

# DZI: An Air Index for Spatial Queries in One-dimensional Channels

Kwangjin Park, Alexis Joly, Patrick Valduriez

# ► To cite this version:

Kwangjin Park, Alexis Joly, Patrick Valduriez. DZI: An Air Index for Spatial Queries in One-dimensional Channels. Data and Knowledge Engineering, 2019, 124, pp.101748. 10.1016/j.datak.2019.101748. lirmm-02386429

# HAL Id: lirmm-02386429 https://hal-lirmm.ccsd.cnrs.fr/lirmm-02386429v1

Submitted on 29 Nov 2019

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

# DZI: An Air Index for Spatial Queries in One-dimensional Channels

Kwangjin Park, Alexis Joly, and Patrick Valduriez<sup>1</sup>

Wonkwang University, Korea, Inria, Montpellier, France, Inria, Montpellier, France

# Abstract

The wireless data broadcast environment characteristics cause the data to be delivered sequentially via one-dimensional channels. A space-filling curve has been proposed for recent wireless data broadcast environments. However, air indexing introduces various problems, including the increase in the size of the index, conversion costs, and an increase in the search space because of an inefficient structure. In this paper, we propose a distribution-based Z-order air index and query processing algorithms suitable for a wireless data broadcast environment. The proposed index organizes the object identification (hereafter called ID) hierarchically only in terms of objects that are present. We compare the proposed technique with the well-known spatial indexing technique DSI by creating equations that represent the access time and tuning time, followed by conducting a simulation-based performance evaluation. The results from experimental show that our proposed index and algorithms support efficient query processing in both range queries and K-nearest neighbor queries.

Keywords: Moving objects, mobile computing, selective tuning, and spatial index.

## 1 1. Introduction

Most studies of Location-Based Services (LBS) technologies and services have been 2 conducted with a server-centric approach. However, having all the work handled entirely 3 by a server leads to problems such as high dependence of the client on the server, lack 4 of consideration for moving objects, and privacy invasion [12][25-27]. Furthermore, query 5 processing time can increase due to the overload of the server that processes individual 6 clients' query requests. In particular, real-time information processing tasks for a large 7 number of moving objects can put a heavy burden on the server [2] [9-11] [24]. Service 8 delays due to server workloads in an environment where query targets and requesters move 9 at the same time may result in wrong query results. To solve this problem, the workload of 10 the server can be reduced by disallowing the server to access the client's individual queries. 11 In wireless data broadcast systems, popular information is periodically disseminated 12 through one-dimensional communication channels (i.e. a channel in which information 13 is sequentially delivered from a server) to mobile clients. The wireless data broadcast 14 method is a one-to-many communication method that sends packets to the entire wireless 15 network and is not affected by the number of clients [1-10][23][34][38]. In recent years, there 16

has been a renewal of interest in spatial data<sup>1</sup> delivery related to wireless data broadcast 17 environments [2] [9-11]. The wireless data broadcast method provides simple periodic 18 delivery of the target object (e.g., hotels, gas-stations, and taxis) to mobile clients. In other 19 words, the server and the client take on the roles and responsibilities of service processing 20 at the same time. For example, a user may issue a query through a mobile device (hereafter 21 called client), such as "give me the names and addresses of the hotels near my location." 22 Then, the client downloads a spatial index through a wireless data broadcast channel from 23 a server. A spatial index contains information that indicates all locations of objects (e.g., 24 hotels) near the client. The client can determine its current location via some positioning 25 technology, such as Global Positioning System (GPS). Finally, the client returns the final 26 query result to the user through the spatial query processing after confirmation of the 27 spatial index. In addition, the protection of privacy can also be supported by the wireless 28 data broadcast method [41], because the client's individual position and the contents of 29 the query cannot be known. However, to answer queries, the clients have to stay in active 30 mode to receive the requested data objects and index information. Recently, a Distributed 31 Spatial Index (DSI) [13, 17] was proposed to improve the problem. The DSI is designed to 32 reduce access time by configuring the index into a distributed structure using a Hilbert-33 Curve (HC). The DSI has the advantage of reducing probe wait<sup>2</sup> by adding distributed 34 pointers. However, the amount of data to send increases due to overlapping pointers so 35 that the server's broadcasting periods become longer. In distributed spatial indexing, the 36 index information is increased by  $N \times (loq_2N+2)$ , where N be the number of data 37 objects. This means that the index size grows rapidly as the number of data objects 38 increases. A distributed spatial index allows a reduction in the tuning time via increasing 39 efficiency of selective tuning by the client. However, the increased index information that 40 is associated with it gives rise to increased latency time, which leads to a longer query 41 processing time. Therefore, index structures are necessary where overlapping pointers 42 can be removed while reducing probe wait for efficient query processing. In a previous 43 work [29], we have exploited a broadcast-based data dissemination scheme, called BBS 44 (Broadcast-Based LDIS Scheme). In BBS, the server periodically broadcasts the IDs and 45 coordinates of the data objects, without an index segment, to the clients. These broadcast 46 data objects are sorted sequentially, according to the locations of the data objects, before 47 being transmitted to the clients. 48

In this paper, we propose a distribution-based Z-order index suitable for spatial queries in one-dimensional channels, as well as a technique in which the capabilities of the client's independent query processing have been enhanced. The proposed index does not configure the index for all zones as the existing space-filling curve<sup>3</sup> does, and indicates only the area in which the required object is present, using a grid cell. Thus, the use of data

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Spatial data is the data or information that identifies the geographic location of features and boundaries on earth, oceans etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>The average duration for getting to the next index segment is called probe wait [6,7]

 $<sup>^{3}</sup>$ A space-filling curve is a continuous path that visits every space in a k-dimensional grid once without crossing itself.

caused by an unnecessary identifier can be reduced during index configuration. Moreover, our proposed index does not give location identifier information for a region where the object is not present. Therefore, information regarding moving objects can be efficiently managed, because the location of moving objects can be determined with a small amount of information.

- <sup>59</sup> The main contributions of this paper are as follows:
- We propose a lightweight spatial index that assigns a tree-based hierarchy ID (iden tification) only to objects that are present, and can manage the positions of moving
   objects. The main difference between our index and the conventional index, such
   as quadtree-based or grid-based index, is that the proposed index divides space and
   assigns bit-codes only to those regions where objects exist.
- We propose breadth-first and depth-first spatial query search algorithms whose appli cation depends on the location distribution of the objects. The breadth-first provides
   excellent for tuning time especially when the object is evenly distributed. On the
   other hand, the depth-first provides excellent for access time by determining the final
   query result by listening to the partial data information.
- We propose a data delivery model that is in accordance with the location distribution
   of objects.
- We propose an algorithm for the continuous spatial query processing of moving objects that supports and facilitates the determination of the location of future objects, using the client's own calculation.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses related work. Section 3 discusses major performance factors and defines the system model. Section 4 describes the distribution-based Z-order index. Section 5 describes the data dissemination and selective tuning algorithms. Section 6 describes an efficient method for the location of moving objects. Section 7 evaluates the performance of distribution-based Z-order index with DSI and BBS. Finally, Section 8 concludes.

# 81 2. Related Work

First, we discuss the data broadcasting methods. Then, we discuss the spatial index<sup>4</sup> techniques for the wireless data broadcast environment.

# 84 2.1. Data Broadcasting

The server transmits the information that the client wants by identifying that information in advance through a broadcast channel. For instance, advertisements, weather

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>A spatial index is a special access method used to retrieve spatial data from within the data-store.

forecasts, traffic information, flight and train information, and other information can be regularly sent to unspecified individuals [31].

In [14], the authors introduce a technique for delivering data objects to the clients in 89 asymmetric environments. In the environments, the network characteristics in downlink 90 direction is faster than those in uplink direction. In this technique, groups of pages, such 91 as hot and cold groups, with different broadcast frequencies are multiplexed on the same 92 channel. Then, the items stored on the faster disks are broadcast more often than those 93 items on the slower disks. In [19], the authors present the Broadcast on Demand (BoD) 94 model to provide timely broadcast according to requests from users. The goal is to maxi-95 mize performance with respect to satisfaction of deadline constraints and achieve efficient 96 use of available bandwidth. In [20], the authors investigate how to efficiently generate the 97 broadcast schedule in a wireless environment. They consider the access pattern formed by 98 all the requests where the data dependency and access frequency can be represented by a 99 weighted directed acyclic graph (DAG). In [21], the authors observe that in general, clients 100 are divided into several groups, each one in a different location, with the members of each 101 group having similar demands. Then, they propose a mechanism that exploits locality 102 of demand in order to increase the performance of wireless data broadcast systems. In 103 [22], the authors define two optimization problems, such as MCDR (Minimum Cost Data 104 Retrieval) and LNDR (Largest Number Data Retrieval). MCDR aims at downloading a 105 set of data items with the minimum energy consumption, whereas LNDR aims at down-106 loading the largest number of requested data items in a given time interval. In this paper, 107 authors consider data retrieval scheduling over multiple channels. In [32], authors address 108 the problem of answering KNN (K-Nearest Neighbor), range, and RNN (Reverse Nearest 109 Neighbor) queries in road networks via broadcast channels. Then, they propose ISW (index 110 for spatial queries in wireless broadcast environments)-index for spatial queries in wireless 111 broadcast environments. The ISW provides a pair of distance bounds, which is effective 112 for pruning the search space. The search space is reduced by using ISW and subsequently 113 the client can download as less as possible data for query processing, which can conserve 114 the energy. In [40], authors discuss the problem of spatial keyword query processing in 115 road networks in wireless broadcast environments. Then they provide algorithms for var-116 ious queries, such as boolean range, top-k and ranked spatial keyword queries. In [33], 117 authors address the problem of processing CNN (Continuous Nearest Neighbor) queries in 118 road networks under wireless broadcast environments. Then, they propose a method to 119 construct and partition the NVD (Network Voronoi Diagram) structure of the underlying 120 road networks to derive an NVD quadtree and then transfer the tree into a linear sequence 121 of data packets. In BBS[29], the data objects broadcast by the server are sequentially 122 ordered based on their locations. Therefore, it is not necessary for the client to wait for 123 the index segment if the desired data object is able to be identified before the associated 124 index segment has arrived. In BBS, the structure of the broadcast affects the distribution 125 of the data object. BBS provides the fast access time since no index is broadcast along 126 with the data and, thus, the size of the entire broadcast cycle is minimized. The techniques 127 discussed above focus on efficient data transfer by analyzing users' requests. However, most 128 of them do not consider spatial queries, as we do in this paper. 129



Figure 1: Access time with HC value for range query.

#### 130 2.2. Spatial Index on Air

DSI has a distributed structure that mixes multiple search paths into a linear index 131 structure that is distributed into the broadcast cycle. In DSI, a pointer of each data 132 instance is repeated as many times as the number of entries of an index in a broadcast cycle 133 to facilitate multiple search paths. Access time represents the period of time elapsed from 134 the moment a user issues a query to the client to the moment when the required data item is 135 received by the client. In each frame of the index, a pointer that is increased exponentially 136 is stored; its role is to support fast access and selective tuning, i.e. mobile devices only 137 selectively tune into broadcast channels when required. HC-based index techniques set 138 up the value of the HC order based on the distribution of the object, and assign an 139 identification number to every vertex of the basic curve, regardless of the presence or 140 non-presence of the object. In this case, because the HC order does not represent a 1-1 141 mapping of the order of data delivery, an object mapping process is required for calculating 142 the object position after confirmation of the HC-value. In the process, the conversion time 143 of  $O(b^2)$  is consumed, with b denotes the number of bits needed for the coordinates of 144 the object. Also, in case the objects are located close to each other, the value of the HC 145 of order, which is used to distinguish the position of the object, increases. As a result, 146 many IDs are required, even though the total number of objects is not large. Furthermore, 147 because of the nature of the HC, problems may occur, depending on the location and scope 148 of the query. An increased search space is needed in order to navigate through unnecessary 149 blocks. For example, as can be seen in Figure 1, the client can obtain the final results only 150 after waiting until objects 2 to 13 have been transmitted from the server for range query 151 processing. The AT (access time) and TT (tuning time) will be increased further if the 152 number of objects is to be increased and the query processing zones include more objects. 153 In the KNN query processing, more serious problems will occur, depending on the value 154 of 'K'. 155

<sup>156</sup> The problem with the HC-based distributed index can be summarized as follows:

- Even if a pointer is used that is exponentially increased by the exponential base e, when the number of the total data equals N, the number of the pointers will increase as much as  $\text{Log}_e N$  in each index frame when N increases. As a result, the size of the index will be increased, and the amount of information that needs to be listened to will increase significantly.

- Even if the existing index structures based on HC have hierarchical structures, in
   order to obtain the desired results, indexes should be sequentially read from the
   beginning of the exploration to its end. Tuning time may be reduced by proposing
   a distributed index structure consisting of overlapping pointers for selective tuning,
   but the increased index information lengthens the exploration time.
- In order for the object to confirm the location information, additional mapping, a
   conversion process for the HC value, and the location calculation of the object are
   required.

In [2], the authors propose an air indexing structure for supporting moving data ob-170 jects. The goal is to reduce the power consumption and response time at the client side. 171 They design algorithms for snapshot and continuous queries, over static or dynamic data 172 with a regular grid. They apply other space-filling curves such as Peano curve for their 173 index. However, this technique also presents the same structural problems (inefficient 174 selective tuning) as the Hilbert-curve-based index. In [36], authors argued that bitmap-175 based indexing can be highly effective for running range query workloads on spatial data 176 sets. Then, they introduced a compressed spatial hierarchical bitmap, called cSHB, index 177 structure that takes a spatial hierarchy and uses that to create a hierarchy of compressed 178 bitmaps to support spatial range queries. In [42], authors propose a multi-leveled air in-179 dexing scheme in non-flat data broadcasting (MLAIN) to process window queries with the 180 popularity of spatial data items. MLAIN partitions the data space by recursively sub-181 dividing it into four quadrant cells of multiple levels until all cells satisfy the constraint 182 that the number of data items in a cell is not over a specified number. In MLAIN, each 183 cell having one or more hot data items, called a hot cell, is broadcast more frequently 184 than regular cells to help clients quickly access hot data items on the channel. In [35], we 185 proposed the Hierarchical Grid Index (HGI) to remedy the Hilbert-curve-based index. For 186 the HGI, the location of the object is expressed by dividing grids until one grid contains 187 one object. Because grid division and index ID distribution only occurs in the area with 188 the object, the index pointer size can be reduced along with the index deciphering time 189 and TT. The delivery order considers an object's location and delivers it using the grid 190 recognizers' order to be awake, which occurs only when information close to the query 191 point is received, and to process the final query results. However, to confirm the object's 192 location information, coordinate information from the lowest level grid must be confirmed. 193 [37] explores the problem of spatial query processing in road sensor networks by means 194 of wireless data broadcast. The authors present a method to partition the record-keeping 195 information about the underlying road sensor network and its associated objects, by a 196 distributed air index, called integrated exponential index, based on an extended version 197 of the Hilbert-curve. They also propose client-side algorithms to facilitate the processing 198 of spatial queries. In [38], the authors propose a skewed spatial index considering clients 199

skewed access patterns in the non-uniform wireless broadcast environments. The index 200 information considering the non-uniform broadcast is interleaved with the spatial objects 201 on the wireless channel to support efficient access. In [39], we examine the problems expe-202 rienced in the existing wireless broadcast environment and propose a novel system model 203 and index technique. Instead of receiving spatial data information from the server, the 204 client in the proposed system environment receives spatial data for part of the area from 205 a sub\_server to reduce the query processing time. In this manner, the model selectively 206 tunes to the data located within the partial area most suitable for the query. 207

In parks or train stations, smartphone users may utilize location-based advertising messages to find information about nearby restaurants, hotels, and shops. If this makes their smartphone be flooded with a burst of advertising messages, they are likely to turn off advertising messaging services. In order to overcome the above problems, an index structure is required that gives the identification number by considering only the location of the objects actually present. In addition, fast and efficient algorithm for supporting spatial queries in wireless data broadcast environments should be developed.

#### 215 **3.** Preliminaries

In this section, we examine the main problems affecting the performance evaluation. Then, we present the system model.

### 218 3.1. Problem Statement

In a wireless data broadcast environment, the increase of 'index size' and 'the irregular delivery order of data' increase AT and TT at the client side. First, let us consider the impact of the increase of index size on AT and TT. The conventional indexing schemes based on a space-filling curve, such as DSI allocates the index IDs to all zones even there is no object, thereby increasing the index size. This gives rise to the following problems:

- AT increases as the amount of data that is delivered during a single broadcast cycle increases.

- TT increases as the amount of data that needs to be read and processed by the client increases.

As shown in Figure 2, the pointer size directly influences the wireless data broadcast 228 cycle. Figure 2(a) shows a single broadcast cycle in cases where overlapping pointers are 229 not used and Figure 2(b) shows a single broadcast cycle in cases where overlapping pointers 230 are used in the distributed index to reduce probe wait time. Let us assume that a logical 231 time unit of both data object and index pointer be 1. Let N be the total number of 232 objects. In distributed index, which uses overlapping pointers, the number of pointers 233 increases by  $log_e N$  as N increases [11]. Let the value of N be 9 and e be 2. Then, each 234 data object contains 4 pointers in distributed index. As a result, the total logical time of 235 a single broadcast cycle for non overlapping pointers is 9, whereas distributed index is 36 236  $(9 \times 4)$ . Figure 2 shows an example which demonstrates the impact of adding the forwarding 237



Figure 2: Access time according to the size of index pointers.

pointer to the existing spatial index on the broadcast cycle. The total logical time can be changed depending on the parameter value of e and N and the applying algorithms.

Second, let us consider the impact of the irregular delivery order of data on AT and TT. 240 Let *index\_data* be the size of an index that represents objects. If the delivery order ignores 241 the location of the object, the query result can only be confirmed after the locations of 242 all objects have been confirmed at the time of spatial query processing. Therefore, if the 243 user data is delivered along with the index data, it becomes  $AT = N \times index_{data}$ , TT =244  $N \times index_{data}$ . On the other hand, about half of the ordinary AT and TT are needed 245 when data are delivered according to a certain predefined rule. Therefore, we get AT =246  $\frac{N \times index\_data}{2}$ , TT =  $\frac{N \times index\_data}{2}$ . 247

248 We then define the problem as follows:

249 Input

- Locations of spatial objects
- Directions of spatial objects
- Velocities of spatial objects
- 253 Output
- Spatial index
- 255 Objective

- Minimize  $index_{data}$ 

<sup>257</sup> - Minimize TT and AT

- Provide client's self-process for spatial query of a mobile object

In this paper, we aim to provide a lightweight spatial index that allows fast and efficient data access and tuning by delivering objects in a certain ordered fashion. In addition, the proposed index exploits the location, direction, and velocity of mobile objects to enable self-spatial query processing at the client.

#### 263 3.2. System Model

<sup>264</sup> Our system model can be summarized as follows:

- Server: The server receives reports regarding position, direction, and speed information from the moving object, and configures the index based on these reports. It then delivers the index, together with the user data, through the wireless data broadcast channel.

- Client: It is the user terminal that requests the service to a server. The client, which receives the user query, takes the following actions: (i) tries to listen to the index through the wireless data broadcast channel in wake-up mode; (ii) reads the index and is set to sleep mode after confirming all the information needed, and at what point it will be delivered; and (iii) wakes up selectively at the time of information delivery, and then tunes, after which it delivers the final result to the user.

Objects: This refers to fixed objects (e.g., department stores, gas stations) or moving
objects (e.g., people, taxis). These objects deliver information regarding their location,
direction, and speed to a server in the jurisdiction area. In this paper, we assume that the
points-of-interest belongs to the same types (e.g., gas stations, restaurants.) of queries.

- Data: Data can be classified into 'index data' and 'user data'. Index data includes 278 the pointer for the object, its position, direction and speed, delivery time, etc. The index 279 data includes the arrival time information of the adjacent index. If we assume that the 280 client wakes up at random times, and if the first data that it listens to is the index data, it 281 confirms the arrival time information of the adjacent index, and then waits again in sleep 282 mode until the adjacent index arrives for power conservation. On the other hand, the user 283 data represents specific information about the object (e.g., photos of goods, prices and 284 maps in a department store). 285

Let N be the total number of objects, d be the user data size, and p be the index pointer size.

- Channels: These are wireless data broadcast channels through which the server delivers
 the information, and the uplink channel through which the object conveys information
 regarding its location, direction, speed, etc. In this paper, we assume that spatial indexes
 and data be transmitted through a single wireless channel.

We assume that a server collects the locations of hotels, gas stations, and certain moving objects and manages them integrally. The client and object can identify their locations through the use of location measurement technologies such as GPS. The data

|                | Table 1: Definition of Notations.                                   |  |
|----------------|---|--|
| Notation       | Description   |  |
| query          | The location where the query is issued                              |  |
| point          |   |  |
| K              | The closest $K$ points to a query point                             |  |
| bcast n        | A broadcast cycle $n$   |  |
| $G_i$          | A grid node $i$ which contains at least one object                  |  |
| O <sub>i</sub> | An object <i>i</i>  |  |
| QKNN           | K-nearest neighbor query  |  |
| t              | The time stamp (time interval)                                      |  |
| N              | The total number of data objects                                    |  |
| e              | the exponential base $(e > 1)$                                      |  |
| w              | The quantity of the objects that is kept in the queue               |  |
| N'             | The tuned total number of data                                      |  |
| f              | The total index tuple size of the next pointers in each index table |  |
| h              | The Hilbert-curve order   |  |
| D              | The size of data  |  |
| $T_{e1}$       | The total size of the exponential pointer during a broadcast cycle  |  |
| R              | The number of objects that are contained in the grid nodes          |  |
| $p^n$          | The child node of the root grid node $\mathbf{R}_n$                 |  |
| $z^n$          | The number of grid nodes that belong to $\mathbf{R}_n$              |  |
| GID            | The grid identifier included in $\mathbf{R}_n$                      |  |
| $z'^n$         | The number of grid-nodes included in the $R_n$                      |  |

that is delivered from the server is delivered at constant cycle intervals according to the rules given, and the client wakes up at random times.

<sup>297</sup> Table 1 summarizes the notations used in this paper.

# <sup>298</sup> 4. Distribution-based Z-order Index

The main performance factors we consider are AT and TT. These two factors are affected directly by the distribution and the number of objects, index size, and the order of delivery. We can summarize the conditions to be considered in this regard as follows.

- The client, without having to listen to the entire index data in order to handle spatial
   queries, can reduce AT.
- Having the client quickly determine the portion of the index information that does not need to be listened to can reduce TT. The client wakes up only when the needed data is delivered by identifying the part that is not a query target, and then tuning to the index data and user data.



Figure 3: DZI index structure: (a) partitioning a region using a grid, (b) fit in one-dimensional environment.

- The reduction in the size of the index, which is composed of information regarding the object location and delivery time, can reduce AT and TT at the same time.

In order to satisfy these conditions, we can simplify the index data and user data to fit them in a one-dimensional environment.

In the proposed Distribution-based Z-order Index (hereafter called DZI), the index 312 structure is determined on the basis of the location and distribution of the objects, and 313 the server periodically rebuilds the index so that it reflects the mobility of the objects. 314 DZI represents the locations of the objects in a grid structure. The order of delivery of an 315 object is determined by the order of the numbers in the grid. The major different between 316 DZI and Hilbert-curve-based index is that the Hilbert-curve-based index must allocate bit-317 codes to represent the whole regions regardless of whether there exists an object, whereas 318 DZI divides space and assigns bit-codes only to those regions where objects exist. Thus, 319 DZI supports to reduce the pointer size and search cost. 320

A grid number is assigned in the order of the character 'Z' of the alphabet by dividing the total area into four divisions. Each number in the grid is used as the identification number that represents the location of the object.

DZI is based on the assumption that objects are delivered in order of 'Z'. However, AT and TT are not influenced even if objects are delivered in other kinds of order-e.g., delivered in order of 'N'.

The basic structure of DZI is similar to a quadtree. However, the quadtree is an appropriate structure for a disk-based index, where the server receives and processes the clients' requests in an on-demand environment. On the other hand, DZI is an appropriate structure for an air-index, where the server transfers the broadcast programming information and the actual broadcast contents in sequence via wireless broadcast channels and the clients use the received index data to selectively tune to the necessary broadcast [35]. That is,



Figure 4: DZI hierarchy and its ID.

<sup>333</sup> DZI provides ID only to objects that are present that enables more powerful accesses with <sup>334</sup> a lightweight spatial index that allows fast and efficient data access and tuning.

We note that it is not necessary to wait until the beginning of the next broadcast 335 cycle even though a client loses some data since grid ID represents its location similar 336 to the point number of HC-based index [13]. In the DZI, the partitioning process varies 337 according to the relative locations and distribution among the objects (see Figure 3(a)). 338 The biggest difference between the existing HC-based index and a grid-based index is 339 that the identification number of the DZI is granted only to objects that are present as 340 targets. The search costs for index, mapping, and conversion can be reduced by reducing 341 the amount of unnecessary ID information. This actually avoids having pointers on empty 342 regions and reduces the index size. Then, the client can confirm an object's location using 343 only its grid identification number, which has a hierarchical structure; in this way, the 344 client is able to perform selective tuning. Another feature of DZI is that the index pruning 345 ability is enhanced by means of a vertical hierarchy at the time of index browsing. The 346 division of the grid repeats the division into four parts, depending upon the distribution or 347 location of an object, and divides the parent nodes (top grid) into child nodes (sub-grid) 348 until it contains only the last single object. In this scheme, the parent node becomes  $G_0$ , 349  $G_1, G_2, G_3$ , after which the four nodes will again have child nodes. For example, let us 350 assume that the  $G_0$  node has objects in all four regions; they will then have child nodes 351 of  $G_{00}$ ,  $G_{01}$ ,  $G_{02}$ ,  $G_{03}$ . Let us assume that the  $G_{00}$  node has all the objects in the four 352 division regions; they will then again have child nodes with identification numbers of  $G_{000}$ , 353  $G_{001}$ ,  $G_{002}$ , and  $G_{003}$ . Consider Figure 4 and the object status on the  $G_0$ ,  $G_1$ ,  $G_2$ ,  $G_3$  grid: 354

- 
$$G_0$$
: only one object is present in all four grids, including  $G_{00}$ ,  $G_{01}$ ,  $G_{02}$ , and  $G_{03}$ .

- $G_{1}$ : none of objects is present.
- $G_2$ : a single object is present.

-  $G_3$ : one of each object is present in three different grids:  $G_{300}$ ,  $G_{303}$ , and  $G_{33}$ .

This object status is expressed in one-dimensional structures shown in Figure 3(b). The 359 structure of the tree is affected by the distribution of the objects. For example, a child 360 node is not blindly divided into four grids. Rather, if the objects are distributed evenly, 361 the tree will have parallel balance, and if the objects are located in a particular area of 362 focus, they will exhibit an imbalanced appearance. Figure 4 shows the DZI hierarchy and 363 ID. As the lower down object goes in the lower levels, the GID (Grid ID) number increases. 364 The client can read the GID number and the number of digits and infer the search area 365 and the range. 366

<sup>367</sup> DZI is composed of root, intermediate and leaf entries. We can now define the parent <sup>368</sup> and leaf of the DZI as follows.

369

**Definition 1.** (DZI Parent) Parent's grid ID represents the location of the grid on a map. The parent node contains a pointer of the child node(s) that represents the delivery time of each child node. The parent node has four child nodes and above two child nodes of the parent node have an object or at least one child node of the parent node has above two objects. That is, the division process only occurs to the grid node which has above two objects.

**Definition 2.** (DZI Leaf) The leaf node contains a pointer of the object (user data) which represents the delivery time of each object.

378

<sup>379</sup> The DZI division satisfies the following property:

380

Property 1. (DZI division) In a given set of data regions, a grid  $G_i$  repeats the hierarchy division process until it contains only one object. A parent grid can have four or none immediate child grids, and a child grid will have one parent grid.

384

The number of objects contained in a grid  $G_i$  in the DZI satisfies the following property: 385

Property 2. (Number of objects inside  $G_i$ ) Let  $num\_obj\_G_i$  be the number of objects inside  $G_i$ , which has child nodes. Let  $num\_obj\_G'_i$  be the number of objects inside  $G_i$ ', which has no child node. Then,  $num\_obj\_G_i \ge 1$  and  $num\_obj\_G_i' \ge 0$ .

The main components of an index segment are: the next broadcast start time; the first delivery data arrival time, according to the level (or grid ID) number; user data arrival time, object's x-y coordinates, and the number of objects within the grid. Figure 5 shows the detailed structure of the index data for one complete broadcast cycle. At the beginning of the index, it contains information that indicates the starting time of each block. We assume that the delivery order of object  $O_i$  is delivered sequentially according to the grid numbers.

| Information indicating          | Next broadcast | Arrival time for the first data | Arrival time  | Grid | Number of objects        | Details of |
|---------------------------------|----------------|---------------------------------|---------------|------|--------------------------|------------|
| the starting time of each block | cycle time     | item of each level (or grid id) | for user data | IDs  | inside grid <sub>i</sub> | object     |

Figure 5: A detailed structure of the index data.

Parameters:

| $G_i$ : A grid node which contains at least one object                 |
|--|
| S: A set of objects  |
| Input: Object location, speed, and direction.                          |
| Output: Requested object   |
| 1: for each <i>bcast</i>   |
| 2: Disseminate the first data transfer time information for each level |
| 3: for each level according to the top-down structure of DZI           |
| 4: for each grid $G_i$ sorted by Z-ordering                            |
| 5: Disseminate $ID$ of $G_i$ and num_obj_ $G_i$ (step 1)               |
| 6: <b>if</b> $G_i$ doesn't have a child node (step 2)                  |
| 7: Put ' mark  |
| 8: for each object $O_i \in S$ by Z-ordering // bottom level of DZI    |
| 9: Disseminate location, moving direction, and velocity of $O_i$       |
| (step 3)   |
|  |

Figure 6: Data Dissemination algorithm for BFD.

#### <sup>398</sup> 5. Data Dissemination and Selective Tuning on Air

The server configures DZI in the form of a snapshot, based on the locations of objects 399 within the service region, which are delivered periodically. The lowest level of the index in 400 the configuration of a hierarchical grid node includes information regarding an object, i.e., 401 its coordinates, speed of movement, and direction. The information regarding an object is 402 updated and delivered in each cycle. In the DZI at the time of spatial query processing, 403 because the objects are delivered from the server after being divided into a particular order 404 sequentially and are hierarchically based on the location, they can selectively tune to only 405 the objects in the region that they want to listen to. Our method supports selective tuning 406 to the index with reference to each object's position, orientation, and maximum speed, not 407 only in the case of a selective index tuning to static objects but also in the case of continuous 408 spatial query processing of moving objects. To support efficient query processing, we divide 409 our delivery method into BFD (breadth-first-delivery) and DFD (depth-first-delivery). 410

#### <sup>411</sup> 5.1. Breadth-First-Delivery

BFD delivers nodes in order from the top level of the index tree to the lower levels. 412 BFD progresses by delivering the first root node of the DZI that appears and thus going 413 deeper and deeper until a leaf node is delivered. The algorithm of BFD is shown in Figure 414 6. Please refer the following steps. The server in each level unit delivers the ID of  $G_i$ 415 and the number of objects inside of  $G_i$  (step 1). If  $G_i$  no longer contains a child node, it 416 inserts an apostrophe (') and informs that the grid is not divided any further (step 2). At 417 the lowest level, the details of an object, i.e., its x - y coordinates, speed, and direction, are 418 delivered (step 3). The information regarding how many child nodes the top node has, and 419 the number of contained objects, can be obtained and considered at the time of KNN query 420



Figure 7: Breadth-First-Delivery: (a) objects and hierarchical grid division. (b) grid tree structure. (c) data listening.

processing. Because BFD has to listen to the data at the lowest level for the last query 421 processing, the efficiency of AT is lower. However, it is possible to listen selectively by 422 pruning the part that may not need to listen to by checking the top node first. Therefore, 423 BFD provides the efficiency of TT; in particular, the object is evenly distributed and the 424 efficiency of the search is excellent. We note that, in BFD, AT might decrease when the 425 object data and the index data are delivered at the same level. However, in this case, 426 additional information regarding the arrival time of object and index data deliveries at 427 each level is required, which can lead to increase both AT and TT. Thus, our indexing 428 scheme assumes that there is a distinction between the object data delivery and the index 429 data delivery in BFD. 430

In Figure 7, let us look at the process of spatial query processing that uses BFD. Let 431 us assume the range query for ease of understanding. In Figure 7(a),  $G_1$  is included in 432 the query range (a possible object for the answer of range query). The grid and the circle 433 indicated in light gray denote the data that the client needs to listen to. After listening to 434 level 0, the client finds that there are two objects in  $G_1$  (see Figures 7(a) and 7(b)). After 435 verifying up to the  $G_{20}$  at level 1, the client can find each of  $G_{11}$  and  $G_{12}$  in  $G_1$  with an 436 object within. The query range is set to include  $G_{11}$  and  $G_{13}$ , and no object is present in 437  $G_{13}$ . The client is switched to sleep mode after listening as far as  $G_{20}$  in level 1, and wakes 438 up at the time of object delivery of level 3. It then obtains the object for  $O_2$ , and returns 439 the final query result. In Figure 7(c), when a logical time unit is denoted by 1, TT is 7, 440 and AT is 11. 441

Table 2 shows the order of delivery according to the level of BFD. The client's KNNalgorithm for BFD (see Figure 8) is as follows (the range query algorithm is omitted because it is similar and simpler to that of KNN). Please refer the following steps.

The client confirms the number of objects that are included in the ID of nodes  $G_i$  and  $G_i$  for each level units (leaf nodes are excluded) (step 1-step 3). If  $G_i$  belongs to the KNN query range (a possible object for the answer of KNN query) when the query point and

| Level No. | data                                 |
|-----------|--------------------------------------|
| 0         | $G_0(1'), G_1(2), G_2(3)$            |
| 1         | $G_{11}(1'), G_{12}(1'), G_{20}(1),$ |
|           | $G_{21}(2)$                          |
| 2         | $G_{212}(1'), G_{213}(1')$           |
| 3         | $O_1, O_2, O_3, O_4, O_5, O_6$       |

Table 2: The order of delivery of the index data and the user data according to level of BFD.

Parameters:  $K{\rm NN}$ :  $K{\rm NN}$  candidate Input: Index Output: Requested object 1: for each bcastfor each level except leaf level (step 1) 2: for each grid  $G_i$  in Z-order (step 2) 3: 4: read  $num_obj_G_i$  (step 3) check whether  $G_i$  is located inside KNN' range or not 5: if  $G_n$  is located inside KNN range 6: 7:  $KNN' \leftarrow KNN' \cup G_n(\text{step 4})$ else  $KNN' = KNN' - G_n \text{ (step 5)}$ 8: 09: for each object  $O_i \in G_n$  from leaf level, where  $G_n \in KNN$  ' 10: check whether  $O_i$  is located inside KNN range or not if  $O_i$  is located inside KNN range 11: 12: $KNN' \leftarrow KNN' \cup O_i$ else  $KNN' = KNN' - O_i$ 13: 14<br/>return KNN objects, where object<br/> $\in\!KNN'$  (step 6)

Figure 8: KNN algorithm for BFD.

| Parameters:   |
|---|
| $G_i$ : A grid node which contains at least one object                |
| S: A  set of objects  |
| Input: Object location, speed, and direction.                         |
| Output: Requested object  |
| 1: for each   |
| 2: Disseminate the first data transfer time information for each grid |
| 3: for each grid <i>ID</i> according to the structure of DZI          |
| 4: <b>for</b> each level according to the top-down structure of DZI   |
| 5: Disseminate $ID$ of $G_i$ , num_obj_ $G_i$ (step 1)                |
| 6: <b>if</b> $G_i$ doesn't have a child node (step 2)                 |
| 7: Put ' mark   |
| 8: <b>for</b> each object $O_i \in S$ by Z-ordering                   |
| 9: Disseminate location, moving direction, and velocity of $O_i$      |
| (step 3)  |
|   |

Figure 9: Data Dissemination algorithm for DFD.

the distance of  $G_i$  are compared, it is included in the KNN candidate set (step 4). If  $G_i$ does not belong to the KNN query range, it is excluded from the KNN candidate set and the next  $G_i$  is checked. The client reads the object on the inside of  $G_i$  that is contained in the KNN candidate set at the level of the last leaf, and returns the final KNN result (step 5). It is important to notice that in the search process,  $G_i$  that belongs to KNN can be changed continuously. In other words, the most distant  $G_i$  that has previously been an element of KNN is excluded from KNN when a new  $G_i$  is included.

#### 455 5.2. Depth-First-Delivery

The following DFD technique delivers information that belongs to the same grid, first. 456 The components of the index and the delivery order consist of the number of each grid 457 and delivery time, number of objects inside a grid, and object information (i.e., location, 458 speed, direction, etc.). The algorithm of DFD (see Figure 9) is as follows. For each grid ID 459 unit, the server delivers the number of objects that are included in the ID and  $G_i$  for node 460  $G_i$ , which contains the objects (step 1). If  $G_i$  no longer contains child nodes, it informs the 461 client that the grid is not being divided any further by inserting an apostrophe (') (step 462 2). DFD delivers details about the object that belongs to the end  $G_i$ , which is not divided 463 further according to Z-ordering, the x-y coordinates of the object, speed and direction, etc. 464 (step 3). Because the division node and object information are immediately delivered by 465 the grid at the time of spatial query processing, query processing can be performed without 466 having to wait unconditionally until the lowest level, as in BFD. Therefore, compared to 467 BFD, AT gets much better. In particular, the performance gets better when the distri-468 bution of objects is clustered in a particular area. Note that we assume that the index 469 information is delivered by a certain t time interval. Therefore, it is possible for the client 470 to predict when the desired index information arrives, because of the nature of the index, 471 which is delivered sequentially according to the order of the location at an interval of t472 hours. 473

Let us consider the range query processing that uses DFD, keeping Figures 10(a) and  $_{475}$  10(b) in mind. In the figure, the query range is shown to be located within  $G_1$ . The grid



Figure 10: Depth-First-Delivery: (a) objects and hierarchical grid division. (b) grid tree structure. (c) data listening.

| Level No. | data                                   |
|-----------|--|
| 0         | $G_0(1'), O_1$                         |
| 1         | $G_1(2), G_{11}(1'), O_2, G_{12}(1'),$ |
|           | $O_3$                                  |
| 2         | $G_2(3), G_{20}(1'), O_4, G_{21}(2),$  |
|           | $G_{212}(1'), O_5, G_{213}(1'), O_6$   |
| 3         | null                                   |

Table 3: The order of delivery of the index data and the user data according to GID.

Parameters: KNN': KNN candidate Input: Index Output: Requested object 1: for each bcast for each grid id (step 1) 2: 3: for each grid  $G_i$  in Z-order (step 2) 4: read  $num\_obj\_G_i$  (step 3) 5: check whether  $G_i$  is located inside KNN range or not 6: if  $G_n$  is located inside KNN range  $KNN' \leftarrow KNN' \cup G_n(\text{step } 4)$ else  $KNN' = KNN' - G_n (\text{step } 5)$ 7: 8: for each object  $O_i \in G_n$ , where  $G_n \in KNN$ 09: check whether  $O_i$  is located inside KNN range or not (step 6) 10: 11: if  $O_i$  is located inside KNN range  $KNN' \leftarrow KNN' \cup O_i$ 12:13:else  $KNN' = KNN' - O_i$ 14return KNN objects, where  $object \in KNN'$  (step 7)

Figure 11: KNN algorithm for client DFD.

and circle in light gray indicate the data that the client needs to listen to. The client 476 checks the first data delivery time information of each grid. Next, the client wakes up at 477 the  $G_1$ -level and listens to the data up to  $G_2(3)$  in level  $G_2$ , then finally checks to confirm 478 that objects  $O_2$  and  $O_3$  are in grid1, and that the object that belongs to the range query is 479  $O_2$ . In 10(c), when one unit of logical time is denoted as 1, TT is 6, which is the wake-up 480 time, and AT is 8, which is the *sleep time* + *wake-up time*. Selective tuning is possible 481 using the grid ID in the case of DFD. In this case, the grid that is the query result target 482 must be tuned to entirely until it finds the desired object. Thus, the amount of information 483 that the client must tune to in its waking state is increased according to the distribution 484 and the number of objects. In this case, more tuning time can be consumed than BFD. 485 Table 3 shows the order of delivery of the index data and the user data according to GID. 486

The client's KNN algorithm for DFD (see Figure 11) is as follows (the range query 487 algorithm is omitted because it is similar to that of KNN). The client checks the ID of 488 node  $G_i$  and the number of objects that are included in  $G_i$  by each grid ID unit (step 1) 489 - step 3). If  $G_i$  belongs to the KNN query range, which is determined by comparing the 490 distance between the query point and  $G_i$ , it is included in the KNN candidate set (step 4). 491 If  $G_i$  is outside the scope of the KNN query range, it is excluded from the KNN candidate 492 set, and then the next  $G_i$  is checked (step 5). The client reads the objects within  $G_i$  that 493 are included in the KNN candidate set, and configures the KNN candidate set by checking 494 if it is included in the KNN query range (step 6). It then returns the final results of KNN495 (step 7). 496

In summary, BFD, which searches through the indexes at all levels, has a longer access 497 time than does DFD, which locates desired data objects via partial index information. 498 However, BFD yields better tuning time because it exploits high-level index information 499 to prune unnecessary search ranges beforehand. By contrast, DFD examines every data 500 object in each partitioned zone via a depth-first search, making its tuning time longer 501 than that of BFD. The server delivers the object location information periodically, using 502 the information regarding the object's location, direction, and speed. The client performs 503 spatial query processing by taking advantage of the object information that was delivered 504 from the server. The client wipes off the objects that are not taken into account by using the 505 information on location, direction, speed, and stores, etc., and manages only those objects 506 that will affect future query results. Therefore, this process can reduce the computation 507 time for updating and can reduce the dependence on the server. If the speed or direction 508 of an object exceeds the predicted scope within the range and time where it is desired to 509 be looked for, the server data of the next cycle must be tuned to. 510

<sup>511</sup> When search ranges for KNN queries are updated by the client, the BFD and DFD <sup>512</sup> algorithms utilize the following two principles. First, when the K in KNN queries is <sup>513</sup> decreased, the existing query processing results are used without the need to listen to the <sup>514</sup> broadcast server. Second, when the K in KNN queries is increased, query processing is <sup>515</sup> repeated by once again listening to the servers broadcast channel.



Figure 12: 3NN objects for a period of time  $T_0$ - $T_3$ .

#### 516 6. Client's Own Calculation for KNN Queries on Moving Objects

In this section, we examine a client's method to self-process a spatial query of a mobile object. For ease of presentation, we describe the query processing method focusing on snapshot KNN queries over static query point and dynamic objects. The client's query processing can be summarized as follows:

The client performs its own future spatial query processing without having to rely on
 a server by receiving the information from the server regarding the object's location,
 speed, and direction of movement.

- <sup>524</sup> The quantity of objects that is kept in the client's queue (w), and the objects that are <sup>525</sup> at a greater distance than the information stored in the queue among the information <sup>526</sup> transmitted from the server, are excluded from the KNN target.
- <sup>527</sup> The point in time at which the time stamp t is changed is the point in time at which <sup>528</sup> the target of KNN or the priority can be changed.

Figure 12 shows an example with K = 3 (3-NN) in the client's KNN query processing. 529 In the figure, let us assume that object A and object D move at 0.5 increments of the 530 maximum travel distance (with maximum speed) for the unit time t, and that object B, 531 object C, and object E move at increments of 1 (with maximum speed). As can be seen 532 in the figure, 3-NN is processed up to  $T_0$ - $T_3$  using the object's information received from 533 the server in the first cycle. In  $T_3$ , new objects D and E have been added, with the object 534 information received from the server in the second cycle, and objects B and A are excluded 535 from the KNN results target. Table 4 shows the 1st NN, 2nd NN, and 3rd NN resulting 536 objects according to  $T_n$ . The table shows that the client performs its own spatial query 537 processing without having to rely on a server for a period of time, by using an index that 538 has been delivered through a wireless data broadcast channel. The client is then passed 539 through a wireless data broadcast channel using an index for a period of time, in order 540 to perform its own query processing of spatial information. Let us assume that objects 541 travel over a period of time in a straight line, like cars on the highway. The client's query 542 processing can then be explained using the example in Figure 13. Observe the range queries 543 and 3-NN processing by dividing the query processing time into logical time units of up to 544  $T_0$ - $T_3$ . Assume that the server's broadcasting of object information of up to 1-4 to bcast1 545

Table 4: 3NN resulting objects according to  $T_n$ 

| Time stamp | 1st NN | 2nd NN | 3rd NN |
|------------|--------|--------|--------|
| $T_0$      | А      | В      | С      |
| $T_1$      | В      | А      | С      |
| $T_2$      | С      | В      | А      |
| $T_3$      | D      | С      | Е      |



Figure 13: 3NN query processing for moving objects.

is the first broadcast cycle, and that it broadcasts the object information of 1-5, including 546 new object 5, to *bcast2*. In Figure 13, the empty box represents the query point in the KNN 547 query; the gray box, the range query; the black circles and arrows (e.g.,  $O_1$ ,  $O_2$ ,  $O_3$ ,  $O_4$ ), 548 the objects that have been confirmed for the location and direction from the server; and 549 the empty circles with arrows (e.g.,  $O_5$ ), objects that have not yet been confirmed by the 550 server. The objects such as cars, trains, bikes, and boats have the maximal travel speed. 551 For example, a moving car may not exceed a speed of 300 km/h. An arrow represents 552 the travel direction of an object, and the length of a line represents the maximum travel 553 speed of an object, which increases by one scale every time  $T_n$  increases. The client can 554 predict the object's location in advance at the time of  $T_n + n$ , with reference to the object's 555 current location, movement speed, and direction of travel, since the logical time  $T_n$ . In 556 Figure 13(d), the parentheses in a range of segments indicate the range query region, and 557 the numbers in parentheses in the query results for 3NN are listed in order of the closest 558 object. We assume that the client's queue can store a maximum of three objects, using w559 = 3.560

Let us consider the snapshot of KNN query processing at the time  $T_0$ - $T_3$ , considering the movement of the object. The KNN algorithm is as follows (the range query algorithm

| Parameters:   |
|---|
| $t_Order$ : A period of time that the result set and its KNN order            |
| does not change.  |
| $t\_Entity$ : A period of time that the result set does not change.           |
| $T_n$ : A logical time unit of client.  |
| Input: index data which includes location, max_velocity, moving direction     |
| Output: Requested object  |
| The value of $n$ of $T_n$ is initially set to 0                               |
| Initially QKNN_result_set= $\{\emptyset\}$                                    |
| 1: for each <i>bcast</i>  |
| 2: read index (step 1)  |
| 3: for each object $O_i \in S$  |
| 4: <b>if</b> $O_i$ is located in a range of QKNN                              |
| 5: $QKNN\_result\_set \leftarrow QKNN\_result\_set \cup O_i \text{ (step 2)}$ |
| 6: Find <i>t_order</i> , <i>t_Entity</i> (step 3)                             |
| 7: for each $T_n$   |
| 8: <b>if</b> $T_n \leq t_order$ (step 4)                                      |
| 9: QKNN_result_set remains the same   |
| 10: else if $t\_order < T_n \le t\_Entity$ (step 5)                           |
| 11: for each object $Oi \in S$  |
| 12: <b>if</b> $O_i$ is located in a range of QKNN                             |
| 13: $QKNN\_result\_set \leftarrow QKNN\_result\_set \cup O_i$                 |
| 14: <b>else</b> tune to the next $bcast$ (step 6)                             |
|   |

Figure 14: KNN algorithm for snapshot query.

is omitted because it is similar to that of KNN).

Let us now explain the KNN algorithm by applying it to the example in Figure 14. The 564 client listens to the index received from the server (step 1). If the location of the object 565 is included in 3NN, it is included in Q3NN\_result\_set (step 2). The client then looks for 566  $t_Order$  and  $t_Entity$  with reference to the object's location, direction of movement, and 567 speed, which have been listened to (step 3). The index that has been delivered by the 568 server in *bcast*1 is then read, and the  $Q3NN\_result\_set = \{O_2, O_1, O_3\}$ , which represents 569 the query results from  $T_0$ - $T_1$ , ensures that it does not change (step 4). Thus, up to  $T_0$ - $T_1$ 570 can obtain the same 3NN query result without listening to the server's index information 571 or confirming the distance between the query point and the object. In addition, the order 572 of the query results in  $T_2$  is changed to  $Q3NN\_result\_set = \{O_1, O_3, O_2\}$ , but we can see 573 that there is no object that can be included in the query result apart from objects  $O_1, O_2$ , 574  $O_3, O_4$ , which have been listened to in *bcast*1 (step 5). 575

The reason for this is that  $O_5$  is not included in the 3NN query results by  $T_2$ , which have 576 not been listened to in bcast1. In Figure 13, we can see that the target of KNN and the 577 order of KNN at up to  $T_0$ - $T_1$  do not change. Thus, the client can return the stored value 578 in the query result queue to the same KNN query result without the need for a separate 579 comparison calculation during the period  $T_0$ - $T_1$ . We can also see that the target has not 580 been changed, even though the order of the objects for the KNN query result have been 581 changed at up to  $T_0$ - $T_2$ . Thus, from  $T_0$ - $T_2$ , the client can obtain KNN query results by 582 comparing the object's location, direction of movement, and speed, which have been stored 583 in the queue, without having to rely on the broadcast data of the server. After  $T_3$ , the 584 client listens to the bcast2 information that is delivered by the server, because a new object 585 (see  $O_5$  in Figure 13(c)) can affect the 3NN query processing results (step 6). It checks 586

the information regarding the new  $O_5$  using bcast2 information. In  $T_3$ , the query result of 587  $Q3NN\_result\_set = \{O_3, O_1, O_5\}$  is obtained by additionally reflecting the information on 588 the location, speed, and direction of  $O_5$  to the range query and 3NN. Let  $t_Order$  be the 589 time range from the present time until the query result target object and the KNN order 590 are not changed  $(T_0-T_1 \text{ of Figure 13})$ , and  $t\_Entity$  be the time range from the present 591 time until the query result target object is changed  $(T_0-T_2 \text{ of Figure 13})$ . Thus, the client 592 maintains information about objects as much as is allowed within the range of the queue, 593 and is able to process spatial queries on its own by using  $t_Entity$  and  $t_Order$ , without 594 having to rely on the broadcast data of the server over a period of time. 595

In order to support client's self-process for spatial query of a mobile object, we propose two heuristics, each defining the unchangeable time period in which the target object of KNN does not change. Let us also assume that (1) objects that are present may disappear and new objects may be added in M, which denotes all service regions, in every *bcast* of the server, and (2) the server delivers the information regarding all present objects in Min each cycle.

602

**Heuristic 1.** (The unchangeable time period in which the target object of KNN does not 603 change). Let us assume that the time point that has received the object via the most recent 604 bcast is Tlatest, and that any future time point is T future. Let A be the set of objects 605 included in KNN at Tlatest (e.g.,  $O_1$ ,  $O_2$ , and  $O_3$  in Figure 13(a)), B be the objects located 606 outside of the scope of KNN as Tlatest (e.g.,  $O_4$  and  $O_5$  in Figure 13(a)), C be the the 607 objects to be included in KNN as Tfuture (e.g.,  $O_1$ ,  $O_3$ , and  $O_5$  in Figure 13(c)), and 608 D be the objects to be located outside of the KNN scope as Tfuture (e.g.,  $O_2$  and  $O_4$  in 609 Figure 13(c)). t\_Entity denotes the time range in which all objects included in A can also 610 be included in C. Thus, A.D or B.C in which B and D are included are excluded from 611 consideration as a t\_Entity target. That is, A.C (e.g.,  $O_1$ ,  $O_2$ ,  $O_3$ , and  $O_5$  in Figure 13) 612  $\ni$  t\_Entity, which can be entirely included in the KNN range at Tlatest and Tfuture. 613 614

If we assume that the time range of  $t\_Entity$  time is 60 minutes according to Heuristic 1 and that the broadcast cycle is 20 minutes, the client can process KNN by itself, without tuning to the data on the server for up to a maximum of three cycles.

Heuristic 2. (The unchangeable time period in which the order of the target object of KNN does not change). Let E be the set of objects that do not change in the order of KNN from t\_Entity to Tfuture. Let F be the set of objects that change in the order of KNN from t\_Entity to Tfuture (e.g.,  $O_1$ ,  $O_2$  and  $O_3$  for a period of time  $T_0$ - $T_1$  in Figure 13). Let F be the set of objects that change in the order of KNN from t\_Entity to Tfuture. T\_Order defines the time range in which all objects that satisfy A.C maintain the same in the order of KNN. That is, it becomes A.C.E  $\ni$  T\_Order. If we assume that the time range of  $t\_Entity$  is 60 minutes for Heuristic 2 and a broadcast cycle of 20 minutes, and for  $T\_Order$  for a cycle of 20 minutes, the client can return the value stored in the query result queue to the KNN query result as it is for 20 minutes, without having to listen to the server's data for a maximum of three cycles.

## 631 7. Performance Evaluation

BBS [29] and DSI [13] are both major indexes, which exploit the wireless data broadcast 632 environment's characteristics for spatial queries. BBS provides excellent AT because it 633 delivers the data sequentially based on the object's location, without separating the index 634 information. On the other hand, DSI is the most widely used index for the selective 635 tuning of clients in a wireless data broadcast environment. Unlike Broadcast Grid Index 636 (BGI) [2] is designed for continuous queries, both DSI and BBS are basically designed 637 for snapshot queries. Moreover, the BGI method is an extended version of the existing 638 DSI method that is suited for continuous spatial queries. Similarly to the previous spatial 639 indexing methods, BGI suffers from the fast-growing index size problem related to the index 640 overlapping pointer. Thus, in this paper, we compare our methods with DSI and BBS. 641 The client's self-processing algorithm is not included in our experimental study. This is 642 because DSI and BBS, the main indexing techniques against which the proposed technique 643 is compared, do not contain the client's self-processing algorithm. Instead of carrying out 644 an experimental study, we defined two heuristic methods (Heuristic 1 and Heuristic 2) 645 regarding the client's self-processing algorithm, and we predicted its performance in the 646 assumed query processing conditions. 647

## 648 7.1. Performance Analysis

In this section, we analyze DZI and DSI. DSI uses distributed exponential pointers from each data item. With the exponential pointer, each data object contains pointers that point the IDs of the data items that will subsequently be broadcast. In section 7.1.1 and section 7.1.2, we assume that the average time taken to find a single object in either KNN queries (i.e., K = 1) or range queries.

### 654 7.1.1. Access Time for DSI and DZI

Let us compare the access times of the DZI and DSI methods. Because DZI and DSI algorithms have a distributed index structure, the probe wait time can be ignored. We now compare the access time of DSI and DZI.

<sup>658</sup> - DSI: let *e* be the exponential base *e*, *N* be the total number of data, and *f* be the <sup>659</sup> total index tuple size of the next pointers in each index table<sup>5</sup>, *h* be the Hilbert-curve <sup>660</sup> order, *D* be the size of data,  $T_{e1}$  be the total size of the exponential pointer during a <sup>661</sup> broadcast cycle, where  $k = log_e N$  and *ID* be the object ID. Then  $T_{e1}$  is obtained by:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Each index table in DSI has the next pointers that increase exponentially within the range of N, the total r amount of data. For example, if N=1024, a single index table has 9 next pointers of 1, 2, 4, 8, and up to 1024.

$$T_{e1} = \sum_{f=0}^{k} N \tag{1}$$

<sup>662</sup> Then, the access time for DSI is

$$AT\_DSI = \frac{T_{e1} + N \times D + N \times h + N \times ID}{2}$$
(2)

Let  $\Re$  be the number of objects that are contained in the grid nodes that belong to the root grid R,  $p^n$  be the child node of the root grid node  $\mathbb{R}_n$ ,  $z^n$  be the number of grid nodes that belong to  $\mathbb{R}_n$ , GID be the grid identifier included in  $\mathbb{R}_n$ , and  $z'^n$  be the number of grid-nodes included in the  $\mathbb{R}_n$  (because the number of leaf nodes in  $\Re$  is 0, it is not necessary to indicate it, and therefore, the lowest grid node is excluded from the number). Then, the access time for DZI is

$$AT_DZI = \frac{\sum_{R^n=0}^{3} \sum_{p^n=0}^{z^n} GID + \sum_{R^n=0}^{3} \sum_{p^n=0}^{z'^n} \Re + D \times N}{2}$$
(3)

669 7.1.2. Tuning Time for DSI and DZI

Energy consumption of the indexing techniques can be indirectly compared by mea-670 suring how long the client has to stay in active mode to acquire the desired data objects. 671 Measuring the actual energy consumption requires consideration of various factors, such 672 as the size of a single data item and the channel bandwidth. This paper simply uses the 673 client's tuning time as a measure of energy consumption. We now compare the tuning 674 time for DSI and DZI to prove the energy efficiency of our proposed algorithms during 675 spatial query processing. While DSI uses the exponential pointer, which has a redundant 676 structure, our algorithm using DZI allows selective tuning with the ID and the number of 677 objects without the exponential pointer. 678

Let N' be the tuned total number of data and  $T_{e2}$  be the number of indexes from f'to k', where  $k' = log_e N'$  which the client wakes up and listens to until the desired data are obtained. We obtain:

$$T_{e2} = \sum_{f'=0}^{k'} N'$$
 (4)

 $_{682}$  Then, the tuning time (TT) for DSI:

$$TT_{-}DSI = h + T_{e2} + D \tag{5}$$

Let  $L^n$  be the number of grid nodes in  $\mathbb{R}_n$  up to the grid level n, until the query processing is completed and  $L^{n'}$  be the number of grid nodes excluding the leaf grid node in the  $R_n$  up to the grid level n, until the query processing is completed. Let  $L^m$  be the beginning grid node for tuning, and  $L^{m'}$  be the beginning grid node for tuning excluding the leaf grid node.

<sup>688</sup> Now, we have:

$$TT_{-}DZI = \sum_{R^{n}=L^{m}}^{L^{n}} \sum_{p^{n}=L^{m}}^{L^{n}} GID + \sum_{R^{n}=L^{m'}}^{L^{n'}} \sum_{p^{n}=L^{m'}}^{L^{n'}} \Re + D$$
(6)

### 689 7.2. Performance Experiments

Let us now evaluate the efficiency of our algorithms through experimentation. We implemented all methods in C++ and conducted experiments on a machine with a Pentium 3.16 GHz CPU and 3 GByte of RAM. We assume that the client's mobility pattern follows the Random Waypoint Mobility Model [28], which is widely used.

In our experiments, each object begins by pausing for a fixed number of seconds. Then, 694 object selects a random destination in the simulation area and a random speed between 695 0 and the maximum speed. The object moves to this destination and again pauses for a 696 fixed period before another random location and speed. This behaviour is repeated for the 697 length of the simulation. We now describe the ratio of energy consumption for these states. 698 A mobile client begins by staying in one location for a certain period of time t. We assume 699 two energy states: sleep and active mode. In a processor, the doze mode has extremely low 700 power consumption. We assume that the wireless data broadcast channel has a bandwidth 701 of 2 Mbps as the same applied in [2, 29]. We use a uniform dataset (hereafter called 702  $\mathcal{D}1$ ) with 50,000 points and a real dataset (hereafter called  $\mathcal{D}2$ ) containing 39,231 data 703 objects of MBRs for Montgomery County roads<sup>6</sup> (see Figures 15(a) and 15(b)). We assign 704 8 bytes for each pointer and 8 bytes for 2D coordinates. The default parameter setting 705 in our synthetic data set test is: number of objects = 10,000, size of data = 256 bytes, 706 exponential value e = 2, moving distance = 100m, the value of K for KNN search is 3, 707 and a search range for range query is  $300m \times 300m$ . Assuming that the data objects are 708 distributed on a  $10 \text{km} \times 10 \text{ km}$  area. 709

The total exploration time from when the client reads an index at a certain time point after receiving a user's request to obtain the desired final result is assumed as AT. The total amount of time to be awake in order to obtain the desired final result is assumed as TT.

First, we make a comparison between AT for BFD and DFD, according to the increase in the size of the user data for KNN query. As can be seen in Figure 16, DFD has excellent AT compared to BFD. The user data in BFD is delivered in batches after the index data delivery. Thus, all the index information must be tuned to in order to listen to the user data that will be delivered to the next order. Because the index search method also uses BFD, all index information from the top of the tree must be tuned to first, in order to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>The dataset available at http://chorochronos.datastories.org/?q=node/17



Figure 15: Datasets for Performance Evaluation. (a) UNIFORM dataset ( $\mathcal{D}1$ ). (b) REAL dataset ( $\mathcal{D}2$ ).



Figure 16: AT for the BFD and the DFD, according to the increase in the size of the user data.

access the sub-index information. The user data is applied to the same process. For this reason, the time consumed in order to obtain the desired information increases according to the increase in the index pointer and data sizes. On the other hand, DFD can obtain the final query result even in the status that involves only listening to the index from the upper part of the tree and the user data. The reason for this is that the index data and the user data are delivered one after another in DFD.

Figure 17(a) shows the results of the measurement of AT according to the increase in *KNN*. As the *KNN* value increases, BFD and DFD must navigate the index data and user data in a broader range. Thus, the search range and AT increase. In particular, we can see that BFD, which can confirm the final query result only after listening to all the index information, shows poor AT results as compared to those of DFD when the *K* value range increases.

Figure 17(b) shows the evaluation of AT in response to an increase in the navigation area of the range query. Similar to the case of KNN, in BFD, AT increases sharply, because it must wait until all the index data has been transmitted in order to obtain the user data, and the number of user data required to be confirmed increases as the search region increases. On the other hand, DFD shows far superior AT than BFD, because it is possible to do the query processing via depth-first search, without waiting for the lowest level for no reason.



Figure 17: (a) AT according to the increase in KNN. (b) AT in response to an increase in the navigation area of the range query.



Figure 18: TT results for the case in which three index techniques are applied to the range query. (a) applying in  $\mathcal{D}1$  (b) applying in  $\mathcal{D}2$ .

In the experiment, the energy efficiency was evaluated by comparing the time during 739 which clients stay in active mode. The proposed method enables clients to choose the DFD 740 algorithm to increase search speed or the BFD algorithm to improve energy efficiency. 741 In this experiment, the performance of the proposed method using BFD was compared 742 with that of the MLAIN method. The MLAIN method adopts the depth-first traversal 743 strategy to process a query. In MLAIN, clients stay in active mode while listening to each 744 and every sub-node of a target node Gi. This increases the active mode time and thus 745 decreases the energy efficiency. On the other hand, BFD can enhance energy efficiency via 746 selective listening the nodes that are not necessary for acquiring query results are pruned 747 in advance, at a higher level. Figure 18(a) and 18(b) show the energy efficiency of the 748 proposed and MLAIN methods with regard to data size changes. As can be seen in the 749 figures, the proposed method with BFD has a shorter active mode time than MLAIN, 750 gaining higher energy efficiency. Figure 19(a) and 19(b) present the energy efficiency with 751 search range changes in kNN and range queries. Here, the proposed method also achieves 752 better energy efficiency than MLAIN. 753



Figure 19: TT results for the case in which three index techniques are applied to the range query. (a) applying in D1 (b) applying in D2.



Figure 20: TT for DFD, DSI, and BBS to KNN queries. (a) applying in  $\mathcal{D}1$  (b) applying in  $\mathcal{D}2$ .



Figure 21: TT results for the case in which three index techniques are applied to the range query. (a) applying in  $\mathcal{D}1$  (b) applying in  $\mathcal{D}2$ .

We compare DFD and DSI according to the increase in data size, and evaluate the 754 performance of TT and AT with regard to the BBS techniques. BFD, which displayed 755 relatively poor AT in the previous experiment is excluded from this evaluation. First, TT 756 in  $\mathcal{D}1$  is compared by applying three index techniques to KNN queries. As can be seen in 757 Figure 20(a), DFD shows quite excellent TT. The reason is that in DSI, a client repeatedly 758 wakes up and falls asleep in the course of the search process on a large number of duplicate 759 pointers, while, in DFD, a client can wait in sleep mode for a longer time because it is 760 possible to listen selectively, using only the identification number of the grid. On the other 761 hand, we find that BBS displays the relatively worst TT, because even though the index 762 size is the smallest because it does not have a pointer that indicates the data location, it 763 does not have a pointer that supports selective tuning, so the time spent in active mode 764 is longer. Figure 20(b) shows the TT results for the three indexes were applied to a KNN765 query in  $\mathcal{D}_2$ . We find that DFD shows the relatively best TT for the same reason as in  $\mathcal{D}_1$ . 766 On the other hand, we can also see that BBS, which must remain awake for the longest 767 time, displays the poorest TT. 768

Figures 21(a) and 21(b) show the TT results for the case in which three index techniques are applied to the range query in  $\mathcal{D}1$  and  $\mathcal{D}2$ . We find that DFD, also for similar reasons as in the previous experiments, displays quite excellent TT in the range query.

Next, we compare AT by applying three indexes to a KNN query in  $\mathcal{D}1$  and  $\mathcal{D}2$ . As 772 can be seen in Figures 22(a) and 22(b), unlike in the previous experimental results, DSI 773 displays the poorest AT, and BBS displays relatively good AT. DSI performs the worst 774 during the time it takes to obtain the final query, due to the burdens of the pointer size and 775 the search cost of a Hilbert-curve. On the other hand, DFD shows excellent AT because its 776 pointer size is relatively small, and it can quickly determine the region not to be listened 777 to, due to the hierarchical tree structure that considers the location. BBS also displays 778 good results compared to the previous TT test, because the burden of the index pointer is 779 on the low end, and it can obtain the final query result without having to listen to all the 780 data. BBS that minimizes the size of the index information reduces the broadcast cycle, 781 which allows for a faster access time in spatial query processing. However, BBS doesn't 782



Figure 22: AT by applying three indexes to a KNN query. (a) applying in  $\mathcal{D}1$  (b) applying in  $\mathcal{D}2$ .



Figure 23: AT for three index techniques applying to a range query. (a) applying in  $\mathcal{D}1$  (b) applying in  $\mathcal{D}2$ .

perform well because of the limitation of selective tuning ability. In general, the client's
 access time decreases and tuning time increases as the index information decreases.

Figures 23(a) and 23(b) show the results of a comparison between AT in  $\mathcal{D}1$  and  $\mathcal{D}2$ , in which three index techniques are applied to a range query. In this case as well, DSI displays the poorest AT, due to the burden of pointer size and the inefficiency of the search method, because the increase in data size increases the number of data that must be listened to.

Next, we perform a test comparing TT according to an increase in KNN (see Figures 789 24(a) and 24(b)). As can be seen in Figures 24(a) and 24(b), DFD shows excellent results, 790 because an increase in the KNN value incurs an increased cost for searching the index 791 data and user data. Figures 25(a) and 25(b) both show the results in  $\mathcal{D}1$  and  $\mathcal{D}2$  for a 792 comparison of AT, in which the value of KNN is increased from 1 to 5. As shown in the 793 previous experiment's results, BBS minimizes the index size and improves the access time. 794 DFD shows excellent results, because an increase in the KNN value incurs an increased 795 cost for searching the index data and user data. Also, there is the least amount of data to 796 be listened to in the active mode, because of the relatively low burden on the index pointer, 797 and the least burden of the mapping calculation of the user data from the index. In BBS, 798 the distribution of objects in a dataset has a direct influence on the data delivery order 799



Figure 24: A comparison according to an increase in KNN. (a) applying in  $\mathcal{D}1$  (b) applying in  $\mathcal{D}2$ .



Figure 25: A comparison of AT, in which the value of KNN is increased from 1 to 5. (a) applying in  $\mathcal{D}1$  (b) applying in  $\mathcal{D}2$ .



Figure 26: A comparison for TT in which the search range is increased from 1 km to 5 km. (a) applying in  $\mathcal{D}1$  (b) applying in  $\mathcal{D}2$ .



Figure 27: A comparison according to increases in the search range in the range queries. (a) applying in  $\mathcal{D}1$  (b) applying in  $\mathcal{D}2$ .

and search efficiency the objects at the leftmost are delivered first, followed by delivering those at the right-hand side. In the experiment results shown in Figure 25(a), BBS has faster access time than DFD. On the other hand, DFD has a slightly better access time than BBS in Figure 25(b) because of the difference in object distributions.

Figures 26(a) and 26(b) both show the results of a comparison for TT in  $\mathcal{D}1$  and  $\mathcal{D}2$ in which the search range is increased from 1 km to 5 km. We can see that DFD shows that, as the search range increases, the highest level of performance is also in TT, for the same reason as in the previous test.

Next, we perform a test comparing AT according to increases in the search range in the range queries. Figures 27(a) and 27(b) both show the results of a comparison of AT in  $\mathcal{D}1$ and  $\mathcal{D}2$ , in which the search range is increased from 1 km to 5 km. The results show that DSI had the worst result when the search range is increased, for reasons similar to those in the KNN query processing.

We now compare AT in  $\mathcal{D}1$  in terms of an increase in the size of objects. An increase in the number of objects leads to an increase in the size of the pointer, which represents the



Figure 28: A comparison and measurement of TT in terms of KNN query. Both (a) and (b) applying in  $\mathcal{D}1$ .



Figure 29: A comparison and measurement of AT in terms of KNN query. Both (a) and (b) applying in  $\mathcal{D}1$ .

object location and delivery time. In the case of DSI, even though a pointer that increases by index e (exponential) is used, the amount of information to be listened to becomes quite large, because the duplicate pointer increases as much as  $\log_e N$  in each index frame every time the number N of data increases. On the other hand, the listening data and computation time in DZI become relatively small compared to those in DSI, due to the reduction in the cost of duplicate indexing pointers.

Figures 28(a) and 28(b) both show the results for TT as the number of objects increases from 2,000 to 10,000. As can be seen in the test results, DSI displays the worst TT than DFD in the majority of cases, due to the burden of having to read more pointers with the increase in the search range, as well as the problem of having to listen to unnecessary blocks due to the nature of the Hilbert-curve.

Figures 29(a) and 29(b) show the results of a comparison and measurement of AT in  $\mathcal{D}1$  and  $\mathcal{D}2$  in terms of KNN query, when the number of data is increased from 2,000 to 10,000. In this case, we can see that DSI shows the worst AT, because it receives a duplicate pointer and forms an inefficient search structure as the number of data increases. On the other hand, we find that DFD, which uses DZI, displays excellent AT, as a result of the lightweight index and fast search results. As can be seen in all the experimental results, AT and TT, which are the main elements of performance evaluation, are both affected greatly by the index structure and search method. We find that the search method that uses DZI with DFD shows the best AT and TT in KNN and a range query.

## 836 8. Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed a distribution-based Z-order air index and query processing 837 algorithms, such as BFD (Breadth-First-Delivery), and DFD (Depth-First-Delivery) that 838 reduce AT and TT in a wireless data broadcast environment. In DZI, we are able to reduce 839 the pointer size and search cost, which account for the largest cost in the index structure, 840 by assigning an identification number only to the space of those objects that are actually 841 present. A lightweight index structure reduces the broadcast cycle and index search time, 842 and a hierarchical index structure reduces energy consumption via the client's selective 843 tuning. BFD can improve the efficiency of TT through selective tuning by previewing and 844 pruning the part not to be listened to from the upper node by delivering the DZI tree 845 information from the upper levels to the lower levels. DFD delivers the DZI in depth-first 846 order. 847

We can improve the performance of AT by determining the final query result by listening to the partial data information, without having to listen to the end node of the tree via the consecutive delivery of index data and user data that belong to the same grid.

Next, we proposed an algorithm that allows the client to self-process a spatial query of a mobile object using the object's location, speed, and direction information without reliance on the server for a period of time. It has proved that DZI with BFD and DFD provides fast response time and minimal energy consumption. In the future, we plan to study the multi-channel broadcast for location-based services.

#### 856

## <sup>857</sup> References

- [1] Bugra G., Aameek S., and Ling L., "Energy efficient exact kNN search in wireless broadcast environments", In *Proc. of ACM GIS*, pp. 137-146, 2004.
- [2] Kyriakos M., Spiridon B., and Dimitris P., "Continuous Monitoring of Spatial Queries
  in Wireless Broadcast Environments", In *IEEE Trans. Mob. Comput.*, 8(10), pp. 1297-1311, 2009.
- [3] J. Xu, B. Zheng, W.-C. Lee, and D. L. Lee, "Energy Efficient Index for Querying
   Location-Dependent Data in Mobile Broadcast Environments", In *Proc. of the 19th IEEE Int. Conf. on Data Engineering (ICDE '03)*, pp. 239-250, 2003.
- [4] Datta, A., Celik, A., Kim, J.K., VanderMeer, D., and Kumar, V., "Adaptive broadcast
   protocols to support power conservation retrieval by mobile users", In *Proc. of IEEE International Conference Data Engineering (ICDE)*, pp. 124-133, 1997.

- <sup>869</sup> [5] Datta, A., VanderMeer, D.E., Celik, A., and Kumar, V., "Broadcast protocols to
   <sup>870</sup> support efficient retrieval from databases by mobile users", ACM Trans. Database
   <sup>871</sup> Syst., 24(1), pp. 1-79, 1999.
- [6] Imielinski, T., Viswanathan, S., and Badrinath, B.R., "Energy efficiency indexing on air", In *Proc. of the ACM SIGMOD International Conference on Management of Data*, pp. 25-36, 1994.
- [7] Imielinski, T., Viswanathan, S., and Badrinath, B.R., "Data on air-organization and access", *IEEE Trans. Knowl. Data Eng.*, 9(3), pp. 353-372, 1997.
- [8] Shanmugasundaram, J., Nithrakashyap, A., Sivasankaran, R.M., and Ramamritham,
   K. "Efficient concurrency control for broadcast environments", In *Proc. of ACM SIG- MOD International Conference on Management of Data*, pp. 85-96, 1999.
- [9] Zheng, B. and Lee, D.L., "Information dissemination via wireless broadcast", Commun. ACM, 48(5), pp. 105-110, 2005.
- [10] Park, K. and Choo, H., "Energy-efficient data dissemination schemes for nearest neighbor query processing", *IEEE Trans. Comput.*, 56(6), pp. 754-768, 2007.
- [11] Park, K. and Valduriez, P., "Energy Efficient Data Access in Mobile P2P Networks", *IEEE Trans. Knowl. Data Eng.*, 23(11), pp. 1619-1634, 2011.
- [12] Kyriakos Mouratidis and Man Lung Yiu, "Shortest Path Computation with No Information Leakage", *PVLDB*, 5(8), pp. 692-703, 2012.
- <sup>888</sup> [13] Baihua Z., Wang L., Ken L., Dik L., and Min S., "A distributed spatial index for <sup>889</sup> error-prone wireless data broadcast", *VLDB J.*, 18(4), pp. 959-986, 2009.
- [14] Swarup Acharya, Rafael Alonso, Michael J. Franklin, and Stanley B. Zdonik, "Broadcast Disks: Data Management for Asymmetric Communications Environments", In *Proc. of SIGMOD Conference*, pp. 199-210, 1995.
- <sup>893</sup> [15] B. Zheng, W.-C. Lee, and D. L. Lee. "Spatial queries in wireless broadcast systems",
   Wireless Networks, 10(6), pp. 723-736, 2004.
- <sup>895</sup> [16] C. Gotsman and M. Lindenbaum, "On the metric properties of discrete space-filling <sup>896</sup> curves", *IEEE Transactions on Image Processing*, 5(5), pp. 794-797, 1996.
- [17] W.-C. Lee and B. Zheng, "DSI: A Fully Distributed Spatial Index for Location-Based
   Wireless Broadcast Services", In Proc. of Int'l Conf. Distributed Computing Systems (ICDCS), pp. 349-358, 2005.
- [18] Guttman, A., "R-trees: a dynamic index structure for spatial searching", In Proc. of
   Special Interest Group on Management of Data (SIGMOD), pp. 47-57, 1984.

- [19] Xuan, P., Sen, S., Gonzalez, O., Fernandez, J., and Ramamritham, K., "Broadcast on demand: efficient and timely dissemination of data in mobile environments", In *Proc.*of *IEEE Real Time Technology and Applications Symposium*, pp. 38-48, 1997.
- <sup>905</sup> [20] Chuan-Ming Liu and Kun-Feng Lin, "Disseminating dependent data in wireless broad-<sup>906</sup> cast environments", *Distributed and Parallel Databases*, 22(1), pp. 1-25, 2007.
- P.Nicopolitidis, G.I.Papadimitriou and A.S.Pomportsis, "Exploiting Locality of De mand to Improve the Performance of Wireless Data Broadcasting", *IEEE Transactions on Vehicular Technology*, vol.55, no.4, pp.1347-1361, 2006.
- [22] Zaixin Lu, Yan Shi, Weili Wu, and Bin Fu, "Efficient data retrieval scheduling for
   multi-channel wireless data broadcast", In *Proc. of INFOCOM*, pp. 891-899, 2012.
- [23] S.E. Hambrusch, C.-M. Liu, W.G. Aref, and S. Prabhakar, "Query Processing in Broadcasted Spatial Index Trees", In *Proc. of Int'l Symp. Advances in Spatial and Temporal Databases (SSTD)*, pp. 502-521, 2001.
- [24] Glenn S. Iwerks, Hanan Samet, and Kenneth P. Smith, "Continuous K-Nearest Neighbor Queries for Continuously Moving Points with Updates", In *Proc. of VLDB*, pp. 512-523, 2003.
- [25] G. Ghinita, P. Kalnis and S. Skiadopoulos, "PRIVE: Anonymous Location- Based
  Queries in Distributed Mobile Systems", In *Proc. of International World Wide Web Conference (WWW)*, pp. 371-380, 2007.
- [26] M. F. Mokbel, C.-Y. Chow, and W. G. Aref, "The New Casper: A Privacy-Aware
  Location-Based Database Server", In *Proc. of International Conference on Data Engineering Conference (ICDE)*, pp. 1499-1500, 2007.
- [27] B. Gedik and L. Liu, "A Customizable k-Anonymity Model for Protecting Location
   Privacy", In Proc. of International Conference on Distributed Computing Systems
   (ICDCS), pp. 620-629, 2005.
- [28] T. Camp, J. Boleng, and V. Davies, "A Survey of Mobility Models for Ad Hoc Network Research", Wireless Comm. and Mobile Computing, vol. 2, no. 5, pp. 483-502, 2002.
- [29] Park K., Song M., and Hwang C., "Broadcasting and Prefetching Schemes for Location Dependent Information Services", In Proc. of Int'l Workshop Web and Wireless
   Geographical Information Systems (W2GIS), pp. 26-37, 2004.
- [30] Kyriakos M., "Spatial queries in wireless broadcast environments", In Proc. ACM International Workshop on Data Engineering for Wireless and Mobile Access (MobiDE),
   pp. 39-44, 2012.

- [31] Y. Xiong, Y. Deng, W. Wang, and J. Ma, "Phoenix: A Collaborative Location-Based
  Notification System for Mobile Networks", Mathematical Problems in Engineering,
  Article ID 307498, pp. 12, 2014.
- [32] Y. Wang, C. Xu, Y. Gu, M. Chen, and G. Yu, "Spatial query processing in road networks for wireless data broadcast", Wireless Networks (WINET), 19(4), pp. 477-494, 2013.
- [33] Y. Li, J. Li, L. Shu, Q. Li, G. Li, and F. Yang, "Searching continuous nearest neighbors in road networks on the air", Information Systems (IS), 42, pp. 177-194, 2014.
- [34] W. Sun, C. Chen, B. Zheng, C. Chen, and P. Liu, "An Air Index for Spatial Query
  Processing in Road Networks", IEEE Trans. Knowl. Data Eng (TKDE), 27(2), pp.
  382-395, 2015.
- [35] K. Park and P. Valduriez, "A Hierarchical Grid Index (HGI), spatial queries in wireless
  data broadcasting", Distributed and Parallel Databases (DAPD), 31(3), pp. 413-446,
  2013.
- [36] P. Nagarkar, K. S. Candan, and A. Bhat, "Compressed Spatial Hierarchical Bitmap (cSHB) Indexes for Efficiently Processing Spatial Range Query Workloads", In Proceedings of the VLDB Endowment (PVLDB), 8(12), pp. 1382-1393, 2015.
- <sup>952</sup> [37] Y. Li, L. Shu, R. Zhu, and L. Li, "A novel distributed air index for efficient spatial
  <sup>953</sup> query processing in road sensor networks on the air", Int. J. Communication Systems
  <sup>954</sup> 30(5), pp. 1-23, 2017.
- [38] J. Shen and M. Jian, "Spatial query processing for skewed access patterns in nonuniform wireless data broadcast environments", International Journal of Ad Hoc and Ubiquitous Computing, 25(1/2), pp. 4-16, 2017.
- [39] D. Song and K. Park, "A partial index for distributed broadcasting in wireless mobile
   networks", Inf. Sci. 348, pp. 142-152, 2016.
- [40] Y. Li, G. Li, J. Li, and K. Yao, "SKQAI: A novel air index for spatial keyword query processing in road networks. Inf. Sci, 430, pp. 17-38, 2018.
- [41] M. Veeresha and M. Sugumaran, "Continuous k-Nearest Neighbor Queries in Road
  Networks", In Proc. of International Conference on Inventive Systems and Control,
  pp. 1-4, 2017.
- [42] S. Im, and J. Choi, "MLAIN: multi-leveled air indexing scheme in non-flat wireless
  data broadcast for efficient window query processing", Computers and Mathematics
  with Applications, 64(5), pp. 1242-1251, 2012.