Finding RkNN Set in Directed Graphs

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Abstract. The *reverse k-nearest neighbors* of a query data point *q* characterizes the influence set of q , and comprises of data points which consider q among their *k*-nearest neighbours. This query has gained considerable attention due to its importance in various applications involving decision support systems, profilebased marketing, location based services, etc. Although this query is reasonably well-studied for scenarios where data points belong to Euclidean spaces, there has not been much work done for non-Euclidean data points, and specifically, for large data sets with arbitrary distance measures. In this work, a framework has been proposed for performing RkNN query over data sets that can be represented as directed graphs. We present a graph pruning technique to compute the RkNN of a query point which significantly reduces the search space. We report results of extensive experiments over some real-world data sets from a social network, a product co-purchasing network of Amazon, the web graph, and study the performance of our proposed heuristic in various setti[ng](#page-11-0)s on these data sets. These experiments demonstrate the effectiveness of our proposed technique.

1 Introduction

A common problem that arises in many marketing and decision support systems is to determine the "influence" of a data point on other data points of a database. Korn, Flip and Muthukrishnan introduced the concept of *reverse nearest neighbor*[4] in 2000 to compute the set of influenced points for datasets with a notion of "closeness" between the points. The underlying idea is that a nearby point have a larger influence than a point farther away, which immediately leads to the concept of reverse nearest neighbor (RNN), and its generalisation reverse k-nearest neighbor (RkNN).

The most common application of reverse nearest neighbor query for computation of influential sets can be illustrated by a facility location scenario. Suppose a company is exploring the option of opening a new restaurant in a location and wants to find likely customers – people who would be "more likely" to use this restaurant compared to another one; in our terminolog[y, w](#page-11-1)e say these people are influenced by the location and profile of this restaurant.

The important issue, therefore is to efficiently compute the data points influenced by a query point. Technically, the reverse nearest neighbor (RNN) of a query point consists of all those data points for which the query point is their nearest neighbor (NN). Reverse k-nearest neighbor (RkNN) is a generalisation of RNN, where kNN is used in the place of NN in the earlier definition.

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Efficient algorithms for computing RkNN have been designed for various types of data [2,3] and several variants of nearest neighborhood query. Majority of these works have focused on data with a well-defined concept of distance or similarity, such as Euclidean distances, similarity measures for word vectors, and other distances that are metric in nature. However, the problem becomes fundamentally different for data points with arbitrary distances between the points such as people, products, movies, etc. Data with an arbitrary notion of distance is well represented by a weighted graph. The focus of this paper are data which can be represented as such graph, and furthermore, as weighted directed graphs. The nodes in the graph are the data points, and the weighted and directed edges represent the distance and relation, respectively, between related points.

Given such a graph, it is often meaningful to consider the shortest-path distance as the distance between two points. There are a few major hurdles in computing RkNN of a query point in such a graph. First similar to the general problem, the concept of nearest neighborhood is not symmetric, so we cannot simply run one single-source shortest path query from the query point.

Fig. 1. Nearest Neighborhood using Shortest-path Distance

For example, in Fig. 1, P_1 is the nearest neighbor of query point q but P_2 is the NN of *P*¹ and not of *q*. This also implies that the points in RNN need not be in the immediate vicinity of the query point, and a large segment of the graph may have to be traversed. This presents a major challenge for large graphs because we cannot benefit from locality conditions. A solution based on running a Dijkstra's algorithm from every point (to compute the kNN of each point) would be correct, but computationally very expensive. Secondly, we are interested in a non-index based solution; index/pre-processing based techniques are often not much efficient or directly possible for situations where *k* is not fixed and due to relationship constraints present in graphs.

An interesting application of RkNN query in directed graphs can be seen in social networks; here, RkNN can be used to determine the influence set of any person. The weights on the directed edges of such network can represent the influence of one person on another, say, regarding forwarding of messages, and the RkNN query for a person would then give a set of individuals who would play an important role in diffusing any information initiated or forwarded by the query person.

In an earlier work, a graph-pruning based algorithm was designed by Papadias et al.[11] for undirected graphs. However their technique does not work for directed graphs. The main contribution in this paper is an approach for computing reverse nearest neighborhood for directed graphs. We give two algorithms, Directed Eager (D M) and an optimized version for large graphs, Directed Eager Materialization (D_EM) for processing (monochromatic) RkNN for arbitrary *k*. Another important contribution is extensive experimentation on large directed networks coming from real datasets including that of a social network, a product co-purchasing network from Amazon and a web network of Berkeley-Stanford university.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 presents the necessary background and related work. Section 3 discusses our algorithm. Section 4 reports our experimental results on some real world data sets including performance comparisons with respect to various parameters. Section 5 concludes the paper suggesting some directions for future work.

2 Background and Related Work

2.1 Reverse Nearest Neighbor Query

We will now formally define the relevant terms.

Given a dataset *P*, the monochromatic RkNN of a query point *q* not in *P* is defined as:

RkNN (q) = { $p ∈ P$ | **dist(p, q)** \le **dist(p, p**_{*k*}(p)), where $p_k ∈ P$ is the kth NN of p}

[Sim](#page-11-2)ilarly, given two datasets *P* and *Q* and a query point $q \in O$, the bi-chromatic RkNN of a query point q returns all those data points $p \in P$ which are nearer to q than any other points of *Q*.

bRkNN (q) = { $p ∈ P |$ **dist(p, q)** \le **dist(p, q_k(p)), where q_k∈***Q* **is the kth NN of p}**

In this paper, we are interested in only monochromatic RkNN.

Furthermore, like [11], we consider a generalized scenario where not all nodes in the graph are data points. For instance, not every author in a co-authorship graph works in some specified field. Such networks are called *restricted* networks. Consider the example in Fig. 2(a). Suppose it represents a DBLP co-authorship (collaboration) network. An (monochromatic) R1NN query for query point *q* will return authors whose 1NN is *q*, among authors of his same field $\{P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4\}$. Other nodes, such as n_1, n_2 and n_3 represent the authors which are not working in the author's field and, thus, are irrelevant for this query.

In this figure, $RNN(q) = {P_4}$, because P_4 's NN is *q*, and $R2NN(q) = {P_1, P_2, P_4}$. The other type of network, where the data and query points can be any node of the graph, is called an unrestricted network. However, we give a solution for the more general restricted network.

Fig. 2. Types of RNN Queries

2.2 Related Work

A lot of work has been done on RNN queries. The work was started by a paper [4] in 2000 where the authors define the notion of influence set and show that nearest neighbour set of a point is different from a reverse near[est](#page-11-3) [n](#page-11-4)[eig](#page-11-2)[h](#page-11-5)[bo](#page-11-6)ur set of the point. They show mul[tip](#page-11-1)[le](#page-11-7) applications of RNN query whereas finding a facility location is one of them. To solve RNN query efficiently, the authors propose to have a pair of R-tree structures on spatial objects and MBR regions of objects containing their nearest neighbour, respectively. Subsequently, there has been more work [7,10] on providing efficient solutions using better data structures or methods constraining the search to a well defined set of candidates. Our work focuses on finding RkNN set for weighted directed graphs and uses network distances as well relatio[ns](#page-11-3)[hi](#page-11-4)p of nodes fo[r s](#page-11-4)earch.

The other work for RNN query has been done on Road networks [8,5,11,9,6] and for continuous RNN queries [1,3]. In continuous RNN queries case, the problem is to continuously report the RkNN set of a moving query point. The brute force solution of computing RNN set afresh would not be good and hence an incremental solution was proposed by the authors. The approach is based on the concept of safe region that defines the boundary around a query point, crossing which there is a need to recompute the RNN set.

The work on RNN query over road network was done in [8,5]. Safar et al. [5] used a network Voronoi diagram (NVD) for efficiently processing the RNN queries over road networks. The NVD uses the Voronoi cell that has the nodes $\&$ the edges which are nearer to the generator point of the cell compare to other points in the network. The authors in [11] model the road network as an undirected graph and presents two versions of problem, restricted case where data objects/points can be only at intersection nodes and unrestricted case where objects can be anywhere on the edges. The authors gave two different algorithms called eager and lazy approaches that use heuristic rules to prune the search space.

3 Proposed Solution

Here we present our proposed algorithms for solving an RkNN query for a given directed graph (digraph) G, and edge weight function $d(\cdot)$. As explained earlier, our algorithm is based on the results of Papadias et al.[11] with crucial modifications necessary to handle directed networks.

We maintain two graphs, one G_M and another graph G_R whose edges are reverse of that of G. This is required because our algorithm traverses in a best-first manner starting at *q* (which uses G_M), but to ascertain the inclusion of a node p in $RkNN(q)$ we need to check the neighborhood of *p* for which we use G*R*.

Our algorithm is based on the following key lemma which is used to optimize exploration of the graph. Using the rule given in the lemma, unpromising nodes are identified those need not be further explored. As exploring them further would not be useful due to the reason that if a successor of the node have its short path to the query point through the node, it would not be in RkNN.

Fig. 3. Lemma

Lemma 1. *For a query point q, a data point p and a node n, if* $d(n,q) > d(n,p)$ *and there is another data point* $p \neq p$ *whose shortest path to q passes through n, then point ^p is not in the RNN set of ^q.*

Proof. The proof is really straight forward. $d(p\bm{1},q) = d(p\bm{1},n) + d(n,q) > d(p\bm{1},n) + d(n,p) \geq d(p\bm{1},p).$ Since, $d(p, p) < d(p, q)$, $p \notin RNN(q)$. \Box

Therefore, in such a situation, the node *n* can be pruned and need not be further expanded. As an illustration, refer to Fig. 3. There, $d(n_2, q) = 2 > d(n_2, p1) = 1$. According the lemma, any data point (in Fig. 3 p_4) whose shortest path to q passes through n_2 cant be the RNN of *q* as the data point p_4 is nearer to p_1 . In this case, node *n*² will be pruned and need not be expanded further.

Fig. 4. Example of Directed Eager (a) Main Graph G*^M* (b) Reverse Graph G*^R*

Similar to [11], we use two subroutines *range-NN* query and *verify* query. A straight forward modification of these subroutines given in their paper turn out to be sufficient for directed graphs, so we skip their implementation details in our paper. The *range-NN(n,k,q)* query returns (at most) k nearest data points with shortest-path distance smaller than $d(n, q)$. The query *verify*(n,k,q) is similar to *range-NN(n,k,d(n,q))*, except that it stops as soon as q is encountered.

3.1 Directed Eager(D E) Algorithm

Our main algorithm traverses the reverse graph G_R starting from the query point q, in a best-first manner, and every encountered node n in G*^R* is inserted into a min-heap H. H is also used to select the next node to explore. For every point node n deheaped from the queue, we proceed as given below. The range-NN and ve[rif](#page-4-0)y queries are executed on the main digraph G_M and all other operations are done on the reverse graph G_R . The only difference between the range-NN query and the verify query is that range-NN returns the set of k nodes whereas verify returns boolean value to decide whether to explore the node further.

– If the node contains a data point p∈P, then we need to take two decisions:

- 1. Whether $p \in RkNN(q)$ $p \in RkNN(q)$ $p \in RkNN(q)$? This we determine by running *range-NN(p,k,q)*.
- 2. Whether p should be explored further? This we determine using Lemma 1 by using *verify(p,k,q)*. If *k* (or more) points are found, then there is no need to explore further the neighbors of *p*.
- **–** If the node does not contain a data point, then we only need to determine whether that node should be explored further. We employ the same treatment as (2) above.
- **–** In the case of node is not to be explored further, no adjacent nodes of the currently wexplored node with respect to G_R are enqueued in the heap H . RNN(q) for k=1.

The algorithm starts its traversal from node n_1 (source node which contains the query point q) and insert $\langle n_1(q),0\rangle$ into H (currently empty). After this, n_1 is deheaped.

```
Algorithm. D Eager(q, k)insert \langle n(q), 0 \rangle into H // n(q) is the node containing query point q
while (not-empty(H) do
    \langle n, d(q, n) \rangle := \text{de-Heap}(H);if (n is not visited before) then
        mark n as visited
        if (n does not contain a point) then
             kNN(n) = range-NN(n,k,d(q,n)) in main digraph G_M.
        end
        else if (n contains a point p) then
             kNN(p) = verify(p, k, q) too check in main digraph G_M.
             if q discovered by verification add p to RkNN(q)
        end
        if (|kNN(n)| < k or |kNN(p)| < k) then
             For (each non-visited adjacent node n_i of n in reverse digraph G_R)
             insert \langle n_i, d(a, n) + w(n, n_i) \rangle into H
        end
    end
end
return RkNN(q)
```
Since it does not contain any data point, and since $d(n_1,q)=0$, range-NN returns the empty set trivially. Therefore, it's adjacent nodes in reverse graph G_R , $\langle n_2, 2 \rangle \langle n_4,$ 2 > and \langle n₇, 3 >, are now inserted into *H*.

The next deheaped node is n_2 which also does not contain a data point. A range- $NN(n₂,1,2)$ query in G_M again does not return any point within distance 2 from $n₂$. Similar to the previous case, its adjacent node $\langle n_3, 3 \rangle$ in G_R is inserted into *H*.

The subsequent deheaped node is n_4 , which too, does not contain a data point. However, a range-NN(n₄,1,2) in G_M returns a data point p_2 , because $d(n_4, p_2) = 1$ $d(q, n_4)=2$. Hence node n_4 can be pruned, and so its adjacent nodes are not inserted into *H*.

Next node n_7 is deheaped which contains a data point p_4 . We run a *range-NN(n₇,1,3)* query that returns p_4 itself, however running *verify*(p_4 , l , q) in G_M returns the data point p_2 . Therefore, neither p_4 belongs to RkNN(*q*), nor should p_4 be explored further. In case of verify query at a node, data point located at the node itself is not considered.

At last node n_3 , containing data point p_1 , is deheaped and $range\text{-}NN(n_3,1,3)$ returns point p_1 . The *verify*(p_1 , I , q) query in G_M) finds q and returns true. So p_1 is added into RkNN(*q*) and no adjacent of n_3 is added in heap *H*.

At this stage, *H* is empty which means that our algorithm is terminated with final result containing $RNN(q)=\{p_1\}.$

3.2 Directed Eager Materialization

Materialization is the technique of pre-computing the shortest distances between all pairs of nodes and store it in a lookup table. A naïve approach for materialization is to apply the kNN query on each node, but this method is not scalable for large graph.

Therefore, an *all-NN* algorithm is proposed that accessed the network only once to compute the distance value for different values of *k* for each node.

The algorithm is as given below.

```
Algorithm. Directed All-NN (k)
for (each node n those contains point p in main digraph GM) do
    insert \langle n, p, 0 \rangle into H
end
while (not-empty(H)) do
    < n, p, d(p, n) >:= de-Heap(H)
    if (| kNN(n) | < k and p \notin kNN(n) ) then
         add \langle p, d(p, n) \rangle to kNN(n)
         for (each adjacent node n_i of n in reverse graph G_R) do
             if (| kNN(n_i) | \leq k and p \notin kNN(n_i) ) then
                  insert \langle n_i, p, d(p, n) + w(n, n_i) \rangle into H
             end
         end
    end
end
return kNN
```
Our directed eager materialization algorithm (Directed EM or D EM) utilizes the materialized lookup table build above to retrieve the kNN of any n in constant time. This replaces the costly range-NN and verify operations to constant time table look-up operation.

4 Experimental Evaluation

In this section, we show our experimental results for processing RkNN query over directed graphs. In the graph $|V|$ represents number of nodes in the graph, $|P|$ represents data points cardinality and $D=|P| / |V|$ represents data density. However, if $D = 1$ then R1NN query returns a point situated on the query node itself. For providing more meaningful results, we restricted value of D from 0.1 to 0.4. All the experimental results show the average value of 50 queries generated randomly from all the data points in the network. All algorithms are implemented in Java and experiments are run on an Intel Xenon 2.00 GHz machine with Windows environment. In our experiments, we evaluate the performance of the algorithms in terms of (i) computation time in milliseconds(ms), (ii) number of accessed nodes, (iii) number of accessed points. We study the performance with respect to the size of requested data points (*k*), and the density (*D*) of a graph. The value of $k \ll |P|$.

4.1 Directed Graph

We study the performance of directed eager (D_E), directed eager materialization (D EM) and the na¨ıve approach on different datasets.

The first set of experiments has been performed on a social network dataset of Facebook¹. The dataset contains 1862 users and 20k directed edges among the users. A user is represented as a node n and an edge direction between two users $e(i,j)$ refers, if a user 'i' has sent at least one online message to a user 'j'. The strength measure or weight on the edge $e(i,j)$ represents the 1/(number of messages) between users 'i' to 'j'.

Fig. 5. Facebook [Social](#page-8-1) Network (a) Effect of *K* on Computation Time (ms) (b) Effect of *D* (data density) on Computation Time

In the first experiment, we measure the effect of query parameter *k* on computation time when density *D* is 0.4. Figure 5(a) shows the result. When *k* increases, the computation cost also increases. It is because of the increase in the number of accesses of nodes/points with increase in *k*. In the second experiment, effect of density *D* on the computation cost is evaluated. Fig. 5(b) shows the results. It is seen that when *D* increases (value of *K* is set to 10 as a default value), the computation time cost decreases. It is due to the fact that increase in density of points in the graph makes availability of data points near to the query points as well as increases the proximity of data points to each other and other graph nodes. The probability of finding k data points within the distance $d(n,q)$ from a node increases and hence the adjacent nodes of the node need not be put in the heap. This results in better pruning and less graph is searched for RkNN.

It can be seen that when the data density D is very low, $D_{\text{L}}E$ performs worse as compared to the naïve approach. It is because of non-pruning of nodes. Most of the nodes in the graph do not find k data points and hence their adjacent nodes are enqueued in the heap, and the algorithm D_E ends up in accessing more nodes for retrieving k points. When *D* increases, the computation cost of algorithm *D E* drastically decreases and performs better than the naïve approach. During this experiment, we also observe that when *D* [increases, then the number of a](http://snap.stanford.edu/data/amazon0505.html)ccesses nodes decreases and the number of points increases, because more points need to be verified.

The second set of experiment has been performed on product co-purchasing network of Amazon 2. The dataset contain 410,235 nodes and 3.3 million edges. Each node represents the product which was purchased by a customer from the Amazon sites. Two products *i* and *j* are linked by a directed edge from *i* to *j* if the product *j* is

⁽http://toreopsahl.com/datasets/#online_social_network)

 2 http://snap.stanford.edu/data/amazon0505.html

purchased after product *i*. The edge can be interpreted as a causal relation, i.e., if item *i* is purchased then item *j* is also purchased. All the edge weights are assigned randomly for our experiments.

Table 1. Effect of *K* on Computation Time, *D* = 0*.*4, Amazon Dataset

K		DE DEM	Naive
	0.56	0.32	1424.08
2	0.64	0.36	2460.92
4	1.18	0.52	5138.54
8	3.36	1.62	11371.42
16	9.94	4.28	24444.34
	37.68	13.74	48922.28

Fig. 6. Amazon product co-purchasing Directed network (a) Effect of *k* on Computation Time (b) Effect of *k* on Accessed Nodes (c) Effect of *k* on accessed Points

Table 1 shows the computation cost for different values of *k* when *D* is 0.4. The experimental results show that when *k* increases, then computation time increases. The naïve algorithm takes too much time as compared to $D_{\text{-}}E$. It is because of early pruning of the search space by algorithm D_{E} and exploring only few nodes. Fig. 6 shows the performance of the directed eager materialized (D EM) algorithm with respect to the directed eager(D_E) algorithm. (D_EM) algorithm performs much better due to its

constant [tim](#page-10-0)e cost for verification step (Na¨ıve showed worst amongst all and not shown [in](#page-10-1) th[e grap](#page-10-2)h). However the graph for the value of D as 1 are not shown, in this case D ₋ E would perform best as the probability of finding k data points is very high within *k* hops from the node. As we will go farther from the query point, their probability of being in RkNN set would decrease.

Next experiment shows the effect of *D*, given in Table 2. It shows that when *D* increases the computation cost decreases. It is because of the reason that the algorithm *D_E* finds more points near around the query point and expansion happens to a small set of nearby nodes. Figure 7 shows this experimental result for *D E* and *D EM* algorithms. Figure 7(b) $\&$ 7(c) show qualitative results in terms of accessed nodes and accessed points. It may be noted that we do not count an accessed node twice.

Fig. 7. Amazon product co-purchasing Directed network (a) Effect of *D* on Computation Time (b) Effect of *D* on Accessed Nodes (c) Effect of *D* on accessed Points

5 Conclusion and Future Work

We have presented two algorithms for RkNN query on directed graphs in the paper. The optimized version, *D EM* algorithm, performs best amongst all and takes very less time for finding out an RkNN set. We have performed an extensive set of experiments on three real graphs to study the performance of the algorithms. Results show that the pruning rule we have proposed in the paper is very effective.

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