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Miami, Florida

A LARGE-SCALE DYNAMIC VECTOR AND RASTER DATA  
VISUALIZATION GEOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SYSTEM BASED ON  
PARALLEL MAP TILING

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requirements for the degree of

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by

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DEDICATION

To my family.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

A LARGE-SCALE DYNAMIC VECTOR AND RASTER DATA  
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Florida International University, 2012

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Professor Naphtali Rishe, Major Professor

With the exponential increasing demands and uses of GIS data visualization system, such as urban planning, environment and climate change monitoring, weather simulation, hydrographic gauge and so forth, the geospatial vector and raster data visualization research, application and technology has become prevalent. However, we observe that current web GIS techniques are merely suitable for static vector and raster data where no dynamic overlaying layers. While it is desirable to enable visual explorations of large-scale dynamic vector and raster geospatial data in a web environment, improving the performance between backend datasets and the vector and raster applications remains a challenging technical issue.

This dissertation is to implement these challenging and unimplemented areas: how to provide a large-scale dynamic vector and raster data visualization service with dynamic

overlying layers accessible from various client devices through a standard web browser, and how to make the large-scale dynamic vector and raster data visualization service as rapid as the static one. To accomplish these, a large-scale dynamic vector and raster data visualization geographic information system based on parallel map tiling and a comprehensive performance improvement solution are proposed, designed and implemented. They include: the quadtree-based indexing and parallel map tiling, the Legend String, the vector data visualization with dynamic layers overlaying, the vector data time series visualization, the algorithm of vector data rendering, the algorithm of raster data re-projection, the algorithm for elimination of superfluous level of detail, the algorithm for vector data gridding and re-grouping and the cluster servers side vector and raster data caching.

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# 1. INTRODUCTION

## 1.1. GIS Data Visualization

With the exponentially increasing demands and uses of GIS vector data visualization, such as urban planning, environment and climate change monitoring, weather simulation, and hydrograph, the geospatial vector data visualization research is looking for ways to improve the expressive power, ergonomic, and performance of the users access to data. However, we observe that current Web GIS techniques are merely suitable for raster data visualization and/or vector data visualization without real-time dynamic layers. In order to implement this challenging area, we present a technique in Section 3 for GIS vector data visualization with real-time dynamic layers. Our proposed technique is based on Quadkey Suffix-based Parallel Tiling, Legend String, WKB-format quad tile granularity dataset and background transparent layer rendering.

Web Mapping and Geospatial applications often need to process and display as a user-controlled map with large volumes of vector data. Improving the performance of vector data mapping and visualization remains a challenging issue. In Section 4, we present, analyze, and report on implementation and benchmarking of three approaches for improving the performance of vector data visualization and mapping. Approach 1 projects and reduces the raw vector data into Level of Detail (LOD) data. The purpose of this approach is to reduce the size of raw data but without loss of visual vector imagery map quality. Approach 2 is to grid and then assembles a reduced LOD dataset into a

Quadtree granularity dataset, to reduce the dataset granularity in order to speed up the data retrieval and loading. Approach 3 is server-side vector data caching.

## 1.2. My Work

The objective of this research is to achieve the challenging and unimplemented areas in GIS data visualization and its performance improvement.

The Section 3 presents a GIS vector and raster data visualization with real-time dynamic layers. The ability of real-time dynamic layers is gained by the techniques of our proposed Quadkey Suffix-based Parallel Tiling, Legend String, WKB-format quad tile granularity dataset and background transparent layer rendering. Two of implementations of vector data visualization applied with our proposed techniques are presented.

In order to make vector data visualization as fast and responsive as possible, three approaches for improving the performance of vector data visualization are formed, proposed and implemented in Section 4. Approach 1 intends to project and reduce the raw vector data into LOD data. The purpose of this process is to reduce the size of raw data but without loss of visual map imagery quality. Approach 2 is proposed for gridding and assembling reduced LOD dataset into Quadtree granularity dataset, it intends to reduce the dataset granularity to speed up the data retrieval and loading. Approach 3 is the server side vector data caching. Approach 1 and 2 are pre-processing that designed for speeding up the vector data rendering and loading during the first time request. They reduce the overhead unnecessary and redundant in real time computation. Approach 3 is used to expedite the response time for the vector data that have been cached in database. It is designed for the second time and succeeding requests performance improvement.

### 1.3. The Organization of the Dissertation

The organization of this dissertation is structured as follows:

Chapter 2: States the GIS background techniques focus on standard GIS vector and raster data format, the GIS coordinates system.

Chapter 3: Presents a GIS vector and raster data visualization with real-time dynamic layers, including Quadkey Suffix-based Parallel Tiling, Legend String, WKB-format quad tile granularity dataset and background transparent layer rendering, the algorithm of vector labeling of Point, LineString and Polygon. At the end of this section, two of implementations of vector data visualization applied with our proposed techniques are presented.

Chapter 4: Describes a comprehensive performance improvement solution, it includes three approaches: projects and reduces the raw vector data into Level of Detail (LOD) data, grid and then assembles a reduced LOD dataset into a Quadtree granularity dataset and server-side vector data caching. Finally, we perform and describe 14 experimental tests in 6 scenarios and the experimental test results were expected as our system applied with the comprehensive performance improvement solution.

At each end of section we present a summary of this dissertation in terms of an overview of the contribution and future directions of this research.

## 2. GIS Background

### 2.1. Vector Data Format

#### 2.1.1. Shapefile

The Shapefile[1][2][3] is a geospatial vector data format for GIS established by ESRI[1][2]. The format of our raw vector data is in shapefile format which are the current industry standard and work with most all GIS commercial software products and other open source applications. In general, a shapefile is a set of three files that store the vector data records that comprises a shapefile: ".shp", ".shx", ".dbf". [1][2][3].

Since the shapefile standard formed in 1980s, [3] presents 3 key limitations for current GIS as follows:

- The maximum size of either “.shp” or “.dbf” component files cannot exceed 2 GB.
- Maximum length of field names is 10 characters and maximum number of fields is 255.
- A shapefile cannot store type-mixed vector data

Typically, the shapefile format has less flexibility and scalability to perform any record (or vector object)-level operations, such as grouping records, records alteration.



### **2.1.2. Well-Known Binary**

The WKB representation for geometric values is defined by the OpenGIS specification. Since shapefile format has several key limitations, the WKB (Well-Known Binary) [4] vector data format is modeled, employed and applied in our vector visualization in Section 3.4.2. Compared to shapefile format, the WKB format has three main advantages over shapefile format described in [4] as follows:

1. No maximum size limitation. No maximum length of field names limitation.  
And no maximum number of fields limitation
2. Capable of mixed type of vector data
3. Capable of record (object) granularity operation.

### **2.2. Raster Data Format**

Our geospatial raster raw data are from various sources, such as USGS Digital Orthophoto Quadrangles (DOQs), County Photography, Ikonos Satellite Imagery and Geoeye. All raster raw data which from various sources are in TIFF (Tagged Image File Format [5]) format to store digital satellite images with embedding geographic information, such as latitude, longitude, map projection etc.

[5] defines a three-level hierarchy: 1. a file Header. The file header contains the geospatial information such as as latitude, longitude, and map projection etc. 2. One or more directories called IFDs (Image File Directories), containing codes and their data, or pointer to the data. 3. Data. The data is the pixels of this imagery.

## 2.3. The Projection System

### 2.3.1. UTM

All of our raster raw data are in UTM [6] projection. [6] describes the UTM system divides the surface of Earth between 80°S and 84°N latitude into 60 zones, each 6° of longitude in width and centered over a meridian of longitude. Zone 1 is bounded by longitude 180° to 174° W and is centered on the 177th West meridian. Zone numbering increases in an easterly direction. Each of the 60 longitude zones in the UTM system is based on a transverse Mercator projection, which is capable of mapping a region of large north-south extent with a low amount of distortion. [6]

[6] describes UTM projection has following main disadvantages:

1. A full reference requires a zone number and easting and northing coordinates.
2. The axes in adjacent zones are skewed. Therefore, problems arise when working across zone boundaries.
3. No mathematical relationship between coordinates in one zone and those in an adjacent zone.

### 2.3.2. Tile Mercator

Considering the disadvantage of UTM, [7] proposes and introduces the Tile Mercator Projection System, which solves all projection problems that are happened in UTM. The Tile Mercator projection system is a close variant of the Mercator projection, which looks like as follows:



Figure 1 Tile Mercator Projection

The Tile Mercator has two important properties that outweigh the scale distortion described in [7] is following:

1. Conformal Projection: means that it preserves the shape of relatively small objects.
2. Cylindrical Projection: means that north and south are always straight up and down, and west and east are always straight left and right.

In addition to the projection, the ground resolution or map scale is specified in order to render a map in [7]. The ground resolution indicates the distance on the ground that is represented by a single pixel in the map. For example, at a ground resolution of 100 meters/pixel, each pixel represents a ground distance of 100 meters. The ground resolution varies depending on the level of detail and the latitude at which it's measured.

[7] also defines that at the lowest level of detail (Level 1), the map is  $512 \times 512$  pixels. At each successive level of detail, the map width and height grow by a factor of 2. For instance, Level 2 is  $1024 \times 1024$  pixels, Level 3 is  $2048 \times 2048$  pixels, and Level 4 is  $4096 \times 4096$  pixels, and so on.

[7] generalizes the width and height of the map (in pixels) at successive each level can be calculated as:

$$width = height = 256 \times 2^{level}$$

### **3. The GIS Vector and Raster Data Visualization**

In this section, we presents the quadtree-based indexing and tiling techniques, parallel map tiling infrastructure and its implementation, algorithm of vector Point labeling, algorithm of LineString segments merging, algorithm of convex and non-convex Polygon labeling, the PNG [8] and KML [9] output, Legend String, time series, a comprehensive performance improvement solution, the algorithm of raster data re-projection and an implementation of server side geospatial data LRU caching algorithm.

#### **3.1. System Architecture**

The dynamic vector and raster data visualization parallel map tiling system is a web service-based GIS system through the internet.

The capability provided to the user is the vector and raster data visualization, virtual fly over maps comprised of raster satellite imagery overlaid with vector data. This data visualization is able to assistant users to explore, analysis the vector and raster data.

All of this data visualization capability builds on multi-tiers system architecture, it includes:

1. Vector data visualization engine and vector datasets and databases
2. Raster data visualization engine and raster datasets and databases
3. JavaScript-based and Flash-based Client side navigation application
4. cluster servers

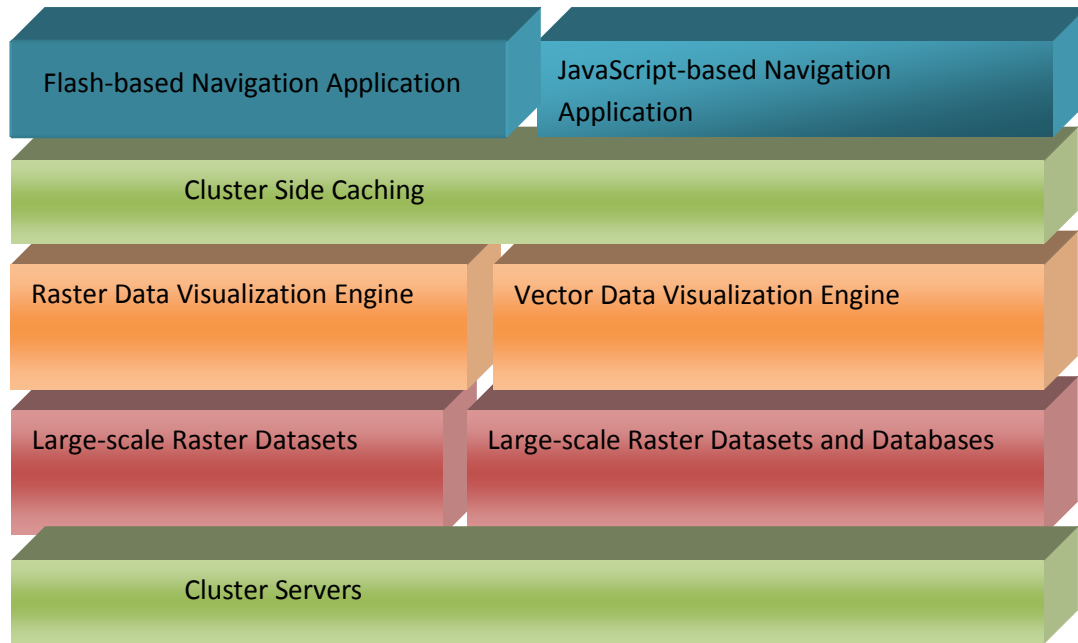


Figure 2 The System Architecture

## 3.2. Quadtree-based Parallel Tiling

### 3.2.1. Quadkey

[7] proposes and presents the Tile-based Square Mercator projection, and this Tile-based Square Mercator projection is applied in our vector data visualization system. In this projection, the latitude and longitude are on the WGS 84 datum. The longitude is assumed to range from -180 to +180 degrees, and the latitude is clipped to range from -85.05112878 to 85.05112878.

In terms of this square projection, our rendered map in our system is cut into 256 by 256 pixels each. [7] describes the tile coordinates and quadkey to index each tile as follows:

- Each tile is given XY coordinates ranging from (0,0) in the upper left to  $(2^{n-1}, 2^{n-1})$  in the lower right, where n is the number of level. For example, at level 3 the tile coordinates range from (0,0) to (7,7). Given a pair of pixel XY coordinates, tile XY coordinates can be determined by pixel coordinates as follows:

$$t_x = p_x / 256$$

$$t_y = p_y / 256$$

- The two-dimensional tile XY coordinates is able to be combined into one-dimensional strings in Quaternary called Quadkey by interleaving the bits of the Y and X coordinates. For instance, given tile XY coordinates of (1, 2) at level 3, the quadkey is deducted as follows:

$$t_x = 1_{Dec} = 001_{Bin}$$

$$t_y = 2_{Dec} = 010_{Bin}$$

$$q = 2_{Dec} = 001001_{Bin} = 021_{Qua} = "021"$$

### 3.2.2. Quadkey Suffix-based Parallel Tiling

Our map is organized by level of details. At the lowest level of detail (Level 1), the map is 512 by 512 pixels. At each successive level of detail, the map width and height

grow by a factor of 2: Level 2 is 1024 by 1024 pixels, Level 3 is 2048 by 2048 pixels, and Level 4 is 4096 by 4096 pixels, and so on. It is defined as follows:

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} l_1 \\ l_2 \\ \vdots \\ l_{21} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 512 \times 512 \\ 1,024 \times 1,024 \\ \vdots \\ 536,870,912 \times 536,870,912 \end{bmatrix}$$

The corresponding ground resolution (meter) in our system is shown as following:

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} g_1 \\ g_2 \\ \vdots \\ g_{21} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 78,271.5170 \\ 39,135.758 \\ \vdots \\ 0.075 \end{bmatrix}$$

A quadtree is a tree data structure in which each internal node has exactly four children. The Quadkey is used to identify each tile in our quadtree organized maps. Since our rendered map is gridded into 256 by 256 pixels each, in terms of property of quadtree, we proposed a  $4^n$  tiling approach. The purpose of this approach is to make one map tile mapped for one server. This approach intends to cut a whole map into smaller tiles, and hence the computation for a whole map, like labeling, data retrieving and loading, are divided into a smaller computation with tile granularity. These divided computations are able to be carried out simultaneously by clustered servers. In other words, this approach allows one tile mapped into one server and thus its corresponding computation is assigned to this one server. Finally, our client navigation application collects the divided map tiles and gathers the divided tiles, and then reverts them into a whole map.



In theoretical, the performance of  $4^n$  tiling system is in direct proportion to the number of servers. In practical,  $4^3 = 8 \times 8 = 64$  tiles that equal  $2048 \times 2048$  pixels, this pixels area could be covering by most popular monitors. To optimize the performance of map retrieval, display and save energy,  $8 \times 8$  tiling is applied and implemented in our system. The one-server-to-one-tile mapping is shown in Figure 3.

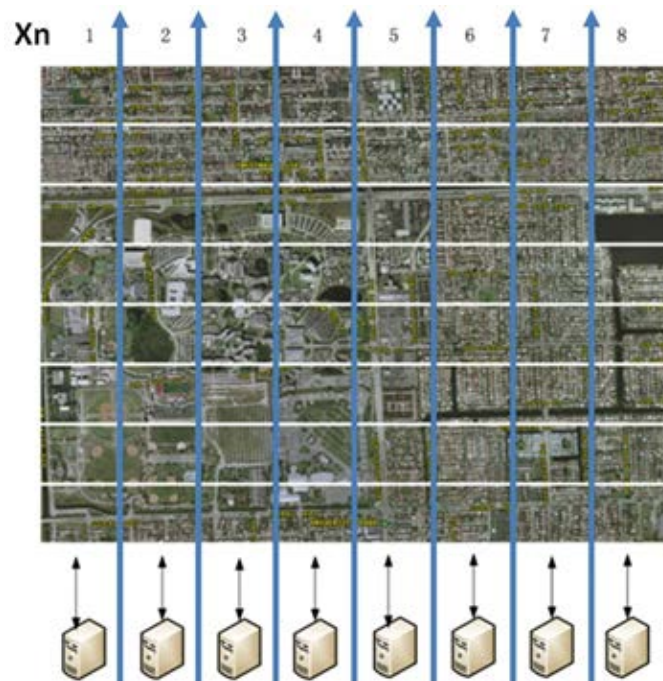


Figure 3 Tile Server Mapping

The Quadkeys have some interesting properties. First, the length of a quadkey equals the level of details in tile. For example, tile 001 is in Level 3. Second, the quadkey of tile starts with the quadkey of its parent. For example, tile 0010 is a child of tile 001. Finally, The tiles is able to be grouped by the prefix of quadkey and the suffix of quadkey. In terms of properties of quadkey, in order to mapping and indexing tiles to servers, we

further propose a  $8 \times 8$  quadtree suffix-based indexing algorithm. The Figure 4 shows  $8 \times 8$  quadtree suffix-based indexing:

000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
002	003	012	013	102	103	112	113
020	021	030	031	120	121	130	131
022	023	032	033	122	123	132	133
200	201	210	211	300	301	310	311
202	203	212	213	302	303	312	313
220	221	230	231	320	321	330	331
222	223	232	233	322	323	332	333

Figure 4  $8 \times 8$  quadtree suffix-based indexing

In Figure 4, for example, tile 001 assigned to server 001 . And any map tile having the 001 suffix of quadkey, such as 012001, 10231001 etc., is expected to be assigned to the server 001 . In other words, the 001 is able to mapping the tiles in Level 3 and the tiles fall in after Level 3 but having suffix 001 . As for the 20 tiles in Level 1 (4 tiles) and Level 2 (16 tiles), they randomly assigned to any server in an  $8 \times 8$  cluster. Furthermore, building less than  $8 \times 8$  the number of servers is feasible in our approach. In case of the  $4^2 = 4 \times 4 = 16$  servers (shown in Figure 3), any map tile having the 01 suffix of quadkey, such as 012001, 10231001, etc., is expected to be assigned to the server 01 .

00	01	10	11
02	03	12	13
20	21	30	31
22	23	32	33

Figure 5  $4 \times 4$  quadtree suffix-based indexing

### 3.3. The Resource Availability Management

The parallel tiling is eligible to support resource pool-based consumption model [10]. The VM resource pool has a real-time list with all of available VMs. Once one of VMs gets failed, the monitoring system would put any available VM to fill this absence.

#### 3.3.1. The Failover Strategy

The right neighbor failover strategy is selected for our Failover Strategy. The right neighbor is able to be easily determined by *Quadkey* :

$$Quadkey_r = Quadkey_c + 1$$

Where *Quadkey* is a quaternary number,  $Quadkey_c$  denotes the *Quadkey* of current server,  $Quadkey_r$  is denoted as the right neighbor of  $Quadkey_c$ .

Once a server gets failed, the server availability list would be getting updated, and the system put the right neighbor server to take the computation for tiles which assigned for that failed server. And the system notifies this failure to administrator.

After failed server fixed up, the system recovers the status before this failure and updates the availability server list.

#### 3.3.2. The Feedback Loop-based Monitoring

Feedback loops based system takes the system real-time status into consideration. The system monitor takes the initial resource allocation first, and then it monitors every working VM.

Every 5 seconds, the resource availability management system monitor scans entire VMs. Once a VM failure is found, it updates the VM availability list. The VM availability list shared with the client navigation application, it requests to VMs on this updated list then. This feedback loops based process provides availability guarantees.

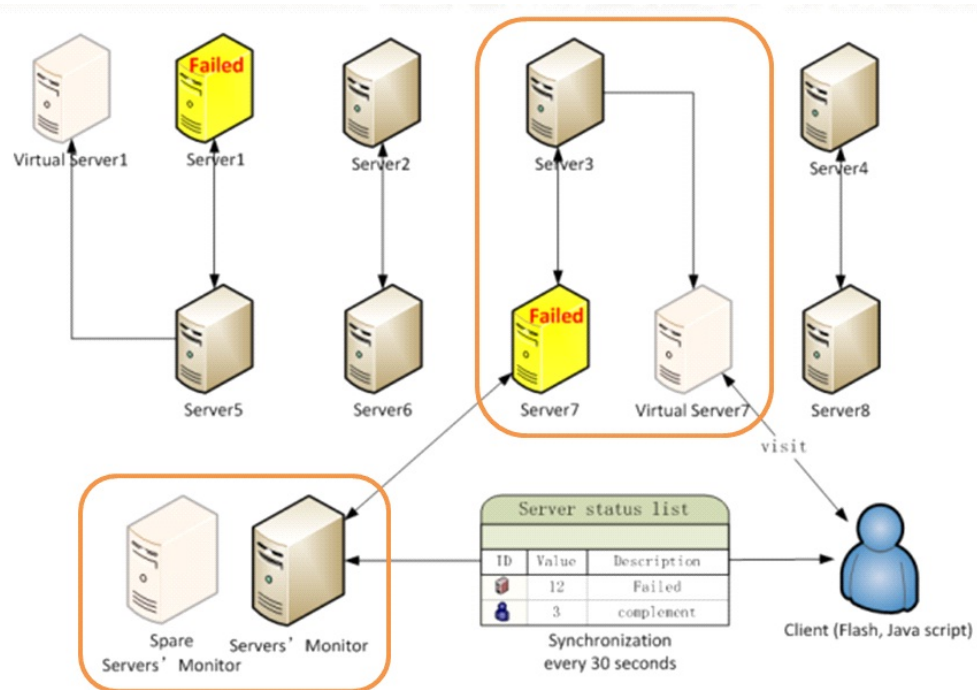


Figure 6 The Resource Availability Management

### 3.4. GIS Vector Data Visualization with Real-Time Dynamic Layers

With the exponentially increasing demands and uses of GIS vector data visualization, such as urban planning, environment and climate change monitoring, weather simulation, and hydrograph, the geospatial vector data visualization research is looking for ways to improve the expressive power, ergonomic, and performance of the users access to data. However, we observe that current Web GIS techniques are merely

suitable for raster data visualization and/or vector data visualization without real-time dynamic layers. This paper presents a technique for GIS vector data visualization with real-time dynamic layers. Our proposed technique is based on Quadkey Suffix-based Parallel Tiling, Legend String, WKB-format quad tile granularity dataset and background transparent layer rendering.

### **3.4.1. Introduction and Related Work**

GIS data represents the real world's geographic objects (such as streets, lakes, lands, cities etc.) in digital world. Traditionally, there are two broad types used to store data in a GIS: raster data and vector data [11][12][13]. A raster data type (digital image) is essentially represented by graphical cell grid (typically, it is a pixel). Typically, vector data is composed of discrete coordinates that can be used as Point or connected to create LineString and Polygon.

[14] describes there are two principal methods to visualize vector data. (1) A set of vector data is rasterized at a given resolution as an image and combined with other images (e.g., road system combined with topographic map) (2) Vector data is mapped by primitives such as points, lines, and polygons, which can be modified by point symbols, line patterns, or polygon styles. The first strategy is to rasterizing vector data as images in a pre-processing step. The image is used as texture and projected onto the level-of-detail terrain geometry. Using multi-overlapping, different rasterized vector data sets can be visually combined [15]. However, the rasterized images require additional storage space, and the orders of layers and level cannot be changed without rasterizing the vector data again [14]. Our work falls primarily into the second category. Our vector data

visualization is the use of geography WKB-format primitives Point, LineString and Polygon, composed of geography coordinates, to represent map images in real-time. In this strategy, the ability of real-time dynamic layers is feasible since the orders of layers and level is able to be changed during real-time.

In recent years, various open source applications to vector data visualization GIS have been developed and published. In general, [16] represent vector data fall in the first strategy. The ability of dynamic layers is not allowed in [16]. [17] and [18] represent vector data in the second strategy. In the field of vector data visualization, [17] visualizes vector data based on XML, which defines a wide variety of vector objects and styles. And [17] mainly focuses on LineString (street) object. [18] visualizes vector data based on shapefile, which is not able to handle large volume data (greater than 2GB). None of them allow the ability of real-time dynamic layers.

In general, the strategy and algorithm with vector data visualization have not changed much in principle for years. However, recently, approaches towards vector data transmission have been emerged and applied, for example, to progressively transmit [19][20] [21]and/or compress [22] vector data. They do not concentrate on the visualization of vector data, but can substantially support the design and implementation of visual multi-resolution representations of vector data.

#### **3.4.2. GIS Vector Data Modeling**

WKT and WKB [4] (A binary equivalent with WKT) are selected and implemented as our vector data representations. The data in WKT and WKB are

organized by records, each of which represents an object in a GIS vector data layer. The GIS vector WKT and WKB formats are regulated by the Open Geospatial Consortium (OGC) [4] and described in their Simple Feature Access and Coordinate Transformation Service specifications [4]. In terms of OGC specification, we define a geospatial vector set  $S$  composed by vector  $\vec{V}$  as following:

*The geospatial vector set*

$$S = \begin{cases} \vec{V} & \vec{V} \text{ is a vector of vertices} \\ \bigcup_1^n \vec{V}_i & \text{Each } \vec{V}_i \text{ is a vector of attributes} \end{cases}$$

*Where  $n$  is natural number greater than 1*

Since the attributes are metadata attached to a geospatial object, we simple define a geospatial vector  $\vec{V}$  with its vertices  $v$  as following:

$$\vec{V} = \begin{cases} [v] & v \text{ is a vertex of the Point vector} \\ [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_m] & \text{Each } v_i \text{ is a vertex of the LineString or Polygon vector} \end{cases}$$

*Where each  $v$  or  $v_i$  is formed by the coordinate (latitude, longitude) and  $m$  is natural number greater than 1*

*The Point vector*

$$\vec{V}^{PT} = [v_1]$$

Due to any vertex can be presented by a pair with geography coordinates (latitude, longitude),  $\vec{V}^{PT}$  is denoted by a coordinates representation is as following:

$$\vec{V}^{PT} = (\text{latitude}_1, \text{longitude}_1)$$

These coordinate numbers are often arranged into a row vector or column vector, particularly when dealing with matrices. And the (lat, long) is used to indicate (latitude, longitude) as following:

$$\vec{V}^{PT} = [\text{lat}_1, \text{long}_1]$$

*LineString vector*

$$\vec{V}^{LS} = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_m]$$

Where each  $v_i$  is formed by the coordinate (latitude, longitude) and  $m$  is natural number greater than 1

*Polygon vector*

$$\vec{V}^{PG} = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_m, v_1]$$

Where each  $v_i$  is formed by the coordinate (latitude, longitude) and  $m$  is natural number greater than 1

In general, any type of vector can be defined as follows:

$$\vec{V} = \begin{cases} [v_1] \\ [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_m] \\ [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_m, v_1] \end{cases}$$

Where each  $v_i$  is formed by the coordinate (latitude, longitude) and  $m$  is natural number greater than 1



### 3.4.3. Vector Data Labeling

The vector data visualization is drawn with 3 different types of objects:

- Points, representing top of mountains, cities, airports, etc.
- Lines, representing rivers, streets, etc.
- Polygons, representing countries, states, provinces, lakes, parcels, etc.

In the case of labeling a vector object, the text is placed around the object. The goal of point labeling is to find a position for each label in such a way that no label overlaps another one or overlaps the symbol marking a point. [23]

#### The Circle Detecting Algorithm

A proposed Circle Detecting Algorithm is to avoid conflict and limits labels to four candidate positions around a labeling position, which are listed as following:

$$\theta = 0^\circ$$

$$\theta = 90^\circ$$

$$\theta = 180^\circ$$

$$\theta = 360^\circ$$

All labels are ASCII-based characters, each of them on map occupies a circle position fully fits itself is proposed, shown in below:



Figure 7 The Circles around Letters

The circle detecting is that each circle of character of label cannot overlap with the others circle of characters of labels, in this proposed algorithm, it has two functions, one is `IsSelfTwoCircleOverlaped` and `IsTwoCircleOverlaped`.

The purpose of function `IsSelfTwoCircleOverlaped` is to check if two characters in same label are overlapped, the main idea is to check if the distance of two same size circles is greater than the sum of two circles' radiuses.

The function `IsTwoCircleOverlaped` is intend to check if two characters from different labels are overlapped, the principle idea is as same as the function `IsSelfTwoCircleOverlaped`, but it has three cases, one is for the big font labels checking, the other is for some special point labeling such as very density points labeling, the last one is for the regular overlap checking. The different of them is only the distance of two circles, the big font labels overlay checking has the smallest distance capability, and the special point labeling has the biggest distance capability.

Since a map is drawn with 3 different types of elements: `Point`, `LineString` and `Polygon`, obviously, each of them has different labeling approaches:

1. The *Point* labeling always be labeled horizontally.

2. The *LineString* labeling has much different way to be drawn since it is not always be horizontal but its labeling almost always oriented in a direction locally parallel to the line.
3. The *Polygon* labeling always be labeled horizontally but the Polygon object positing is much more complicated.

### The Point Horizontal Labeling

On a map, a character of one label of a point object can be included in a circle of radius  $r$ . The label of this object cannot overlap with this circle. The candidate positions for a point object are spread as regularly as possible around this circle. Point object are almost always labeled horizontally in practice. Our Point label placing rule is followed our regular placing rule which allows four positions to be labeled, it listed in Figure 16.



Figure 8 The World\_Nations Layer Horizontally Labeled

Figure 18 shows the Point vector data (World\_Nations Layer) horizontally labeled on our vector map engine.

### The LineString labeling

The LineString labeling has following 2 steps:

1. Merging the segment objects into one LineString object
2. Labeling the LineString object with oriented in a direction locally parallel to the line, as well as each character in one label is to perpendicularity to the line.

## 1. Merging the Segments into LineString

The LineString objects (roads, streets, highways) are represented with broken line objects (the segment object) in original vector data format (shapefile).

Therefore, there would be many duplicated segment labels to be drawn on the map if the LineString objects to be labeled directly from original shapefile without any object merging. Given figure 19 is to show this duplicated segment labeling:

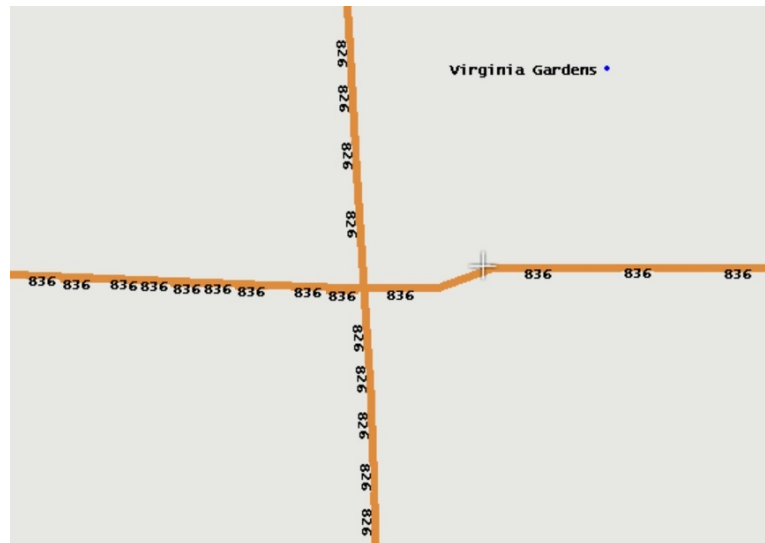


Figure 9 Many Duplicated Segments Labeling

To avoid this, first of all, in each map tile (256pixels\*256pixels), merging as many segments (which belongs to the one same LineString object) as possible into one LineString object is needed. Figure A2 and A3 show this merging process:

First, checking if two segments have the same LineString object name, if so, second, checking if the starting point and ending point of two segment have the same coordinates, if so, merging them into one LineString object, all of the others cases, ignore them , which means all of them are in different LineString object.

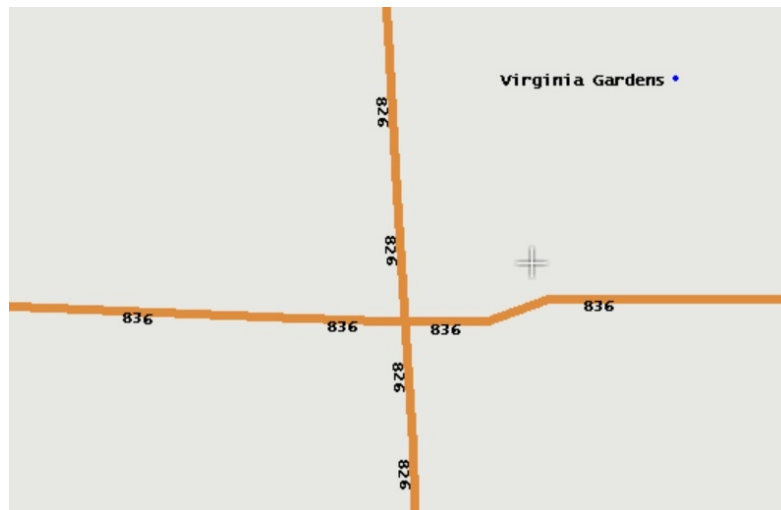


Figure 10 Merged LineString Labeling

Figure 10 shows the LineString labeling in our vector map engine after applied merging algorithm, the result is not crowd and easy to read.

## 2. Labeling

In practice, the label associated with a line is almost always oriented in a direction locally parallel to the line, as well as each character in one label is to perpendicularity to the line.

Our LineString label placing rule limits LineString labels to three possible candidate positions along with a line, which includes the middle position, the one-third position (at one-third away from the starting point), and the two-third position (at two-third away from the starting point). Once any character in any label cannot be placed, it would be trying to the next candidate position until placed or ignored (which means there is no space to be placed).

Figure 11 illustrate how candidate positions are generated for LineString.

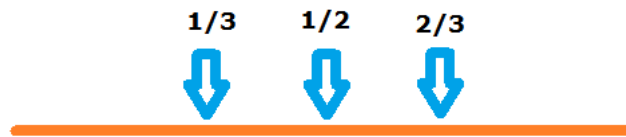


Figure 11 Three Candidate Labeling Position

## The Polygon Labeling

The Polygon object labeling has much more complicity than Point and LineString labeling, since Polygon labeling has much more cases need to be considered:

1. The very small polygon labeling
2. The very big polygon labeling
3. The regular polygon labeling

To define if a polygon is a very small polygon or not, the spatial bounding box (The minimum bounding rectangle) is needed. The minimum bounding rectangle (MBR), also known as bounding box or envelope, is an expression of the maximum extents of a

2-dimensional object (e.g. point, line, and polygon) within its 2-D (x, y) coordinate system, in other words  $\min(x)$ ,  $\max(x)$ ,  $\min(y)$ ,  $\max(y)$ . [24]

### **1. The very small polygon labeling**

A very small polygon can be considered as a point object. In our system, the very small polygon is defined as a polygon whose spatial bounding boxes (The minimum bounding rectangle) occupies the area less than  $20 \times 40$  pixels in each corresponding resolution. The candidate generation is done as for point object in this case.

### **2. The very big polygon labeling**

Basically, the very big polygon labeling, like continental, country, province or states, would be shown only at very zoom-out resolution, the very big polygon labeling always be labeled horizontally in the center of Polygon object.

### **3. The regular polygon labeling**

The regular polygon labeling should always be labeled horizontally in the center of Polygon object.

#### **3.4.4. Legend String**

Legend String (LS) is a layer control convention between the user interfaces (client application) and the backend vector data visualization system. The client application collects user commands by a flash-based checklist toolkit Legend Layer Control. The Legend Layer Control lists all available layers in it and provides checkboxes to allow the user to customize the layer composition. Once the layers are checked, the

client application collects user's commands and converts the commands into LS and finally sends the customized LS to the backend vector data visualization system. The convention of Legend String has three syntaxes to customize map layers:

1. *Layers Priority*: The + is used to delimit layers in LS. The order of layers in LS reflects the priority of layer rendering. For instance, layerA + layerB means that both layerA and layerB rendered in map, and layerA has higher rendering priority of than layerB.

2. *Level Visibility*: The – is used to indicate the level range of layer visibility. Given a lower bound level and an upper bound level with delimited by a symbol –, the layer is expected to be shown within this specified level visible range.

3. *Layer Coloring and Transparency*: The color and transparency values in LS are typically expressed using 8 hexadecimal digits, with each pair of the hexadecimal digits representing the sample values of the Alpha, Red, Green and Blue channel, respectively. For example, the Legend String 80FFFF00 represents a 50.2% opaque yellow.

While the 21-level views setup in our system, for every vector dataset, we pre-generate 21 vector subsets for each level of detail. Since the difference of pixel spaces in each level of details, at some cases, especially in zoomed-out levels, some vertices in vector object that are all going to render into the same pixel on screen. In terms of this principle, a pixel distance based data reduce process is applied in the 21 vector subsets. Because our map is cut into a  $256 \times 256$  pixels tile each, and its relatively low



granularity provided by the tile causes many vertices or objects in 21 vector subsets not in the tile-of-view to be loaded, we propose a tile granularity subset that only containing the vertices and objects to be rendered in the tile-of-view. The tile granularity subset is determined by a quad tile intersecting with its corresponding 21 level subsets. For example, tile 0 subset at level 1, it is determined by an square area of [(0,0), (256,0), (256,256), (0, 256), (0,0)] intersecting with level 1 subset. We define a ST\_intersect geography process followed OpenGIS Specifications (Standards) [4] as follows:

$$T_{ij} = ST\_Intersect(s^{li}; t_{ij})$$

A semi-colon delimits two arguments  $s^{li}$  and  $t_{ij}$ ,  $s^{li}$  denotes LOD subset at level  $i$ ,  $t_{ij}$  is used to indicate the  $j$ th tile at level  $i$ ,  $T_{ij}$  denotes the  $j$ th tile subset at level  $i$ ,  $n$  is the number of level, the subsets at level  $i$  is denoted as follows:

$$s^{T_i} = [T_{i1}, T_{i2}, \dots, T_{im}]$$

where :

$$m = 4^n$$

The entire 21-level subsets gridded into Tile subsets are denoted by  $S^T$  as follows:

$$S^T = [s^{T_1}, s^{T_2}, \dots, s^{T_{21}}]$$

### 3.4.5. Quad Tile Dataset Representation

#### WKB

The GIS vector WKB format are regulated by the Open Geospatial Consortium (OGC) and described in their Simple Feature Access and Coordinate Transformation Service specifications [4]. In system, WKB are selected and implemented as our vector data representations. The data WKB are organized by records, each of which represents an object in a vector data layer. In terms of WKB specification, our Point  $\vec{V}^{PT}$ , LineString  $\vec{V}^{LS}$  and Polygon  $\vec{V}^{PG}$  vector data in LOD pixel coordinates which converted from latitude and longitude that on the WGS 84 datum are defined as follows:

$$\vec{V}^{PT} = [P_x, P_y]$$

$$\vec{V}^{LS} = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_m] \quad \forall i \in \mathbb{N} \leq i \leq m$$

where :

$$v_i = [P_{xi}, P_{yi}]$$

$$\vec{V}^{PG} = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_m, v_1] \quad \forall i \in \mathbb{N} \leq i \leq m$$

where :

$$v_i = [P_{xi}, P_{yi}]$$

$P_x, P_y$  denote the pixel coordinates in two-dimension XY.

## Quad Tile Dataset

While the 21-level views setup in our system, for every vector dataset, we pre-generated 21 vector subsets for each level of detail. Since the difference of pixel spaces in each level of details, at some cases, especially in zoomed-out levels, some vertices in vector object that are all going to render into the same pixel on screen. In terms of this principle, a pixel distance based data reduce process is applied in the 21 vector subsets. Because our map is cut into a  $256 \times 256$  pixels tile each, and its relatively low granularity provided by the tile causes many vertices or objects in 21 vector subsets not in the tile-of-view to be loaded, we propose a tile granularity subset that only containing the vertices and objects to be rendered in the tile-of-view. The tile granularity subset is determined by a quad tile intersecting with its corresponding 21 level subsets. For example, tile 0 subset at level 1, it is determined by an square area of  $[(0,0), (256,0), (256,256), (0, 256), (0,0)]$  intersecting with level 1 subset. We define a *ST\_intersect* geographic process followed the OpenGIS Specifications (Standards) as follows:

$$T_{ij} = ST\_Intersect(s^i; t_{ij})$$

A semi-colon delimits two arguments  $s^i, t_{ij}$ ,  $s^i$  denotes LOD subset at level  $i$ ,  $t_{ij}$  is used to indicate the  $j$ th tile at level  $i$ ,  $T_{ij}$  denotes the  $j$ th tile subset at level  $i$ , and hence, the subsets at level  $i$  is denoted as follows, where the  $n$  indicates the number of tile at level  $i$ :

$$s^i = [T_{i1}, T_{i2}, \dots, T_{im}]$$

where :

$$m = 4^n$$

The entire 21-level subsets gridded into Tile subsets are denoted by  $S$  as follows:

$$S = [s^1, s^2, \dots, s^{21}]$$

### 3.4.6. Real-Time Dynamic Layers

The advantage of our vector data visualization system is its real-time dynamic layer. The ability of the real-time dynamic layers is to allow any vector layer overlaying any other vector layers in any order during real-time (at least the average response time less than 1 seconds, to meet our “real-time” criteria). The ability of real-time dynamic layer is gained by the techniques of Legend String, WKB-format quad tile granularity dataset and background transparent layer rendering.

The Legend String and WKB-format tile dataset are presented in Section 2 and 3, respectively. The ability of background transparent layer rendering is gained by alpha channel technique in Portable Network Graphics (PNG). 32-bit PNG and added an alpha channel (8 bits) to control the level of transparency is implemented in our vector data visualization system. The alpha channel basically controls the transparency of all the other channels. By adding the alpha channel to a map tile image, our system is able to control the transparency of the red channel, green channel and the blue channel [25][26]. Shown in Figure 4, we build a base layer with fully opaque and set the background of each layer to be fully transparent to seamlessly make any vector layer overlaying with others vector layers.

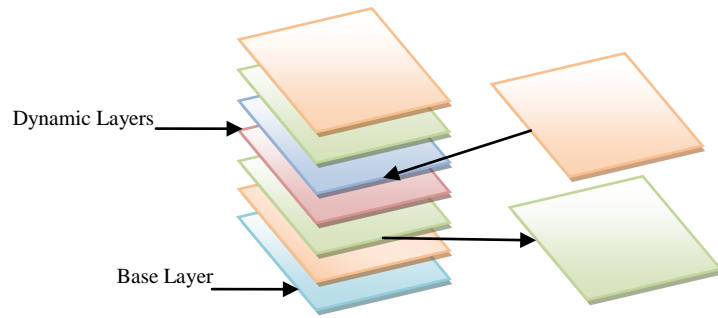


Figure 12 Dynamic Map Layers

## 3.5. Raster Data Visualization

### 3.5.1. Raster Data

Raster data are cell-based spatial datasets. There are also three types of raster datasets: thematic data, spectral data and pixel-based pictures. The pixel-based pictures format is the only source of our raster imagery engine. Unlike vector data, raster imagery data is formed by each pixel.

### 3.5.2. Re-projection

Most of our raw raster data are in UTM projection. Considering the disadvantages of UTM projection system, the Tile Mercator projection is applied to our raster imagery engine. Therefore, an UTM to Tile Mercator re-projection is pre-processed in our raster engine, which has two major steps:

- A re-projection from the UTM to the Tile Mercator

- A conversion from a large tiff image to the quadtree-based JPEG image tiles.

### The Related Work

[27][28] concludes two major re-projection methods have been widely used in image process as follows:

1. Area Weighted Convolution (AWC) [29], which assumes square pixel of uniform activity,
2. Gaussian-pixel convolution (GPC) method, it assumes the activity of each pixel is represented by a Gaussian function.[30][31]

### The Re-projection from UTM to Tile Mercator

The UTM to Tile Mercator re-projection algorithm is an AWC-based, pixel-driven, nearest-neighbor algorithm. Each nearest-neighbor's weigh is treated as the same weight during the re-projection process. The nearest-neighbor is a neighbor pixel next to targeted pixel.

Figure 13 shows Pixel 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8 and 9 are the nearest-neighbors of targeted pixel 5.

Pixel 1	Pixel 2	Pixel 3
Pixel 4	Targeted Pixel 5	Pixel 6
Pixel 7	Pixel 8	Pixel 9

Figure 13 Targeted Pixel and its Nearest-neighbors in Matrix Pixels

The re-projection from UTM to Tile Mercator has two steps:

- The images in UTM: Loop all of the pixels, for each pixel, calculating the average color value from this pixel and its all of nearest-neighbors. All pixels are treated as the same weight.
- The image in Tile Mercator: converting each UTM Pixel Coordinates to Tile Pixel Coordinates. In Tile image, addressing this pixel and setting the color value of this Tile Mercator image pixel as the average color value from its corresponding UTM image pixel and UTM image pixel's all nearest-neighbors.

### **Gridding the UTM Images to the Tile Mercator Images**

Our raster raw data are from various sources, such as USGS Digital Orthophoto Quadrangles (DOQs), County Photography, Ikonos Satellite Imagery and Geoeye, all various sources raster raw data are in TIFF with UTM to store digital pixels and with embedding geographic information.

The TIFF is a bitmap imagery format, and JPEG is a lightweight image format with much smaller size. Considering the data shipping, to archive the best performance, the JPEG is used as our raster data format.

In terms of Quadtree indexing system, all raster images are organized by Quadtree data structure. Therefore, each raster imagery tile is a JPEP image with 256 by 256 pixels in Tile Mercator.

These gridded raster imagery tiles finally are formed in a Quadtree-based dataset. And each source has one Quadtree-based dataset. And each tile has a unique key as follows:

*A unique key = source name + quadkey.*

The UTM to Tile Mercator image gridding algorithm has following steps:

- The Bottom Level Gridding

Current bottom level is the Level 21 (resolution=0.075 meter). In this level, cutting source images into 256 pixels by 256 pixels each, each tile assigned a unique key after its generated.

- The Rest of Levels Processed in Bottom-up Gridding

After Level 21 tiles generated, Level 20 is the next. In terms of the Level of Detail, a square area of one Level 20 tile covered equals four Level 21 tiles covered. Therefore, a bottom-up processing is formed as follows:

1. For each tile in Level 20, merging its four children tiles from Level 21 into one tile with  $4 \times 256 \times 256$  pixels
2. Cutting this tile into  $256 \times 256$  grids, each grid has  $4 \times 4$  pixels, calculating the average color value from this grid.
3. For each pixel of Level 20, setting its value as the average color value from the grid



After Level 20 is ready, Level 19 is the next. This process is repeated until the top level, Level 1. This generation process designed from the bottom of the system to the top of the system, it is a bottom-up gridding.

### **A Re-projection from UTM to Tile Mercator**

UTM to Tile Mercator re-projection is a pre-processing as follows:

- Re-projecting UTM images into Tile Mercator images.
- Converting the raw tiff large images into the quadtree-based JPEG tiles.

The UTM to Tile Mercator re-projection algorithm is applied in Step 1, the UTM to Tile Mercator image gridding algorithm implemented in Step 2. This pre-processing is formed in following detailed steps:

- Parsing the TIFF to retrieve geospatial information and saving this location information to plaint file
- Getting the tile's 4 vertices coordinates and its resolution from plaint file
- Creating a hash table to save tiles' unique quardkey and its geospatial information.
- Cutting the bottom Level 21 tiles:

When process a TIFF image:

- Verify this quadkey is hit existed in hash table,

- Hit: generating the quadkey and cutting TIFF into the JPEG tile image, inserting this quadkey and information into the hash table
- No Hit: loading this tile and form steps as follows:

*For each pixel when (pixel.RGB == 000000)*

Filling the color value of this pixel as the average color value from its corresponding UTM image pixel and UTM image pixel's all of nearest-neighbors.

Bottom-up generating Level 20 to Level 1 tiles:

- For each tile in up level, merging its four children tiles from its bottom level into one tile with  $4 \times 256 \times 256$  pixels
- Cutting this tile into  $256 \times 256$  grids, each grid has  $4 \times 4$  pixels, calculating the average color value from this grid.
- For each pixel of up level, setting its value as the average color value from the grid

## **The Raster Data Visualization**

Shown in Figure 12, the raster data is able to be visualized by building a base layer as raster imagery and set the background of other vector layers to be fully transparent. This hybrid mode seamlessly makes the vector data overlaying with raster data. The hybrid vector and raster data visualization means offering a combined satellite and map view.

### 3.6. Experiment: Implementations of Real-Time Dynamic Layers

In this section, we present two implementations of our proposed real-time dynamic layers.

#### 3.6.1. Cluster Setup

All the implementations in this section were conducted on a cluster of 16 virtual machines provided by TerraFly [32] team. The cluster setup followed our proposed approach of Quadkey Suffix-based Parallel Tiling, which we described in section 3.3.

#### 3.6.2. Real-Time Dynamic Layers with ADC WorldMap vector data

ADC WorldMap [33] vector data is a topographical background map data of all countries from the entire world. The data has the most detailed digital atlas at a 1:1,000,000 map accuracy scale. The data are available in the following volumes:

Table 1 ADC WorldMap Vector Volumes

Vector Layer	Definition
World_Nations	Borders for the countries of the World
World_Admin	Level 1 political boundaries for the countries of the World
Airports	Airport points and labels
BuiltUp_Areas	Urban Sprawl
Capitals	Country Capitals
Cities_Greater_900K	Cities with population greater than 900,000
Cities_75K_to_900K	Cities with population between 75,000 and 900,000
Cities_up_to_75k	Cities with population up to 75,000
Cities_Unknownpop	Cities with population unknown.
World_Cities	All cities in the world
Cultural_Landmarks	Cultural landmarks of the world
Water_Poly	Lakes and other water polygon features
Water_Line	Rivers and other water line features
Glacier	Glacier & other permanent ice fields
Seas_Bays	Seas and bays labels
Grid1	1 degree Lat/Long Grid
Grid5	5 degree Lat/Long Grid

Grid15	15 degree Lat/Long Grid
Mountains	Mountain labels
Physiography	Craters, cliffs, faults, rock outcrops
Marine Ports	Major marine ports of the world
Railroad_Track	Railway track
Railway_Stations	Freight and passenger railway station
Major_Routes	Major highways and interstates
Minor Routes	Highways and other routes
Utilities	Power transmission lines

Two vector data pre-processing are carried out: one is for the reduced 21-level intermediate subsets for each layer, the other one is for the Quad Tile subsets. Two of dynamic layers samples loaded with ADC vector data is given as follows:

**Sample A :**

A sample of a vector visualization map with real-time dynamic layers is shown in Figure 2:

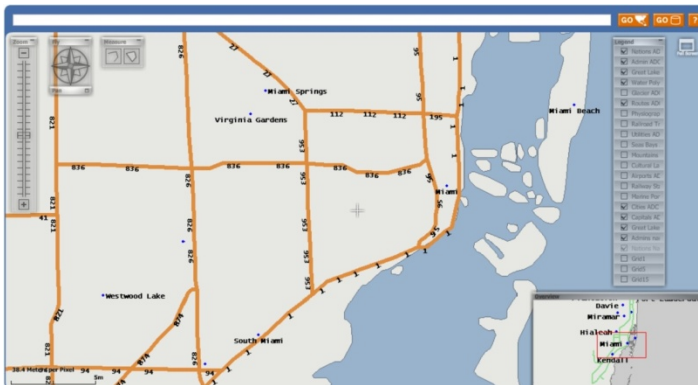


Figure 14 Sample A Dynamic Layers

A Legend String for Figure 5 is composed as follows:

*World \_ Nations + Water \_ Poly + Water \_ Line + Major \_ Routes + Minor \_ Routes + Capitals + World \_ Cities*

This Legend String denotes that the data visualization composed with layers: World\_Nations, Water\_Poly, Water\_Line, Major\_Routes, Minor\_Routes, Capitals and World\_Cities. And the rendering priority in this map belongs to:

*World\_Nations > Water\_Poly > Water\_Line > Major\_Routes > Minor\_Routes > Capitals > World\_Cities .*

**Sample B :**

In sample B, we place Utilities and Railroad\_Track over the other layers except base layer World\_Nations . And hence the Legend String and the rendering priority are modified as follows:

*World\_Nations + Utilities + Railroad\_Track + Water\_Poly + Water\_Line + Major\_Routes + Minor\_Routes + Capitals + World\_Cities*

*World\_Nations > Utilities > Railroad\_Track > Water\_Poly > Water\_Line > Major\_Routes > Minor\_Routes > Capitals > World\_Cities*

The layers Utilities and Railroad\_Track on vector map dynamically overlaying with others is shown in Figure 6.

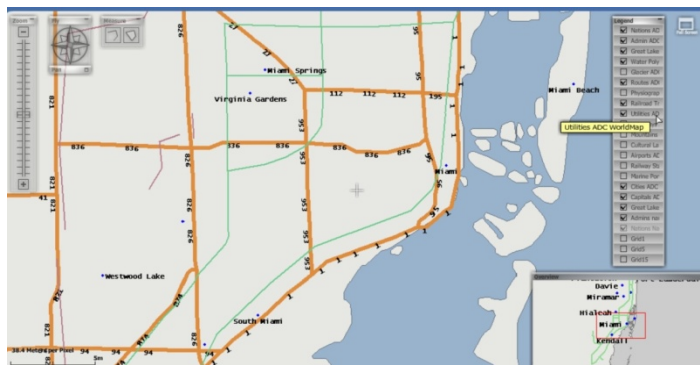


Figure 15 Sample B Dynamic Layers

### 3.6.3. Time Series with SOAR vector data

A time series is a sequence of dynamic vector layer at real-time, measured typically at successive times spaced at uniform time intervals (3 seconds). The time series of vector visualization creates the animated time sequence by fading-in and fading-out with vector layers in the specific timeline. SOAR stands for the Service Oriented Atmospheric Radiances [34][35][36]. SOAR vector data provides vector data for AIRS and MODIS-Aqua, respectively. The SOAR vector data is in a binary format and logically built with  $360 \times 360$  grids. Each grid is of 4 bytes that contains the radiance or brightness value of that particular  $1 \times 0.5$  gridded region. For instance, the value of the top left grid denotes the radiance or brightness value of the region of -180 to -179 in longitude and 90 to 89.5 in latitude. We first convert SOAR format into our WKB format and we load AIRS and MODIS-Aqua in Channel 20 in following dates:

Table 2 SOAR Vector Volumes

AIRS	01/2005, 02/2005, 04/2005, 05/2005, 07/2005, 08/2005 01/2006, 02/2006, 03/2006, 05/2006, 06/2006, 08/2006 01/2007, 02/2007, 03/2007, 04/2007, 05/2007, 06/2007, 07/2007, 09/2007, 10/2007
MODIS-Aqua	01/2005, 02/2005, 03/2005

The two of data pre-processing (21-level subsets and Quad Tile subsets) are carried out for AIRS and MODIS-Aqua, respectively. Figure 15 shows a Time Series for AIRS, a Legend String composed with all the loaded AIRS data. Each of AIRS data divided by Date is set as base layer in each sequence. The layer World\_Nations has less priority than AIRS and rendered on top of base layer.

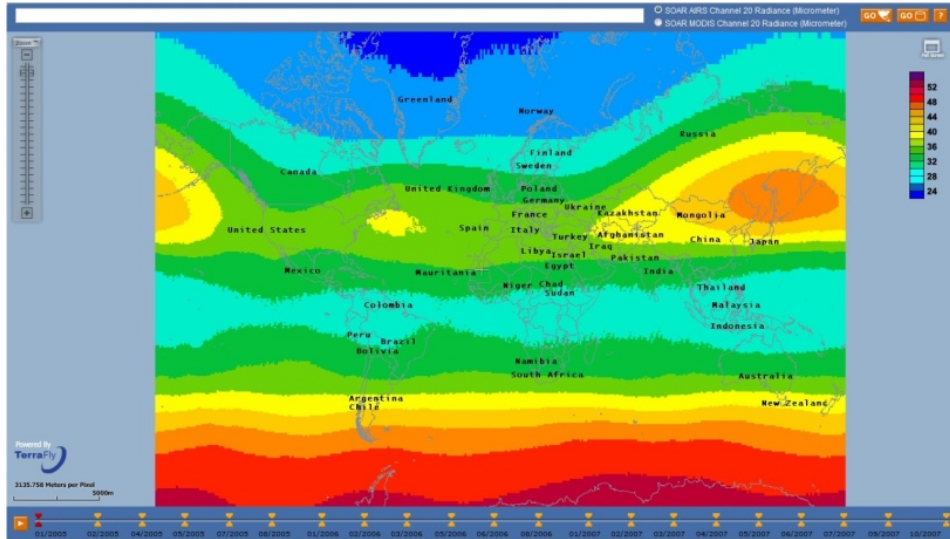


Figure 16 AIRS Channel 20 Radiance at 01/2005

Figure 16 shows a MODIS-Aqua Time Series, a Legend String composed with 01/2005, 02/2005 and 03/2005 vector data and the layer World\_Nations put on top of layer MODIS-Aqua.

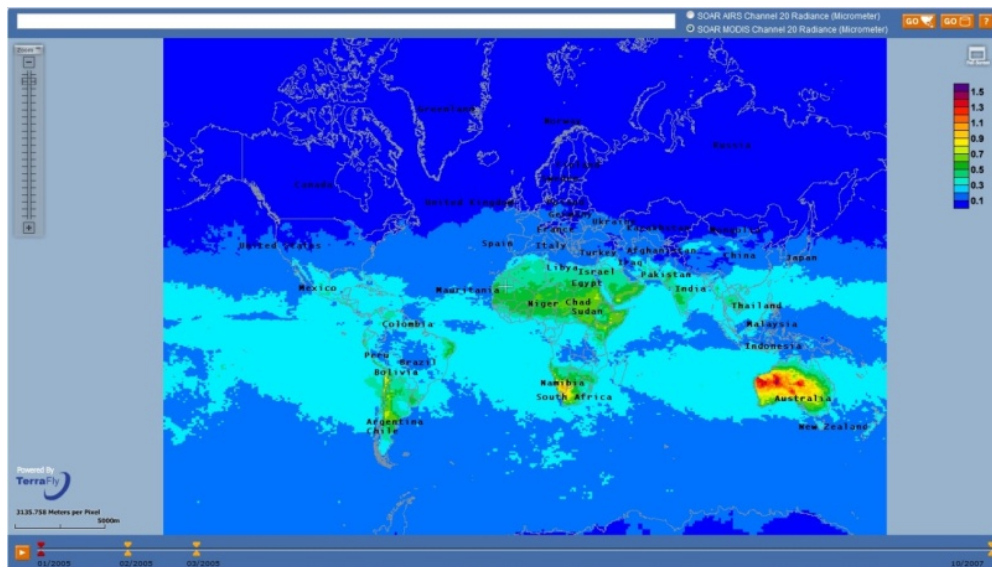


Figure 17 MODIS-Aqua Channel 20 Radiance at 01/2005

### 3.7. Conclusion and Future Work

In this section, a vector data visualization GIS with real-time dynamic layers is formed, proposed and implemented. The ability of real-time dynamic layers is gained by the techniques of our proposed Quadkey Suffix-based Parallel Tiling, Legend String, WKB-format quad tile granularity dataset and background transparent layer rendering. Two of implementations of vector data visualization applied with our proposed techniques are presented. The research for vector data transmission has become prevalent. In the future, we plan to support the visual multi-resolution representations of vector data with real-time dynamic layers in our system.



## **4. Performance Improvement of Vector Data Mapping**

Web Mapping and Geospatial applications often need to process and display as a user-controlled map with large volumes of vector data. Improving the performance of vector data mapping and visualization remains a challenging issue. This paper presents, analyzes, and reports on implementation and benchmarking of three approaches for improving the performance of vector data visualization and mapping. Approach 1 projects and reduces the raw vector data into Level of Detail (LOD) data. The purpose of this approach is to reduce the size of raw data but without loss of visual vector imagery map quality. Approach 2 is to grid and assemble a reduced LOD dataset into a Quadtree granularity dataset, to reduce the dataset granularity in order to speed up the data retrieval and loading. Approach 3 is server-side vector data caching.

### **4.1. Introduction and Related Work**

With the increasing use of the GIS data visualization, the performance of vector data visualization become of critical concern. In recent decades, LOD and Quadtree [37] techniques are used widely to facilitate the performance improvement.

LOD techniques provide different representations of the same geometric object, with each representation having a different level of details. LOD techniques are the methods used to generate the multiple resolution representations of vector data objects. Two types of LOD techniques presently used are discrete and continuous LODs. The discrete multi-resolution representation of polygonal models was proposed in [38].

Continuous LODs intend to increase or decrease the resolution of a polygon mesh through a series of geometry vertices and edges [39]. Continuous LODs was introduced and implemented in GIS in [7]. Our data reduce work targeted with the second category Continuous LOD datasets. By using pixel distance in Continuous LOD, we reduce the raw vector datasets into a hierarchical vector datasets of different levels of detail.

A quadtree is a tree data structure in which each internal node has exactly four children. The Quadtree data structure has been named and formed in [40] by Raphael Finkel and J.L. Bentley in 1974. [41] introduces Quadtree into image processing, computer graphics, geographic information systems and robotic. In recent decades, Quadtree was widely used in GIS field. [42] describes a quadtree spatial indexing implemented in a large GIS database product. [43] presents a triangulation model is based on the restricted quadtree triangulation in a 2D large scale terrain visualization.

Several performance improvements formed in recent decades. [44] presented a use of pyramids and hash indices on the server side to speed up large maps. Caching is designed to enhance concurrent data access. Compressed binary representation is implemented on both server and client sides to reduce transmission volume [45]. There was no vector data reduce process in [45], the solution in [45] is not able to do neither vector data culling or handle the vector objects with large amount vertices. [46] presents a quadtree based data grouping with raw data in order to do polygon culling and solve the polygon vector objects with large amount vertices. [46] also proposes a vector data reduce without loss of visual terrain image quality based on level of details, it dynamically determine the pixel distance and choose the appropriate polygon resolution.

[37] focused on polygon vector object only and its dynamic determination solution suit for a map with different resolution (with elevation data). Our work intends to reduce the size of raw vector data for all of types: Point, LineString and Polygon. And also a weighting factor is considered. While many points could be reduced to one point, giving each point a weighting factor is able to determine which one is expected to be shown on map. Our data gridding process is based on pre-generated LOD datasets, dealing with reduced LOD datasets directly. Our data gridding process also is a process for vector data culling.

In order to make vector data visualization as fast and responsive as possible, three approaches for improving the performance of vector data visualization are formed, proposed and implemented in this paper. Approach 1 intends to project and reduce the raw vector data into LOD data. The purpose of this process is to reduce the size of raw data but without loss of visual map imagery quality. Approach 2 is proposed for gridding and assembling reduced LOD dataset into Quadtree granularity dataset, it intends to reduce the dataset granularity to speed up the data retrieval and loading. Approach 3 is the server side vector data caching. Approach 1 and 2 are pre-processing that designed for speeding up the vector data rendering and loading during the first time request. They reduce the overhead unnecessary and redundant in real time computation. Approach 3 is used to expedite the response time for the vector data that have been cached in database. It is designed for the second time and succeeding requests performance improvement.

The structure of this part is as follows. Section 1 details the previous relevant work in this area. Section 2 details a performance improvement solution. Section 3 details the 14 experiments and their analysis. Section 4 details the conclusion and future works.

#### **4.2. A Performance Improvement Solution**

LOD, Level of Detail, our vector map engine have 21 LOD datasets, it is organized by Levels and its format is WKB.

Actually, LOD datasets is an intermediate datasets for vector map engine, all of LOD datasets would be processed into Quadtree Nodes Datasets (see Quadtree-based gridding data), which is the only data source of vector map engine.

LOD datasets generation is a pre-processing for raw data's reducing, which means reducing many duplicated vertices from raw data. The duplicated vertices occupy the same pixel in 256\*256 map tile based on Pixel Coordinates.

The purpose of Elimination of Superfluous LOD pro-processing is to ensure one pixel in final map imagery tile uniquely only represents one geographic vertex of 21-Level LOD datasets. In other words, thus in view of map tile imagery, using Pixel Coordinates, the LOD data pre-processing is a lossless data compression process for shapefile raw data.

#### 4.2.1. Vector Data Projection

In order to make the vector data visualization on map seamless and to ensure that map tiles from different sources line up properly, a single projection for the entire world is needed. A Tile-based square Mercator projection is applied in our vector data visualization on map. Since the Mercator projection goes to infinity at the poles, it doesn't actually show the entire world. Using a square aspect ratio for the map, the maximum latitude shown is approximately 85.05 degrees. To simplify the calculations, we use the spherical form of this projection, not the ellipsoidal form. Since the projection is used only for map display, and not for displaying numeric coordinates, we do not need the extra precision of an ellipsoidal projection. The spherical projection causes approximately 0.33% scale distortion in the Y direction, which is not visually noticeable [5]. In addition to the projection, the ground resolution or map scale must be specified in order to render a map, at each successive Level of Detail (LOD), the map width and height grow by a factor of 2, according our imagery data source, we choose to divide Level of Detail into 21 levels, the range of ground resolution (meters/pixel) from 78,271.5170 to 0.0746.

#### 4.2.2. LOD

LOD, level of detail, it is defined in Table 1. At the lowest level of detail (Level 1), the map is 512 by 512 pixels. At each successive level of detail, the map width and height grow by a factor of 2: Level 2 is 1024 by 1024 pixels, Level 3 is 2048 by 2048 pixels, and Level 4 is 4096 by 4096 pixels, and so on. Table 1 shows the LOD levels and their corresponding map size and ground resolution in our system.

Table 3 LOD levels, Map Size and Ground Resolution

Level of Detail	Map Width and Height (pixels)	Ground Resolution (meters / pixel)
1	512	78,271.517
2	1,024	39,135.758
3	2,048	19,567.879
4	4,096	9,783.939
5	8,192	4,891.969
6	16,384	2,445.984
7	32,768	1,222.992
8	65,536	611.496
9	131,072	305.748
10	262,144	152.874
11	524,288	76.8
12	1,048,576	38.4
13	2,097,152	19.2
14	4,194,304	9.6
15	8,388,608	4.8
16	16,777,216	2.4
17	33,554,432	1.2
18	67,108,864	0.6
19	134,217,728	0.3
20	268,435,456	0.15
21	536,870,912	0.075

In general, the width  $W$  and height  $H$  of the LOD map (in pixels) can be calculated by the width  $w$  and height  $h$  of a map tile as following:

$$W = H = w \times 2^{N_i} = h \times 2^{N_i} = 256 \times 2^{N_i}$$

where :

$$w = h = 256 \text{ pixels}$$

Let  $M$  denotes a map set with all of levels maps and  $m_i$  denotes the  $i$ th  $W \times H$  pixels LOD map.

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} m_1 \\ m_2 \\ \vdots \\ m_N \end{bmatrix}$$

where :

$$m_i = W_i \times H_i \text{ pixels}$$

Let  $\vec{l}$  denote a square polygon vector to represent the LOD map with pixel coordinates,  $\vec{l}_1$  is a square polygon vector for level 1 map is shown in Figure 1.

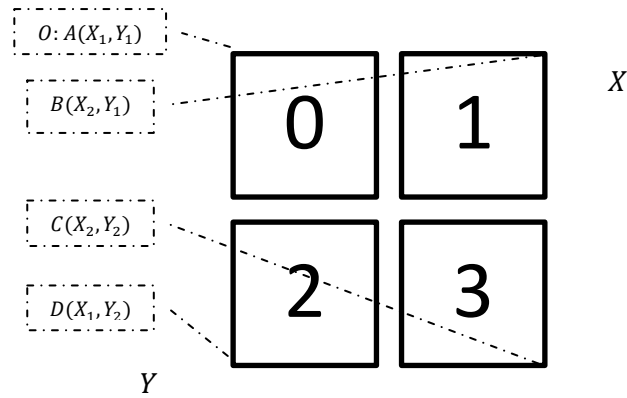


Figure 18 LOD Level 1

A square polygon LOD map vector sets  $L$  with entire levels  $\vec{l}$  is denoted as following:

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} A_1, B_1, C_1, D_1, A_1 \\ A_2, B_2, C_2, D_2, A_2 \\ \vdots \\ A_N, B_N, C_N, D_N, A_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{l}_1 \\ \vec{l}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{l}_N \end{bmatrix}$$

### 4.3. Approach 1: Vector Data Reduce

Approach 1 is proposed to project and reduce the raw vector data into LOD data. The purpose of this process is to reduce the size of raw data but without loss of visual map imagery quality in terms of pixel coordinates. First, we introduce the vector data in pixel coordinates. Second, we state a single vector object project into LOD levels by using the Kronecker product [38]. Third, we further deduce all levels LOD datasets. Fourth, we propose the algorithm of data reduce on all of the vector types and reduced with a weighting factor. Finally, we deduce our reduced vector datasets for entire LOD levels.

#### 4.3.1. Vector Data in Pixel Coordinates

We define three geography functions as follows:

$$f_1(long) = (Long + 180) \div 360$$

$$f_2(lat) = (0.5 - \log((1 + \sin lat) \div (1 - \sin lat))) \div (4 \times 360)$$

$$f_3(N_j) = 256 \times 2^{N_j}$$



The latitude and longitude are assumed to be on the WGS 84 datum [39], given latitude and longitude coordinates in degrees, and the level of detail  $N_j$ , the pixel XY coordinates  $P_x$  and  $P_y$  at level j of a vertex can be calculated as follows:

$$P_x = f_1(long) \times f_3(N_j)$$

$$P_y = f_2(lat) \times f_3(N_j)$$

where :

$$\sin lat = \sin(lat \times \pi \div 180)$$

Therefore, by applying above formula, the geography vector  $\vec{V}$  with latitude longitude coordinates can be converted into its geometric pixel coordinates equivalent vector  $\vec{V}'$ :

$$\vec{V}' = \begin{cases} [v'_{1lj}] \\ [v'_{1lj}, v'_{2lj}, \dots, v'_{slj}] \\ [v'_{1lj}, v'_{2lj}, \dots, v'_{slj}, v'_{1lj}] \end{cases}$$

where :

$$v'_{ilj} = [P_{ix}, P_{iy}] \in Levelj$$

*m is natural number greater than 1*

### 4.3.2. Single vector data projected within LOD

The Kronecker product is used to indicate the single object vector projected within all of LOD L in this section. Let F denote a function pair  $F(v) = [f_1(long), f_2(lat)]$ . For simplicity, we present a LineString vector  $\vec{V}$ , the Point and Polygon object vectors have same deduction. A set  $\vec{V}^F$  applied with this function as follows:

$$\vec{V}^F = [F(v_1), F(v_2), \dots, F(v_m)]$$

Let G denote  $f_3(N_j)$ , we have set  $G^F$  with all of levels applied with this function:

$$G^F = \begin{bmatrix} G(l_1) \\ G(l_2) \\ \vdots \\ G(l_N) \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore, the single object projected within entire LOD levels is denoted by s as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
s = \vec{V}^F \otimes G^F &= [F(v_1), F(v_2), \dots, F(v_m)] \otimes \begin{bmatrix} G(l_1) \\ G(l_2) \\ \vdots \\ G(l_N) \end{bmatrix} = \\
& [F(v_1)G^F, \dots, F(v_m)G^F] = \\
& [[f_1(long_1), f_2(lat_1)]G^F, \dots, [f_1(long_m), f_2(lat_m)]G^F] = \\
& [[f_1(long_1)G^F, f_2(lat_1)G^F], \dots, [f_1(long_m)G^F, f_2(lat_m)G^F]] =
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left[ \begin{array}{c} \left[ \begin{array}{c} f_1(long_1) \\ \vdots \\ f_1(long_m) \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} G(l_1) \\ G(l_2) \\ \vdots \\ G(l_N) \end{bmatrix}, \left[ \begin{array}{c} f_2(lat_1) \\ \vdots \\ f_2(lat_m) \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} G(l_1) \\ G(l_2) \\ \vdots \\ G(l_N) \end{bmatrix}, \dots \end{array} \right] = \\
& \left[ \begin{array}{c} \left[ \begin{array}{c} f_1(long_1)G(l_1) \\ \vdots \\ f_1(long_m)G(l_N) \end{array} \right], \left[ \begin{array}{c} f_2(lat_1)G(l_1) \\ \vdots \\ f_2(lat_m)G(l_N) \end{array} \right], \dots \end{array} \right] =
\end{aligned}$$

$$\left[ \left[ \begin{array}{c} f_1(long_1)G(l_1) \\ f_1(long_1)G(l_2) \\ \vdots \\ f_1(long_1)G(l_N) \end{array} \right], \left[ \begin{array}{c} f_2(lat_1)G(l_1) \\ f_2(lat_1)G(l_2) \\ \vdots \\ f_2(lat_1)G(l_N) \end{array} \right], \dots, \left[ \begin{array}{c} f_1(long_m)G(l_1) \\ f_1(long_m)G(l_2) \\ \vdots \\ f_1(long_m)G(l_N) \end{array} \right], \left[ \begin{array}{c} f_2(lat_m)G(l_1) \\ f_2(lat_m)G(l_2) \\ \vdots \\ f_2(lat_m)G(l_N) \end{array} \right] \right] =$$

$$\left[ \left[ \begin{array}{c} P_{x1}^{l1} \\ P_{x1}^{l2} \\ \vdots \\ P_{x1}^{lN} \end{array} \right], \left[ \begin{array}{c} P_{y1}^{l1} \\ P_{y1}^{l2} \\ \vdots \\ P_{y1}^{lN} \end{array} \right], \dots, \left[ \begin{array}{c} P_{xm}^{l1} \\ P_{xm}^{l2} \\ \vdots \\ P_{xm}^{lN} \end{array} \right], \left[ \begin{array}{c} P_{ym}^{l1} \\ P_{ym}^{l2} \\ \vdots \\ P_{ym}^{lN} \end{array} \right] \right] =$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc} P_{x1}^{l1}, P_{y1}^{l1} & \dots & P_{xm}^{l1}, P_{ym}^{l1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_{x1}^{lN}, P_{y1}^{lN} & \dots & P_{xm}^{lN}, P_{ym}^{lN} \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} v_{1l1} & \dots & v_{ml1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ v_{1lN} & \dots & v_{mlN} \end{array} \right]$$

Where the  $P_{x1}^{l1}, P_{y1}^{l1}$  denote the pixel XY coordinates in level 1 for vertex  $v_1$ .

### 4.3.3. Vector datasets projected within LOD

Let  $S$  denote the vector sets composed with multiple vectors  $s$  which projected within LOD, and thus:

$$S = [s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n] = \left[ \begin{array}{c} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} P_{x11}^{l1}, P_{y11}^{l1} & \dots & P_{xm1}^{l1}, P_{ym1}^{l1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_{x11}^{lN}, P_{y11}^{lN} & \dots & P_{xm1}^{lN}, P_{ym1}^{lN} \end{array} \right], \dots, \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} P_{x1n}^{l1}, P_{y1n}^{l1} & \dots & P_{xn}^{l1}, P_{yn}^{l1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_{x1n}^{lN}, P_{y1n}^{lN} & \dots & P_{xn}^{lN}, P_{yn}^{lN} \end{array} \right] \\ \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} v_{1l11} & \dots & v_{ml11} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ v_{1lN1} & \dots & v_{mlN1} \end{array} \right], \dots, \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} v_{1l1n} & \dots & v_{sl1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ v_{1lNn} & \dots & v_{slNn} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right] =$$

As the number of pixels differs at each level of detail, so does the number of tiles:

$$LODLevelwidth = LODLevelheight = 2^{level} \text{ tiles}$$

Furthermore, each tile actually can be treated as each node of quadtree.

### 4.3.4. LOD vector datasets

We further define a LOD vector dataset  $S^{LOD}$ , which divided  $S$  by LOD level, therefore, the formula in section 3.3.3 is modified as:

$$S^{LOD} = \begin{bmatrix} s^{l1} \\ s^{l2} \\ \vdots \\ s^{lN} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} P_{x11}^{l1}, P_{y11}^{l1} & \dots & P_{xm1}^{l1}, P_{ym1}^{l1} \dots P_{x1n}^{l1} P_{y1n}^{l1} & \dots & P_{xm}^{l1} P_{ym}^{l1} \end{array} \right] \\ \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} P_{x11}^{l2}, P_{y11}^{l2} & \dots & P_{xm1}^{l2}, P_{ym1}^{l2} \dots P_{x1n}^{l2} P_{y1n}^{l2} & \dots & P_{xm}^{l2} P_{ym}^{l2} \end{array} \right] \\ \vdots \\ \left[ \begin{array}{ccc} P_{x11}^{lN}, P_{y11}^{lN} & \dots & P_{xm1}^{lN}, P_{ym1}^{lN} \dots P_{x1n}^{lN} P_{y1n}^{lN} & \dots & P_{xm}^{lN}, P_{ym}^{lN} \end{array} \right] \end{bmatrix}$$

#### 4.3.5. Pixel Distance

Since the pixel XY coordinates is a Cartesian coordinate system specifies each pixel uniquely in a plane by a pair of numerical coordinates  $P_x$  and  $P_y$ , which are the signed distances from the point to two fixed perpendicular directed lines, measured in the same unit of length. The distance between two pixels of the plane with Cartesian Pixel XY coordinates  $A(P_{x1}, P_{y1})$  and  $B(P_{x2}, P_{y2})$  is as following:

$$D_{AB} = \sqrt{(P_{x1} - P_{x2})^2 + (P_{y1} - P_{y2})^2}$$

In terms of the formula in section 2.1, any two Point vector pixel distance is as same as the above formula. Furthermore, Let  $d_i$  denotes the distance between two adjacent vertices, the  $i$ th and the  $(i+1)$ th, with Cartesian Pixel XY coordinates are as following:

$$d_i = \sqrt{(P_{x_{v(i+1)}} - P_{x_{v(i)}})^2 + (P_{y_{v(i+1)}} - P_{y_{v(i)}})^2}$$

#### 4.3.6. Reduce

We have five cases reduce, they include: a group of multiple Point vectors reduced into one Point vector, a raw LineString vector reduced into one LineString vector but with smaller vertices set, a raw LineString vector reduced into one Point vector, a raw Polygon vector reduced into a Polygon vector with smaller vertices set and a raw Polygon vector reduced into a Point vector.

In following formulas,  $\vec{V}_{lj}^R$  is used to indicate the reduced object at Level j,  $\delta$  is a pixel distance threshold, to make a 100% lossless of visual vector imagery map quality, we set  $\delta = 0\text{pixel}$ :

Case 1: Multiple Points  $\xrightarrow{\text{Reduce}}$  Point

For a Point set  $\{\vec{V}_{1ln}^{\prime}, \vec{V}_{2ln}^{\prime}, \dots, \vec{V}_{mln}^{\prime}\}$

At level n if  $\sum_{j=0}^m \sum_{i=0}^n D_{ij} < \delta$

Then:  $\vec{V}_{ln}^R = \vec{V}_{1ln}^{\prime} = \vec{V}_{2ln}^{\prime} = \dots = \vec{V}_{mln}^{\prime}$

Case 2: LineString  $\xrightarrow{\text{Reduce}}$  LineString

For any  $\vec{V}_{lj}^{\prime} = [v_{1lj}^{\prime}, v_{2lj}^{\prime}, \dots, v_{slj}^{\prime}]$

At level j if any  $|d_i| < \delta$

Then  $v_i^{\prime} = v_{i+1}^{\prime}$ , and then:

$\vec{V}_{lj}^R = [v_{1lj}^{\prime}, v_{2lj}^{\prime}, \dots, v_{t-1lj}^{\prime}, v_{i+1lj}^{\prime}, \dots, v_{slj}^{\prime}]$

where:

$t < s, \text{Dimension}(\vec{V}_{ln}^R) < \text{Dimension}(\vec{V}^{LS})$

Case 3: LineString  $\xrightarrow{\text{Reduce}}$  Point

For any  $\vec{V}_{lj}' = [v_{1lj}', v_{2lj}', \dots, v_{s lj}']$  at level  $j$  if  $\sum_{i=0}^n d_i < \delta$  then

$$\vec{V}_{lj}'^R = [v_{1lj}']$$

Case 4: Polygon  $\xrightarrow{\text{Reduce}}$  Polygon

For any  $\vec{V}_{lj}' = [v_{1lj}', v_{2lj}', \dots, v_{s lj}']$  if any  $|d_i| < \delta$  then  $v_i' = v_{i+1}'$  and then

$$\vec{V}_{lj}'^R = [v_{1lj}', v_{2lj}', \dots, v_{i-1lj}', v_{i+1lj}', \dots, v_{t lj}', v_{1lj}']$$

where:

$$t < s, \text{Dimension}(\vec{V}_{ln}'^R) < \text{Dimension}(\vec{V}^{LS})$$

Case 5: Polygon  $\xrightarrow{\text{Reduce}}$  Point

For any  $\vec{V}_{lj}' = [v_{1lj}', v_{2lj}', \dots, v_{s lj}']$  if  $\sum_{i=0}^n d_j < \delta$  then

$$\vec{V}_{lj}'^R = [v_{1lj}']$$

#### 4.3.7. Reduce with weighting factor

A weighting factor  $w$  is used to give importance to certain object vector in the group set. While many points could be reduced to one point, giving each point a weighting factor is able to determine which one is expected to be shown on map. Since all of three vector types are able to be reduced to a point in map, we have different weighting ways to determine them. In general, for Point object vector, the value of weighting factor is based on its attributes. For example, we have City vector data sets, the cities objects are weighted by the attributes: population, capital, metropolitan. For Polygon and LineString object vectors, their weighting factor values are determined by the Polygon area size attribute and LineString length attribute, respectively. And hence, our formula in section 4.3.6 is modified as following:

*For a Points set  $\{\vec{V}_{1ln}, \vec{V}_{2ln}, \dots, \vec{V}_{mln}\}$  at level  $n$  if  $\sum_{j=0}^m \sum_{i=0}^n D_{ij} < \delta$  then*

$$w_{max} = \text{Max}(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n), \text{ then :}$$

$$\vec{V}_{ln}^R = \vec{V}_{max\ l_s}$$

This formula denotes the reduced object  $\vec{V}_{ln}^R$  is set as a point object with the maximum value of weighting factor in Points set.



#### 4.3.8. Reduced Objects projected in LOD

Each  $\vec{V}'$  can be reduced to  $\vec{V}'^R$ . Let  $\vec{o}'^R$  replace  $\vec{o}'$  in the formula in section 4.3.4, the entire object sets  $S$  and single object in entire LOD sets  $s$  with reduced objects are denoted by  $S^R$  and  $s^R$ , respectively. The reduced objects vector sets projected in LOD are as following:

$$s^R = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{V}'^R_{I1} \\ \vec{V}'^R_{I2} \\ \vdots \\ \vec{V}'^R_{IN} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore S^R = [s_1^R, \dots, s_s^R] \quad s_N^R = \left[ \begin{bmatrix} \vec{V}'^R_{I1_1} \\ \vec{V}'^R_{I2_1} \\ \vdots \\ \vec{V}'^R_{IN_1} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \vec{V}'^R_{I1_2} \\ \vec{V}'^R_{I2_2} \\ \vdots \\ \vec{V}'^R_{IN_2} \end{bmatrix}, \dots, \begin{bmatrix} \vec{V}'^R_{I1_s} \\ \vec{V}'^R_{I2_s} \\ \vdots \\ \vec{V}'^R_{IN_s} \end{bmatrix} \right]$$

where :

$$s, N \in \mathbb{N}$$

The dimension of  $\vec{V}'^R_{ij}$  are reduced into different values, the dimension of  $S$  is determined by following:

$$Dimension(S) = N \times \max(Dimension(\vec{V}'^R_{ij}))$$

In Matrix  $S$ , any off-non-zero blocks are zero block matrixes.

#### 4.4. Approach 2: Reduced Vector Data Gridding

In this section, we state the limitation of reduced LOD datasets, and we propose a data gridding process to reduce the LOD dataset granularity.

The vector data reduce can make sure that one pixel only represents one geography vector vertex in pixel LOD maps. However, the zoomed-in LOD maps have much more pixel spaces than zoomed-out maps. Therefore, with enlarging the size of LOD map (zoomed-in), the LOD reduce gradually lose its effectiveness. In other words, the LOD data reduce decreases with the increase of the LOD map size. Figure 2 shows LOD data reduced enormously the total vertices number (410,111 vertices in raw) in an USA country polygon vector data during top 10 levels. However, the closer to level 10 and after, the fewer total vertices number are reduced.

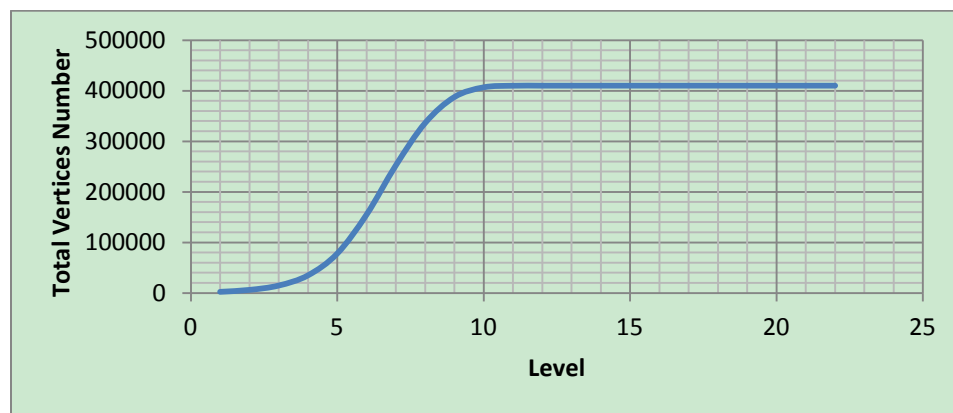


Figure 19 Reduced USA Country Object LOD Data

LOD reduce losing effectiveness in zoomed-in levels means that there are still enormous computation in zoom-in levels, like traversal across over huge vertices against

LOD datasets, this enormous computation significantly lowers the performance of vector data visualization.

To solve this problem, a data gridding for the reduced dataset is proposed. The purpose of data gridding is to reduce the granularity of the vector dataset to speed up data retrieval and loading. In LOD datasets, the vector data are grouped into 21 level subsets. The size of subset is increased significantly by increasing the pixel space in zoomed-in levels. In this case, the granularity of 21-level-subset is too huge for vector data loading, traversal and retrieval. In order to reduce the granularity of 21-level-subset, we further grid the 21-level-subset into Tile subsets. Section 3.2 describes that at each successive level of detail, the map width and height grow by a factor of 2:

$$m_i = W_i \times H_i \text{ pixels} = 256 \times 2^{N_i} \times 256 \times 2^{N_i}.$$

Each tile is  $256 \times 256$  pixels, therefore,  $m_i$  is able to be gridded into  $4^{N_i}$  tile map.

$$m_i = \text{tile} \times 4^{N_i}$$

The map size grow by a factor of 4, in other words, the map size in each successive LOD organized by a quadtree which grow by a factor of 4 as shown in Figure 19.

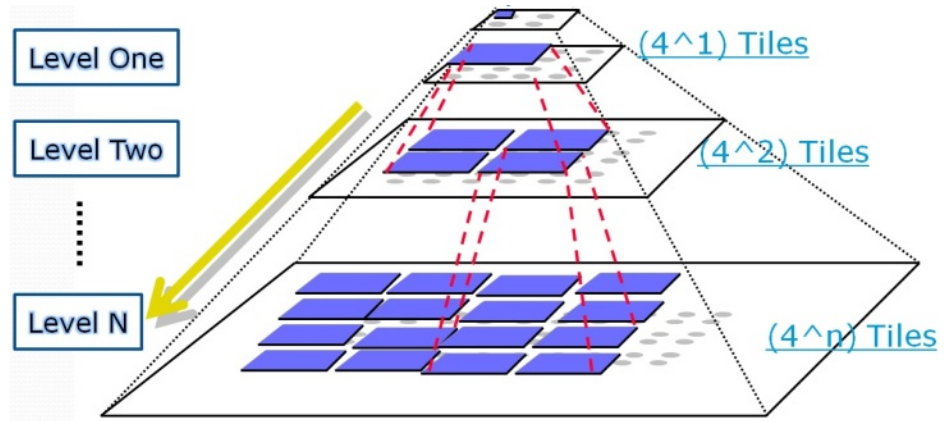


Figure 20 The Data Gridding on LOD Levels

Figure 2019 shows each level of LOD dataset gridded into tile subsets. Each tile subset determined by its corresponding LOD dataset intersecting with a square tile polygon, for example, tile 0 subset at level 1, it is determined by an geography intersection with an square area of  $[(0,0), (256,0), (256,256), (0, 256), (0,0)]$  and LOD level 1 dataset  $s^{l1}$ . We define a  $ST\_intersect$  geography function followed OpenGIS Specifications (Standards) as follows:

$$T_{ij} = ST\_Intersect(s^i; t_{ij})$$

A semi-colon delimits two arguments  $s^i$  and  $t_{ij}$ ,  $s^{lj}$  denotes LOD subset at level  $i$ ,  $t_{ij}$  is used to indicate the  $j$ th tile at level  $i$ ,  $T_{ij}$  denotes the  $j$ th tile subset at level  $i$ , and hence, the entire subsets at level  $i$  is denoted as follows:

$$s^{T_i} = [T_{i1}, T_{i2}, \dots, T_{im}]$$

where :

$$m = 4^n$$

The entire LOD subset gridded into Tile subsets is denoted by  $S$  as follows:

$$S = [s^1, s^2, \dots, s^{21}]$$

#### 4.5. Approach 3: Map Imagery Tile Server Side Caching

The server side caching is for speeding up the response time for the vector data that have been cached in database. It is designed for the second time and succeeding requests. The cache database stores the map imagery tiles, which is able to be any imagery format, like PNG, GIF, JPEG and so forth. If any requested map imagery tile is found in the cache database, this request would be responded by the cache database instead of the vector data visualization system. This is not only comparably faster, but also lowering the server load (computation and data shipping). Otherwise (caching miss), the map imagery tile has to be generated in vector data visualization system, which is comparably slower and the server load gets increased. Therefore, the more requests are responded from the cache database, the better the performance gained.

Besides the performance improvement from the server side database caching, we can also gain the controllable ability for cache management from server side caching, such as we can control over what the map imagery should be cached and how long the imagery remains and which ones should be updated. In our server side caching system, a LRU algorithm is implemented. Least Recently Used (LRU) is an algorithm that discards the least recently used items first. This algorithm requires keeping track of what was used

when, which is expensive if one wants to make sure the algorithm always discards the least recently used item. [47][48].

### **The algorithm of vector data LRU caching**

We have implemented two data structure in our caching system: a doubly linked list and a hash table. The doubly linked list is implicitly sorted by the age of the vector map tile. The hash table indexing this doubly linked list.

The algorithm of vector data LRU [49] caching is described as following:

Get the map tile from the cache needs to refresh the map tile in the cache. That is, move the node from the middle to the head.

If no map tile in cache, return NULL

If map tile in cache, removing this tile from doubly linked list first, then inserting this tile into the head of double linked list, since this is the most recent accessed. And it returns the cached tile.

Besides a refresh action, putting map tile into the cache also needs to maintain the cache size and update the content.

When putting a map tile, if it existed, removing this tile from doubly linked list first, then inserting this tile into the head of double linked list

If not existed, putting this into hash table and inserting this tile into the head of double linked list, and then updating the cache size and the content

## 4.6. Experiments

In this section, we setup and perform experiments firstly, and then we present and analysis our experimental results.

### 4.6.1. Experiment Setup

All the experiments in section 4.2 and section 4.3 were conducted on a cluster of 16 virtual machines provided by TerraFly team. The cluster setup strictly followed our Parallel Map Tiling infrastructure and algorithms, which we described in section 3.3.

We perform 14 experimental tests in 6 scenarios on our vector data visualization engine, which is a web-based engine for rendering vector data through web environment. The experiment includes 12 comparative experimental tests in 4 scenarios to prove the significant performance improvement by applying the performance improvement solution, as we described in section 3. And the other 2 experimental tests in 2 scenarios are to demonstrate the performance of vector data visualization engine. All of the 14 experimental tests belong to the performance test category. All experimental tests were performed in one physical server. The simulated Test Scenarios covered the most user activities in our current system. Table 2 describes the testing physical server, test tool, test time.

Table 4 The Server, Test Tool and Test Time

Server	Intel Xeon CPU 4*1.60 GHz, 6GB of RAM Microsoft Server 2003 x64 Edition
Test Tool	Microsoft Visual Studio 2010 Team Test Suit [17]
Test Time	10 minutes

For better demonstration, we define:

*A* as the vector data visualization engine NOT applied with the performance improvement solution.

*B* as the vector data visualization engine applied with the performance improvement solution but EXCLUDED the caching part.

*C* as the vector data visualization engine FULLY applied with the performance improvement solution.

The Scenario 1, 2, 3 and 4 perform 12 comparative experimental tests, and thus each scenario has 3 experimental tests, includes scenario testing for the A, B and C, respectively. The Scenario 5 and 6 were tested against C only. The extremely slow and many timed-out tiles were emerged during we setup the scenario 5 and 6 to test against A and B, and hence we did not perform these scenarios on A and B.



Figure 21 A Tested Map Tile



In Scenario 1, 2, 3 and 4, we choose the ADC WorldMap World\_Nations layer as our testing vector dataset. The testing web request is a single map tile request, this single map tile request is a map tile with 256 pixels width and 256 pixels height, as shown in Figure 4, whose geographic coordinates is described as following:

*The upper left vertex: longitude=-0.3515, latitude=85.0511*

*The bottom right vertex: latitude=0.3515, longitude=179.6484*

In Scenario 5, the testing request composed with 16 different tiles which fully cover the world-wide map in Level 2. The request in Scenario 6 is 84 different tiles which fully cover the world-wide map Level 1 (4 tiles), Level 2 (16 tiles) and Level 3 (64 tiles).

Table 5 Test Scenario

Scenario 1	Single User Single Map Tile
Scenario 2	10 concurrent Users Single Map Tile
Scenario 3	From 10 concurrent Users to 50 concurrent Users User Count Step Duration: 120 seconds Single Map Tile
Scenario 4	From 10 concurrent Users to 50 concurrent Users User Count Step Duration: 10 seconds Single Map Tile
Scenario 5	10 concurrent Users 16 Different Tiles Fully Cover Level 2 with Server Side Caching
Scenario 6	1 User 84 Different Tiles Fully Cover 3 Levels with Server Side Caching

Table 3 describes the 6 scenarios: the Scenario 1 is a typical one-user-one-request test. Scenario 2 has 10 concurrent users. The Scenario 3 and 4 are Step Load Test, it sets step user count increased from 10 concurrent users to 50 concurrent users, and it sends a single tile request to vector map engine. The initial user count is 10 and the maximum user count is 50, the step user count set as 10, and step duration set as 120 seconds and 10

seconds, respectively. With respect to Scenario 5, the 10 concurrent users are performed concurrently. And each user needs to finish a request queue, which has 16 tiles requests (one by one performed). In Scenario 6, a single user is setup. The request in Scenario 6 is 84 different tiles which fully cover Level 1 (4 tiles), Level 2 (16 tiles) and Level 3 (64 tiles).

#### 4.6.2. Experimental Result and Analysis

The response time is defined as the time elapsed between the dispatch (time when request is ready to execute) to the time when it finishes its job (time upon receipted a single map tile) per each user. Suppose we have sample response time  $\{t_1^r, t_1^r, \dots, t_n^r\}$ , the  $n = n^u \times n^t$  where  $n^u$  denotes the user count and  $n^t$  denotes the tile count. And thus the arithmetic mean of response time  $\bar{T}$  is defined via the equation:

$$\bar{T} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^n t_i^r$$

Table 4 lists the 14 test results for Scenario 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, respectively. With respect to the testing results in Table 5, from Scenario 1 to Scenario 4, B has 9.36 times, 8.53 times, 7.39 times and 18.1 times faster than A, respectively. C has 530.67 times, 135.33 times, 116 times and 295.77 times faster than A, respectively.

Table 6 the arithmetic mean of response time for 6 scenarios

	A	B	C
Scenario 1: $\bar{T}$ (Second)	7.96	0.85	0.015
Scenario 2: $\bar{T}$ (Second)	20.3	2.38	0.15
Scenario 3: $\bar{T}$ (Second)	52.2	7.06	0.45
Scenario 4: $\bar{T}$ (Second)	210	11.6	0.71
Scenario 5: $\bar{T}$ (Second)	N/A	N/A	0.155
Scenario 6: $\bar{T}$ (Second)	N/A	N/A	0.062

Figure 5 shows the line chart, which comparatively represent the  $\bar{T}$  of Scenario 1, 2, 3, 4 with respect to A, B and C. The x-axis shows  $\bar{T}$  and the y-axis shows the Test Scenario. The graphs show with the increasing web loads, the  $\bar{T}$  of A soars up. As for B and C, the  $\bar{T}$  keeps slow and slight linear increase. With respect to Scenario 5 and 6, the  $\bar{T}$  for C under Scenario 5 is 0.155 seconds. In Scenario 6, the  $\bar{T}$  of a single tile is 0.062 second. These results mean even in such extreme web load cases, the C exhibits excellent performance. These experimental test results were expected since the C fully applied with the comprehensive performance improvement solution.

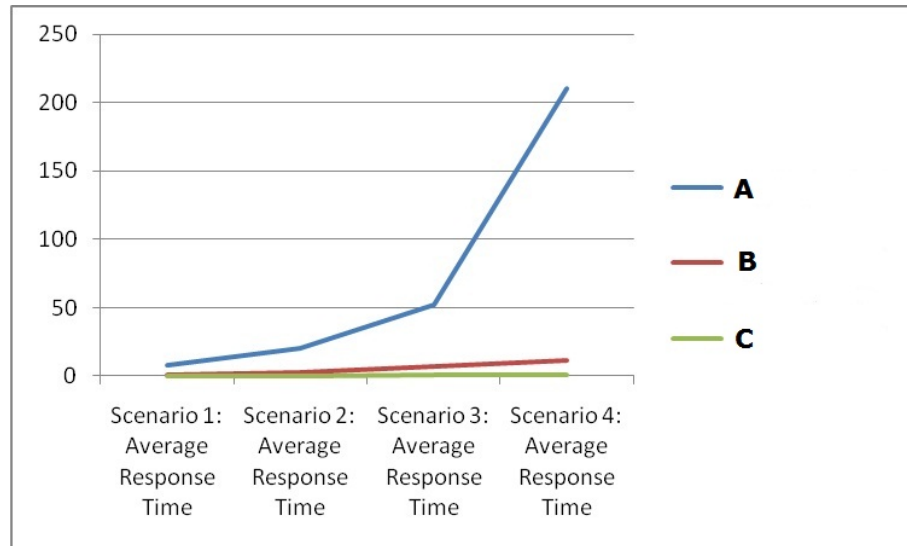


Figure 22 Experiment Results for 4 scenarios

#### 4.7. Conclusion and Future Works

In this section, first, we model the GIS vector data, and state the projection system. Second, we propose and present three performance improvement approaches and corresponding deductions. Finally, we perform and describe 14 experimental tests in 6 scenarios and the experimental test results were expected as our system applied with the comprehensive performance improvement solution.

Considering the enormous computation in vector data reduce and gridding, especially some worldwide geospatial vector data, we plan to introduce a sophisticated cloud computing framework such as MapReduce [50] or Azure [51] to implement and take these enormous computations.

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