# Spatial query processing in road networks for wireless data broadcast

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Abstract Recently, wireless broadcast environments have attracted significant attention due to its high scalability to broadcast information to a large number of mobile subscribers. It is especially a promising and desirable dissemination method for the heavily loaded environment where a great number of the same type of requests are sent from the users. There have been many studies on processing spatial queries via broadcast model recently. However, not much attention is paid to the spatial queries in road networks on wireless broadcast environments. In this paper, we focus on three common types of spatial queries, namely,  $k$  nearest neighbor  $(kNN)$  queries, range queries and reverse nearest neighbor (RNN) queries in spatial networks for wireless data broadcast. Specially, we propose a novel index for spatial queries in wireless broadcast environments (ISW). With the reasonable organization and the effectively pre-computed bounds, ISW provides a powerful framework for spatial queries. Furthermore, efficient algorithms are designed to cope with kNN, range and RNN queries separately based on ISW. The search space can be obviously reduced and subsequently the client can download as less as possible data for query processing, which can conserve the energy while not significantly influence the efficiency. The detailed theory analysis of cost model and the experimental results are presented for verifying the efficiency and effectiveness of ISW and our methods.

Keywords Wireless data broadcast · Spatial queries · Road networks - ISW

# 1 Introduction

With the popularity of smart mobile devices and increasing requirements for ubiquitous information access, there has been an increasing interest in wireless data services from both industrial and academic communities in recent years  $[1-3]$ . There are two basic approaches for information access through the wireless technology: on-demand access and wireless data broadcast [[4,](#page-16-0) [5\]](#page-16-0). For on-demand access, a mobile client initiates a query to the server which in turn processes the query and returns answers to the client through a pre-established point-to-point channel. As a traditional client-server approach, the on-demand mode is suitable for answering customized queries from users. Wireless data broadcast can be considered as a way of disseminating data to a massive number of users, where the query processing tasks are entirely executed at the client sides. In this mode, the server only monitors the information of the data objects, but it is unaware of the clients and their queries because there is no uplink from clients to the server. In this way, wireless data broadcast is expected to have high scalability when dealing with some pre-defined popular applications, such as weather forecast. In recent years, many wireless data broadcast systems have been applied. For example, the Ambient Information Network [\[6](#page-16-0)] broadcasts the realtime data packets such as stocks, weather, traffic and sports. It expects that a small amount of wireless data can provide valuable information when delivered in a timely manner to the mobile devices. However, complex spatial query services have not been offered by these systems.

Location based services are considered as the most important applications via wireless broadcasting model. Recently, a lot of research efforts have been conducted on the spatial queries via data broadcast model, such as

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k nearest neighbor (kNN) query  $[4, 5, 7]$  $[4, 5, 7]$  $[4, 5, 7]$  $[4, 5, 7]$  $[4, 5, 7]$  $[4, 5, 7]$  $[4, 5, 7]$ , range query  $[5, 7]$  $[5, 7]$ , transitive nearest neighbor search [[8\]](#page-16-0), continuous nearest neighbor query [\[9](#page-16-0)] etc. Most of the existing methods are developed based on Euclidean space, while spatial queries in road networks have not been sufficiently studied. In practice, objects usually move along the pre-defined paths, and therefore the spatial query over road networks are more practical and can acquire higher accuracy [[10\]](#page-16-0). In this paper, we focus on dealing with spatial queries in road networks via wireless data broadcast mode. In road network, the distance computation is more complicate than in Euclidean space. Besides, great amount of information is needed be broadcast. Furthermore, many existing pruning strategies are designed based on Euclidean metric and invalid in the road network. Therefore, these difficulties render the existing methods impractical for networks. Based on this background, we focus on three common snapshot spatial queries, in particular, kNN queries, range queries and reverse nearest neighbor (RNN) queries in spatial networks combing the context of wireless data broadcast. Three examples of snapshot spatial queries are given as follows to further illustrate our query scenarios. If a continuous query is issued, our solution is executing snapshot queries at each timestamp. Obviously, our system does not perform well for continuous queries as for snapshot queries unless some optimized mechanism are added.

*Example 1* A driver would like to query the  $k$  nearest restaurants when he/she arrives at an unacquainted city. The pre-stored map does not contain the information of this city, so he/she has to request the answers through the wireless data broadcast.

Example 2 A car would like to search the gas stations within the range that it can reach with the remaining gas. The answer can be acquired through the wireless broadcast systems in which a server stores the information of all the gas stations nearby.

Example 3 A restaurant would like to attract customers from the markets which have the query point as the nearest restaurant.

There are three steps for the wireless broadcast system to handle these queries. Firstly, the server periodically broadcasts the information (for example, in example 3 the information contain the current positions of the passengers) to the clients within its coverage, where the clients denote the mobile devices. Secondly, when the user invokes a spatial query, the client device tunes in the broadcast channel and downloads the information disseminated by the server. Thirdly, after receives the information, the client executes the query.

Note that existing algorithms for processing spatial queries in road networks [[11–13\]](#page-16-0) are mostly designed for on-demand access, and can not be applied or simply extended to wireless broadcast systems. That is because these existing techniques are designed for the random access disk which will incur a significant access latency for broadcast model where data are sequently transmitted. As an important step forward, Georgios Kellaris et al. [[14\]](#page-16-0) focus on the shortest path computation in road networks for wireless data broadcast. However, the technique can not been extended to specific spatial queries such as kNN, range and RNN queries. Hence, we argue that novel techniques are necessary for solving spatial queries in spatial networks for wireless data broadcast. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first paper aiming to provide a general framework for this problem. Specifically, our contributions can be summarized as follows.

- We design a novel Index for Spatial queries for wireless data broadcast (ISW), to provide a general framework for spatial queries in road networks via wireless broadcast. ISW can provide a powerful guideline for the client to only download the necessary data, which is realized by its reasonable organization and the tight pre-computed bounds.
- Based on ISW, algorithms for kNN, range and RNN queries in road networks on data broadcasting, are separately developed. Effective filter-refinement mechanisms are proposed for these queries.
- Detailed analysis of the cost model for ISW is given. Besides, extensive experiments are implemented for verifying the effectiveness of ISW and our methods.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 overviews related work. Section [3](#page-3-0) proposes the structure of ISW. Sections [4](#page-7-0), [5](#page-8-0) and [6](#page-9-0) present algorithms for processing kNN, range and RNN queries, respectively. Section [7](#page-10-0) illustrates the experimental results and Sect. [8](#page-16-0) concludes the paper.

# 2 Related work

# 2.1 Wireless data broadcast

In a wireless broadcast system, the access efficiency and energy conservation are two critical issues [\[4](#page-16-0), [7](#page-16-0)] for measuring the performance of client devices. First, a user expects that the query can be responded in specified time. Besides, most mobile devices have to work with a battery, so power consumption may become the bottleneck. To save the power, client devices usually support active mode and doze mode. Devices receive data in the active mode with more power consumed. When a system becomes idle, devices tune in the doze mode and only a little power is consumed. In the literature [[1,](#page-16-0) [7,](#page-16-0) [15](#page-16-0)], two performance

metrics are usually used to measure the access efficiency and energy conservation respectively.

- Tuning time. The time period a mobile client stays active to receive the requested data.
- Access latency. The time elapsed from the moment a query is invoked to the moment the answers are received.

If there is no auxiliary information to indicate the schedule of data, a client has to receive all data for spatial queries. In this case, a lot of energy will be consumed since the client is demanded to keep active during the whole broadcast cycle. Air indexing mechanism [\[16](#page-16-0)] is the most common organization of the broadcast cycle. The basic idea is that the server constructs the index, and interleaves it with the data. Since the index size is much smaller than the data size, the client is expected to download less data by accessing the index and pre-determining the arrival time of the required data. The client can switch to the active mode once the acquired data has arrived. In order to reduce the waiting time for receiving the root node of a forthcoming index, the index is copied  $m$  times and interleaved with the data as shown in Fig. 1. As analyzed in [\[16](#page-16-0)],  $m =$  $\sqrt{\frac{\text{size of data}}{\text{size of index}}}$  can reach the optimal balance between the tuning time and access latency.

#### 2.2 Spatial queries in wireless broadcast systems

There are many studies about processing spatial queries based in wireless broadcast environments from the database communities in literature. Zheng et al. [[7\]](#page-16-0) propose a Hilbert-curve based index, which can be used for kNN queries and window queries via wireless data broadcast. A cost model is developed to compare the performance of the Hilbert-curve index with others. Furthermore, the Hilbert-curve Index is also used for searching continuous k nearest neighbors  $[9]$  $[9]$ . Mouratidis et al.  $[17]$  $[17]$  focus on the continuous spatial queries in wireless broadcast environments. They propose the Broadcast Grid Index (BGI) method for both snapshot and continuous queries. For efficiently detecting the update of objects, a dirty grid is



built. Park et al. [[2\]](#page-16-0) aim to process the Mobile Continuous Nearest Neighbor Query (MCNNQ) where service users and target objects can move freely. The Guaranteed Region (GR) is defined for dividing the query line into disjoint lines where the nearest neighbor of any point inside a GR is the same. Specially, an ESS\_GR algorithm is proposed to process the queries. Gedik et al. [[4](#page-16-0)] propose the exact kNN search on conventional sequential-access R-trees, and optimize the kNN search algorithm. They use the histograms to guide the search, and the analytical results on the maximum queue size and node access count are derived. Besides, Distributed spatial index (DSI) [[18\]](#page-16-0) has a linear yet fully distributed structure, and facilitates multiple search paths to be naturally mixed together by sharing links over the whole broadcast cycle. DSI allows a search to start right after a client tunes in the channel so it is very efficient compared with other types of indexes. This work also develops algorithms for snapshot window queries, snapshot  $k$  nearest neighbor queries, continuous window queries, and continuous nearest neighbor search based on DSI. However, these spatial query methods are designed for Euclidean space and they are not fit for processing spatial queries in road networks for wireless data broadcast.

In real-life applications, some data may be more popular than others and be frequently accessed by clients. Thus, the nonuniform broadcast provides a good performance on reducing waiting time for the clients. Xu et al. [[19\]](#page-16-0) propose a novel parameterized index, called the exponential index, which can optimize the access latency with the tuning time bounded by a given limit. Shen et al. [\[20](#page-16-0)] propose an efficient nonuniform index called the skewed index, which is built according to skewed access patterns of clients and the popular data are allocated index modes more times than less popular ones in a broadcast cycle. Zhong et al. [[21\]](#page-16-0) firstly introduce Huffman tree into wireless broadcast environments. The Huffman tree based index performs better than B-tree based index. These nonuniform indexing techniques are built based on the assumption that the access frequency of data are known. While in our work, the frequently accessed data are difficult to be obtained so the uniform index is more suitable.

Kellaris et al. [[14\]](#page-16-0) address the shortest path computation in road networks for wireless data broadcast, and they propose two methods for this problem. The elliptic boundary *(EB)* provides the client with an upper bound of the shortest path distance between two regions, and then prunes nodes that lie too far away to affect the shortest path search. To improve the efficiency, the next region (NR) further reduces the volume of received data. Their EBindex records the minimum/maximum distance between two regions, this is efficient for shortest path computation. Fig. 1 (1,*m*) index mechanism While for spatial queries, in order to significantly reduce

<span id="page-3-0"></span>the search space, more efficient organization of index structure is necessary.

#### 2.3 Spatial queries in road networks

There have been many solutions on processing spatial queries over road networks. Papadias et al. [\[11](#page-16-0)] propose a Euclidean restriction (IER) and a network expansion (INE) method for kNN queries. Consider the IER (Incremental Euclidean Restriction) method [\[11](#page-16-0)] which applies the multi-step kNN methodology. In the broadcast setting, once the user invokes a query, the device is waken up to determine the first Euclidean nearest neighbor  $o_{E1}$ . Then it computes the network distance  $d_N(q, o_{E1})$ , and retrieves the nearest neighbor in the area where the distances from  $q$  to any objects are within  $[d_E(q, o_{E1}); d_N(q, o_{E1})]$ . However, the data of objects lying in such region may have already been broadcasted and in such situation the device needs to wait until the next broadcast cycle. This incremental restriction procedure has to be repeated for at most k times, and hence the access latency of the IER method is very large as the device may have to wait at most  $k$  cycles.

Now consider the INE (Incremental Network Expansion) [\[11](#page-16-0)] in the broadcast setting. The INE algorithm performs network expansion starting from q, and examines objects in the order they are encountered. The objects are organized by R-tree which induces backtracking, so for each expansion the needed data might have been broadcasted and the device has to wait for the next broadcast cycle. The access latency of the INE method may last for several cycles at most as the number of the encountered objects.

The Voronoi-based kNN search method [\[12](#page-16-0)] adopts an iterative filter/refinement process, and it saves on both storage and computation by performing across-the-network computation for only the border points of the neighboring regions. The filter/refinement step must be invoked  $k$  times for searching the  $kNN$  for  $q$ , which also means  $k$  cycles in the broadcast setting. Quad tree is utilized for kNN search by best-first manner in road networks [\[13](#page-16-0)], which dramatically reduces the storage. The shortest path computation needs the quad trees of all vertexes at the path if we apply this method into wireless broadcast model. The quad trees are needed to transmit for all vertexes because the source vertex and the destination vertex cannot be prespecified. The quad trees can not be received until the previous vertex is determined so we cannot filter the unqualified vertexes and their quad trees. By this way, the data volume we need to transmit is about  $O(n^{2.5})$  (n is the number of nodes in road networks), and therefore this approach would cause long broadcasting cycle if it is adapted to wireless broadcast model. As shown in the above analysis, the existing methods may incur significant

access latency if they are adapted into wireless broadcast systems, so the new efficient method is necessary.

Range queries on road networks are also studied in [\[11](#page-16-0)]. First, it initiates a range query at the datasets which returns objects within Euclidean distance  $r$  from  $q$  ( $r$  is the desired range value). Then the Range Network Expansion (RNE) method refines the results by qualifying segments within the network range  $r$  from  $q$  and then retrieves the objects falling in these segments. If we adapt the RNE into the wireless broadcast system, two challenges have to be faced. First, the Euclidean bound of distance  $r$  is too loose to contain a large number of false hits. Second, examining each subset of query segments means accessing R-tree nodes that overlap some unqualified segments, which invokes backtracking and raises the access latency.

Yiu et al. [\[22](#page-16-0)] first address the pruning methods for RNN query in graphs. They propose the *eager* and *lazy* algorithms, where the eager algorithm minimizes the I/O cost and can be more CPU-intensive than *lazy* algorithm for certain networks. The pruning granularity of these algorithms is object, while in wireless broadcast model data are transmitted in the form of packets so they can not perform well if they are adapted into wireless broadcast model.

In a word, the existing  $k$  nearest neighbor, range and RNN query approaches designed for random access disk are not suitable for the wireless broadcast setting where data are transmitted sequentially.

# 3 Index for spatial queries in wireless data environments

To address the demand of spatial queries in road networks through the data broadcast environments, we design a general spatial index structure, namely ISW, to allow a client to download as less as possible data for query processing which can conserve the energy without significantly lengthening the access latency. ISW can provide an effective guideline for greatly reducing the search space, which is realized by its reasonable organization and the pre-computed bounds.

In the following, we first introduce the index structure of ISW, and then we propose the computation of the effectively pre-computed bounds. At last, the cost model of ISWis analyzed.

#### 3.1 The structure of ISW

Generally, the road network is modeled as a weighted directed graph  $G = \{E, V, W\}$ , where  $v_i \in V$  denotes a conjunction node or vertex in the network, and  $e_{ij} \in E$ represents the edge connecting  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  in the network. Given  $e_{ij} \in E$ ,  $w(e_{ij})$  denotes the weight value of  $e_{ij}$ , where

<span id="page-4-0"></span>

Fig. 2 Partition the whole spatial networks into small cells which contain equal number of objects

the weight can be distance, travel time, cost etc. The objects are denoted as  $\mathcal{O} = \{o_1, o_2, \ldots, o_n\}$ , which lie at some conjunction nodes or edges of the road networks (as the solid square in Fig. 2). In road networks, the network distance between two objects is determined by the length of the shortest path connecting two objects, which is denoted as  $d_N(v_i, v_j)$  between  $v_i$  and  $v_j$ . If there is an object  $o_i$  in the edge  $e_{ii}$ , then  $d_N(o_i, q) = min{d_N(o_i, v_i) + d_N(q, v_i)}$ ,  $d_N(o_i, v_j) + d_N(q, v_j)$ , where  $d_N(o_i, v_i)(d_N(o_i, v_j))$  denotes the network distance from  $o_i$  to  $v_i(v_i)$ .

The query results are usually centralized in some small domain, while searching the overall space will dramatically affect the performance. Thus, we partition the space into some disjoint regions in order to reduce the search space for a query and subsequently reduce the volume of accessed data. In the real world, the objects are usually not uniformly distributed in the road networks. For example, the density of restaurants is higher in downtown than in the industrial area. Therefore, the straightforward method that partitions the space into cells with the equal size leads to the density imbalance of the cell containment and affects the benefits of the partitions. We adopt the  $kd$ -tree partitioning  $[14, 23]$  $[14, 23]$  $[14, 23]$ which is simple and effective. The kd-tree partitioning method divides the whole space into several regions with the equal number of objects, which will results in a lower tuning time in average compared with the straightforward method.

As shown in Fig. 2, firstly the network is partitioned into two regions by a straight line parallel to y-axis. In our case, this line is denoted as  $x = x_1$  and it ensures that the left and the right parts have equal number of objects. Then the left part of the network is divided into two regions by  $y = y_1$ , and the right part of the network is divided into two regions by  $y = y_2$ . This process continues and alternates between the two axes, until the desired number of regions is reached. Figure 3 depicts the kd-tree structure



Fig. 3 *kd*-tree structure according to the partition of Fig. 2

corresponding to the partitions of Fig. 2, where each leaf node denotes a region and an intermediate node denotes a line that is used to divide the upper-level space. For example, the leaf node  $R_1$  denotes the region  $R_1$  and the intermediate node  $x_2$  denotes that the child nodes are divided by the line  $x = x_2$ . ISW based on kd-tree is transmitted in the breadth-first order, and the identifier of each region is determined from the leftmost leaf to the right. For example, the regions in Fig. 2 are identified from  $R_1$  to  $R_{16}$ according to the kd-tree structure in Fig. 3. Once the clients receive the index, they can easily reconstruct the space.

The kd-tree partition is also adopted by Kellaris and Mouratidis [\[14](#page-16-0)], which focuses on the shortest path computation in road networks for wireless data broadcast. They give a maximum/minimum distance table as the bounds, which are effective and efficient for pruning unnecessary cells when the shortest path computation is executed. However, our ISW has two advantages compared with the EB-index. Firstly, the ISW reduces the tuning time of the client devices, because the ISW can prune more objects. ISW provide tighter bounds than the EB-index, which can prune more regions especially when the database is of large size(will be illustrated in Sect. [3.2](#page-5-0)). By the ISW, we can obtain the specified bounds for different query q, which is important since we focus on location-dependent query. For EB-index, the bounds may be the same if the positions of  $q$  are at the same region. In the case that the region is large, the bounds given by the EB-index will be coarse. Therefore, the pruning power of ISW is much better than EBindex when the cell is large. Secondly, the ISW shortens the access latency compared with the EB-index, because less data are needed to receive by the client devices. As illustrated above, the ISW has higher pruning power and more regions can be pruned, which will reduce the volume of data needed to be downloaded and hence the average access latency is shortened.

Figure [4](#page-5-0) illustrates the structure of ISW. Take the leaf node which stores  $R_{14}$  as an example. The cardinality of the objects inside this cell  $(R_{14}.c)$  is also recorded. Besides, the leaf node contains a pointer to the data of  $R_{14}$ , which is denoted by an offset set as the number of packets before the data of  $R_{14}$  are broadcasted. The data store the adjacent list

<span id="page-5-0"></span>of objects inside each cell. The leaf node stores  $N_c$  (number of cells) pairs of parameters for  $R_{14}$  and any other cell.

#### 3.2 Effective bounds

Partitioning the overall space into cells provides a chance for shrinking the search space, based on which effective bounds can be proposed for pruning the unqualified cells. We propose a new method for providing effective bounds  $[\varphi^-(q, R_i), \varphi^+(q, R_i)]$  which are tighter than the maximum/ minimum distance bounds and ensure that no cells are missed during pruning. Further, our bounds can restrict the distance between the query point and the other cells, and thus can be efficiently applied into pruning process.

For evaluating the bounds, we first define a pair of parameters, namely  $\eta^-$  and  $\eta^+$  for  $R_i$  and  $R_j$  (1  $\leq i$ ,  $j \leq N_c$ ). Eqs. (1, 2) show the computation of the two parameters:

$$
\eta^{-}(R_i, R_j) = min_{1 \leq i,j \leq N_c} \left\{ \frac{d_N(o_k^i, o_l^j)}{d_E(o_k^i, R_j)} \right\},\tag{1}
$$

$$
\eta^+(R_i, R_j) = max_{1 \le i,j \le N_c} \left\{ \frac{d_N(o_k^i, o_l^j)}{d_E(o_k^i, R_j)} \right\},\tag{2}
$$

where  $o_k^i$  denotes an object lying in  $R_i$ ,  $o_l^j$  denotes an object lying in  $R_j$ , and  $d_E(o_k^i, R_j)$ ) denotes the Euclidean distance between  $o_k^i$  and any points in  $R_j$ . Notice that  $\eta^-(R_i, R_j)$  is different from  $\eta^-(R_i, R_i)$  and vice versa. For instance,  $d_N$ ( $o_2$ ,  $q$ ) = 8,  $d_N$ ( $o_2$ ,  $o_1$ ) = 6 (as shown in Fig. [2\)](#page-4-0), max  $(d_E(q, R_3)) = 12$ ,  $max(d_E(o_1, R_3)) = 10$ , and hence  $\eta^-(R_{14}, R_3)$  $R_3$ ) =  $min\{\frac{8}{12}, \frac{6}{10}\}$  = 0.6. Similarly,  $min(d_E(q, R_3))$  = 6,  $min(d_E(o_1, R_3)) = 5$ , and hence  $\eta^+(R_{14}, R_3) = max\{\frac{8}{6}, \frac{6}{5}\}$ ໌<br>ເ8 61  $= 1.33$ . For each pair of  $R_i$  and  $R_j$ , the values of  $\eta^-(R_i, R_j)$ and  $\eta^+(R_i, R_i)$  are pre-computed and stored in the leaf node of ISW, as shown in Fig. 4. When a query is issued, the position of  $q$  is known, and therefore the bounds restricting the network distance between q and any cell  $R_i$  can be computed as follows.

$$
\varphi^-(q, R_j) = \eta^-(R_i, R_j) \cdot \min(d_E(q, R_j)) \tag{3}
$$

$$
\varphi^+(q, R_j) = \eta^+(R_i, R_j) \cdot \max(d_E(q, R_j)) \tag{4}
$$

Continuing the above example,  $[\eta^-(R_{14}, R_3), \eta^+]$  $(R_{14}, R_3)$ ] = [0.6, 1.33] (as shown in Fig. 4),  $min(d_E(q,$  $(R_3)$  = 6 and  $max(d_E(q, R_3))$  = 12, and the bounds of q to  $R_3$  are  $\left[\varphi^-(q, R_3), \varphi^+(q, R_3)\right] = [3.6, 15.96]$ . Lemma 1 and Lemma 2 illustrate that  $min(d_N(R_q, R_j)) \leq \varphi^{-1}(q, R_j)$  $\leq min(d_N(q, R_i))$  and  $max(d_N(q, R_i)) \leq \varphi^+(q, R_i) \leq max$  $(d_N(R_q, R_i))$ , which ensures the pruning effect of  $[\varphi^-(q, R_i), \varphi^+(q, R_i)].$ 



Fig. 4 Content of ISW

**Lemma 1** For the query point q and the region  $R_i$ , the bounds of  $[\varphi^-(q, R_i), \varphi^+(q, R_i)]$  is tighter than [min(d- $N(R_q, R_i)$ , max $(d_N(R_q, R_i))$ ], where  $R_q$  denotes the region in which q lies.

*Proof* By Eqs. (1, 3), 
$$
\varphi^{-}(q, R_j) = \eta^{-}(R_q, R_j) \cdot min(d_E(q, R_j)) = min_{1 \le j \le N_c} \left\{ \frac{d_N(\sigma_k^q, \sigma_j^j)}{d_E(\sigma_k^q, R_j)} \right\} \cdot min(d_E(q, R_j)).
$$
  
If  $q$  is located in  $R_i$ , then  $\varphi^{-}(q, R_j) =$ 

 $min_{1 \leq j \leq N_c} \left\{ \frac{d_N(\sigma_k^q, \sigma_j^j)}{d_E(\sigma_k^q, R_j)} \right\}$   $min(d_E(q, R_j))$ . For two pairs of nodes  $(o_i, o_j)$  and  $(o'_i, o'_j)$ , if  $d_N(o_i, o_j) \ge d_N(o'_i, o'_j)$ , then we suppose that  $\frac{d_N(o_i,o_j)}{d_N(o'_i,o'_j)} \geq \frac{d_E(o_i,o_j)}{d_E(o'_i,o'_j)}$ . Such assumption is made according to the observation that the network distance connecting two points are much longer than the straightline distance connecting two points especially when the distances are large. Therefore,  $\frac{d_N(\sigma_k^q, \sigma_l^j)}{min(d_N(R_q, R_j))} \ge \frac{d_E(\sigma_k^q, \sigma_l^j)}{min(d_E(q, R_j))} \Rightarrow$  $min_{1 \leq j \leq N_c} \quad \left\{ \frac{d_N(\sigma_k^q, \sigma'_j)}{d_E(\sigma_k^q, R_j)} \right\} \cdot min(d_E(q, R_j)) \geq min(d_N(R_q, R_j)).$ Hence,  $\varphi^-(q, R_j) \geq min(d_N(R_q, R_j)).$ 

Likewise,  $\frac{max(d_N(R_q, R_j))}{d_N(\sigma_k^q, \sigma_l^j)} \ge \frac{max(d_E(q, R_j))}{d_E(\sigma_k^q, \sigma_l^j)},$  and  $\varphi^+(q, R_j) =$  $max_{1 \leq j \leq N_c} \left\{ \frac{d_N(o_{k}^q,o_{j}^j)}{(d_E(o_{k}^q,R_j))} \right\}$  ·  $max(d_E(q,R_j)) \leq max(d_N(R_q,R_j)).$ 

Therefore,  $min(d_N(R_q, R_i)) \leq \varphi^-(q, R_i) \leq \varphi^+(q, R_i) \leq max$  $(d_N(R_q, R_i))$  and the bounds of  $[\varphi^-(q, R_i), \varphi^+(q, R_i)]$  are tighter than  $[min(d_N(R_q, R_j)), max(d_N(R_q, R_j))]$ .

**Lemma 2** For the query point q and the region  $R_i$ ,  $\varphi^-(q, R_j) \leq min(d_N(q, o_k^j)) (o_k^i \in R_j),$  and  $max(d_N(q, o_k^j))$  $(o_k^i \in R_j) \le \varphi^+(q, R_j).$ 

*Proof* By Eqs. (1, 3),  $\varphi^-(q, R_j) = \eta^-(R_q, R_j) \cdot min(d_E)$  $\mathcal{L}(q, R_j) = min_{1 \leq j \leq N_c} \left\{ \frac{d_N(o_k^q, o_l^j)}{d_N(o_k^q, R_j)} \right\}$  $\overline{d_{E}\big(o_{k}^{q},R_{j}\big)}$  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  $\cdot min(d_E(q, R_j))$ . Because  $min_{1 \leq j \leq N_c} \left\{ \frac{d_N(\sigma_k^q, \sigma_l^j)}{d_E(\sigma_k^q, R_j)} \right\} \leq \frac{min(d_N(q, R_j))}{min(d_E(q, R_j))}, \ \varphi^{-}(q, R_j) \leq min(d_N)$  $(q,\,o_k^j)).$ 

Likewise,  $\varphi^+(q, R_j) \ge \max(d_N(q, o_k^j))$  and  $\varphi^-(q, R_j) \le$  $min(d_N(q, o_k^i))$   $(o_k^i \in R_j) \leq max(d_N(q, o_k^i))$  $(o_k^i \in R_j) \leq$  $\varphi^+(q, R_i)$ .

The value of  $[\eta^-(R_i, R_j), \eta^+(R_i, R_j)]$  can be computed by traversing all the objects inside  $R_i$  and  $R_j$ , and the time complexity is the same as the computation of maximum/ minimum distance bounds.

## 3.3 Cost model

We conduct a performance analysis based on the assumption that the clients tune into the channel randomly and each object has the same probability to be accessed. In order to facilitate the following analysis, Table 1 lists the symbols and their definitions. We utilize the number of access data packets to denote the average access latency and the average tuning time.

**Theorem 1** The access latency of a spatial query can be represented as follows:

$$
Acl = \frac{1}{2}\left(I + \frac{D}{m}\right) + \left(I + \frac{D}{m}\right) * i * \sum_{i=0}^{m} P_i + \left(I + \frac{D}{2m}\right),\tag{5}
$$

$$
P_i = \begin{cases} 0 & i = 0, \dots, \tau - 1 \\ C_{i-1}^{\tau-1} \left( \frac{1}{m} \right)^{\tau} & i = \tau, \dots, m. \end{cases}
$$
 (6)

*Proof* The first term of Eq.  $(5)$  is the duration of the initial probe which starts when a client tunes into the broadcast channel till the moment the index is received. In average, it takes  $\frac{1}{2}(I + \frac{D}{m})$  time.

As defined in Table 1, in order to receive necessary data for processing a spatial query such as the kNN, range or RNN query, we must to access  $\tau$  data blocks. We denote

Table 1 Commonly used symbols

Symbol	Definition
N	Number of objects
$N_c$	Number of cells
D	Size of data used to include all the objects
	Information (number of data packets)
Acl	Average access latency of a spatial query
Tun	Average tuning time of a spatial query
$B_i$	The <i>i</i> -th data block in a cycle, and size of $B_i$
	Is equal to $D/m$
$P_i$	Probability that some desired data reside
	In $B_i$
I	Size of <i>ISW</i> (number of data packets)
τ	Number of data packets needed to be accessed
	When a spatial query is executed

the last one of  $\tau$  data packets as  $\tau_{last}$ , and then the probability that  $\tau_{last}$  resides at  $B_i$  can be represented by Eq. (6). The  $\tau_{last}$  data block can not reside at  $B_i$  when  $i = 0, \ldots, \tau - 1$ . The probability that  $\tau_{last}$  resides at  $B_i(i =$  $\tau, \ldots, m$  is  $P_{\tau} = \left(\frac{1}{m}\right) \left(\frac{1}{m-1}\right) \ldots \left(\frac{1}{m-\tau}\right)$  . Because  $\tau \ll m, P_{\tau} = \big(\frac{1}{m}\big)$  $\left(\frac{1}{m}\right)^{\tau}$ . Therefore, the expectation value that  $\tau_{last}$  resides at  $B_i$  can be represented as  $i^* \sum_{k}^{i} P_i$ . Consequently, before we access the last object,  $(I + \frac{D}{m}) * i *$ <br>  $\sum_{n=0}^{m} P_n$  value of data have been discominated  $\sum_{i=0}^{m} P_i$  value of data have been disseminated.

The term of  $I + \frac{D}{2m}$  represents the time consumed by the final probe process. According to the above three parts, we can infer the average access latency as in Theorem 1.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 2** The average tuning time of a spatial query can be represented as:

$$
T = T_i + T_d,\tag{7}
$$

$$
T_i = \frac{m}{mI + D} \cdot (I + 1) + \frac{m(I - 1) + D}{mI + D} \cdot (1 + I) = I + 1,
$$
\n(8)

$$
(\mathbf{o})
$$

$$
T_d = \tau. \tag{9}
$$

*Proof* The average tuning time T includes  $T_i$  and  $T_d$ , where  $T_i$  denotes the time to download the index and  $T_d$  denotes the time to download the relative data for the queries. When a user issues a spatial query, the client tunes into the broadcast channel, and searches for the root of the index. Since the client can starts to probe the broadcast channel at any time, we analyze the first phase by two cases:

Case 1 The first visited data packet is exactly the one before the packet containing the root node of the index. In this case the client can directly receive the index. The probability of this case is  $\frac{m}{mI+D}$ , and the average tuning time of this case is  $\frac{m}{mI+D} \cdot (I+1)$  (suppose that the initial probe costs one data packet).

Case 2 The first visited packet is a data packet or an index bucket excluding the root node. The client needs to wait for the next root node of the index. This has a probability of  $\frac{m(I-1)+D}{mI+D}$ , and average tuning time is  $\frac{m(I-1)+D}{mI+D}$ .  $(1 + I)$  (suppose that the initial probe costs one data packet).

For the phase of downloading data, the client tunes in the doze mode until the required data arrives, and then tunes in the active mode again to download the relative data. Suppose that the average data packets of the spatial query is  $\tau$ . Thus, the tuning time is represented by Eq. (7).

Choosing a suitable partition for the space is an important problem for spatial queries via wireless data broadcast. If the partition number is too small, then the <span id="page-7-0"></span>effect of pruning is limited and the tuning time is influenced as well. If the number of cells is too large, then the size of index is large and the access latency will be long. Therefore, we need to choose a suitable partition for achieving the optimal tradeoff between tuning time and access latency. In order to choose a suitable value for partitioning the space, we have to consider two factors: the size of the road networks and the volume of objects. For example, if the road network and the number of objects are large, we had better partition the space into more regions. Note that in theory, the optimal partition number can not be efficiently evaluated. Alternatively, once a new data set is given, we need to do some experiments to choose a suitable value by which the system can acquire optimal performance. Then, this size is utilized to the system until new dataset is given. We will analyze the proper partition number in our experiment section.

#### 4 k nearest neighbor query processing

Given a query point q, and a spatial dataset  $\mathcal{O}$ , a k nearest neighbor (kNN) query retrieves the k objects of  $\mathcal O$  closest to q according to the network distance. This section presents an efficient algorithm for kNN queries, based on ISW.

#### 4.1 Filter by ISW

Since a  $kNN$  query only cares about the  $k$  objects with the minimal network distance from  $q$ , efficient algorithms should avoid the retrieval of any unnecessary objects. Thus, an important goal for processing kNN search is to obtain a small search range in the estimate phase in order to reduce the tune-in time. We develop efficient kNN query processing algorithm based on ISW. The detailed algorithm comprises two steps: (1) The client downloads the index, and analyzes the index to determine the bound  $d_k$  that contains at least k nearest neighbors of q. (2) The client downloads all the necessary data according to the precious step, and then examines the candidate set to obtain the exact answer set. We first develop Lemma 3 for filtering.

**Lemma 3** Given a query point q and a cell  $R_i$ , if  $\varphi^{-}(q, R_{i}) > d_{k}$ , then any objects in  $R_{i}$  will not appear in the answer set, where  $d_k$  is the minimum of  $\varphi^+(q, R_i)(i =$  $1, \ldots, N_c$  satisfying that  $R_i$  and the regions dominated by  $R_i$  contain at least  $k$  objects.

*Proof* For q, we define that  $R_i$  dominates  $R_i$  (denoted as  $R_i \preceq R_j$ ), if  $\varphi^+(q, R_i) \leq \varphi^-(q, R_j)$ . If  $\varphi^-(q, R_i) > d_k$  holds,

the object  $o_t^i$  ( $o_t^i \in R_i$ ) can not belong to the k nearest neighbors of  $q$  since there always exist at least  $k$  objects with distances smaller than or equal to  $d_k$ . Therefore, the answer set  $kNN(q)$  will not contain such an  $o_t^i(o_t^i \in R_i)$ according to the kNN definition. In other words, the fact that  $o_t^i$  is the k nearest neighbors of q implies  $\varphi^-(q, R_i) \leq d_k(o_t^i \in R_i).$ 

We utilize the bound  $d_k$  to eliminate the regions that do not contain any  $kNN$  of  $q$ . It is interesting to note that, the bound of  $d_k$  is not a circle around q, while  $d_k$  denotes a range which is represented by the network distance. If any region  $R_i$  with  $\varphi^{-1}(q, R_i) > d_k$ , then  $R_i$  can be safely pruned because any objects lie in  $R_i$  will not be the result. As depicted at Section [3,](#page-3-0) for each region  $R_i$  and  $R_j$ , the  $[\eta^-(R_i, R_i), \eta^+(R_i, R_i)]$  have been pre-computed and stored in the corresponding leaf node. With the location of  $q$  and the pre-computed information, the bounds of  $R_i$  and q can be computed as  $[\varphi^-(q, R_i), \varphi^+(q, R_i)]$ . This pair of bounds can be used for determining the suitable  $d_k$ . For regions  $R_i$ ,  $R_j$ , and  $q$ , if  $\varphi^+(q, R_i) \leq \varphi^-(q, R_j)$ ,  $R_i$  and any region  $R_l(R_l \leq R_i)$  contain at least k objects, then at least k objects are nearer to q than objects in  $R_i$ . Similarly, at least k objects are nearer to q than objects in  $R_i$ . According to this, if  $d_k$  is determined, then a region  $R_i$  does not have to be considered if  $\varphi^-(q, R_i) > d_k$ . Suppose  $\varphi^+(q, R_3)$  is  $d_k(\varphi^+(q, R_3) = 15.96$  as computed in Section [3.2\)](#page-5-0), and  $\varphi^-(q, R_{12}) = 16.34$ . Because  $\varphi^-(q, R_{12}) > d_k, R_{12}$  can be safely pruned. Two Lemmas are proposed for quickly determining the value of  $d_k$ .

**Lemma 4** For the current  $d_k$ , if  $\exists R_i$ ,  $\varphi^+(q, R_i) < d_k$ , and  $R_i$  contains at least k objects, then  $d_k$  can be updated as  $\varphi^+(q, R_i)$ .

*Proof* If  $R_i$  contains at least k objects, then there are at least k objects whose distances to q are smaller than  $d_k$ due to  $\varphi^+(q, R_i) < d_k$ . Because  $d_k$  is defined as a safe bound that contains at least  $k$  objects which have the shortest distance from q, the value of  $d_k$  can be safely updated as  $\varphi^+(q, R_i)$ .

**Lemma 5** For the current  $d_k$ ,  $\exists R_i$ ,  $R_j$ ,  $\varphi^-(q, R_i)$  <  $\varphi^-(q, R_i) < d_k, \varphi^+(q, R_i) < d_k, R_i$  contains l objects and R<sub>i</sub> contains l' objects. If  $R_i$  dominates  $R_j$  and  $l + l' > k$ , then  $d_k$ can be updated as  $\varphi^+(q, R_i)$ .

*Proof* If  $R_i$  dominates  $R_i$ , then  $\varphi^+(q, R_i) < \varphi^-(q, R_i)$  $\langle \varphi^+(q, R_j) \rangle d_k$ . Suppose an object  $o_k^i$  locates in  $R_j$ , then any objects  $o_k^i$  residing in  $R_i$  is nearer to q. According to  $R_i$ containing l objects, if  $R_i$  contains  $k - l$  objects, then  $\varphi^+(q, R_i)$  contains at least k objects that have shorter distance to q than the objects outside  $\varphi^+(q, R_j)$ . If  $l + l' > k$ , then  $d_k$  can be updated as  $\varphi^+(q, R_j)$ .

<span id="page-8-0"></span>

Fig. 5  $kNN$  query processing

#### 4.2 kNN query processing

Figure 5 depicts the procedure of a kNN query. Once the user invokes a kNN query, the client device tunes in the broadcast channel, and receives the index. Through the analysis of the index, the client learns which cells may contain the results, such as the grey regions in Fig. 5. The time when to wake up and receive the information is determined by the pointers in the leaf nodes, and by them the client device receives the required data and executes the query.

In order to compute the distance between  $q$  and the object  $o_i$ , the intermediate nodes in path $(q, o_i)$  (path from q to  $o_i$  is denoted as path $(q, o_i)$  and the distance of each interval between two nodes are also needed to be received. Lemma 6 illustrates that by our pruning strategies all intermediate nodes for computing kNN are also received.

**Lemma** 6  $\forall o \in C$ , if  $d_N(o,q) < d_k$ ,  $\forall o' \in path(q, o)$  $\rightarrow o' \in C$ .

*Proof* Because  $o' \in path(q, o), d_N(o', q) < d_N(o, q) < d_k$ . Suppose  $o'$  resides at  $R'_i$ , then  $\varphi^-(q, R'_i) < d_N(o', q) < d_k$ , so objects reside at  $R_i'$  are also in candidate set C.

Algorithm 1 demonstrates the detail steps of kNN query processing. As the client device receives ISW, it first initializes a heap with the root node of ISW (line 2). To accelerate the query processing, this algorithm next estimates a candidate set by  $d_k$  to prune the unnecessary regions (line 3–15). According to  $d_k$ , the client device can determine which regions are necessary for the query processing, and it finds the needed data by some pointers. In the second step, the client device receives the necessary data as pre-determined, namely, the region  $R_i$  which satisfies  $\varphi^-(q, R_i) < d_k$  are needed to be received (line 24). The objects in these regions are put into the candidate set C (line 25). After all necessary data are received, the client device executes the kNN query (line 28) locally by the IER method. As illustrated by Lemma 6, for any object  $o_i \in C$ , if  $d_N(o, q) < d_k$ , the nodes that pass by the path $(q, o_i)$  are also in C. Hence, kNN can be computed inside C.

#### Algorithm 1  $kNN$  query processing



#### 5 Range query processing

Given a query point q, a value r and a spatial dataset  $\mathcal{O}$ , a range query retrieves all objects from  $\mathcal O$  that are within network distance r from q, that is,  $RQ(q, r) =$  $\{o_i|o_i \in \mathcal{O}, d_N(o_i, q) < r\}$ . In the Euclidean space, the range queries are easily answered by comparing the coordinates of objects with the bounds of query windows. However, in road networks, whether the object  $o$  belongs to  $RQ(q, r)$  is determined by the network distance between  $o$  and  $q$ . The shape of the query window is irregular and the results are difficult to be acquired.

The naive solution for range queries over road networks first examines each segments within  $r$  from  $q$  and then puts the encountered object o into the result set if  $d_N(o, q) < r$ . Obviously, this solution would traverse the whole segment set and the cost is very large. We propose a filter-refinement mechanism for efficiently executing the range queries by ISW, which greatly reduces the volume of data reception and reduces the computations. Firstly, the client tunes in the broadcast channel and receives the index, and analyzes the index to prune unnecessary cells. The cells can be

<span id="page-9-0"></span>classified into three types according to the value of  $[\varphi^-(q, R_i), \varphi^+(q, R_i)]$  with r, where  $[\varphi^-(q, R_i), \varphi^+(q, R_i)]$ denote the bounds of distance from  $q$  to the cell  $R_i$ . If  $\varphi^-(q, R_i) > r$ , then  $R_i$  can be safely pruned (Lemma 7). If  $\varphi^+(q, R_i) < r$ , then  $\forall o_k^i \in R_i$  can be put into the result set (Lemma 8). If  $\varphi^-(q, R_i) < r$  and  $\varphi^+(q, R_i) > r$ , then  $R_i$ should be put into the candidate set. The data of the second and the third type of cells should be received for answering queries. Secondly, the client analyzes the candidate objects by examining each  $path(o, n_i)$ , where  $n_i$  is a point on a path and  $d_N(o, n_i) = r$ . All objects in segment path $(o, n_i)$  are put into the result set.

**Lemma 7** For any region  $R_i$ , if  $\varphi^{-1}(q, R_i) > r$ , then  $R_i$ can be safely pruned.

*Proof For any object*  $o_k^i$  in  $R_i$ ,  $d_N(q, o_k^i) > \varphi^-(q, R_i) > r$ , and hence  $R_i$  can be safely pruned.  $\Box$ 

**Lemma 8** For any region  $R_i$ , if  $\varphi^+(q, R_i) < r$ , then the *objects*  $o_k^i$  within  $R_i$  can be put into the result set.

*Proof* For any object  $o_k^i$  which resides in  $R_i, d_N(q, o_k^i)$  $\langle \varphi^+(q, R_i) \rangle < r$ . Therefore,  $o_k^i$  is the result.

Figure 6 shows the filter step, where  $r = 9$ ,  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ ,  $R_4$ ,  $R_5$ ,  $R_6$ ,  $R_7$ ,  $R_{10}$  and  $R_{11}$  can be pruned according to the Lemma 7. Due to  $\varphi^+(q, R_{14}) = 7.86 \lt r$ , the objects lie in  $R_{14}$  can be directly put into the result set. Besides,  $R_3([\varphi^-(q, R_3), \varphi^+(q, R_3)]=[3.6, 15.96]), R_8, R_9, R_{12}, R_{15}$ and  $R_{16}$  should be received as the candidate set. Figure 7 shows the refinement step of range queries, where several segments are examined and the final results are returned.

Algorithm [2](#page-10-0) gives the detail steps of the range queries. Firstly, a client device receives the index and looks up the bounds of  $[\varphi^-(q, R_i), \varphi^+(q, R_i)]$ . According to Lemma 7, the regions whose bound of  $\varphi^+(q, R_i)$  are larger than r can be safely pruned (line 2–4). According to Lemma 8, the regions with the bound of  $\varphi^-(q, R_i)$  smaller than r can be received (line 5–7), and the objects residing in these regions should be put into the result set (line 10–12). The other regions whose bound of  $\varphi^{-}(q, R_i)$  are smaller than r and the bound of  $\varphi^+(q, R_i)$  larger than r should be received as the candidate set  $C$  (line 8). For regions in the candidate set, all objects should be received and the distances from them to q are computed and compared with  $r$  (line 13–17).

#### 6 Reverse nearest neighbor query processing

Reverse nearest neighbor (RNN) query is very useful in applications such as the decision support and the resource allocation. Given a dataset  $O$  and a query point  $q$ , a RNN query retrieves all objects  $o \in \mathcal{O}$  that have q as their nearest neighbor. The naive method for searching RNN is



Fig. 6 Filter step for range query



Fig. 7 Refinement step for range query

traversing the network from  $q$ , and searching the nearest neighbor for each encountered object  $o \in \mathcal{O}$ . If there is no  $o'$  satisfying  $d_N(o, o') > d_N(o, q)$ , then  $o \in RNN(q)$ . The number of objects in  $RNN(q)$  is not fixed, and the distance from  $\sigma$  to  $q$  may be very far, so every object in the road networks has to be examined.

We adopt ISW to support the RNN query and to optimize the system performance. It is difficult to determine a bound for RNN query, but two Lemmas can be utilized to prune some unqualified regions and further reduce the tuning time.

**Lemma 9** For regions  $R_i$  and  $R_j$ , if  $\varphi^+(R_i, R_j)$  $\varphi^-(q, R_i)$ , then  $R_i$  can be safely pruned.

*Proof*  $\varphi^+(R_i, R_j)$  is defined as  $\eta^+(R_i, R_j) \cdot max(d_E(R_i, R_j))$  $(R_j)$ ). Because  $\eta^+(R_i, R_j) = max \begin{cases} \frac{d_N(o_k^i, o_j^j)}{d_N(o_k^j, R_j)} \end{cases}$  $\left\{\frac{d_N(o_k^i,o_j^j)}{d_E(o_k^i,R_j)}\right\}, \eta^+(R_i,R_j)$  $max(d_E(R_i, R_j)) \ge max(d_N(o_k^i, o_l^i))$ . For any object o which

#### <span id="page-10-0"></span>Algorithm 2 Range query processing



in  $R_i$ , if  $\varphi^+(R_i, R_j) < \varphi^-(q, R_i)$ , then there is an object  $o'$  which in  $R_j$  that  $d_N(o, o') \leq max(d_N(o_k^i, o_l^j)) \leq$  $\varphi^+(R_i, R_j) < \varphi^-(q, R_i) \leq min(d_N(q, o_k^i)) \leq d_N(o, q)$ . Due to  $d_N(o, o') < d_N(o, q)$ , the nearest neighbor of o could not be q, and the RNN of q would not contain  $o$ . Hence,  $R_i$  can be safely pruned. As shown in Fig. 8,  $\varphi^+(R_6, R_8) < \varphi^-(q, R_6)$ , so  $R_6$  can be pruned.

**Lemma 10** For the region  $R_i$ , if  $\varphi^+(R_i, R_i) < \varphi^-(q, R_i)$ and  $R_i$  contains at least two objects, then  $R_i$  can be safely pruned.

*Proof* Suppose o and o' are located in  $R_i$ ,  $d_N(o, o')$  $\leq max(d_N(R_i, R_i)) \leq \varphi^+(R_i, R_i) < \varphi^-(q, R_i) \leq min(d_N(q,$  $(\phi_k^i) \leq d_N(o, q), d_N(o, o') \leq max(d_N(R_i, R_i)) \leq \varphi^+(R_i, R_i)$  $\langle \varphi^-(q, R_i) \leq min(d_N(q, o_k^i)) \leq d_n(o', q)$ , so q can not be the nearest neighbor of  $o$  or  $o'$ . Hence,  $R_i$  can be safely pruned. As shown in Fig. 9,  $\varphi^+(R_3,R_3) < \varphi^-(q,R_3)$ , so  $R_3$ can be pruned.  $\Box$ 

Algorithm [3](#page-11-0) describes the procedure of RNN query algorithm, which is executed in three steps. The first step analyzes ISW and prunes some regions by Lemmas 9 and 10 (line 4–8). The second step receives the objects in preselected regions, and these objects form a small size candidate set  $C$  (line 11, 12). The third step refines the candidate set by examining the nearest neighbor of each object. To accelerate the local query, the lazy algorithm [\[22](#page-16-0)] is adopted.



Fig. 8 Example for Lemma 9



Fig. 9 Example for Lemma 10

### 7 Performance evaluation

This section evaluates the performance of ISW for supporting kNN queries, range queries and RNN queries. All the experiments were executed on a PC with 2.5 GHz CPU and 2 GB main memory and the algorithms are implemented with  $C++$ . Each set of experiments are executed on the real road network dataset, CA, obtained from the Digital Chart of the World Server. In particular, CA captures the road networks in California, and contains 21,047 nodes and 21,692 edges [\[24](#page-16-0)]. The packet size is set to 128 bytes. We assume two types of bandwidth for the broadcast channel, 2 Mbps and 384 Kbps respectively, which are typical in 3G networks for static and moving devices.

In order to compare with ISW index, we also evaluate the search algorithm based on the following two indexing techniques and test their performance.

#### <span id="page-11-0"></span>Algorithm 3 RNN query processing

**Input** : query point  $q$ **Output:** result set  $RNN(q)$ //Step 1: Traverse  $ISW$  $\mathbf{1}$ for each leaf node  $R_i$  in ISW do  $\overline{2}$ if  $\varphi^+(R_i, R_i) < \varphi^-(q, R_i)$  and  $R_i$  contains at  $\bf{3}$ least two objects then  $\overline{4}$ prune  $R_i$ ; end  $\overline{5}$ if exist  $R_i$  that  $\varphi^+(R_i, R_i) < \varphi^-(q, R_i)$  then 6  $\overline{7}$ prune  $R_i$ ; 8 end 9 end 10 //Step 2: Selectively receive the data 11 receive the objects in pre-selected regions; 12 put these objects into candidate set  $C$ ; //Step 3: Query processing in client devices 13 14 for each object  $o$  in  $C$  do if the nearest neighbor of  $o$  is  $q$  then 15 put o into  $RNN(q)$ ; 16  $17$ end 18 end

- $EB$ -index  $[14]$  $[14]$ , which adopts the same space partitioning mechanism with ISW, and the maximum/minimum distance table is computed as the bounds.
- R-tree. We employ the  $(1, m)$  interleaving scheme, and adopt the best-first manner for kNN search.

We first test the effect of the region number on the index size. We set the number of objects as 5K and vary the number of regions from 32 to 512. The size of both ISW and EB-index increases with the increasing number of regions as shown in Fig. 10. The size of ISW is a litter larger than that of EB-index, because ISW stores two pairs of parameters for a pair of cells while EB-index stores a pair of bounds for a pair of cells. The size of R-tree has no relationship with the region number so that the index size does not change with the increasing region number.

#### 7.1 Evaluation of kNN queries

In this section we compare ISW against EB-index and R-tree for processing kNN query, in terms of tuning time and access latency, respectively.

The first experiment studies the tuning time for kNN queries as a function of region number, which is shown in Fig. 11  $(k$  is set to 50, and the number of objects is set to 5K). The tuning time equals to the volume of data packets received by the clients. As the region number increases, the volume of packets received by the clients with EB-index and ISW first reduce then keep stable. The reason is threefold. Firstly, with the smaller granularity of region, the clients can receive less data through the pruning methods.



Fig. 10 Effect of region number on index size  $(kNN$  query)

Secondly, the finer partition of space results in that many data packets are not full, which weakens the benefits of the smaller region. Thirdly, larger number of regions will result in larger size of index. Therefore, both ISW and EBindex perform best when the number of regions is set as 128. The tuning time of ISW is a little lower than that of EB-index because the pruning strategy of ISW is more powerful. The tuning time of R-tree is stable and is much higher than the others (We do not draw the line of R-tree because it is too high than the other two indexes), because the organization of R-tree does not take into account the space partitioning.

Figure [12](#page-12-0) illustrates the tuning time of kNN queries for various database sizes, ranging from 1 to 10K objects. The performance of ISW is better than EB-index due to its more effective pruning bounds. As the data size increases, the density of objects increases and hence more data are needed to be received. R-tree receives most data in a fixed area which increases slowly with the increasing data size, so the tuning time increases slowly as well (Due to the space limitation, the line of R-tree is not painted).

Figure [13](#page-12-0) investigates the effect of the query selectivity  $(k)$  on the tuning time for  $kNN$  queries. As k increases from 20 to 500, the tuning time of all indexing techniques grows due to the larger search region and result size. ISW is consistently better than its competitors.



Fig. 11 Effect of region number on tuning time (kNN query)

<span id="page-12-0"></span>

Fig. 12 Effect of data size on tuning time  $(kNN$  query)



Fig. 13 Effect of  $k$  on tuning time ( $kNN$  query)

Figure  $14(a, b)$  depicts the access latency for kNN queries as a function of region number, under 2 Mbps (Fig.  $14(a)$ ) and 384 Kbps (Fig.  $14(b)$ ) broadcast channels respectively. The latency equals to the time interval between the first time the clients tune in the broadcast channel to the time the clients receive the last data for a query. As the region number increases, the access latency of EB-index and ISW first reduce then increase slowly. When the space is partitioned into 128 regions, the system performs best. Even though the index segment is smaller when the region number is small, the latency is larger because the clients need to receive more objects. On the other hand, a finer partition means a larger index and hence

Fig. 14 Effect of region number on access latency

lengthens the broadcast cycle and consequently the access latency. The performance of ISW is better than EB-index.

Figure  $15(a, b)$  $15(a, b)$  illustrates the effect of datasize on the access latency under 2 Mbps (Fig.  $15(a)$  $15(a)$ ) and 384 Kbps (Fig.  $15(b)$  $15(b)$ ) broadcast channels respectively. The access latency of all indexing techniques increases as the data size increases from 1 to 10 K. The access latency of ISW and EB-index is much lower than that of R-tree because they can execute the queries in one cycle, while the methods adopting R-tree have backtracking and consume more than one broadcasting cycle.

Figure  $16(a, b)$  $16(a, b)$  shows the effect of k on access latency under 2 Mbps (Fig.  $16(a)$  $16(a)$ ) and 384 Kbps (Fig.  $16(b)$  $16(b)$ ) broadcast channels respectively. As the k increases, so does the latency. The reason is that more objects are needed to be received with the increasing  $k$ . ISW performs better than EB-index due to its more effective bounds. The access latency by adopting R-tree are much larger than by the other index. The reason is, with the increasing  $k$ , the required data and the volume of backtrack increase.

#### 7.2 Evaluation of range queries

In this subsection we investigate the performance of the tuning time and access latency for the range query. As shown in Fig. [17](#page-13-0), with the increasing number of regions, the tuning time by adopting both EB-index and ISW first increases significantly and then increases slowly. The reason is the same with Fig. [11](#page-11-0). The tuning time by adopting ISW-index is less than the EB-index, and this graph describe the difference of a single query. Therefore, if the clients invoke queries frequently, the saving power is considerable.

Figure [18](#page-14-0) depicts the effect of data size on tuning time. The tuning time by adopting R-tree is significantly larger than by ISW and EB-index because the search space can not be pruned by R-tree and all data are needed to be received. The tuning time of both ISW and EB-index increases when data size increases from 1K to 10K. As the data size increases, the density of objects increases, so that for the same query more data are needed to be received for ISW and EB-index. As the involving data increases, more



<span id="page-13-0"></span>



Fig. 17 Effect of number of regions on tuning time (range query)

unfilled packets are needed to be received, leading to increased tuning time.

We furthermore test the effect of the query range on the tuning time in Fig. [19.](#page-14-0) We vary the range from 2 to 15 % of the whole space and set the number of objects to 5K. The tuning time by adopting ISW increases with the increasing range, because larger range means more regions are needed to be downloaded. The tuning time by adopting R-tree is large and stable due to it receives all data no matter how large the range is.

We illustrate the access latency with the function of region number for the range query, under the 2 Mbps (Fig.  $20(a)$  $20(a)$ ) and 384 Kbps (Fig.  $20(b)$ ) broadcast channels respectively. The latency of ISW and EB-index acquire the minimum value when the region number equals to 128. The reason is the same with the effect of region number on latency for kNN query.

Figure [21](#page-14-0) shows the access latency for various data sizes ranging from 1 to 10 K, under the 2 Mbps (Fig.  $21(a)$  $21(a)$ ) and 384 Kbps (Fig.  $21(b)$  $21(b)$ ) broadcast channels respectively. The latency of ISW and EB-index increases slowly. As the density of objects increases with the increasing data size, the number of objects inside the same range increases with the data size. The range is very small comparing to the whole search space so that the increasing objects inside the range do not significantly increase the latency of ISW and EB-index.

Finally, we test the effect of the query range on the access latency for range queries, under the 2 Mbps (Fig.  $22(a)$  $22(a)$ ) and 384 Kbps (Fig.  $22(b)$  $22(b)$ ) broadcast channels respectively. As the query range increases from 2 to 15 % of the whole space, the latency of all algorithms lengthens due to the larger search region and result size. ISW and EB-index are consistently better than R-tree, for the reason that both ISW and EB-index can provide pruning strategies and R-tree can not.

#### 7.3 Evaluation of RNN queries

In this subsection we study the performance of tuning time and access latency for RNN query. Figure [23](#page-15-0)(a) depicts the

<span id="page-14-0"></span>

Fig. 18 Effect of data size on tuning time (range query)



Fig. 19 Effect of query range on tuning time (range query)

(range query)

tuning time of RNN queries by adopting EB-index, ISW and R-tree. ISW performs better than any other index with

varying region number. The main reason is, through the partition of the whole space, some unqualified regions are pruned and the tuning time is reduced by ISW index. Figure [23](#page-15-0)(b) shows the tuning time for RNN queries with the varying data size. Likewise, ISW performs better than the other indexes because ISW can prune more data that are not the query results.

In the next set of experiments, we compare ISW with other indexes in RNN queries with the varying number of objects (data size) from 1 to 10K. The results are shown in Fig.  $24(a, b)$  $24(a, b)$ . We can observe that the access latency by adopting ISW is much lower than others. The main reason is that the methods adopting ISW can execute the queries in one cycle, while the methods adopting R-tree have backtracking and consume more than one broadcasting cycle. Moreover, the bounds of ISW are tighter than those of EB-index.

Lastly, we illustrate the access latency with the change of the region number for the range query, under the 2 Mbps (Fig.  $25(a)$  $25(a)$ ) and 384 Kbps (Fig.  $25(b)$ ) broadcast channels respectively. The access latency of ISW is lower than that of EB-index and R-tree. And the latency of ISW and EB-index acquire the minimum value when the region number equals to 128. The reason is the same with the



<span id="page-15-0"></span>

<span id="page-16-0"></span>effect of the region number on the latency for the kNN query and range query.

# 8 Conclusions

This paper addresses the problem of answering kNN, range and RNN queries in road networks via broadcast channels. A new index structure based on kd-tree, namely ISW-index, is proposed to support the above spatial queries. For the query point  $q$  and any cell, ISW provides a pair of distance bounds, which is effective and powerful for pruning the search space. In this way, ISW can present a basic and general framework for processing spatial queries, and algorithms for kNN, range and RNN queries, based on ISW, are thus separately developed. Finally, we demonstrate the effectiveness and efficiency of our index technique and spatial query methods through the theoretical analysis and experiments.

In the future, we will design optimized mechanism for efficiently executing continuous spatial queries in spatial networks via broadcast channels.

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