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An Introduction to Spatial Database Systems

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Abstract. We propose a definition of a spatial database system as a database system that offers spatial data types in its data model and query language, and supports spatial data types in its implementation, providing at least spatial indexing and spatial join methods. Spatial database systems offer the underlying database technology for geographic information systems and other applications. We survey data modeling, querying, data structures and algorithms, and system architecture for such systems. The emphasis is on describing known technology in a coherent manner, rather than listing open problems.

1. What is a Spatial Database System?

In various fields, there is a need to manage *geometric, geographic,* or *spatial* data (i.e., data related to space). The space of interest can be, for example, the 2-D abstraction of (parts of) the earth's surface (i.e., geographic space, the most prominent example). Other examples are a man-made space (e.g., the layout of a VLSI design), a volume containing a model of the human brain, or another 3-D space representing the arrangement of chains of protein molecules. At least since the advent of relational database systems, there have been attempts to manage such data in database systems. Characteristic for the technology emerging to address these needs is the capability to deal with *large collections of relatively simple geometric objects,* for example, a set of 100,000 polygons. This is somewhat different from CAD databases (e.g., solid modeling) where geometric entities are composed hierarchically into complex structures, although the issues are certainly related.

Several terms have been used to describe database systems offering such support, including *pictorial, image, geometric, geographic,* and *spatial.* The terms "pictorial database system" and "image database system" arise from the fact that the data to be managed are often initially captured in the form of digital raster images (e.g., remote sensing by satellites, or computer tomography in medical applications). The term "spatial database system" has become popular during the last few years, to some extent through the *Symposium on Large Spatial Databases,* which has been

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held biannually since 1989 (Buchmann et al., 1989; Günther and Schek, 1991; Abel and Ooi, 1993). This term is associated with a view of a database as containing sets of objects in space rather than images or pictures of a space. Indeed, the requirements and techniques for dealing with objects in space that have identity and well-defined extents, locations, and relationships are rather different from those for dealing with raster images. It has therefore been suggested that two classes of systems, *spatial database systems* and *image database systems,* be clearly distinguished (Günther and Buchmann, 1990; Frank, 1991). Image database systems may include analysis techniques to extract objects in space from images, and offer some spatial database functionality, but they are also prepared to store, manipulate, and retrieve raster images as discrete entities. In this survey, we discuss only spatial database systems in the restricted sense. Several articles in this special issue address image database problems, and so complement the survey.

What is a spatial database system? We are not aware of a generally accepted definition. The following reflects the author's personal view:

1. A spatial database system is a database system.
2. It offers spatial data types (SDTs) in its data model and query language.
3. It supports spatial data types in its implementation, providing at least spatial indexing and efficient algorithms for spatial join.

Let us briefly justify these requirements. The first sounds trivial, but emphasizes the fact that spatial, or geometric, information is in practice always connected with "non-spatial" (e.g., alphanumeric) data. It is not sufficient to have a special purpose system that cannot handle all the standard data modeling and querying tasks. Hence, a spatial database system is a full-fledged database system with additional capabilities for handling spatial data. The second requirement, SDTs (e.g., `POINT, LINE, REGION`), provide a fundamental abstraction for modeling the structure of geometric entities in space, as well as their relationships (*l intersects r*), properties (*area*(*r*) $>$ 1,000), and operations (*intersection*(*l, r*)—the part of *l* lying within *r*). Which types are used may, of course, depend on a class of applications to be supported (e.g., rectangles in VLSI design; surfaces and volumes in 3-D). Without spatial data types, a system does not offer adequate support in modeling. The third requirement is that a system must at least be able to retrieve from a large collection of objects in some space those lying within a particular area without scanning the whole set. Therefore, spatial indexing is mandatory. It should also support connecting objects from different classes through some spatial relationship in a better way than by filtering the cartesian product (at least for those relationships that are important for the application).

The purpose of this survey is to coherently present some of the fundamental problems and their solutions in spatial database systems. The focus is on describing solutions that have been found, rather than on listing many open problems. We consider spatial DBMSs to provide the underlying database technology for geographic information systems (GIS) and other applications. As such, they can offer only some basic capabilities; we do not claim that a spatial DBMS is directly usable as an application-oriented GIS.

In the following four sections we consider modeling, querying, tools for implementation (data structures and algorithms), and system architecture for spatial database systems.

2. Modeling

2.1 What needs to be represented?

The main application that is driving research in spatial database systems is the technology for GISs. Hence, we consider some modeling needs in this area that are also typical for other applications. Examples are given for 2-D space but, almost everywhere, extension to the three- or more-dimensional case is possible. There are two important alternative views of what needs to be represented:

1. *Objects in space:* We are interested in distinct entities arranged in space, each of which has its own geometric description.
2. *Space:* We wish to describe space itself, that is, to say something about every point in space.

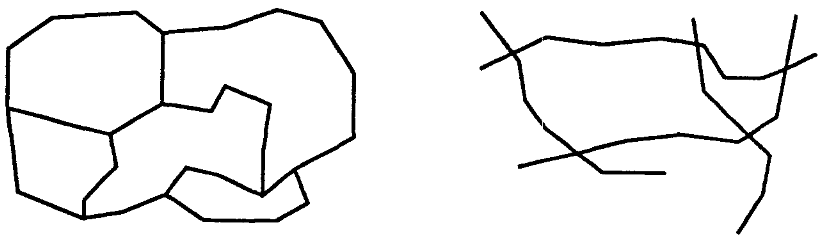
The first view allows one to model, for example, cities, forests, or rivers. The second view is the one of thematic maps describing, for example, land use or the partition of a country into districts. Since raster images reveal something about every point in space, they are also closely related to the second view. We can reconcile both views to some extent by offering concepts for modeling *single objects,* and *spatially related collections of objects.*

For modeling single objects, the fundamental abstractions are *point, line,* and *region.* A point represents (the geometric aspect of) an object for which only its location in space, but not its extent, is relevant. For example, a city may be modeled as a point in a model describing a large geographic area (a large scale map). A line (in this context always understood to mean a curve in space, usually represented by a polyline, a sequence of line segments) is the basic abstraction for facilities for moving through space, or connections in space (e.g., roads, rivers, cables for phone, electricity). A region is the abstraction for something having an extent in 2-D space (e.g., a country, a lake, or a national park). A region may have holes and may also consist of several disjoint pieces. Figure 1 shows the three basic abstractions for single objects.

The two most important instances of spatially related collections of objects are partitions (of the plane) and networks (Figure 2). A partition can be viewed as a set of region objects that are required to be disjoint. The adjacency relationship is of particular interest, that is, there are often pairs of region objects with a common boundary. Partitions can be used to represent thematic maps. A network can be viewed as a graph embedded in the plane, consisting of a set of point objects,

Figure 1. Three basic abstractions: point, line, and region

Figure 2. Partitions and networks



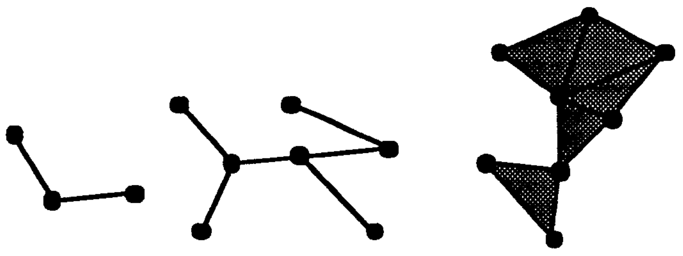
forming its nodes, and a set of line objects describing the geometry of the edges. Networks are ubiquitous in geography (e.g., highways, rivers, public transport, or power supply lines).

Obviously, we have mentioned only the most fundamental abstractions to be supported in a spatial DBMS (for GIS, in this case). Other interesting spatially related collections of objects include *nested partitions* (e.g., a country partitioned into provinces partitioned into districts) and a digital terrain (elevation) model. For a deeper discussion of modeling requirements for GIS see Smith et al. (1987) and Frank (1991). In the sequel, we shall consider how the basic abstractions mentioned above can be embedded into a DBMS data model.

2.2 Organizing the Underlying Space: Discrete Geometric Bases

As a basis for geometric modeling, Euclidean space very often is used or implicitly assumed. Essentially, this means that a point in the plane is given by a pair of real numbers. Unfortunately, there are no real numbers in computers, but only finite and rather limited approximations. This leads to a lot of problems in geometric computation (Greene and Yao, 1986; Franklin, 1984). For example, the intersection point of two lines will be rounded to the nearest grid (i.e., representable) point; a subsequent test to determine whether the intersection point is on one of the lines yields a false result. If the fact that finite representations are used is ignored

Figure 3. Two simplicial complexes



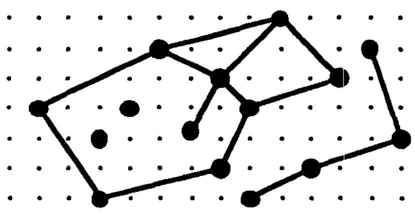
in modeling, these problems are left to the implementor of a spatial DBMS, which will almost certainly lead to errors in query processing. Some authors have therefore suggested introducing a discrete geometric basis for modeling as well as implementation (Frank and Kuhn, 1986; Egenhofer et al., 1989; Güting and Schneider, 1993*a*).

The approach of Frank and Kuhn (1986) and Egenhofer et al. (1989) is based on combinatorial topology. *Simplex* and *simplicial complex* are basic concepts. For each dimension *d*, a *d-simplex* is a minimal object in that dimension, hence, a 0-simplex is a point, a 1-simplex is a line segment, a 2-simplex is a triangle, a 3-simplex is a tetrahedron, etc. Any *d*-simplex is composed of $(d+1)$ simplices of dimension $d-1$. For example, a triangle (a 2-simplex) is composed of three 1-simplices (line segments), and a line segment as a 1-simplex is composed of two 0-simplices (points). The components used in a simplex are called its *faces* (the edges and vertices in the case of a triangle). A *simplicial complex* is a finite set of simplices such that the intersection of any two simplices in the set is a face. Figure 3 shows a 1-complex and a 2-complex.

An alternative proposal of a discrete geometric basis is the concept of a *realm* (Güting and Schneider, 1993*a*). A realm conceptually represents the complete underlying geometry of one particular application space (in two dimensions). Formally, a realm is a finite set of points and line segments over a discrete grid such that (1) each point or end point of a line segment is a grid point, (2) each end point of a line segment is also a point of the realm, (3) no realm point lies within a line segment (i.e., on the line segment without being an end point) and (4) no two realm segments intersect except at their end points. Figure 4 illustrates a realm.

With both approaches, the idea now is to form the geometries of application objects by composing the primitives of the underlying geometric base. One can easily see how the point, line, or region objects of Section 2.1 can be described in terms of simplices or of the elements of a realm. Furthermore, if spatially related collections of objects such as partitions or networks are represented on top of such a geometric base, then the consistency of shared geometries and to some extent the relationships between objects are automatically provided by this base layer.

Figure 4. A realm



Numeric robustness problems can be treated within the geometric base layer so that spatial data types or algebras defined on top enjoy nice closure properties not only in theory but also in an implementation (Güting and Schneider, 1993*a*).

2.3 Spatial Data Types

Systems of *spatial data types,* or *spatial algebras,* can capture the fundamental abstractions for point, line, and region, together with relationships between them and operations for composition (e.g., forming the intersection of regions). In Section 1 we stated that they are a mandatory part of the data model for a spatial DBMS, so that all proposals for models and query languages, as well as prototype systems (Section 5) offer them in some form. Spatial types and operations have been described (e.g., Chang and Fu, 1980; Lipeck and Neumann, 1987; Güting, 1988; Joseph and Cardenas, 1988; Orenstein and Manola, 1988; Roussopoulos et al., 1988; Svensson and Huang, 1991). Dedicated work towards a formal definition has been reported by Scholl and Voisard (1989), Gargano et al. (1991), and Güting and Schneider (1993*b*). As an example of spatial algebra, we briefly consider the ROSE algebra (Güting and Schneider, 1993*b*).

The ROSE algebra offers three data types called *points, lines,* and *regions,* whose values are realm-based (i.e., composed from elements of a realm). To describe these values, one needs intermediate notions of an *R-block* and an *R-face.* For a given realm *R,* an *R*-block is a connected set of line segments of *R.* An *R*-face is essentially a polygon with holes that can be defined over realm segments. Then, a value of type *points* is a set of *R*-points, a value of type *lines* is a set of disjoint *R*-blocks, and a value of type *regions* is a set of edge-disjoint *R*-faces (edge-disjoint means that two faces may have a common vertex, but no common edge).

The type system of the ROSE algebra is based on a *second-order signature* (Güting, 1993), which allows one to describe polymorphic operations by quantification over *kinds* (which here can be viewed as type sets). Two such sets are EXT = {*lines, regions*} and GEO = {*points, lines, regions*}. There are four classes of operations; for each of them we show a few examples:

(1) Spatial predicates expressing topological relationships:
$\forall$ *geo* in GEO. $\forall$ ext_1, ext_2 in EXT. $\forall$ *area* in $\underline{\mathit{regions}}^{area-disjoint}$.

$\mathit{geo} \times \underline{\mathit{regions}}$	$\rightarrow \underline{\mathit{bool}}$	**inside**
$\mathit{ext}_1 \times \mathit{ext}_2$	$\rightarrow \underline{\mathit{bool}}$	**intersects, meets**
$\mathit{area} \times \mathit{area}$	$\rightarrow \underline{\mathit{bool}}$	**adjacent, encloses**

Here the type variable *geo* ranges over the three types in kind GEO, so that the **inside** operation can compare a $\underline{\mathit{points}}$, a $\underline{\mathit{lines}}$, or a $\underline{\mathit{regions}}$ value with a $\underline{\mathit{regions}}$ value. The **intersects** operation can be applied to two values of the same or different types within kind EXT. The notation $\underline{\mathit{regions}}^{area-disjoint}$ is an attempt to capture the structure of partitions in the type system. It describes a kind for all partitions; each particular partition (thematic map) is a type within this kind whose values are the regions within this partition. Hence, the type variable area will pick one partition and the operation **adjacent** be applicable to any two regions of that partition.

(2) Operations returning atomic spatial data type values:
$\forall$ *geo* in GEO.

$\underline{\mathit{lines}} \times \underline{\mathit{lines}}$	$\rightarrow \underline{\mathit{points}}$	**intersection**
$\underline{\mathit{regions}} \times \underline{\mathit{regions}}$	$\rightarrow \underline{\mathit{regions}}$	**intersection**
$\mathit{geo} \times \mathit{geo}$	$\rightarrow \mathit{geo}$	**plus, minus**
$\underline{\mathit{regions}}$	$\rightarrow \underline{\mathit{lines}}$	**contour**

Here **plus** and **minus** form the union and difference, respectively, of two values of the same type.

(3) Spatial operators returning numbers:
$\forall$ $\mathit{geo}_1 \times \mathit{geo}_2$ in GEO.

$\mathit{geo}_1 \times \mathit{geo}_2$	$\rightarrow \underline{\mathit{real}}$	**dist**
$\underline{\mathit{regions}}$	$\rightarrow \underline{\mathit{real}}$	**perimeter, area**

(4) Spatial operations on sets of objects:
$\forall$ *obj* in OBJ. $\forall$ *geo*, geo_1, geo_2 in GEO.

$\underline{\mathit{set}}(\mathit{obj}) \times (\mathit{obj} \rightarrow \mathit{geo})$	$\rightarrow \mathit{geo}$	**sum**
$\underline{\mathit{set}}(\mathit{obj}) \times (\mathit{obj} \rightarrow \mathit{geo}_1) \times \mathit{geo}_2$	$\rightarrow \underline{\mathit{set}}(\mathit{obj})$	**closest**

Here **sum** is a *spatial aggregate function.* It takes a set of objects together with a spatial attribute of the objects of type *geo* (given as a function mapping each object into its attribute value) and returns the geometric union of all attribute values. For example, one might form the union of a set of provinces to determine the area of a country. The **closest** operator determines within a set of objects those whose spatial attribute value has minimal distance from some other geometric (query) object.

These examples may show the kinds of operations that are available in a spatial algebra. Formal definitions of the semantics of these types and operations can be found in Güting and Schneider (1993*b*). Some of the important issues related to spatial data types or algebras are the following:

- *Extensibility.* There is general agreement that the definition of types and, in particular, the definition of operations is application-dependent. Hence, it must be possible to define additional or alternative types and operations later, which leads to the requirement of extensibility for the system architecture (Section 5).
- *Completeness.* Nevertheless, the question is whether there are any formal criteria to say that a particular collection of operations is complete in some respect. Some limited success in this direction has been obtained in the study of *topological relationships* (Section 2.4).
- *One or more types?* Is it really necessary to have several different types to distinguish, for example, points, lines, and regions? Some authors suggest offering only a single type *geometry* whose instances can be any of these or even mixed collections of them (e.g., Gargano et al., 1991; Larue et al., 1993). This is analogous to the question of whether a system should offer different types *integer* and *real,* or just a single type *number.* One advantage of a single type may be that closure under operations is easier to achieve. On the other hand, several types are more expressive and allow a more precise application of operations.
- *Set Operations.* A spatial algebra should offer not only operations on "atomic" SDT values (a region value is considered to be atomic, even if it has a very large description) but also on spatially related sets of objects, for example, a partition (thematic map, tesselation) (Güting, 1988; Scholl and Voisard, 1989; Tomlin, 1990; Svensson and Huang, 1991). Example operations are the *overlay* of two partitions, *fusion* (merging adjacent areas in a partition if other attributes are equal), or finding in a set of objects the one closest to a query object. This kind of operation requires a much more intricate interface with the DBMS data model than in the case of atomic operations (Güting and Schneider, 1993*b*).

2.4 Spatial Relationships

Among the operations offered by spatial algebras, *spatial relationships* are the most important. For example, they make it possible to ask for all objects in a given relationship with a query object (e.g., all objects within a window). One can distinguish several classes (Pullar and Egenhofer, 1988; Egenhofer, 1989; Worboys, 1992):

- *Topological relationships,* such as *adjacent, inside,* and *disjoint,* are invariant under topological transformations like translation, scaling, and rotation.
- *Direction relationships,* for example, *above, below,* or *north_of, southwest_of.*
- *Metric relationships,* for example, "*distance* $<$ 100."

Among these, topological relationships are the most fundamental and have been studied in some depth. A basic question is whether we can somehow enumerate all possible relationships. A method for this was proposed by Egenhofer (1989) and Egenhofer and Herring (1990). It was originally formulated for simple regions (connected, no holes), called *area* in the sequel, and is based on comparing the intersections of their boundaries and interiors (denoted ∂A and A$^\circ$, respectively). For two objects there are four intersection sets; each of them may be empty or non-empty, which leads to $2^4 = 16$ combinations (Table 1). Eight of these are not valid, and two of them are symmetric so that six different relationships result, called *disjoint, in, touch, equal, cover,* and *overlap.*

This approach has been extended in various ways. For example, point and line features have been added (Egenhofer and Herring, 1992; de Hoop and van Oosterom, 1992). Egenhofer extended the original four-intersection method to a nine-intersection method by also considering intersections with the complement A^{-1} (Egenhofer, 1991*b*). Clementini et al. (1993) also considered the dimension of the intersection (called the *dimension-extended method*): in 2-D space the intersection can be empty, 0-D (point), 1-D (line), or 2-D (area). This results, in principle, in $4^4 = 256$ combinations. Again, many of these are not valid, so that in total 52 relationships among point, line, and area features remain.

Since these are far too many to be named and remembered by a user, an alternative is suggested. Five basic relationship names are introduced (*touch, in, cross, overlap,* and *disjoint*), whose meaning is formally defined in terms of the dimension extended method, for example:

> The *touch* relationship applies to area/area, line/line, line/area, point/area, and point/line, but not point/point situations. For two features λ_1 and λ_2, it is defined by:
>
> $$< \lambda_1 \text{ touch } \lambda_2 >:\Leftrightarrow (\lambda_1^\circ \cap \lambda_2^\circ = \emptyset) \wedge (\lambda_1 \cap \lambda_2 \neq \emptyset)$$

In addition to the five relationships, three operators are offered to obtain the boundaries of features: operator b applied to area A yields the boundary line ∂A; operators f and t return the end points of a line. It was proven by Clementini et al. (1993) that the five relationships are mutually exclusive (no two different relationships can hold between any two features) and that all situations described by the dimension-extended method can be distinguished using the relationships and the three boundary operators. Other work on spatial relationships includes Freksa (1991), Frank (1992), and Cui et al. (1993). The article by Papadias and Sellis in this special issue investigates the subject in more depth; further references can be found there (Papadias and Sellis, 1994).

Table 1. Enumerating topological relationships by intersections of boundaries and interiors

$\partial A_1 \cap \partial A_2$	$\partial A_1 \cap A_2^\circ$	$A_1^\circ \cap \partial A_2$	$A_1^\circ \cap A_2^\circ$	relationship name
$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	A_1 disjoint A_2
$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	
$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	
$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	A_2 in A_1
$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	
$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	A_1 in A_2
$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	
$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	
$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	A_1 touch A_2
$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	A_1 equal A_2
$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	
$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	A_1 cover A_2
$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	
$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	A_2 cover A_1
$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\emptyset$	
$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	$\neq \emptyset$	A_1 overlap A_2

2.5 Integrating Geometry into the DBMS Data Model

The central idea for integrating geometric modeling into a DBMS data model is to represent "spatial objects" (in the sense of application objects such as river, country, or city) by *objects* (in the sense of the DBMS data model) that have at least one attribute of a spatial data type. Hence, the DBMS data model must be extended by SDTs at the level of atomic data types (such as integer and string), or had better be generally open for user-defined types ("abstract data type support," Stonebraker et al., 1983). So far, the relational model has been used most often as a basis (e.g., Chang and Fu, 1980; Güting, 1988; Roussopoulos et al., 1988; Ooi et al., 1989; Egenhofer, 1994), but the approach can be used as well with any other data model (e.g., an object-oriented one). In the relational case, an object is represented by a tuple, so we can define example relations (of course, real GISs deal with less trivial application objects):

```
relation states (sname: STRING; area: REGION; spop: INTEGER)
relation cities (cname: STRING; center: POINT; ext: REGION;
    cpop: INTEGER)
relation rivers (rname: STRING; route: LINE)
```

Lipeck and Neumann (1987) integrated SDTs into an extended ER model; Scholl and Voisard (1989) integrated them into a complex object model. Handling partitions and networks is more difficult (Section 2.1). Partitions can be viewed simply as sets of objects with region attributes, but then information is lost: regions should be disjoint and adjacency relationships are particularly important within this class (e.g., for establishing adjacency join indexes, Section 4.3). The importance of modeling and manipulating partitions has been emphasized (Mantey and Carlson, 1980; Frank, 1988; Güting, 1988; Scholl and Voisard, 1989; Tomlin, 1990). In Güting (1988) a special AREA data type was suggested; creating a relation with an attribute of type AREA would imply that all regions occurring as values of this relation had to be disjoint. But this is not clean, because it abuses the concept of a data type to describe what should really be an integrity constraint on a relation.

Modeling of spatially embedded networks has not received much attention in the research literature, although quite a bit of work has been done for graphs in databases in general (Rosenthal et al., 1986; Agrawal, 1987; Cruz et al., 1987; Gyssens et al., 1990). Usually, the assumption is that graphs are represented by the given facilities of a data model. A disadvantage is that the graph structure is not visible to the user, and cannot be supported very well in system implementation. In Güting (1994), the *GraphDB* model is proposed, which emphasizes an explicit modeling of graphs together with a clean integration into a "standard" object-oriented model. GraphDB offers object classes with inheritance, like other OO models, but additionally distinguishes three kinds of object classes called *simple classes, link classes,* and *path classes,* whose elements correspond to nodes, edges, and explicitly stored paths of a graph. For example, in GraphDB we can model a highway network whose nodes are highway junctions and exits with an associated POINT attribute, whose edges are highway sections with an associated LINE attribute, and whose explicitly stored paths are highways, as follows:

```
class vertex = pos: POINT;
vertex class junction = name: STRING;
vertex class exit = nr: INTEGER;
link class section = route: LINE, no_lanes: INTEGER, top_speed:
    INTEGER from vertex to vertex;
path class highway = name: STRING as section+;
```

Here the *junction* and *exit* subclasses inherit the *pos* attibute from the *vertex* class. A *highway* is a path over a non-empty sequence of *section* edges. For further details, see Güting (1994). Another spatial data model with explicit graphs is described by Erwig and Güting (1991).

3. Querying

From one point of view, the problem of querying is to connect the operations of a spatial algebra (including predicates to express spatial relationships) to the facilities of a DBMS query language. But there are also other aspects that mainly have to do with the fact that spatial data require a graphical presentation of results as well as graphical input of queries or at least SDT values used in queries. In the following three subsections, we consider the fundamental operations needed at the level of manipulating sets of database objects, graphical input and output, and techniques and requirements for extending query languages.

3.1 Fundamental Operations (Algebra)

We now consider from an algebraic point of view operations for manipulating sets of database objects with spatial attributes. They can be classified as *spatial selection, spatial join, spatial function application,* and other *set operations.*

Spatial Selection. Strictly speaking, there is no such thing as a spatial selection. A selection is an operation that returns from a set of objects those that fulfill a predicate. However, the term is used in the literature to describe a selection based on a spatial predicate (e.g., Aref and Samet, 1991*a*). Some examples:

"Find all cities in Bavaria" (assuming that Bavaria exists as a REGION value, and *inside* is available in the spatial algebra).

```
cities select[center inside Bavaria]
```

"Find all rivers intersecting a query window."

```
rivers select[route intersects Window]
```

"Find all big cities no more than 100 kms from Hagen" (Hagen being a POINT value).

```
cities select[dist(center, Hagen) < 100 and pop > 500000]
```

The last example illustrates that selection conditions can also be based on metric relationships, and can occur in conjunction with other predicates. Query optimization should be able to compare access plans using spatial indexes with plans using a standard index. This will be discussed further in Section 5.

Spatial Join. Similar to a spatial selection, a spatial join is a join that compares any two objects with a predicate according to their spatial attribute values. Some examples:

"Combine cities with their states."

```
cities states join[center inside area]
```

"For each river, find all cities within less than 50 kms."

```
cities rivers join[dist(center, route) < 50]
```

As mentioned in Section 1, spatial selection and spatial join are so important that it is mandatory to support them with spatial indexing and with special join algorithms, at least for the most important spatial predicates.

Spatial Function Application. How can operations of a spatial algebra that compute new SDT values (class 2 in Section 2.3) be used in a query? In a set-oriented query, a new SDT value is computed for each object in a set. Various object algebra operators allow such an embedding of a function application, for example, the *filter operator* of FAD (Bancilhon et al., 1987), the *replace operator* (Abiteboul and Beeri, 1988), or the λ or *extend operator* (Güting et al., 1989). The extend operator takes an expression to be evaluated for each object and a (new) attribute name; it appends the resulting value as a new attribute to the object. For example:

"For each river going through Bavaria, return the name, the part of its geometry lying inside Bavaria, and the length of that part."

```
rivers select[route intersects Bavaria]
    extend[intersection(route, Bavaria) {part}]
    extend[length(part) {plength}] project[rname, part, plength]
```

Other Set Operations. Such operations manipulate whole sets of spatial objects in a special way; they lie at the interface between a spatial algebra and the DBMS object algebra (Section 2.3). Of particular importance are operations that manipulate partitions (thematic maps); a collection of such operations is described by Scholl and Voisard (1989). Closely related is the map algebra by Tomlin (1990). Some suggested operations are the following:

- *Overlay.* Computes the elementary regions resulting from overlaying two partitions. It can be viewed as a special kind of spatial join (Frank, 1988; Güting, 1988; Scholl and Voisard, 1989).
- *Fusion.* This is a special kind of grouping. Objects are grouped by some arbitrary attribute values. For each resulting group of objects, the union of all values of a spatial attribute is formed. For example, given a set of region objects with a "land-use" attribute, one can group by land-use to obtain one object for land-use "wheat" with the associated union region, etc. (Scholl and Voisard, 1989; Gargano et al., 1991).
- *Voronoi.* From a set S of point objects, computes a corresponding set of region objects (the Voronoi diagram). For each point p, the region consists of the points of the plane closer to p than to any other point in S (Güting, 1988).

3.2 Graphical Input and Output

Traditional database systems deal with alphanumeric data types whose values can easily be entered through a keybord and represented textually within a query result (e.g., a table). For a spatial database system, at least when it is to be used interactively, graphical presentation of SDT values in query results is essential. It is also important to enter SDT values to be used as "constants" in queries via a graphical input device. Besides graphical representation of SDT values, another distinctive characteristic of querying a spatial database is that the goal of querying is, in general, to obtain a "tailored" picture of the space represented in the database. This means that the information to be retrieved is often not the result of a single query but rather a combination of several queries. For example, for GIS applications, the user wants to see a map built by graphically overlaying the results of several queries.

Requirements for spatial querying have been analyzed by Frank (1982), Egenhofer and Frank (1988), and Egenhofer (1994). In Egenhofer (1994), the following list is given:

1. *Spatial data types.*
2. *Graphical display of query results.*
3. *Graphical combination (overlay) of several query results.* It should be possible to start a new picture, to add a layer, or to remove a layer from the current display. (Some systems also allow the order of layers to be changed; Voisard, 1991; Vijlbrief and van Oosterom, 1992).
4. *Display of context.* To interpret the result of a query, for example, a point describing the location of a city, it is necessary to show some background, such as the boundary of a state containing it (Frank, 1982). A raster image of the area can also nicely serve as a background.
5. A *facility for checking the content of a display.* When a picture (a map) has been composed by several queries, one should be able to check which queries have built it.
6. *Extended dialog.* It should be possible to use pointing devices to select objects within a picture or subareas (zooming in), for example, by dragging a rectangle over the picture.
7. *Varying graphical representations.* It should be possible to assign different graphical representations (colors, patterns, intensity, symbols) to different object classes in a picture, or even to distinguish objects within one class (e.g., by using different symbols to distinguish cities by population).
8. A *legend* should explain the assignment of graphical representations to object classes.
9. *Label placement.* It should be possible to select object attributes to be used as labels within a graphical representation. Sophisticated ("nice") label placement for a map is a difficult problem, however (Freeman and Ahn, 1987).
10. *Scale selection.* At least for GIS applications, selecting subareas should be based on commonly used map scales. The scale determines not only the size of the graphical representation, but it also could determine what kind of symbol is used or whether an object is shown at all (cartographic generalization).
11. *Subarea for queries.* It should be possible to restrict attention to a particular area of the space for several following queries.

These requirements, in general, can be fulfilled by offering textual commands in the query language or within the design of a graphical user interface (GUI). A GUI will probably have at least three subwindows: (1) a text window for displaying the textual representation of a collection of objects, containing the alphanumeric attributes of each object, (2) a graphics window containing the overlay of the graphical representations of spatial attributes of several object classes or query results, and (3) a text window for entering queries and perhaps displaying system messages. One possible design was shown by Egenhofer and Frank (1988). Some systems implement a text-graphic interaction: clicking at an object representation in the text or graphic window selects and highlights the object representations in both windows (Vijlbrief and van Oosterom, 1992).

Egenhofer (1994) suggested to view a query as consisting of three parts:

1. Describing the set of objects to be retrieved, as in traditional querying,
2. Partitioning the query result into subsets to be displayed in different formats by a number of display queries,
3. Describing for each subset how to render its spatial attributes.

For part (1), the language SQL, extended by spatial types and operations, was used by Egenhofer (1994). For parts (2) and (3), a special *graphical presentation language* (GPL; Egenhofer, 1991*a*) was introduced, which provides specifications for most of the requirements listed above.

3.3 Integrating Geometry into a Query Language

Integrating geometry into a query language has three main aspects:

- *Denoting SDT values* as constants in a query, and *graphical input* of such constants.
- *Expressing the four classes of fundamental operations* (Section 3.1) for an embedded spatial algebra.
- *Describing the presentation of results.*

Denoting SDT values/graphical input. In traditional query languages, constants in queries (needed in particular to formulate selection conditions, such as name = "Smith") belong to an alphanumeric data type and are therefore textually representable (i.e., they can simply be entered through the keyboard). This is not feasible for SDT constants. Such a constant may be entered through a graphical input device or it could have been computed in a previous query, for example, by extracting the attribute value of some object from the database. In Section 3.1 we assume that it is possible to introduce names for such values (Bavaria, Window, Hagen). This is not the case in classical relational query languages. In the geo-relational algebra (Güting, 1988), atomic values are "first class citizens," so one can introduce a named `REGION` value Bavaria as follows:

```
states extract[sname = "Bavaria"; area] {Bavaria}
```

Object-oriented query languages usually allow one single object to be identified; one can then denote any attribute value (and, therefore, an SDT value) by dot notation (e.g., determine an object "Bavaria," and then refer to "Bavaria.area"). If it is possible to denote such values, then one can nicely decouple graphical input and querying; the user interface allows one to draw the value and assign a name to it, which can then be used in queries. If it is not possible, then a suggested technique (Chang and Fu, 1980; Frank, 1982; Egenhofer, 1994) is to use a special keyword within a query such as PICK; parsing the query will lead to an interaction that allows the user to graphically enter the value, for example:

```
SELECT sname FROM cities WHERE center inside PICK
```

Expressing the four classes of fundamental operations. Obviously, expressing spatial selection or spatial join is no problem at all, because selection and join are provided by all query languages. Spatial function application, although not possible in classical relational algebra, is also in practice provided by query languages (e.g., SQL allows expressions in the SELECT clause). Hence, we can express the example queries of Section 3.1 in SQL or other languages (assuming that it is possible to denote constants):

```
SELECT * FROM rivers WHERE route intersects Window

SELECT cname, sname FROM cities, states
    WHERE center inside area

SELECT rname, intersection(route, Bavaria),
    length(intersection(route, Bavaria))
FROM rivers
WHERE route intersects Bavaria
```

In contrast, the expression of other set operations of a spatial algebra does not fit into the *select ... from ... where* (SFW) paradigm, because these are algebra operations at the same level as projection, cartesian product, and selection, as captured by SFW. Some syntactic facilities required in a query language to accomodate a spatial algebra completely were described by Güting and Schneider (1993*b*) where a general "object model interface" is developed.

Describing the presentation of results. It is arguable whether this should be part of a query language, be described by a separate language, or be defined by user interface manipulation. An interesting observation is that a presentation language also needs some embedded general querying capabilities to determine subsets of answers to be shown in specific formats (Egenhofer, 1991*a*, 1994).

Proposals for spatial query languages have been described (e.g., Chang and Fu, 1980; Frank, 1982; Keating et al., 1987; Lipeck and Neumann, 1987; Güting, 1988; Herring et al., 1988; Joseph and Cardenas, 1988; Roussopoulos et al., 1988; Ooi et al., 1989; Scholl and Voisard, 1989; Svensson and Huang, 1991; Egenhofer, 1994). Problems with SQL-based extensions were discussed by Egenhofer (1992). Other directions in spatial querying include a deductive database approach (Abdelmoty et al., 1993) and visual querying (i.e., drawing a sketch of the spatial situations to be retrieved; Maingenaud and Portier, 1990; Meyer, 1992).

4. Tools for Spatial DBMS Implementation

We now consider system implementation bottom up. In this section, we first describe *data structures* and *algorithms* that can be used as tools or building blocks within different system architectures. System architectures themselves are discussed in the next section. The general problem to be solved is implementation of a spatial algebra in such a way that it can be integrated into a database system's query processing. This means, first of all, that we have to provide representations for the algebra's types as well as algorithms/procedures for its operations. However, it does not suffice just to implement atomic operations efficiently such as a test whether two regions intersect. It is also necessary to consider the use of such predicates within set-oriented query processing (i.e., when they occur within a spatial selection or a spatial join). Here spatial access methods and spatial join algorithms come into play. Last but not least, other set operations of a spatial algebra need their special implementations. In the following subsections, we discuss the representation of spatial data types and implementation of atomic operations, spatial indexing to support spatial selection, and support of spatial join.

4.1 Representing SDT Values/Implementing Atomic SDT Operations

The representation of a value of a spatial data type (e.g., a region) has to be simultaneously compatible with two different views, namely, the view of the database system, and the view of the spatial algebra. From the DBMS perspective, the representation

- is the same as that of attribute values of other types with respect to generic operations,
- can have varying and possibly very large size,
- resides permanently on disk and is stored in one page or a set of pages,
- can efficiently be loaded into main memory, where it is given as a value of some variable (typically, a pointer variable) to the procedures that implement operations of the spatial algebra,
- offers a number of type-specific implementations of generic operations needed by the DBMS.

From the point of view of the spatial algebra implementation, which is done in some programming language (most likely the DBMS implementation language), the representation

- is a value of some programming language data type (e.g., `region`),
- is some arbitrary data structure that is possibly quite complex,
- supports efficient computational geometry algorithms for spatial algebra operations,
- is not geared to only one particular algorithm, but is balanced to adequately support many operations.

To fulfill the DBMS requirements, the representation must be a paged data structure compatible with the DBMS support for long fields or large attribute values. To support efficient loading and storing on disk, it should consist of a single contiguous byte block, as long as it is small enough to fit into one page. Otherwise, it can be a large byte block cut into page-sized pieces. The DBMS then either may allocate enough internal space to hold the whole value (and map pages into the right positions of this buffer), or it may implement a more complex paging strategy to access the value. When a value representation happens to be large, a good strategy is to split it into a small *info part,* which will contain often-used summary information about the value, and an exact *geometry part,* representing, for example, the long sequence of vertices, so that it is possible to load only the info part into a DBMS buffer. The info part might be contained in the DBMS object representation and contain a logical pointer to a separate page sequence holding the exact geometry part. The generic operations needed by the DBMS may concern, for example, transforming from/to a textual or graphic representation for input/output at the user interface, or transforming from/to an ASCII format for bulk loading or external data exchange. More specifically, for spatial data types, generic approximations may be needed to interface with spatial access methods: For example, each data type must provide access to a bounding box (also called the minimum bounding rectangle (MBR)).

From both the spatial algebra and the programming language point of view, the representation should be such that it is mapped by the compiler into a single or perhaps a few contiguous areas (to support the DBMS loading). For example, it can be defined as a pointer to a record with several fixed-size components and a very large array (for the exact geometry) at the end; then one can dynamically allocate the right amount of space for a given value. Apart from that, the representation can support operations as follows:

- *Plane sweep sequence.* Very often, algorithms on the exact geometry use a plane-sweep. The sweep needs the components of the object (e.g., the vertices) in some fixed order (e.g., x-order). It is highly advantageous to store this order explicitly in the object so that not every sweep needs to sort vertices first.
- *Approximations.* The implementation of many operations starts with a rough test on an approximation of the object. Usually this is the bounding box, but there can also be other approximations. Hence, these should be part of the representation.
- *Stored unary function values.* Some operations of the spatial algebra compute properties of a spatial value (e.g., the area or perimeter of a region). Since these can be expensive to compute, they may be computed once after the creation of the value and then be stored with it.

The representation strategy described above does assume, in fact, a particular DBMS architecture, namely, that of an extensible DBMS. Hence, some of the remarks may not be valid for an architecture that, for example, stores its SDT values separately in files, outside of the DBMS storage management. However, there seems to be growing agreement that the extensible approach (Section 5) is the right basis for spatial database systems (e.g., Haas and Cody, 1991; Vijlbrief and van Oosterom, 1992; Larue et al., 1993).

The representation of data type values in extensible DBMSs ("abstract data type support") has been discussed (e.g., Stonebraker et al., 1983; Osborn and Heaven, 1986; Wilms et al., 1988; Wolf, 1989; Dröge et al., 1990). The DASDBS Geo-Kernel (Wolf, 1989; Dröge et al., 1990) makes somewhat special assumptions about the interface to a generic spatial access method by requiring that each data type offer generic operations for clipping at a rectangle and composing two clipped pieces of an SDT value. The Gral system (Güting, 1989; Becker and Güting, 1992) is an example of a system that implements the strategy described above.

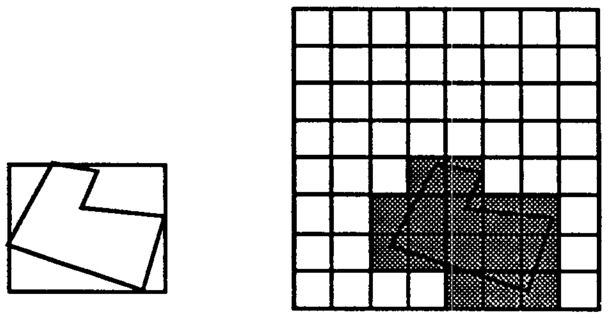
Concerning the implementation of SDT operations, some important ideas have already been mentioned, including prechecking approximations, looking up stored function values, and using plane-sweep. Generally, efficient algorithms from computational geometry should be used (Preparata and Shamos, 1985; Mehlhorn, 1984). For some operations, a simple scan of the vertices or edges is sufficient (e.g., to compute the perimeter or area of a region, or the center of a set of points). For more complex questions, plane-sweep is most often the appropriate technique (e.g., to compute the intersection of two polygons).

The implementation of many operations is simplified if the spatial algebra has a discrete basis (e.g., is realm-based; Section 2.2). Basically, this means that in query processing there are never any new intersection points computed; all intersection points of SDT values over the realm are known within the realm and occur in both objects. For example, to compute the intersection of two *lines* values (which is a *points* value) in the ROSE algebra (Section 2.3), it is sufficient to do a parallel scan on the two values' *halfsegment sequences*. (Each line segment occurring within a lines value is represented twice, once for the left end point, and once for the right end point so that each half-segment has a *dominating point*. The half-segment sequence is ordered *xy*-lexicographically by dominating points. Hence, a parallel scan will determine the intersection points in linear time.) Without the realm basis, a much more complex plane-sweep algorithm is needed. Plane-sweep algorithms are also simplified with a realm-basis, because the sweep-event structure (Nievergelt and Preparata, 1982) now can be a static data structure, since no new intersection points are discovered during the sweep. Such techniques are used in the implementation of the ROSE algebra (de Ridder, 1994).

4.2 Spatial Indexing—Supporting Spatial Selection

The main purpose of spatial indexing is to support spatial selection, that is, to retrieve from a large set of spatial objects (objects with an SDT attribute) those objects in some particular relationship with a query SDT value. A spatial indexing method organizes space and the objects in it so that only parts of the space and a subset of the objects need to be considered. There are two ways to provide spatial

Figure 5. Bounding box and grid approximations of SDT value



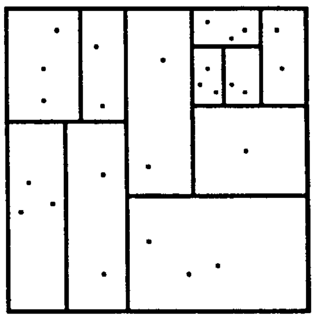
indexing: (1) dedicated external spatial data structures are added to the system, offering for spatial attributes what a B-tree does for standard attributes, and (2) spatial objects are mapped into a 1-D space so that they can be stored *within* a standard 1-D index such as a B-tree. Apart from spatial selection, spatial indexing supports also other operations such as spatial join, finding the object closest to a query value, etc.

A fundamental idea for spatial indexing and, in fact, for all spatial query processing, is the use of *approximations.* This allows index structures to manage an object in terms of one or more *spatial keys,* which are much simpler geometric objects than the SDT value itself. A *continuous approximation* is based on the coordinates of the SDT value itself. The prime example is the *bounding box* (the smallest axis-parallel rectangle enclosing the SDT value). For *grid approximations,* space is divided into cells by a regular grid, and the SDT value is represented by the set of cells that it intersects. Figure 5 illustrates the two kinds of approximations. The use of approximations leads to a filter and refine strategy for query processing (Frank, 1981; Orenstein and Manola, 1988): First, based on the approximations, a filtering step is executed; it returns a set of candidates that is a superset of the objects fulfilling a predicate. Second, for each candidate (or pair of candidates in case of spatial join) in a refinement step the exact geometry is checked. This strategy has more recently been extended to include a second filtering step where more precise approximations of the candidate objects are checked (Brinkhoff et al., 1993*a*).

Due to the use of bounding boxes, most spatial data structures are designed to store either a set of points (for point values) or a set of rectangles (for line or region values). The operations offered by such structures are *insert, delete,* and *member* (find a stored rectangle or point) to manage the set as such. Apart from that, one or more query operations are supported. For stored points, some important types of queries are:

- *Range query*: Find all points within a query rectangle.

Figure 6. A kd-tree partitioning of a 2-D space



- *Nearest neighbor*: Find the point closest to a query point.
- *Distance scan*: Enumerate points in increasing distance from a query point.

For rectangles:

- *Intersection query*: Find all rectangles intersecting a query rectangle.
- *Containment query*: Find all rectangles completely within a query rectangle.

A spatial index structure organizes objects within a set of *buckets* (which normally correspond to pages of secondary memory—some special approaches use varying size buckets with many pages; Dröge and Schek, 1993). Each bucket has an associated *bucket region,* a part of space containing all objects stored in the bucket. Bucket regions are usually rectangles. For point data structures, these regions are normally disjoint and they partition the space so that each point belongs to precisely one bucket. For some rectangle data structures, bucket regions may overlap. Figure 6 shows a partition where each bucket can hold up to 3 points.

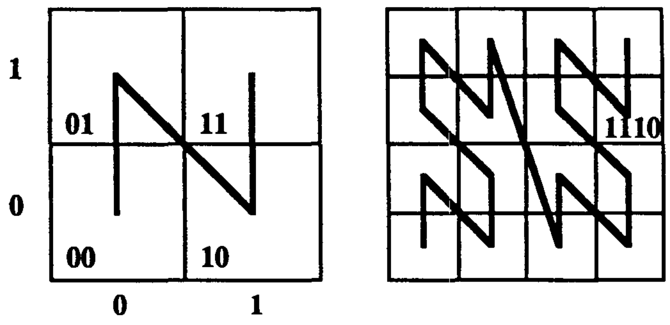
Like index structures for standard attributes, the structure can be a *clustering* or a *secondary index.* A clustering index stores the actual spatial objects. An entry in a secondary index is just a spatial key (e.g., point or rectangle) together with a logical pointer to the object in the database.

In the following three subsections, we first consider 1-D embeddings that allow the use of standard index structures such as the *B*-tree. We then discuss dedicated spatial data structures for points and for rectangles.

4.2.1 1-D Embedding of Grid Approximations. The basic idea for this is (1) to find a linear order for the cells of the grid such that cells close together in space are also (as far as possible) close to each other in the linear order, and (2) to define this order recursively for a grid that is obtained by a hierarchical subdivision of space.

Figure 7 shows the most popular such order, *bit interleaving,* proposed by Morton (1966) and later rediscovered several times (e.g., Abel and Smith, 1983; Gargantini, 1982). Orenstein (1986) used it as a general basis for query processing in the

Figure 7. z-order enumeration of cells of hierarchical partition



PROBE system (Orenstein and Manola, 1988), and called it *z-order.* In Figure 7, the left diagram shows the ordering imposed on the four quadrants of the top level of a regular hierarchical partition. On the right side, this is continued to the next level: within each quadrant, cells are connected in z-order, and then the groups of cells of the four quadrants are again connected in z-order. Each cell at each level of the hierarchy has an associated bit string whose length corresponds to the level to which the cell belongs. For example, the top-right cell in the left diagram has bit string 11, on the right-side cell 1110 is shown. The bit string 1110 is obtained by choosing 11 at the top level, and then 10 within the top level quadrant. One can also think of it as being composed of a 11 x-coordinate (used for the first and third bit) and a 10 y-coordinate (used for the second and fourth bit) which has led to the name bit interleaving. The order that is so imposed on all cells of a hierarchical subdivision is given by the *lexicographical order of the bit strings.*

Any shape (set of cells) over the grid can now be decomposed into a minimal number of cells at different levels, always using the highest possible level. It can therefore be represented by a set of bit strings (Figure 8), called *z-elements* by Orenstein (1986).

For a given spatial object, one can therefore use its corresponding set of z-elements as a set of spatial keys. To build an index for a set of objects, one can just form the union of all these spatial keys and put them in lexicographical order into a B-tree. Because of the proximity-preserving property of this embedding, various types of queries can now be answered relatively efficiently through B-tree access. For example, to answer a containment or range query with a rectangle r, this rectangle is itself decomposed into a number of z-elements. For each z-element, one portion of the leaf sequence of the B-tree is scanned containing all entries having that z-element as a prefix. This returns a set of candidates which then can be checked in the refine step whether containment is actually true.

Figure 8. A set of z-elements approximating an SDT value

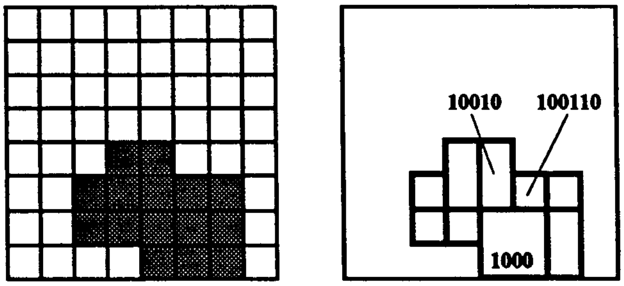
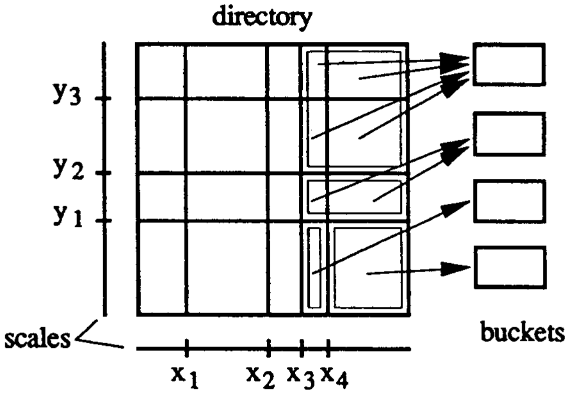


Figure 9. Structure of the grid file



4.2.2 Spatial Index Structures for Points. Data structures for representing points in a k-dimensional space have a much longer tradition than spatial database systems. This is because a tuple consisting of n attributes, $t = (x_1, ..., x_k)$, can be viewed as a point in k dimensions and, therefore, such data structures can be used to support multi-attribute retrieval. On the other hand, they also can store points with a geometrical interpretation. Two well-known representatives of such data structures are the *grid file* (Nievergelt et al., 1984) and the *kd-tree* (Bentley, 1975). The latter is an internal data structure, but also has been used as a basis for external index structures.

The grid file (Figure 9) partitions the data space into *cells* by an irregular grid. It is characteristic for this partition that split lines extend through the whole space. The split line positions are kept in scales, using one scale per dimension.

The *directory* is a k-dimensional array whose entries are logical pointers to buckets. Each cell of the data space corresponds to one element of the directory array, and all points lying within a cell are stored in the bucket pointed to by the corresponding directory entry. Several cells may be mapped into the same bucket so that bucket regions, in general, consist of more than one cell.

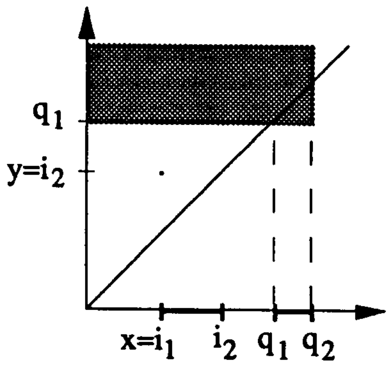
The scales are relatively small structures and can be kept in memory; the directory resides in a set of pages on disk. To find the bucket that contains a particular point, one would determine with the help of the scales the address of the page containing the directory entry for the cell containing it. The second page access already retrieves this bucket. Range queries can be answered by determining from the directory the set of buckets containing cells intersected by the query rectangle, and then by examining the points in these buckets. For the treatment of bucket overflows or underflows see Nievergelt et al. (1984).

The *kd-tree* is a binary tree where each internal node contains a key drawn from one of the k dimensions; leaves contain the points to be stored. The key in the root node (at level 0, counting from top to bottom) divides the data space with respect to dimension 0, the keys in its sons, at level 1, divide the two subspaces with respect to dimension 1, and so forth, up to dimension k-1, after which cycling through the dimensions restarts. Figure 6 shows a *kd*-tree partitioning of the data space. For the original *kd*-tree, the recursive splitting of space stops when each cell contains only a single point. This has been transformed to an external data structure by letting each cell of the partition correspond to a bucket and by also paging the binary tree itself in the *KDB-tree* (Robinson, 1981), which is also a generalization of the *B*-tree (all leaves are at the same level). Another variant is the *LSD-tree* (Henrich et al., 1989), which abandons the strict cycling through the dimensions and makes it possible to choose the dimension for splitting based on local criteria (therefore called *local split decision tree*). The second important aspect of the *LSD*-tree is a clever paging algorithm that keeps the external path length balanced, even for very unbalanced binary trees. This allows the *LSD*-tree to deal rather well with skewed distributions of points that particularly arise when extended spatial objects (k-dimensional boxes, rectangles) are mapped into points through the *transformation approach* (Section 4.2.3). Other point data structures are, for example, EXCELL (Tamminen, 1982), the buddy hash tree (Seeger and Kriegel, 1990), the BANG file (Freeston, 1987), or the hB-tree (Lomet and Salzberg, 1989).

4.2.3 Spatial Index Structures for Rectangles. The management of rectangles in external data structures is more difficult than that of points because rectangles, unlike points, generally do not fall into a unique cell of a partition, but intersect partition boundaries. There are three solutions for this problem:

- The *transformation approach*: Instead of k-dimensional rectangles, we store $2k$-dimensional points, using a point data structure.
- *Overlapping regions*: Partitioning space is abandoned; bucket regions may overlap.

Figure 10. Transformation approach, mapping intervals into 2-D points



- *Clipping*: Partitioning space is kept; if a rectangle intersects partition boundaries it is clipped into several pieces and represented within each cell that it intersects.

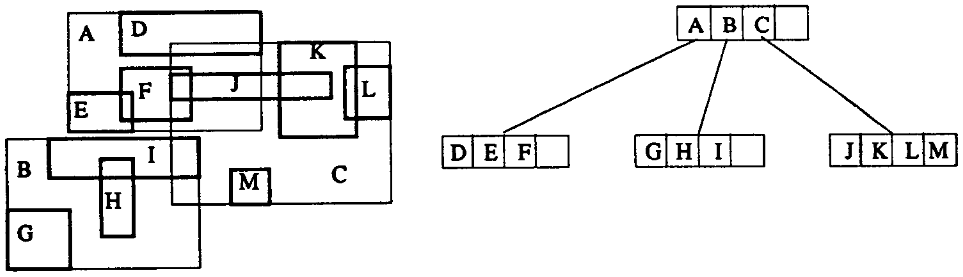
The Transformation Approach. A rectangle, represented by four coordinates (x_{left}, x_{right}, y_{bottom}, y_{top}), can be regarded as a point in four dimensions. The various types of queries then map to regions of the 4-D space. This approach is usually illustrated by the case of intervals mapped into 2-D space.

In Figure 10, the interval to be stored, $i = (i_1, i_2)$, is mapped into a point (x, y). An intersection query with an interval $q = (q_1, q_2)$ translates to a condition: Find all points (x', y') such that $x' < q_2$ and $q_1 < y'$. Hence, all intervals intersecting q must lie as points in the shaded area of Figure 10.

The transformation approach (Hinrichs, 1985; Seeger and Kriegel, 1988), here shown with the *corner representation,* generally leads to rather skewed distributions of points. For example, all points fall into the area above the diagonal $x = y$. If all intervals are small, all corresponding points lie very close to this diagonal. It is also possible to use a *center representation* (using center and length of an interval), but then the query regions become cone-shaped, and do not fit well with rectangular partitions of the point set. The *LSD*-tree point data structure was designed to be able to adapt to such skewed distributions (Henrich et al., 1989). A recent discussion of the transformation approach and a comparison to methods storing rectangles directly can be found in Pagel et al. (1993).

Overlapping Regions. The prime example of a structure using overlapping bucket regions is the *R*-tree (Figure 11; Guttmann, 1984), It is a multiway tree, like the *B*-tree, and stores a set of rectangles in each node. The leaves are the rectangles of the set *R* to be represented. For an internal node, each rectangle is associated with a pointer to a son *p,* and represents the bucket region of *p,* which is the bounding box of all rectangles represented within *p*. For example, in Figure 11 the

Figure 11. Set of rectangles represented by R-tree



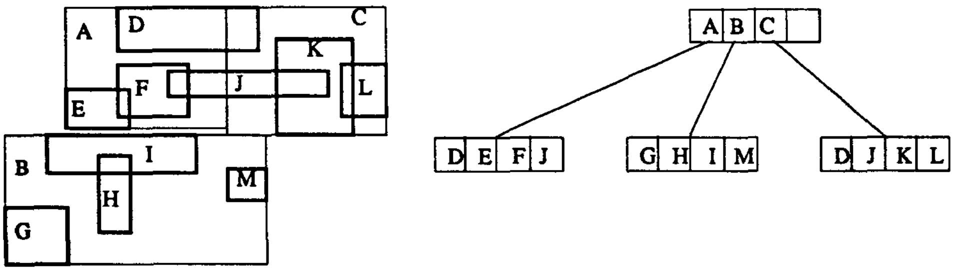
root node contains a rectangle *A*, which is the bounding box of the rectangles *D*, *E*, and *F*, stored in the son associated with *A*. Rectangles may overlap; hence, a rectangle can intersect several bucket regions but will be represented only in one of them. An advantage is that a spatial object can be kept in just one bucket. A problem is that now the search needs to branch and follow several paths whenever one is interested in a region lying in the overlap of two son regions. To keep search efficient, it is crucial to minimize the overlap of node regions. This is determined by the split strategy on overflow. Several strategies based on different heuristics have been studied (Guttman, 1984; Greene, 1989; Beckmann et al., 1990); the latter study proposed the R^*-tree, which appeared to perform best in experiments.

Clipping. A variant of the *R*-tree, called *R*+-tree, was proposed by Sellis et al. (1987) and Faloutsos et al. (1987), and was used in the PSQL database system (Roussopoulos et al., 1988). It completely avoids overlapping regions associated with buckets or internal nodes of the same level by clipping data rectangles, if necessary.

In Figure 12, an *R*+-tree is shown for the same set of data rectangles as in Figure 11. Here the rectangles *A*, *B*, and *C* in the root are chosen a bit differently to keep them, and therefore the three sons' bucket regions, disjoint. Now it is necessary to clip rectangles *D* and *J* so that each of them is represented in two buckets. Experimental comparisons of spatial index structures including *R*-tree variants can be found in Greene (1989), Smith and Gao (1990), and Beckmann et al. (1990).

There has been a tremendous amount of work on spatial index structures, and it is not possible to cover it completely in this survey. Other directions include *quadtree* variants (surveyed in Samet, 1990), which are closely related to the grid approximation schemes of Section 4.2.1, or cell trees (Günther, 1988; Günther and Bilmes, 1989), which do not store rectangles, but work with polygonal subdivisions of the plane directly. An excellent survey of spatial index structures can be found in Widmayer (1991). The article by Lin et al. in this special issue introduces the *TV*-tree, a data structure for indexing sets of points in a high-dimensional space, which is somewhat similar to an *R*-tree (Lin et al., 1994). It is a good example

Figure 12. Set of rectangles represented by R+-tree



for the design and analysis techniques needed in the development of spatial index structures as described in this section.

It should be clear now that spatial index structures, offering a few fundamental query operations, can support selection with many different spatial predicates through the *filter* and *refine* strategy. For example, a query for all regions in a partition *adjacent* to a given region can be answered by checking candidates from an intersection query; to find all regions within a certain distance from a query point, one can also find candidates with an intersection query that uses a suitable square around the point.

The filter and refine strategy was extended by Brinkhoff et al. (1993*a*) to include a second filter step with finer approximations than the bounding box; they compared, for example, bounding ellipses, convex hulls, and convex 5-corners. These are *conservative approximations,* which means they include the actual SDT values. Better conservative approximations are able to exclude some *false hits* from further consideration. In the second filter step one can also use *progressive approximations,* which are contained in the actual SDT value, such as a maximum enclosed circle or a maximum enclosed rectangle (Brinkoff et al., 1994). These allow one to identify *hits*; if two progressive approximations intersect, their SDT values are guaranteed to intersect. The goal is to avoid, as far as possible, the expensive loading and comparison of the exact geometries. It also was suggested to decompose very large SDT values into several components so that checking the exact geometry can for most queries be restricted to one of the components (Kriegel et al., 1991).

4.3 Supporting Spatial Join

Spatial join (Section 3.1) determines for two sets of spatial objects all objects in a relationship described by a spatial predicate. Classical join methods such as hash join or sort/merge join are not applicable. Filtering the cartesian product is possible but too expensive. Central ideas for computing spatial joins are, again, the filter and refine strategy, and the use of spatial index structures. One can classify proposed strategies along the following criteria:

- Grid approximation/bounding box
- None/one/both operands are represented in a spatial index structure.

For grid approximations, and for an *overlap predicate*, Orenstein (1986) and Orenstein and Manola (1988) described join algorithms to determine pairs of candidates. Essentially, a parallel scan of the two sets of z-elements corresponding to the two sets of spatial objects is performed, similar to a merge join for a $\leq$ predicate. Note that overlay, a particularly important operation for GISs, is a special case (Orenstein, 1991). A general problem with grid approximations is that choosing too fine a grid leads to inefficiency because too many z-elements per object are created, whereas a too rough grid may deliver too many "false hits" in a spatial join (Orenstein, 1989).

If the filter step is based on the use of bounding boxes, then the problem is to determine for two sets of rectangles R, S, all pairs (r, s), $r \in R$, $s \in S$, such that r intersects s. If none of the operands is represented in a spatial index, a good technique is to use a rectangle intersection algorithm from computational geometry, which solves this problem precisely. Such an algorithm, called *bb_join*, has been used in the Gral system (Güting, 1989; Becker and Güting, 1992). The basis is an external divide-and-conquer algorithm (Becker and Güting, 1992; Güting and Schilling, 1987), somewhat similar to external merge sorting. Note that even when base object sets are represented in a spatial index, such a method is needed in query processing (e.g., when the two operand sets have been determined through other indexes, or are themselves the result of geometric set operations). This also was emphasized by Lo and Ravishankar (1994), who suggested building an index for one of the operands on the fly, and who described a new tree structure, *seeded trees*, particularly suitable for this method.

If one operand is represented in a spatial index, then an *index join* or *repeated search join* can be used (Becker and Güting, 1992; Lo and Ravishankar, 1994). This is a classical technique, usually used with a B-tree index, which can be applied equally well to spatial index structures. Hence, if the "inner" operand is represented in an index supporting rectangle intersection queries, one can scan the "outer" operand set; for each object, the bounding box of its SDT attribute is used as a search argument on the index. As a result one again obtains a set of candidate pairs with intersecting rectangles. Repeated search join is especially efficient if the outer set is not too big (e.g., it is the result of a selection from a large set). If both sets are large, *bb_join* may be more efficient. Such choices have to be made by the query optimizer.

Recent research into spatial join methods has focused on the case where both operands have a spatial index. The basic idea is to perform a synchronized traversal of the two index structures so that pairs of cells whose respective partitions cover the same part of space are encountered together. A parallel traversal of two grid files was examined by Rotem (1991), Becker et al. (1993); of R-trees by Brinkhoff et al. (1993*b*). Günther (1993) studied traversal of generalization trees, which can represent nested polygonal partitions directly but can also be viewed as a generalization of R-trees, for example. He also derived cost formulas for several distributions, and compared the cost of nested-loop join (i.e., filtering the cartesian product), tree traversal, and the use of join indexes.

The use of *join indices* (Valduriez, 1987) also has been applied to spatial joins. A join index contains all pairs of object identifiers for objects from two sets in a given relationship of interest. Rotem (1991) described the computation of a join index from two grid files, which combines the pairs of points within distance ε from each other, and also the maintenance of such an index under grid file reorganizations. A problem is that the index is based on some fixed distance and does not support well queries with other distances. Lu and Han (1992) suggested some variations to accomodate different distances. Unfortunately, if all distances are to be supported, the join index will have a quadratic number of entries which is not feasible for large sets of objects.

After the filter step, as for spatial selection, one can insert a second filter step with better approximations to determine hits and exclude false hits from further checking (Brinkhoff et al., 1994).

5. System Architecture

5.1 Requirements

At the system architecture level, the problem is to integrate the tools described in Section 4 to support spatial data types—and more. In principle, the following extensions to a standard architecture need to be accommodated:

- representations for the data types of a spatial algebra,
- procedures for the atomic operations,
- spatial index structures,
- access operations for spatial indexes,
- filter and refine techniques,
- spatial join algorithms,
- cost functions for all these operations,
- statistics for estimating selectivity of spatial selection and spatial join,
- extensions of the optimizer to map queries into the specialized query processing methods,
- spatial data types and operations within data definition and query language,
- user interface extensions to handle graphical representation and input of SDT values.

In our view, the only clean way to accomodate these extensions is an *integrated architecture* based on the use of an *extensible DBMS*. Nevertheless, GISs have been constructed before extensible DBMS technology was available, and we shall first review previous approaches to GIS architecture.

5.2 GIS Architectures—Using a Closed DBMS

The first generation of GIS was built directly on top of file systems, and did not offer the benefits of DBMSs such as high-level data definition, flexible querying, and transaction management. They are not further discussed here. When DBMS technology and, in particular, relational systems, became available, attempts were made to use them as a basis. The two main approaches are *layered architecture* and *dual architecture* (following the terminology of Vijlbrief and Oosterom, 1992; see also Larue et al., 1993).

Layered Architecture. Here spatial functionality is implemented on top of a given DBMS, often a commercially available relational system, as shown in Figure 13.

There are two possible strategies for representing SDT values. The first, used in early work, is to let each tuple represent the coordinates of one point or line segment, and to break the SDT value into pieces (e.g., represent a polygon as a subset of a line segment relation; Berman and Stonebraker, 1977; Chang and Fu, 1980). The disadvantage is that, for the implementation of SDT operations in the top layer, the SDT values first have to be reconstructed, which is far too expensive. The second possibility is to represent SDT values in "long fields" of the DBMS (e.g., GEOVIEW, Waugh and Healey, 1987; SIRO-DBMS, Abel, 1989). This is better than breaking SDT values into pieces, but it is still problematic because the DBMS handles the geometries only in the form of uninterpreted byte strings; evaluation of any predicate or operation on an exact geometry can be done only in the top layer. Some limited form of spatial indexing can be provided by maintaining sets of z-elements (Section 4.2.1) for the geometries in special relations, which in turn can be indexed through a B-tree.

Dual Architecture. Here a top layer integrates two rather independent subsystems: the DBMS, which handles non-spatial data, and a spatial subsystem, which stores and manipulates geometries (Figure 14).

With this approach, the representation of each spatial object (an object with an SDT attribute) is broken into two pieces. The first part contains the non-spatial attributes, and is stored in the DBMS. The second part is the spatial attribute, and is kept in data structures implemented directly on top of the file system. The two pieces are connected by logical pointers. This approach is followed by most commercial GISs (e.g., ARC/INFO, Morehouse, 1989; SICAD, Schilcher, 1985) as well as some research prototypes (e.g., Ooi et al., 1989).

An advantage is that one is free to use adequate representations of SDT values, as well as efficient data structures and algorithms for indexing and query processing within the spatial subsystem. For example, in Ooi et al. (1989) a spatial *kd*-tree (Ooi et al., 1987) is used as an index structure. A problem is that a query now has to be decomposed into a non-spatial part and a spatial part, to be handled by the DBMS and the spatial subsystem, respectively. This complicates query processing and leads to overhead. Perhaps the main problem is that no global query optimization is

Figure 13. Layered architecture

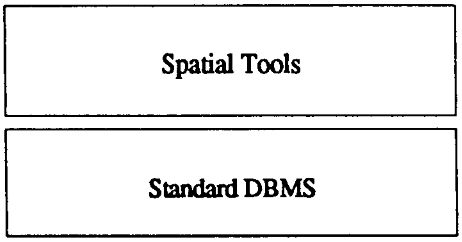
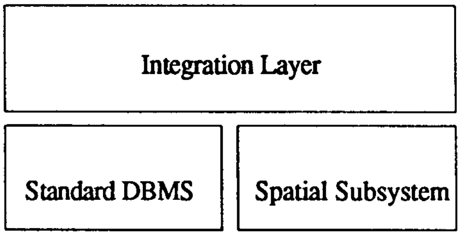


Figure 14. Dual architecture



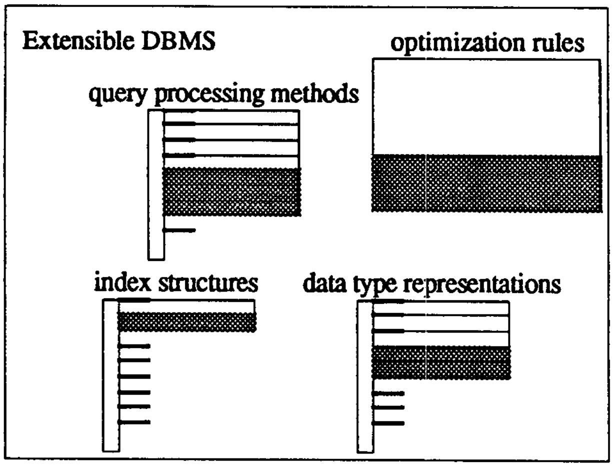
possible. For example, if a query can be processed by using either an index on a standard attribute or one on a spatial attribute, the integration layer cannot compare the two plans since estimated costs from the standard DBMS are not available. Query optimization under the dual architecture was studied by Ooi et al. (1989).

A different view of a dual architecture was taken by Aref and Samet (1991*a*). Again, spatial and non-spatial parts of an object are stored in separate structures and linked by logical pointers. However, the intention is not to use a standard DBMS, but to be able to use specialized storage structures for the geometries, and to implement the concept within one new database system. The consequences of dealing in query processing with relations represented by two separate storage structures were studied by Aref and Samet (1991*b*). The PSQL system (Roussopoulos et al., 1988) has a similar dual architecture within an extended relational prototype.

5.3 Integrated Spatial DBMS Architecture—Using an Extensible DBMS

Research into extensible database systems (e.g., POSTGRES, Stonebraker and Rowe, 1986; Probe, Dayal et al., 1987; EXODUS, Graefe and DeWitt, 1987; GENESIS, Batory et al., 1988; Gral, Güting, 1989; Sabrina, Gardarin et al., 1989; Starburst, Haas et al., 1989; DASDBS, Schek et al., 1990) was aimed at making precisely the kinds of extensions required in Section 5.1 possible. The use of an extensible system

Figure 15. Integrated, extensible architecture



leads to an *integrated architecture* which takes the following view:

1. There is no difference in principle between a "standard" data type such as STRING and a spatial data type such as REGION. This includes operations; for example, there is no difference in principle between concatenating two strings or forming the intersection of two regions. System architecture should treat them in the same way.
2. There is no difference in principle between a clustering or secondary index for standard attributes (e.g., a B-tree) and for spatial attributes (e.g., an R-tree).
3. Similarly, a sort/merge join, and a bounding-box join, are basically the same.
4. The mechanisms for query optimization should not distinguish spatial or other operations (of course, differences may be reflected in the cost functions).

Such an integrated architecture, in principle, also can be obtained by implementing a new database system from scratch or by making appropriate extensions to the code of a given DBMS. Using an extensible DBMS just vastly reduces the effort. Furthermore, a spatial DBMS based on an extensible DBMS is open for extensions, and so allows one to add missing functionality at any time. This is particularly important because it is not known how to determine a closed, complete set of operations of a spatial algebra, as discussed in Section 2.3.

The architecture of an extensible DBMS essentially offers slots and registration facilities for nearly all the kinds of extensions listed in Section 5.1. An attempt to illustrate this is given in Figure 15, where spatial components are shaded and only a few of the places for extension are shown.

Several spatial DBMS prototypes based on extensible systems have been built, examples are Probe (Orenstein, 1986; Orenstein and Manola, 1988), the DASDBS

GEO-Kernel (Schek et al., 1990; Wolf, 1989), and Gral (Güting, 1989; Becker and Güting, 1992). Possible uses of extensibility, in particular in the context of the Starburst system, for spatial database applications were discussed by Haas and Cody, 1991). More recent prototypes are GEO++ (van Oosterom and Vijlbrief, 1991; Vijlbrief and van Oosterom, 1992), based on POSTGRES, and GéoSabrina (Larue et al., 1993), based on Sabrina.

In the Probe system (Orenstein, 1986; Orenstein and Manola, 1988), spatial data types can be introduced as refinements (within an object-oriented class hierarchy) of a general POINT-SET data type. For all such types, the system provides built-in support in the form of approximate geometry processing. This means that SDT values are represented by sets of *z*-elements (Section 4.2.1) and that the filter step for spatial selections (i.e., spatial indexing) and spatial joins is offered in the system kernel. Recall that this work was a major proponent of the filter and refine strategy for spatial query processing (Orenstein and Manola, 1988).

Work in the DASDBS project (Schek et al., 1990; Wolf, 1989) has focused on external data type (EDT) support and on interfacing to generic spatial access methods. The EDT concept is a variant of data type extensibility assuming that data structures for an EDT and procedures working on these data structures are probably not coded specifically for the DBMS but rather have existed in an application environment long before. The DBMS should be able to work with these given programming language representations by using appropriate conversion functions. This has recently been extended to let the DBMS cooperate with a "geometric computation service" (as an implementation of a spatial algebra) over a network within different run-time environments (Schek and Wolf, 1993). For spatial indexing, generic access methods partitioning the data space into cells such as the grid file or the *R*+-tree are assumed; to interface with such an access method, each SDT implementation has to offer a clip and a compose function to determine the piece of the geometry falling into one cell and to put pieces together again, respectively.

The Gral system (Güting, 1989; Becker and Güting, 1992) emphasizes many-sorted algebra as a formal basis for its extensible system architecture; it uses such algebras to describe application-specific query languages and query processing systems, and provides a rule-based optimizer which transforms a query algebra expression to an executable expression by applying transformation rules. For spatial indexing, LSD-trees (Section 4.2.2) are available; spatial joins are supported by repeated search on LSD-trees or a bounding-box-join algorithm (Section 4.3). The bounding box is the generic interface between any spatial data type and access or join methods. The system treats spatial and non-spatial data quite uniformly; Becker and Güting (1992) demonstrated completely integrated query optimization and processing, as well as how filter and refine techniques are actually implemented in the optimizer.

Note that extensibility of a system architecture is rather orthogonal to the data model implemented by that architecture. For example, Probe offers an object-oriented or functional data model, DASDBS offers a nested relational model, and

POSTGRES, Starburst, and Gral offer extended relational models. Object-oriented systems have been considered as an implementation platform (e.g., David et al., 1993). Such systems are extensible at the data type level. However, they generally lack extensibility at the level of index structures, query processing methods (e.g. join algorithms), or query optimization, which is crucial for spatial DBMS implementation. Experiments with an object-oriented system and some of the arising problems have been described by Scholl and Voisard (1991).

6. Final Remarks

In this survey, we have tried to coherently present the major technical concepts for spatial database systems. To keep the task manageable, we treated spatial database systems only in a restricted sense; image database systems have been excluded. Some interesting work on image databases includes Joseph and Cardenas (1988), Chang et al. (1991), and Gupta et al. (1991). Fortunately, several articles in this special issue are related to image databases and therefore help to close the gap: Baumann describes basic DBMS support for the management of raster data (Baumann, 1994); Chu et al. show modeling and querying requirements and techniques for images in medical applications (Chu et al., 1994); and Papadias and Sellis focus on the management of abstractions of spatial relationships occurring in images (Papadias and Sellis, 1994).

Another omission, perhaps, is that not much has been said about the various kinds of applications. A good general source for case studies of GIS applications and their requirements is the *International Journal of Geographical Information Systems.* Such issues also are discussed at the biannual *Symposia on Spatial Data Handling.* The SEQUOIA 2000 project (Stonebraker et al., 1993*b*) addressed the needs of global change researchers, in particular the need to deal with terabytes of raster data. Some idea of the requirements of medical applications can be gained from the paper by Chu et al. in this issue.

There are two recent surveys related to spatial database systems that may augment the one given here. Günther and Buchmann (1990) focus more on open research questions. The survey by Bauzer-Medeiros and Pires (1994) is closer to GIS applications.

Many interesting issues related to spatial database systems could not be included in this survey, for example:

- spatio-temporal modeling,
- spatial objects with imprecise boundaries,
- multi-scale modeling/cartographic generalization,
- data lineage (maintaining information about precision, collection method, etc. of data),
- spatial reasoning/deductive spatial databases,
- performance benchmarks for spatial DBMS (Stonebraker et al., 1993*a*).

Integrating solutions to such problems with the spatial database technology described here will remain a fascinating challenge for database researchers for quite some time.

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