 even; 2 odd/1 even).

Figure 4 shows the same 6 tetrahedra as Fig. 3 where the REs are highlighted (in bold). It can be seen that out of the 19 edges, 6 are representative, and that each triangle contains at least one RE.

3.2 Storage Space

Evaluating the theoretical storage space is difficult since the number of tetrahedra in a CDT depends on the locations of the points and the constraints. However, to obtain an order of magnitude, we can state that we need on average 3 labels per tetrahedron. Indeed, each tetrahedron has 4 triangles, which are shared by 2 tetrahedra (if we ignore those on the convex hull); thus 2 triangles per tetrahedron. A triangle has 3 labels, but since it appears in 3 stars and that only half of the edges are represented, we obtain $1\frac{1}{2}$. Thus: $2 \times 1\frac{1}{2} = 3$ labels per tetrahedron. Our experiment with a real-world dataset corroborates that, see Sect. 4.3.

3.3 Attributes

Attaching attributes to the tetrahedra is possible, although one must be careful since tetrahedra are present in multiple stars. We exploit the fact that each vertex has a unique label (which can be ordered) and attach the attributes to the star of the REs whose origin is the lowest; in case there are more than one, the one having the lowest destination is chosen. Given a tetrahedron *abcd*, we can find out in constant time which RE stores its attributes. The attributes can be stored either in the same

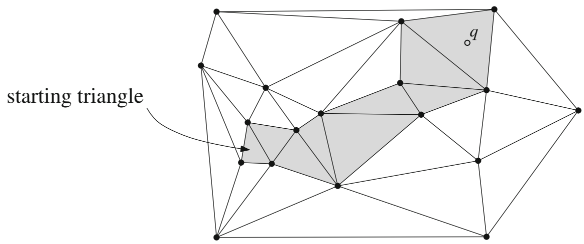

Fig. 5 Walking in a 2D triangulation, starting from a given *starting triangle* to the query point q. In 3D the principle is the same: the walk is performed from tetrahedron to tetrahedron

link list (alternating vertex labels with attributes), or in another list (having the same length as the list of the star).

3.4 Spatial Indexing: The Tetrahedralisation Itself

An advantage of a star-based structure—or of any structure in which adjacency and incidence relationships are stored—is that a spatial index, such as an R-tree (Guttman 1984), is not necessary to access efficiently the tetrahedra. Instead, the tetrahedralisation itself can be used to determine which tetrahedron contains a query point q: the adjacency relationships between the tetrahedra are used to navigate in the tetrahedralisation. The latter can be implemented with the *walking* algorithm as described in Mücke et al. (1999). It is a sub-optimal algorithm that is favoured by practitioners since it does not require an auxiliary data structure and yields fast practical performances (Mücke et al. 1999; Devillers et al. 2002).

The idea is as follows: starting from a given tetrahedron σ, we move to one of the neighbours of σ (we choose one neighbour such that the query point q and σ are on each side of the triangular face shared by σ and its neighbour) until there is no such neighbour, then the tetrahedron containing q is σ. In Fig. 5, only the grey triangles are visited during the walk.

To minimise the number of triangles visited, the starting triangle should be close to q. Mücke et al. (1999) investigated a 'bucketing' approach where a certain number of triangles are randomly selected, and each walk starts from the closest one (selected by a simple Euclidean distance test); it is called the *jump-and-walk* method. The result of a query can be either a tetrahedron, or one representative edge in that tetrahedron. Modifying this algorithm to start from a representative edge is trivial.

4 Implementation in a DBMS and Experiments

This section describes a prototype implementation of the star-based data structure in a specific, object-relational DBMS (PostgreSQL), but since the data structure is based solely on lists of labels, implementing it in another DBMS should be

```
-- Vertex table
CREATE TABLE pgtet_vertex (
    gid bigint,
    x numeric,
    y numeric,
    z numeric
);
ALTER TABLE pgtet_vertex ADD PRIMARY KEY (gid);

-- Edge table
CREATE TABLE pgtet_edge (
    start bigint,
    end bigint,
    link bigint[] -- array of integers
);
ALTER TABLE pgtet_edge ADD PRIMARY KEY (from_gid, to_gid);
```

Fig. 6 Schema definition of the star-based data structure in PostgreSQL

straightforward. Several engineering decisions had to be taken when implementing the structure in PostgreSQL, and we report here on the main ones.

4.1 PostgreSQL Tables

Figure 6 shows that the schema definition of the data structure is straightforward if the DBMS supports an array type of variable length: two tables are created, one table for vertices (points) and one for representative edges. A unique ID is assigned to each vertex and is stored together with the ordinates of each point. For the IDs of the points, the type `bigint` (64-bit integers) is used since 32-bit integers would limit the size of the datasets that could be stored. We define the column 'gid' as a primary key, which creates a binary-tree index on the column (B-tree). This ensures efficient access and enforces uniqueness.

An edge is stored as a reference to its start and end vertices (the primary key of the table is composed of the concatenation of both IDs), and its link is stored as an array of type `bigint` (which refer to the gid in the vertex table). At a later stage we will aim at compressing the array stored for the link (by using differences in vertex labels), so that less storage space is needed; this then will have a direct impact on how much data needs to be read from disk by the DBMS. Also, to be able to represent triangles and tetrahedra two custom types are defined. Both types are a sequence of vertex IDs, where triangles are represented by 3 vertex IDs and tetrahedra by 4. Based on these custom types a view can be defined that 'glues' the geometry of the vertices and edges together to triangles and tetrahedra (performed by a DBMS join).

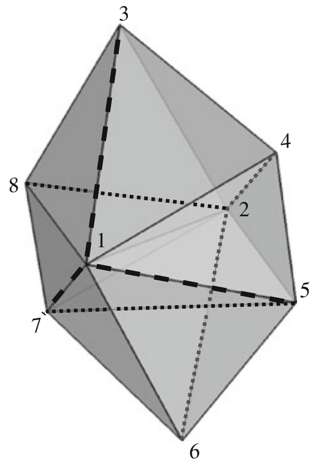

Fig. 7 Small example dataset stored in PostgreSQL, see Table 1 for the information that is stored

4.2 Examples of Topological Queries

We describe how a few typical queries could be performed with a star-based structure. All the queries refer to the example in Fig. 7, and the resulting tables in PostgreSQL (Table 1). Since triangles and tetrahedra can be present multiple times in the structure, querying the structure has to be done with care. For example, tetrahedron $\langle 5,7,1,2\rangle$ is present in the edge table in the links of all its representative edges: $\langle 1,5\rangle$, $\langle 1,7\rangle$ and $\langle 5,7\rangle$.

Is tetrahedron $\langle 5,7,1,2\rangle$ *present*? First, one RE has to be found: $\langle 1,5\rangle$ is one of them. Observe that a RE is found in constant time only by finding locally 2 odd or even IDs in the tetrahedron. Second, the IDs 2 and 7 have to appear consecutively in the link of that edge (which is the case, therefore the tetrahedron is present).
What tetrahedra are adjacent to $\langle 5,7,1,2\rangle$? First, find one RE as above ($\langle 1,5\rangle$) and find the position of vertices 2 and 7 in the link. The vertices before and after the tuple give 2 adjacent tetrahedra: $\langle 1,5,6,7\rangle$ and $\langle 1,5,2,4\rangle$. Second, find another RE of $\langle 5,7,1,2\rangle$ and repeat the same operations in its link. Since we know that each triangle is represented in at least one RE, this operation will always return the 4 tetrahedra.
Total number of tetrahedra? Here we apply the same criteria as for storing attributes in Sect. 3.3: the lowest concatenation of the IDs is the one representing the tetrahedron. For instance, tetrahedron $\langle 1,3,4,2\rangle$ is conceptually stored in edge $\langle 1,3\rangle$ and not $\langle 2,4\rangle$. Thus, it suffices to scan the edge table and take a local decision to extract tetrahedra.

We are currently investigating which custom functions are necessary for modelling 3D topographic datasets. Other examples than the ones already mentioned above are insertion of a new point or a constraint, point location, attaching attributes to a

Table 1 Storing the tetrahedra from the example dataset of Fig. 7. In the link column, ∅ means that the link of the edge does not form a cycle, i.e. the edge is on the convex hull of the dataset

Vertex table

id	x	y	z
1	5.0	2.5	6.0
2	5.0	11.5	6.0
3	5.0	6.0	12.0
4	9.0	6.0	8.0
5	9.0	6.0	4.0
6	5.0	6.0	0.0
7	1.0	6.0	4.0
8	1.0	6.0	8.0

Edge table

Start	End	Link[]
2	4	{∅, 3, 1, 5}
5	7	{6, 1, 2}
1	7	{∅, 8, 2, 5, 6}
1	5	{∅, 6, 7, 2, 4}
2	6	{∅, 5, 7}
2	8	{∅, 7, 1, 3}
1	3	{∅, 4, 2, 8}

specific tetrahedron, etc. These functions will be programmed in PL/pgSQL (the procedural language that PostgreSQL offers) or C.

4.3 Experiments With Real-World Data

To test the star-based data structure in PostgreSQL, we have made an experiment with one real-world dataset. It is the 3D city model of our university campus obtained by extrusion; the process used to construct it is described in Ledoux and Meijers (2011). The original dataset covers an area of 2.3 km^2 and has 370 buildings. We have created the CDT of the model with TetGen[2] (Si 2008). Table 2 gives the details of the 3D extruded dataset, and the results of the construction of the CDT.

Figure 8 shows a part of the extruded TU Delft campus, once tetrahedralised. As can be seen, each polyhedron is decomposed into a set of tetrahedra. Notice also that while the tetrahedra representing the 'air' are not shown, they are still stored. In addition, we have constructed six extra planes forming the bounding box of the dataset and added them to bound the area.

[2] www.tetgen.org

Table 2 Details concerning the datasets used for the experiments

Input 3D model		CDT				Star
Vertices	Constraints	Vertices	Edges	Triangles	Tetrahedra	Representative edge
5,978	3,982	6,938	56,291	95,420	47,707	25,697

The CDT has added around 1,000 vertices to the original model (the Steiner points), and the total number of tetrahedra is 47,707, for an input of only 370 polyhedra. However, it should be noticed that while the total number of edges in the CDT is 56,291, less than half of these are REs and thus the edge table in the DBMS is only about 25,000 rows. If the data structure of Penninga (2008) was used—which is, to the best of our knowledge, the most compact structure for storing tetrahedralisations in a DBMS—the tetrahedra table would have 47,707 rows, and each row would have exactly 4 IDs. The total number of IDs required for this dataset would thus be 190,828, if we omit the vertex table.

With our structure, the vertex table is exactly the same as Penninga's. The edge table has 25,697 rows with 2 IDs (start and end vertices), plus a total of 101,694 IDs in all the links (this number was obtained by querying the DBMS; the average length of a link is 4.93, the minimum is 3 and the maximum is 28). Thus, the total is 153,078 IDs, which makes it around 20 % compacter for this real-world dataset.

For populating the DBMS, we have created a program that takes as input the result of the tetrahedralisation (a list of vertices and tetrahedra) and outputs a list of REs and their links. Currently, only bulk loading of data is supported in our prototype.

5 Discussion and Future Work

We have shown that a star-based data structure implemented in a DBMS can be *both* compact and topological at the same time, two criteria that are usually contradictory. Our structure uses in theory only 3 IDs per tetrahedron, which is an improvement of 33 % over the most compact structure implemented in a DBMS so far (that of Penninga (2008)). We should add that these results ignore the fact that with a non-topological structure an auxiliary spatial index must be used, which increases greatly the storage space (3 extra vertices per tetrahedron are needed, plus the size of the tree) and is complex to maintain when objects are deleted. With a star-based structure, only a standard B-tree is needed, and furthermore less rows need to be indexed (in our real-world dataset, we had around twice as many tetrahedra as representative edges). Another strong point of the star-based structure is that it can easily be implemented in any DBMS with two simple tables.

While a star-based structure seems more cumbersome to maintain when the data are updated, the users need not be aware that this is the structure used. We plan to add functionalities to the DBMS so that views can be created over the edges and stars so that only features (e.g. buildings) are shown to the user, which is

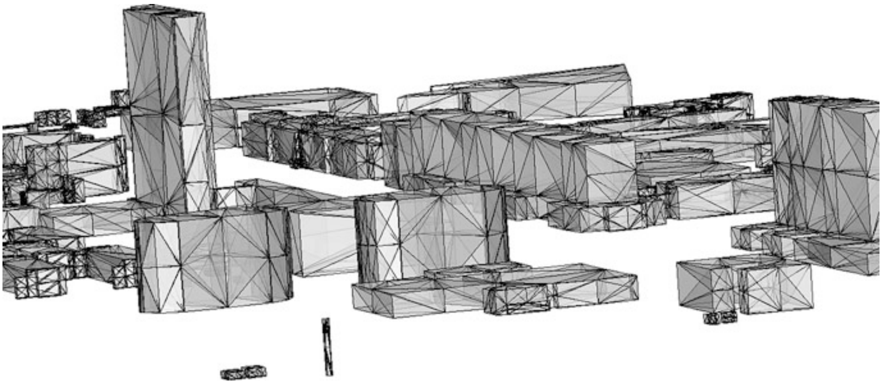

Fig. 8 Part of the tetrahedralised 3D model of our campus, which was obtained by extrusion

what van Oosterom et al. (2002) advocate for storing GIS datasets in a DBMS. We have plans to make the data structure fully dynamic (i.e. supporting insertions and deletes of tetrahedra and of features, updating the already stored tetrahedra in the database).

Object relational DBMS systems keep evolving and new powerful features have been added to mainstream systems. One example is Common Table Expressions (SQL-99) which paves the way to deal with more complex data structures like trees and graph storage inside such systems natively. We intend to see how far these features are useful during implementation of the query part of our data structure and how much custom procedural functionality still needs to be build.

Apart from 3D topography, 3D models can also be useful for modelling space and map scale in one integrated 3D data structure, e.g. van Oosterom and Meijers (2011). Hence, one operation we want to investigate in more detail is to create a cross section through the stored 3D model: selecting intersecting tetrahedra, performing intersection and then create a topologically clean output of the intersected elements to see whether this tetrahedra based model can be a useful underlying technology for producing vario-scale data.

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