

# Nearest Close Friend Query in Road-Social Networks

Zijun Chen\*, Ruoyu Jiang, and Wenyuan Liu

<sup>1</sup> School of Information Science and Engineering, Yanshan University,  
Qinhuangdao 066004, China

<sup>2</sup> The Key Laboratory for Computer Virtual Technology and  
System Integration of Hebei Province,  
Qinhuangdao 066004, China  
zjchen@ysu.edu.cn  
jiangruoyu@stumail.ysu.edu.cn  
wylu@ysu.edu.cn

**Abstract.** Nearest close friend query ( $k\ell$ NCF) in geo-social networks, aims to find the  $k$  nearest user objects from among the  $\ell$ -hop friends of the query user. Existing efforts on  $k\ell$ -NCF find the user objects in the Euclidean space. In this paper, we study the problem of nearest close friend query in road-social networks. We propose two methods. One is based on Dijkstra algorithm, and the other is based on IS-Label. For the Dijkstra-based method, Dijkstra algorithm is used to traverse the user objects needed. For the label-based method, we make use of IS-Label to calculate the distance between two vertices to avoid traversing the edges that do not contain the desired user object. For each method, we propose effective termination condition to terminate the query process early. Finally, we conduct a variety of experiments on real and synthetic datasets to verify the efficiency of the proposed methods.

**Keywords:** road-social networks, R-tree, IS-Label index, nearest neighbor query.

## 1. Introduction

With the development of location-aware smart devices, location-based applications have received extensive attention. Smart devices can allow users to obtain their own location information in location-based social networks, such as Foursquare, Facebook, Twitter, and Weibo.

The  $k$ -Nearest  $\ell$ -Close Friends ( $k\ell$ -NCF) query [22] retrieves the  $k$  nearest data objects to a query point  $p_q$  from among the  $\ell$ -hop friends of a query user  $u$ . The  $k\ell$ -NCF query is proposed in the Euclidean space. In real life, from the location of these returned data objects to the query point is limited by the road network. So, in this paper, we would propose the  $k$ -nearest neighbor  $\ell$ -close friend query in road-social networks, which can also be applied in scenarios proposed in [22], such as making new friends, spatial crowdsourcing, blind dates, ridesharing, etc. We give one of the application scenarios in the following example.

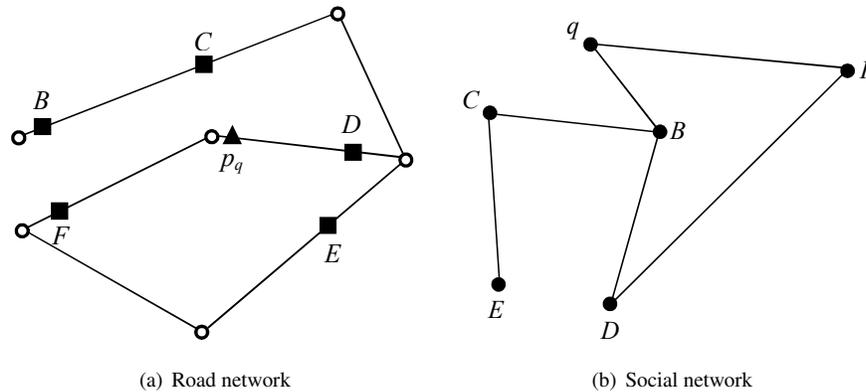
*Example 1.* Spatial crowdsourcing. Spatial crowdsourcing is a platform, in which human workers can be assigned tasks related to a location. A requester  $q$  may issue a request to collect pictures in a specific location  $p_q$ . The worker who is assigned the task should be

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\* Corresponding author

close to  $p_q$ . To win the requester's trust, the worker should have acceptable social links to the requester. The 1-hop friends of the requester may be far away from  $p_q$ , or they could not accept the task. In this case, the requester may need to search the  $\ell$ -hop friends of  $q$ .

In the road network shown in Fig. 1(a), there are four human workers  $B$ ,  $C$ ,  $D$  and  $E$ , who could accept the task. According to the social network shown in Fig. 1(b),  $q$  has two 1-hop friends  $B$  and  $F$ , and has 2-hop friends  $B$ ,  $F$ ,  $C$  and  $D$ . If only search 1-hop friends of  $q$ ,  $F$  is the nearest neighbor of  $p_q$ . But  $F$  could not accept the task for some reason.  $B$  is far away from  $p_q$ . If search 2-hop friends of  $q$ ,  $D$  is the nearest neighbor of  $q$ . In the Euclidean space,  $C$  is the nearest neighbor of  $p_q$ . But in the road network,  $C$  is farther away from  $p_q$  than  $D$ .



**Fig. 1.** Example of application scenario

Since the computation cost of the road network distance is much higher than that in Euclidean space, the methods proposed in [22] cannot be used to solve the problem of  $k\ell$ -NCF in road-social networks directly.

For the  $k\ell$ -NCF query in road-social networks, we will propose two methods. One is based on Dijkstra algorithm, and the other is based on IS-Label. For the Dijkstra-based method, Dijkstra algorithm [4] is used to traverse the user objects needed. The other is based on IS-Label, first use the R-Tree index to store the edges containing the user objects needed, then use the Best-First algorithm to search the edges. IS-Label is used to calculate the shortest distance between two vertices.

Our major contributions are summarized as follows.

- (1) We define the problem of  $k\ell$ -NCF query in road-social networks.
- (2) We will propose two methods to tackle  $RSk\ell$ -NCF query. One is based on Dijkstra algorithm, the other is based on IS-Label.
- (3) We conduct extensive experiments on different datasets to verify the efficiency of two algorithms.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the related work and Section 3 formalizes the problem. Section 4 presents the method based on Dijkstra

algorithm. Section 5 presents the method based on IS-Label. Section 6 presents the experimental results and analysis. Finally, we conclude this paper in Section 7.

## 2. Related work

### 2.1. $k$ NN query on road network

Roussopoulos et al. [21] designed a branch-and-bound R-tree [9] traversal algorithm to find the nearest neighbor object to the query point, and then generalize it to finding the  $k$  nearest neighbors ( $k$ NN). For  $k$ NN query on road networks, there are many studies. Hu et al. [12] simplified the network by replacing the graph topology with a set of interconnected tree-based structures called SPIE's, and proposed a lightweight  $nd$  index for the SPIE. Lee et al. [16] designed a new system framework ROAD for the spatial object search on road networks. Jiang et al. [14] studied the top- $k$  nearest keyword search problem in a massive graph and proposed algorithms that return the exact answers. Inspired by R-tree, Zhong et al. [29] proposed a height-balanced and scalable index, namely G-tree, to efficiently support three types of location-based queries on road networks. Zhao et al. [28] studied the problem of group nearest compact POI set (GNCS) query and showed that this problem is NP-hard. Ouyang et al. [20] studied the problem of top- $k$  nearest neighbors search on road networks. They proposed an efficient and progressive query processing algorithm to output each result in well-bounded delay. He et al. [10] proposed a framework on correctness-aware  $k$ NN queries, which aims at optimizing the system throughput while guaranteeing query correctness on moving objects. Dong et al. [5] presented a direction-aware KNN (DAKNN) query covering moving objects on road networks. Kim et al. [15] proposed the moving view field nearest neighbor (MVFNN) query, which continuously retrieves the nearest object in the query's view field with the change of query location.

### 2.2. Geo-Social query

Geo-social queries consider the location and social relationship. Liu et al. [18] proposed a new type of query called Circle of Friend Query (CoFQ), which returns a group of friends in a Geo-Social network whose members are close to each other both socially and geographically. Emrich et al. [6] studied the problem of geo-social skyline queries. The returned users are closely connected to the query user, and close to the query location. Ahuja et al. [1] proposed geo-social keyword (GSK) search, and presented three specific GSK queries. Jiang et al. [13] proposed the top- $k$  local user search (TkLUS) query in geo-tagged social media. Sohail et al. [24] proposed Top- $k$  Famous Places ( $T_k$ FP) query and Socio-Spatial Skyline Query (SSSQ). For the queries, they proposed three approaches, called Social-First, Spatial-First and Hybrid. There are also researches on group queries. Zhu et al. [30] proposed a family of geo-social group queries (GSGQs) with minimum acquaintance constraints, and devised two index structures, namely SaR-tree and SaR\*-tree. Sohail et al. [25] proposed the Geo-Social Group preference Top- $k$  (SG-Top $_k$ ) query, which retrieves nearby places popular among a particular group of users based on spatial and social relevance. Ma et al. [19] proposed the personalized geo-social group (PGSG) query, which aims to retrieve a user group and a venue, where each user in the group is socially connected with at least  $c$  other users in the group and the maximum distance of

all the users in the group to the venue is minimized. Ghosh et al.[8] proposed a novel Top  $k$  Flexible Socio Spatial Group Query (Top  $k$ -FSSGQ) to find the top  $k$  groups of various sizes w.r.t. multiple POIs. Shim et al. [23] proposed the  $\ell$ -cohesive  $m$ -ridesharing group ( $\ell m$ CRG) query, which retrieves a cohesive ridesharing group by considering spatial, social, and temporal information.

### 2.3. Road-Social networks query

Road-Social networks query has drawn lots of attention in recent years. Zhao et al. [26] proposed the Reverse Top- $k$  Geo-Social Keyword (RkGSK) query on road networks, and designed the GIM-tree index for the query. Attique et al.[2] proposed geo-social top- $k$  keyword (GSTK) query and geo-social skyline keyword (GSSK) query on road networks. They proposed appropriate indexing frameworks and algorithms to efficiently process these queries. Zhao et al.[27] proposed the diversified top- $k$  geo-social keyword (DkGSK) query on road networks, which considers not only the relevance but also the diversity of the result. Li et al.[17] studied the skyline cohesive group query problem in road-social networks.

In this paper,  $k$ -nearest neighbors  $\ell$ -close friends ( $k\ell$ -NCF) query in road-social networks is closely related to the research of [22]. Shim et al.[22] studied the  $k\ell$ -NCF query and proposed three approaches for the query: Neighboring Cell Search, Friend-Cell Search, and Personal-Cell Search. The methods proposed in [22] cannot be directly applied to road networks. Therefore, we would study the problem of  $k\ell$ -NCF query on road networks.

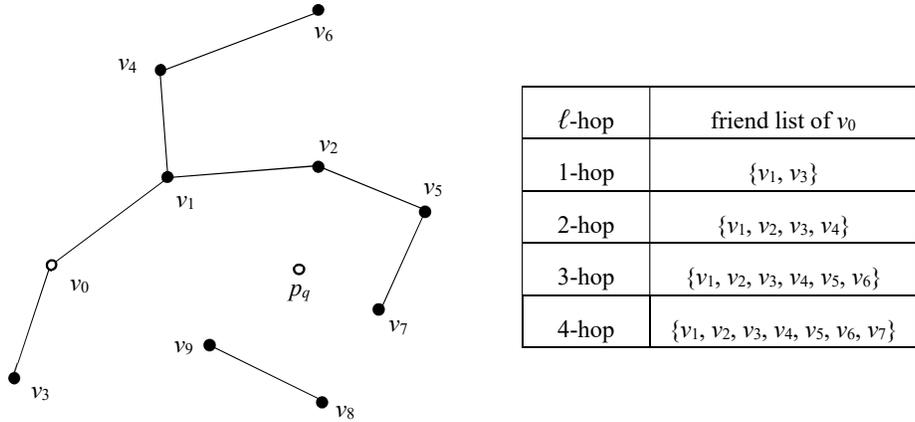
## 3. Problem definition

The road-social network is composed of a pair of networks, a road network  $G_r$  and a social network  $G_s$ , denoted as  $G = (G_r, G_s)$ . The road network is modeled as an undirected weighted graph  $G_r = (V_r, E_r, W)$ , where  $V_r$  is the vertex set,  $E_r$  is the edge set, and  $W$  is a function, such that  $w(n_i, n_j)$  is the weight of edge  $(n_i, n_j) \in E_r$ . For  $(n_i, n_j) \in E_r$ , if the id of  $n_i$  is less than that of  $n_j$ , we call  $n_i$  and  $n_j$  the starting vertex and the ending vertex of  $(n_i, n_j)$  respectively, and vice versa. The social network is modeled as an undirected graph  $G_s = (V_s, E_s)$ , where  $V_s$  is the vertex set (representing users), and  $E_s$  is the edge set (representing social relations). The user objects in social network are mapped to the nearest intersection or edge on the road network based on their location. We use  $rdist(a, b)$  to represent the shortest path length between  $a$  and  $b$  on the road network, where  $a$  or  $b$  could be a query point, vertex or user object.

**Definition 1.** ( $\ell$ -hop friend list [22])  $V_v^\ell \subseteq V_s$  denotes the  $\ell$ -hop friend list of  $v$  such that:

$$V_v^\ell = \begin{cases} \{v' | \exists e(v, v') \in E_s\} & (\ell = 1) \\ V_v^{\ell-1} \cup \{v' | \exists e(v', v'') \in E_s \wedge v'' \in V_v^{\ell-1}\} \setminus \{v\} & (\ell > 1) \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

*Example 2.* Fig. 2 describes the social network containing the user vertex  $v_0$ . The 1-hop friend list of  $v_0$  is  $v_1, v_3$ . The 2-hop friend list of  $v_0$  consists of  $v_2, v_4$ , and the friends of  $v_0$ , because  $v_2$  and  $v_4$  are the friends of  $v_1$ . In the same way, we can get the 3-hop and 4-hop friends list of  $v_0$ , which are shown in Fig. 2.



**Fig. 2.** Social network and  $\ell$ -hop friend lists of  $v_0$

The  $k\ell$ -NCF query is defined in [22]. Based on this, we would give the definition of  $k\ell$ -NCF query on road networks as follows:

**Definition 2.** ( *$k\ell$ -NCF on road networks*) Given a road-social network  $G = (G_r, G_s)$ , a query point  $p_q$ , a query user  $u$ , the number of result elements  $k$ , and a friendship degree  $\ell$ , the  $k$ -nearest  $\ell$ -close friends ( $k\ell$ -NCF) query  $q = (p_q, u, k, \ell)$  on road networks finds a result list  $R = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k)$ , such that  $(1 \leq i < k)$ :

$$R \subseteq V_v^\ell \wedge rdist(p_q, v_i) \leq rdist(p_q, v_{i+1}) \wedge v' \in V_v^\ell \setminus R \wedge rdist(p_q, v_k) \leq rdist(p_q, v') \tag{2}$$

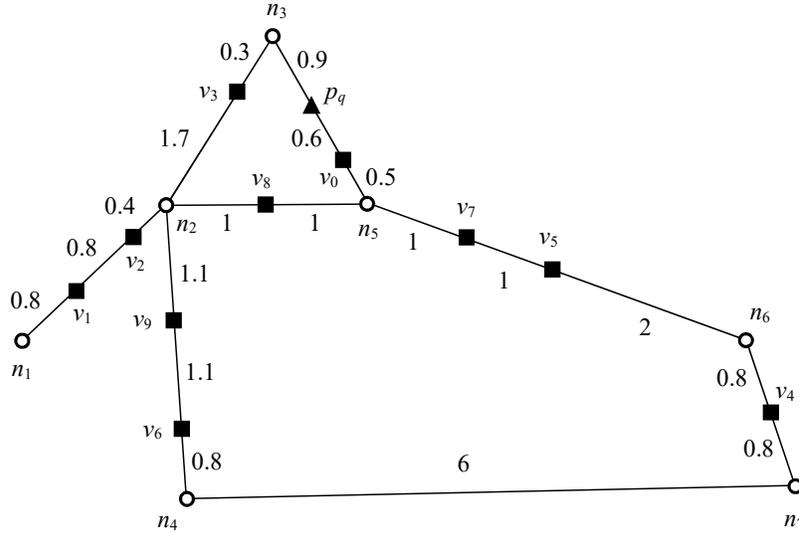
where, friendship degree represents the minimum number of edges (hops) between two data objects in the graph [22].

*Example 3.* After mapping, we get the road network shown in Fig. 3, where  $v_0, \dots, v_9$  are the user objects shown in Fig. 2. Given a  $k\ell$ -NCF query  $q = (p_q, u = v_0, k = 2, \ell = 3)$  on road networks, the result list is  $(v_3, v_5)$ . Although  $v_7$  is closer to  $p_q$  than  $v_5$ ,  $v_7$  is not in the 3-hop friend list of  $v_0$ , so  $v_7$  is not in the result list.

### 4. Method based on Dijkstra algorithm

In this section, we will propose a method based on Dijkstra algorithm. Before the  $k\ell$ -NCF query on road networks is issued, we can prepare some information to speed up query processing. We create adjacency lists for the social network and the road network respectively. For all the user objects in the social network, we create a hash table  $UEHm$  with the structure  $(v, (e, len))$ , where  $e$  is the edge on which  $v$  locates, and  $len$  is the road network distance between  $v$  and the starting vertex of  $e$ .

In the following, we would introduce some data structures for the method.



**Fig. 3.** Road network

*closed*: *closed* is a hash table to store the vertices which are closed. We call a vertex closed if it has been extracted from the min heap.

*clounvis*: *clounvis* is a hash table to store the vertices that are closed but not visited. We call a vertex visited if the user objects on all of its adjacent edges have been visited.

*hE*: *hE* is a hash table with the structure  $(e, UList)$ , where *UList* is a list to store the user object, such that the user object locates on the edge *e* and belongs to  $V_u^\ell$  (*u* represents the query user).

The overall procedure of D-RSCNF is summarized as follows:

- (1) Create the  $\ell$ -hop friend list  $V_u^\ell$  of a query user *u*.
- (2) Create the hash table *hE*.
- (3) Dijkstra algorithm is used to expand from  $p_q$ .

Algorithm 1 describes the query process based on Dijkstra algorithm. Lines 1-2 are initialization. *R* is a max-heap with a maximum size of *k*, which is used to store the results. *H* is a min heap, in which the key is the road network distance from a vertex (or an object) to  $p_q$ . For *edgecount*, it is used to record the number of edges visited in *hE*. In lines 4-5, *hE* is created by using the user object  $v \in V_u^\ell$  and the edge where the object locates.

In line 26, for the user object *v* on the edge  $(n_i, n_j)$ , we could calculate  $rdist(p_q, v)$  with Formula (3). As shown in Fig. 4, *v* represents the required user object, *svid* is the starting vertex, and *tvid* is the ending vertex. The shortest path length from  $p_q$  to *v* in Algorithm 1 is defined as:

$$rdist(p_q, v) = \min\{rdist(p_q, svid) + d(svid, v), rdist(p_q, tvid) + d(tvid, v)\} \quad (3)$$

**Algorithm 1: D-RSNCF Query**


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**Input:**  $RSk\ell$ -NCF query  $q = (p_q, u, k, \ell)$ , the road-social network  $G = (G_r, G_s)$ ,  $UEHm$

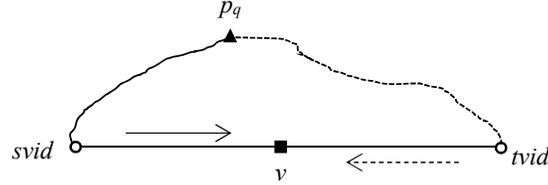
**Output:** Result list  $R$

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1  $R \leftarrow \emptyset, H \leftarrow \emptyset, edgcount \leftarrow 0, count \leftarrow 0;$ 
2  $hE \leftarrow \emptyset, closed \leftarrow \emptyset, clounvis \leftarrow 0;$ 
3 compute  $V_u^\ell$  with the adjacency list of the social network  $G_s$ ;
4 for each user object  $v \in V_u^\ell$  do
5    $\lfloor$  find the edge  $e$  on which  $v$  locates using  $UEHm$  and update  $hE$ ;
6 get the edge  $(sqid, tqid)$  on which  $p_q$  locates;
7 insert  $(rdist(sqid, p_q), sqid)$  and  $(rdist(tqid, p_q), tqid)$  into  $H$ ;
8 while  $H \neq \emptyset$  do
9    $(rdist(n_i, p_q), n_i) \leftarrow H.delMin();$ 
10   $closed[n_i] \leftarrow n_i;$ 
11   $clounvis[n_i] \leftarrow rdist(n_i, p_q);$ 
12   $flag \leftarrow 0;$ 
13  for each adjacent vertex  $n_j$  of  $n_i$  do
14    if  $n_j$  is not in  $closed$  then
15       $flag \leftarrow 1;$ 
16      if  $n_j$  does not exist in  $H$  then
17         $\lfloor H.add(rdist(n_j, p_q), n_j);$ 
18      else
19         $\lfloor$  update  $(rdist(n_j, p_q), n_j)$  in  $H$ ;
20    else
21      if all the adjacent vertices of  $n_j$  are in  $closed$  then
22         $\lfloor$  remove  $n_j$  from  $clounvis$  table;
23      if edge  $(n_i, n_j)$  is in  $hE$  then
24         $edgcount ++;$ 
25        for each user object  $v$  in  $hE[(n_i, n_j)]$  do
26           $\lfloor R.add(rdist(p_q, v), v);$ 
27           $count ++;$ 
28        if  $hE.size() \leq edgcount$  then
29           $\lfloor R$  is sorted in ascending order by the value of  $rdist()$ ;
30           $\lfloor$  return  $R$ ;
31        if  $count \geq k$  then
32           $\lfloor$  if  $R.getRoot().rdist \leq \min_{rdist}(clounvis)$  then
33             $\lfloor R$  is sorted in ascending order by the value of  $rdist()$ ;
34             $\lfloor$  return  $R$ ;
35  if  $flag = 0$  then
36     $\lfloor$  remove  $n_i$  from  $clounvis$  table;
37  $R$  is sorted in ascending order by the value of  $rdist()$ ;
38 return  $R$ ;
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where  $d(svid, v)$  represents the length from  $svid$  to  $v$  on the edge  $(svid, tvid)$ , and  $d(tvid, v)$  represents the length from  $tvid$  to  $v$  on the edge  $(svid, tvid)$ .



**Fig. 4.** Paths to be chosen for method based on Dijkstra algorithm

In lines 8-36, Dijkstra algorithm is used to expand. For an object  $v$  on the edge  $(svid, tvid)$ , in order to calculate  $rdist(p_q, v)$ , both  $svid$  and  $tvid$  need to be closed before calculation. If a vertex is closed, it needs to enter *closed* table and *clounvis* table (lines 10-11). If all adjacent vertices of a vertex have been closed, the vertex can be removed from *clounvis* table. In line 12, we use the value of *flag* as 0 to indicate that all adjacent vertices of  $n_i$  have been closed. If one of adjacent vertices of  $n_i$  is not closed, *flag* is set to 1 in line 15. In line 19, the update is to find the shortest path length from  $p_q$  to  $n_j$  and store it in  $H$ .

For a vertex in *clounvis* table, in order to remove it from *clounvis* table, there are two cases: (1) it is closed after all its adjacent vertices; (2) it is not closed after all its adjacent vertices. For case (1), in lines 35-36,  $n_i$  is removed from *clounvis* table, where  $n_i$  is closed after all its adjacent vertices. For case (2), in lines 21-22,  $n_j$  is removed from *clounvis* table, where  $n_j$  is closed before its adjacent vertex  $n_i$ .

In the following theorem, we would prove the correctness of the termination condition in lines 31-32 of Algorithm 1. In the condition, *count* is the size of  $R$ ,  $R.getRoot().rdist$  is the maximum distance in  $R$  and  $min_{rdist}(clounvis)$  is the minimum distance in *clounvis*.

**Theorem 1.** *If  $count \geq k$  and  $R.getRoot().rdist \leq min_{rdist}(clounvis)$ , then Algorithm 1 could sort and return  $R$  to terminate the query correctly.*

*Proof.* From Algorithm 1, we can see that *clounvis* is used to store the vertices that are closed but not visited. In order to terminate the query, we should focus on the unvisited user objects. For any unvisited user object  $v$  locating on edge  $(a, b)$ , there are two cases: (1)  $a$  or  $b$  is closed; (2) Neither  $a$  nor  $b$  is closed.

For case (1), without loss of generality, let  $a$  be in *clounvis*. Since  $b$  is not closed,  $rdist(p_q, b) \geq rdist(p_q, a)$ . Then, we have  $rdist(p_q, v) \geq rdist(p_q, a) \geq min_{rdist}(clounvis)$ . Therefore, if  $count \geq k$  and  $R.getRoot().rdist \leq min_{rdist}(clounvis)$ , we have  $rdist(p_q, v) \geq R.getRoot().rdist$ , which indicates that  $v$  cannot or need not replace the user object in  $R$ .

For case (2), we have  $rdist(p_q, v) \geq \min(rdist(p_q, a), rdist(p_q, b)) \geq max_{rdist}(clounvis) \geq min_{rdist}(clounvis)$ , where  $max_{rdist}(clounvis)$  is the maximum distance in *clounvis*. Therefore, if  $count \geq k$  and  $R.getRoot().rdist \leq min_{rdist}(clounvis)$ , we have  $rdist(p_q, v) \geq R.getRoot().rdist$ . ■

*Example 4.* For Fig. 3, given a query  $q = (p_q, u = v_0, k = 2, \ell = 2)$ , we illustrate the query process of Algorithm 1. According to the social network in Fig. 2, the 2-hop friend list of  $v_0$  is  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$ . Then the hash table  $hE$  is created. Based on  $UEHm$ , we get the edges on which the 2-hop friend list of  $v_0$  locate. The edges are  $(n_1, n_2), (n_2, n_3), (n_6, n_7)$ , which are stored in  $hE$ . And get the edge  $(n_3, n_5)$  where  $p_q$  locates, so  $(0.9, n_3)$  and  $(1.1, n_5)$  are put into the min-heap  $H$ .

(1) The first removed from  $H$  is  $(0.9, n_3)$ , and  $n_3$  is put into *closed* and *clounvis*. Then we find the adjacent vertices of  $n_3$ , and  $(2.9, n_2)$  is put into  $H$ . Note that  $(2.9, n_5)$  would not replace  $(1.1, n_5)$  in  $H$ .

(2) The second removed from  $H$  is  $(1.1, n_5)$ . Similarly,  $n_5$  is put into *closed* and *clounvis*. Then we find the adjacent vertices of  $n_5$  and  $(5.1, n_6)$  is put into  $H$ . At the moment,  $n_3$  and  $n_5$  are in *closed*, and the edge  $(n_3, n_5)$  is not in  $hE$ , so we can conclude that there is no 2-hop friend of  $v_0$  on this edge.

(3) The third removed from  $H$  is  $(2.9, n_2)$ , and  $n_2$  is stored in *closed* and *clounvis*. We find the adjacent vertices of  $n_2$ , then  $(4.9, n_1)$  and  $(5.9, n_4)$  are put into  $H$ . For the adjacent vertices of  $n_2, n_3$  and  $n_5$  are in *closed*. For the adjacent vertices of  $n_3, n_2$  and  $n_5$  are in *closed*, so  $n_3$  will be removed from *clounvis*. Since the edge  $(n_2, n_3)$  is in  $hE$ , we find the user object  $v_3$  on  $(n_2, n_3)$ , and calculate  $\min_{rdist}(p_q, v_3)$  according to Formula (3). So  $(1.2, v_3)$  is added to  $R$ .

(4) The fourth removed from  $H$  is  $(4.9, n_1)$ , and  $n_1$  is put into *closed* and *clounvis*. Since the adjacent vertex  $n_2$  of  $n_1$  is in *closed*, we find the user objects  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  on the edge  $(n_1, n_2)$ . Calculate  $\min_{rdist}(p_q, v_1)$  and  $\min_{rdist}(p_q, v_2)$  according to Formula (3). So  $(3.3, v_2)$  is stored in  $R$ . Because  $n_1$  has only one adjacent vertex  $n_2$ , and  $n_2$  is in *closed*, we can remove  $n_1$  from *clounvis*.

(5) The fifth removed from  $H$  is  $(5.1, n_6)$ , and  $n_6$  is put into *closed* and *clounvis*. For the adjacent vertex  $n_7$  of  $n_6$ ,  $(6.7, n_7)$  is put into  $H$ . Since the adjacent vertex  $n_5$  of  $n_6$  is in *closed*, and the edge  $(n_5, n_6)$  is not in  $hE$ , no user object is found. Because all the adjacent vertices of  $n_5$  are in *closed*, we can remove  $n_5$  from *clounvis*.

(6) The sixth removed from  $H$  is  $(5.9, n_4)$ , and  $n_4$  is put into *closed* and *clounvis*. Since the adjacent vertex  $n_2$  of  $n_4$  is in *closed*, and the edge  $(n_2, n_4)$  is not in  $hE$ , no user object is found. Because all the adjacent vertices of  $n_2$  are in *closed*, we can remove  $n_2$  from *clounvis*. Now, we have  $count \geq 2$  and  $R.getRoot().rdist \leq \min(clounvis)$ , where  $R.getRoot().rdist = \min_{rdist}(p_q, v_2) = 3.3$  and  $\min(clounvis) = 5.1$ , so we can terminate the query. The process of this example is shown in Table 1.

**Table 1.** The process of Example 4

| Order | $H.delMin()$ | <i>closed</i>                      | <i>clounvis</i>              | $R$                          |
|-------|--------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1     | $(0.9, n_3)$ | $\{n_3\}$                          | $\{(n_3, 0.9)\}$             | $\emptyset$                  |
| 2     | $(1.1, n_5)$ | $\{n_3, n_5\}$                     | $\{(n_3, 0.9), (n_5, 1.1)\}$ | $\emptyset$                  |
| 3     | $(2.9, n_2)$ | $\{n_3, n_5, n_2\}$                | $\{(n_5, 1.1), (n_2, 2.9)\}$ | $\{(1.2, v_3)\}$             |
| 4     | $(4.9, n_1)$ | $\{n_3, n_5, n_2, n_1\}$           | $\{(n_5, 1.1), (n_2, 2.9)\}$ | $\{(1.2, v_3), (3.3, v_2)\}$ |
| 5     | $(5.1, n_6)$ | $\{n_3, n_5, n_2, n_1, n_6\}$      | $\{(n_2, 2.9), (n_6, 5.1)\}$ | $\{(1.2, v_3), (3.3, v_2)\}$ |
| 6     | $(5.9, n_4)$ | $\{n_3, n_5, n_2, n_1, n_6, n_4\}$ | $\{(n_6, 5.1), (n_4, 5.9)\}$ | $\{(1.2, v_3), (3.3, v_2)\}$ |

**Time complexity of Algorithm 1:** First, create the  $\ell$ -hop friend list  $V_u^\ell$  for user  $u$ , which is equivalent to a breadth-first search process. So, it takes at most  $O(|V_s| + |E_s|)$  to find  $V_u^\ell$ . Next, it takes at most  $O(|V_s|)$  to create  $hE$ . Then, it takes at most  $O(|E_r|)$  to find the edge on which  $p_q$  locates. The top- $k$  nearest user objects are found with the help of Dijkstra algorithm, so, the time cost is  $O((|V_r| + |E_r|) \cdot \log|V_r| + |V_s| \cdot t_o)$ , where  $t_o$  is the time used to compute the shortest distance between  $p_q$  and the user object according to Formula (3). To sum up, the time complexity of Algorithm 1 is  $O(|V_s| + |E_s| + (|V_r| + |E_r|) \cdot \log|V_r|)$ .

## 5. Method based on IS-Label

Because the method based on Dijkstra algorithm traverses the road network from near to far, it is not very advantageous that the user object found by query is far from the query point. Based on this situation, we propose a label-based method. IS-label index [7] is one of the label indexes, and it is also applicable to large graphs. So, we use IS-label index to calculate the minimum distance between  $p_q$  and the vertex.

---

### Algorithm 2: L-RSNCF Query

---

**Input:** RSkI-NCF query  $q = (p_q, u, k, \ell)$ , the road-social network  $G = (G_r, G_s)$ ,  $UEHm$ , IS-Label Index of  $G_r$

**Output:** Result list  $R$

- 1  $R \leftarrow \emptyset, hE \leftarrow \emptyset, count \leftarrow 0;$
- 2  $Queue \leftarrow \text{NewPriorityQueue}();$
- 3 compute  $V_u^\ell$  with the adjacency list of the social network  $G_s;$
- 4 **for** each user object  $v \in V_u^\ell$  **do**
- 5      $\lfloor$  find the edge  $e$  on which  $v$  locates using  $UEHm$  and update  $hE;$
- 6 create the R-Tree  $index$  for all edges in  $hE;$
- 7 get the edge  $(sqid, tqid)$  where  $p_q$  locates;
- 8  $Queue.Enqueue(index.Root, MinDist(p_q, index.Root));$
- 9 **while** not  $Queue.isEmpty()$  **do**
- 10      $temp \leftarrow Queue.Dequeue();$
- 11     **if**  $temp$  is an object **then**
- 12         **for** each user object  $v$  on the edge  $temp$  **do**
- 13              $R.add(rdist(p_q, v), v);$
- 14              $count ++;$
- 15             **if**  $count \geq k$  **then**
- 16                 **if**  $R.getRoot().rdist \leq Queue.getRoot().edist$  **then**
- 17                      $\lfloor$  break;
- 18     **else**
- 19         **for** each child  $c$  of  $temp$  **do**
- 20              $\lfloor$   $Queue.Enqueue(c, MinDist(p_q, c));$
- 21  $R$  is sorted in ascending order by the value of  $rdist();$
- 22 return  $R;$

---

Algorithm 2 describes the query process based on IS-Label index, which adopts the best-first traversal [11]. In line 1,  $R$  is the same as that in Algorithm 1. In line 2,  $Queue$  is a min heap, in which the key is the minimum Euclidean distance from a node or an object to  $p_q$  (Definition 3). Lines 3-5 is the same as lines 3-5 in Algorithm 1. Line 6 is to create the R-Tree  $index$  with the edges in  $hE$ . In lines 8-20, best-first traversal is used to search user objects with the R-Tree  $index$ . In lines 11-17, if the element removed from the priority queue  $Queue$  is an edge, we access the user objects on this edge, and calculate the minimum distance between  $p_q$  and user objects using the IS-Label index. In lines 15-17, we could jump out of the while loop early, which is proved in Theorem 2. In lines 19-20, we process each child  $c$  of  $temp$ .

We should note that for each edge  $(a, b)$  on the road network, we create an object with Minimum Bounding Rectangle (MBR) containing  $a$  and  $b$  for the R-Tree  $index$ .

**Definition 3.** (*MinDist Distance [21]*) In Euclidean space of dimension  $n$ , the minimum distance between a point  $q$  and MBR  $N(s, u)$  is denoted by  $MinDist(q, N(s, u))$ , which is defined as follows:

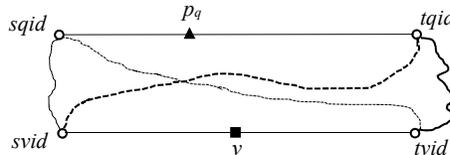
$$MinDist(q, N) = \sum_{i=1}^n |q_i - r_i|^2, r_i = \begin{cases} s_i, & q_i < s_i \\ u_i, & q_i > u_i \\ q_i, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

As shown in Fig. 5,  $sqid$  and  $tqid$  are the starting vertex and ending vertex of the edge on which  $p_q$  locates respectively. For the user object  $v$ ,  $svid$  and  $tvid$  are the starting vertex and ending vertex of the edge on which  $v$  locates respectively. The shortest path length from  $p_q$  to  $v$  in Algorithm 2 is defined as:

$$rdist(p_q, v) = \min\{rdist1(p_q, v), rdist2(p_q, v), rdist3(p_q, v), rdist4(p_q, v)\} \quad (5)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} rdist1(p_q, v) &= d(p_q, sqid) + rdist(sqid, svid) + d(svid, v) \\ rdist2(p_q, v) &= d(p_q, tqid) + rdist(tqid, tvid) + d(tvid, v) \\ rdist3(p_q, v) &= d(p_q, sqid) + rdist(sqid, tvid) + d(tvid, v) \\ rdist4(p_q, v) &= d(p_q, tqid) + rdist(tqid, svid) + d(svid, v) \end{aligned}$$



**Fig. 5.** Paths to be chosen for method based on IS-Label

In the following theorem, we would prove the correctness of the termination condition in lines 15-16 of Algorithm 2. In the condition,  $count$  is the size of  $R$ ,  $R.getRoot().rdist$

is the maximum distance in  $R$  and  $Queue.getRoot().edist$  is the minimum Euclidean distance in  $Queue$ .

**Theorem 2.** *If  $count \geq k$  and  $R.getRoot().rdist \leq Queue.getRoot().edist$ , then Algorithm 2 could sort and return  $R$  to terminate the query correctly.*

*Proof.*  $R$  is a max-heap with a maximum size of  $k$ , so  $R.getRoot().rdist$  is the maximum distance in  $R$ .  $Queue$  is a min heap,  $Queue.getRoot().edist$  is the minimum Euclidean distance in  $Queue$ . In order to terminate the query, we should focus on the unvisited user objects. For any unvisited user object  $v$  locating on the edge  $(a, b)$ , we have  $rdist(p_q, v) \geq \min(rdist(p_q, a), rdist(p_q, b)) \geq Queue.getRoot().edist$ . Therefore, if  $count \geq k$  and  $R.getRoot().rdist \leq Queue.getRoot().edist$ , we have  $rdist(p_q, v) \geq R.getRoot().rdist$ , which shows that  $v$  cannot or need not replace the user object in  $R$ . ■

*Example 5.* For Fig. 3, given a query  $q = (p_q, u = v_0, k = 2, \ell = 2)$ , we illustrate the query process of Algorithm 2. The 2-hop friend list of  $v_0$  and  $hE$  are the same as those in Example 4. Next, we create an R-Tree index for all edges in  $hE$ . The MBR of the edge in  $hE$  is shown in Fig. 6 using dashed rectangle.

(1) The first object to be removed from  $Queue$  is  $(n_2, n_3)$ , and we find the user object  $v_3$  on the edge  $(n_2, n_3)$ . Then we calculate  $rdist(p_q, v_3)$ . There are four paths from  $p_q$  to  $v_3$ , which are  $p_q \rightarrow n_3 \rightarrow n_2 \rightarrow v_3$ ,  $p_q \rightarrow n_5 \rightarrow n_3 \rightarrow v_3$ ,  $p_q \rightarrow n_3 \rightarrow n_3 \rightarrow v_3$ ,  $p_q \rightarrow n_5 \rightarrow n_2 \rightarrow v_3$ .  $rdist(n_2, n_3)$ ,  $rdist(n_2, n_5)$ ,  $rdist(n_3, n_5)$  can be calculated using the IS-Label index. According to Formula (5), we get  $rdist1(p_q, v_3) = 4.6$ ,  $rdist2(p_q, v_3) = 3.4$ ,  $rdist3(p_q, v_3) = 1.2$ ,  $rdist4(p_q, v_3) = 4.8$ . So we get  $rdist(p_q, v_3) = rdist3(p_q, v_3) = 1.2$ . Now we have  $R = \{(1.2, v_3)\}$ .

(2) The second object to be removed from  $Queue$  is  $(n_1, n_2)$ , and we find  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  on the edge  $(n_2, n_3)$ . Using the IS-Label index, we get  $rdist(p_q, v_1) = 4.1$  and  $rdist(p_q, v_2) = 3.3$ . Now we have  $R = \{(1.2, v_3), (3.3, v_2)\}$ .

(3) When  $(n_6, n_7)$  is the root of  $Queue$ , we have  $count \geq 2$  and  $R.getRoot().rdist \leq Queue.getRoot().edist$ . Then we can jump out of the loop early, although  $v_4$  on the edge  $(n_6, n_7)$  has not been processed.

**Time complexity of Algorithm 2:** In Algorithm 2, we use the traversal of R-Tree to replace the traversal of the road network using Dijkstra algorithm. According to [11], it takes at most  $O(|E_r| \cdot \log|E_r|)$  to traverse R-Tree. The time of other parts are similar to that of Algorithm 1, so the time complexity of Algorithm 2 is  $O(|V_s| + |E_s| + |E_r| \cdot \log|E_r|)$ .

## 6. Experiments

### 6.1. Datasets and setting

This experiment uses two social network datasets and three road network datasets for testing. The social network datasets are Brightkite(BR) and Gowalla(GA) [3]. They come from <http://snap.stanford.edu/data/>. There are three road network datasets: (1)BAY; (2)San Francisco (SF); (3)City of San Joaquin County (TG). BAY comes from <http://users.diag.uniroma1.it/challenge9/download.shtml>. SF and TG come from <http://www.cs.utah.edu/~>

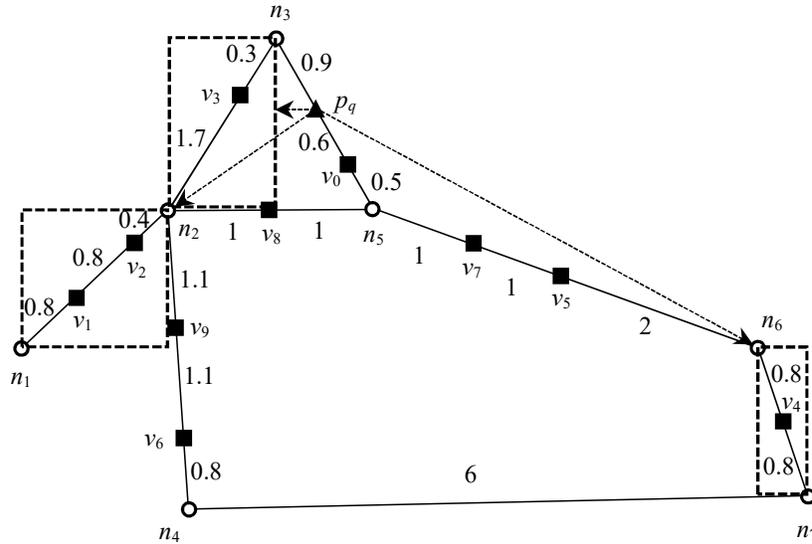
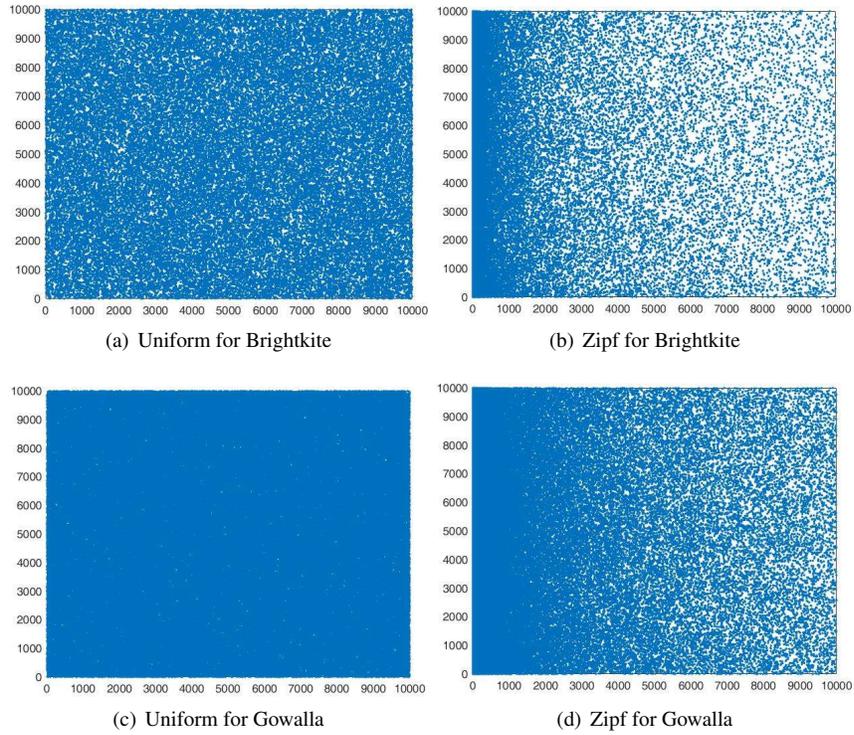


Fig. 6. Road network with MBRs

lifeifei/SpatialDataset.htm. The information of the road networks are shown in Table 2. Standardize the latitude and longitude of the user locations in the two social networks into a flat two-dimensional space, and then map the user to the nearest intersection or edge on the road network according to the coordinates. BR\_rangeBAY and GA\_rangeBAY represents the social network dataset of Brightkite and Gowalla within the range of BAY respectively. The information of the social networks are shown in Table 3. We use two real datasets:(1) BR\_rangeBAY + BAY;(2) GA\_rangeBAY + BAY. BR\_rangeBAY + BAY represents the road-social network formed by BR\_rangeBAY and BAY. GA\_rangeBAY + BAY represents the road-social network formed by GA\_range BAY and BAY. In these two real data sets, the user objects are sparse, so we also use synthetic datasets for testing.

The synthetic datasets retain the number of vertices in the two social networks and friendship relationship between users. The uniform function and the Zipf function are used to randomly allocate the location information of all user vertices, and the range of the horizontal and vertical coordinates is [0, 10000]. Uniform distribution is used for BR and GA in Fig. 11(a) and (c) respectively. Zipf distribution is used for BR and GA in Fig. 11(b) and (d) respectively. We get four synthetic datasets: (1)UBR+TG; (2)ZBR + TG; (3)UGA + SF; (4)ZGA + SF. UBR+TG represents the dataset formed by BR and TG, where uniform distribution is used for BR. ZBR+TG represents the dataset formed by BR and TG, where Zipf distribution is used for BR. UGA + SF represents the dataset formed by GA and SF, where uniform distribution is used for GA. ZGA + SF represents the dataset formed by GA and SF, where Zipf distribution is used for GA. Table 4 shows the density of road-social networks, where the density denotes the ratio of the number of vertices in the social network to the number of edges on the road network.



**Fig. 7.** Data object distributions of the synthetic datasets

**Table 2.** Statistics of the road network datasets

| Road network | Vertices | Edges  |
|--------------|----------|--------|
| BAY          | 321270   | 400086 |
| SF           | 174956   | 223001 |
| TG           | 18263    | 23874  |

**Table 3.** Statistics of the social network datasets

| Social network | Vertices | Edges  |
|----------------|----------|--------|
| BR_rangeBAY    | 2756     | 3819   |
| GA_rangeBAY    | 4794     | 11086  |
| Brightkite(BR) | 58228    | 214078 |
| Gowalla(GA)    | 196591   | 950327 |

**Table 4.** Density of the road-social network datasets

| Road-social network | Density |
|---------------------|---------|
| BR_rangeBAY + BAY   | 0.007   |
| GA_rangeBAY + BAY   | 0.012   |
| UBR + TG            | 2.439   |
| ZBR + TG            | 2.439   |
| UGA + SF            | 0.882   |
| ZGA + SF            | 0.882   |

**Implementation:** We implement all the algorithms on the Eclipse platform using Java. The experimental machine configuration is the Windows 10 operating system, Intel(R) Core(TM) i5-10500 CPU @ 3.10GHz and 8G RAM. In this experiment, we measure the average value at each experiment performed 100 times with random query users and vertices.

**Parameters setting:** Parameters setting are shown in Table 5, where  $\ell$  is the friendship degree,  $k$  is the number of results, and  $rd$  is the Euclidian distance between the query point location  $p_q$  and the location of the query user  $u$ . The length unit of the data set BR.RangeBAY + BAY and GA.RangeBAY + BAY is kilometer. The social network datasets of the other four datasets are synthesized based on the range of the road network TG and SF. The coordinate range of TG and SF is [0, 10000], and the range of parameter  $rd$  for the synthetic datasets is [100, 200], [300, 400], [700, 800], [1500, 1600], [3100, 3200], and the default value is [1500, 1600].

**Table 5.** Parameters setting

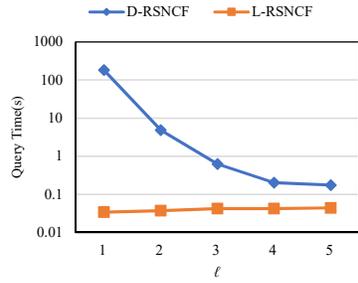
| Parameter               | Range                                      | Default  |
|-------------------------|--|----------|
| $\ell$                  | 1, 2, 3, 4, 5                              | 3        |
| $k$                     | 10, 20, 30, 40, 50                         | 20       |
| $rd$ (for real dataset) | [1, 2], [3, 4], [7, 8], [15, 16], [31, 32] | [15, 16] |

## 6.2. Performance Evaluation

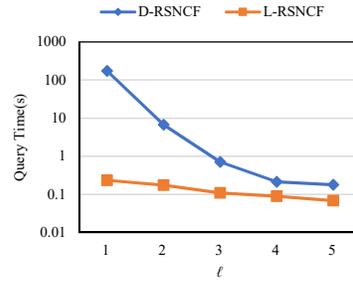
In order to test the effect of the experiment,  $RSk\ell$ -NCF query algorithm based on Dijkstra (D-RSNCF) and  $RSk\ell$ -NCF query algorithm based on IS-Label index (L-RSNCF) were compared on the datasets of six road-social networks.

### (1) Effect of friendship degree $\ell$ on query time

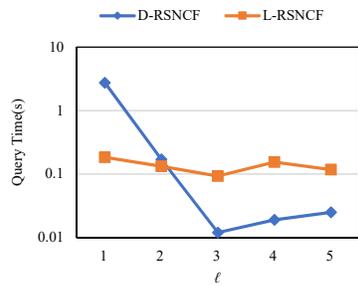
Fig. 8 demonstrates the effect of varying  $\ell$ . In Fig. 8(a), we set  $k = 10$ . As shown in Fig. 8(a) and (b), with the increase of  $\ell$ , the query speed of D-RSNCF algorithm is accelerated. This is because with the increase of  $\ell$ , more user objects will be added to the  $\ell$ -hop friend list of the query user  $u$ . Then the query range will become smaller. The query speed of L-RSNCF is much faster than that of D-RSNCF. The road network used in Fig. 8(a) and (b) is the largest in the three road network data sets, while few user objects



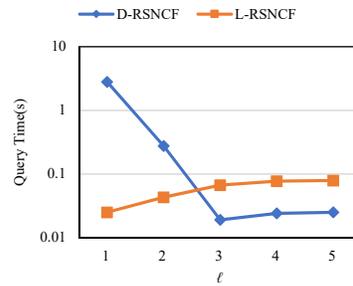
(a) BR\_rangeBAY + BAY



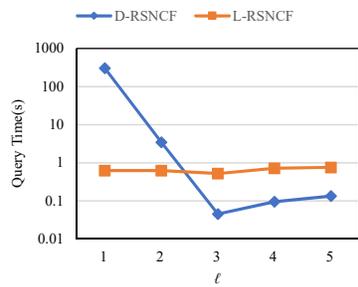
(b) GA\_rangeBAY + BAY



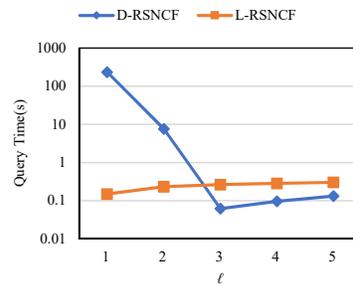
(c) UBR + TG



(d) ZBR + TG



(e) UGA + SF



(f) ZGA + SF

**Fig. 8.** Effect of  $\ell$  on query time

are mapped to the road network. This situation has a greater impact on D-RSNCF query algorithm, so D-RSNCF will be much slower in this case. From Fig. 8(a) and (b), we can see that  $\ell$  has little effect on L-RSNCF.

As shown in Fig. 8(c) and (d), when  $\ell$  reaches a certain value, D-RSNCF is faster than L-RSNCF. The reason may be that UBR + TG and ZBR + TG have the largest density in Table 4. Then D-RSNCF may traverse less edges for these two datasets than other datasets. For larger  $\ell$ , there may be more user objects that meet the friendship degree. So with  $\ell$  increasing, D-RSNCF may traverse less edges. In Fig. 8(e) and (f), the experimental effect is similar to that shown in Fig. 8(c) and (d).

### (2) Effect of numbers of result $k$ on query time

Fig. 9 demonstrates the effect of varying  $k$ . In general, the query time of both methods increases with the increase of  $k$ . The reason is that both methods need to traverse more edges with  $k$  increasing. We can see that the influence of  $k$  on L-RSNCF is not obvious. In Fig. 9(c)-(f), D-RSNCF is faster than L-RSNCF in most cases, which is similar to the case in Fig. 8(c)-(f). From Fig. 8 and 9, we can see that for the six datasets, the higher the density of the data set, the shorter the query time, and vice versa.

### (3) Effect of distance $rd$ on query time

Fig. 10 shows the efficiency of the two query algorithms by changing the parameter  $rd$ . As shown in Fig. 10(a) and (b), the query time of D-RSNCF increases with the increase of  $rd$ . With  $rd$  increasing, most of the  $\ell$ -hop friends of the query user  $u$  may be far away from the location of  $p_q$ . D-RSNCF is based on Dijkstra algorithm, so it will traverse more edges to find the result in the  $\ell$ -hop friends of  $u$ .

As shown in Fig. 10(c) and (e), the user objects are uniformly distributed. Then the number of user objects in a given range is relatively stable, independent of the value of  $rd$ . So the query time of D-RSNCF is relatively stable with the increase of  $rd$ . In Fig. 10(d) and (f), the user objects follow the Zipf distribution. The number of edges needs to be traversed by D-RSNCF is uncertain, so the query time of D-RSNCF is uncertain with  $rd$  increasing.

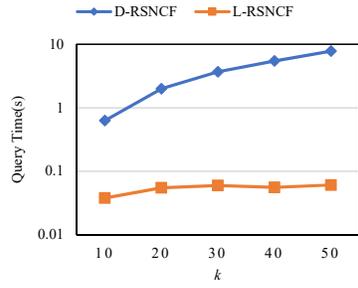
For L-RSNCF, by using R-Tree it traverses only the edges containing the  $\ell$ -hop friends of the query user  $u$ , so the running time is uncertain, as shown in Fig. 10. With the increase of  $rd$ , the running time of L-RSNCF does not change significantly.

## 6.3. Discussion

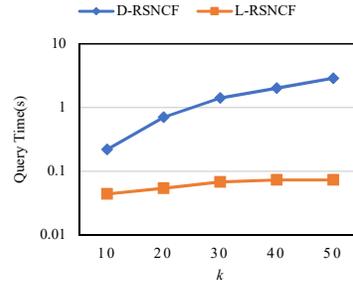
In this section, 6 datasets are used to test the two algorithms. D-RSNCF is not as efficient as L-RSNCF in most cases, but D-RSNCF is more efficient than L-RSNCF on those four synthetic datasets in most cases. The reason is that these four synthetic datasets have much higher density than the two real datasets and D-RSNCF is based on Dijkstra algorithm. For high-density dataset, the search range becomes smaller, so D-RSNCF is more efficient. For dataset with lower density, the search range of D-RSNCF will become larger and the efficiency will become lower. L-RSNCF is based on IS-Label index, so the change of dataset density has no obvious impact on the running time of L-RSNCF.

## 7. Conclusion

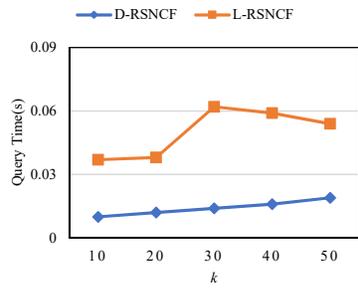
This paper makes an in-depth exploration of the  $k$ -nearest  $\ell$ -close friends ( $k\ell$ -NCF) query in road-social networks. The  $RSk\ell$ -NCF query algorithm based on Dijkstra (D-RSNCF)



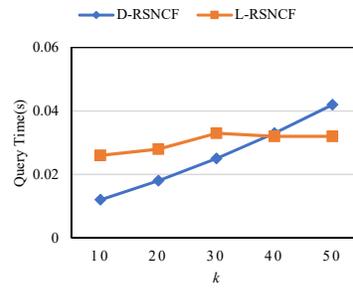
(a) BR\_rangeBAY + BAY



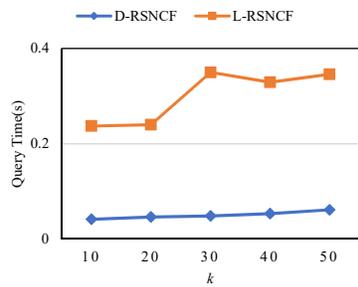
(b) GA\_rangeBAY + BAY



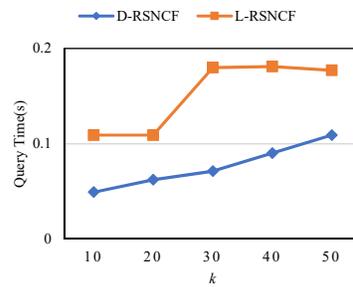
(c) UBR + TG



(d) ZBR + TG

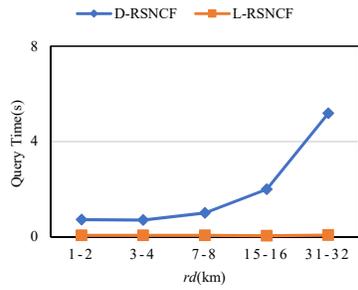


(e) UGA + SF

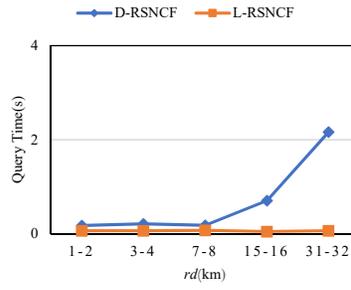


(f) ZGA + SF

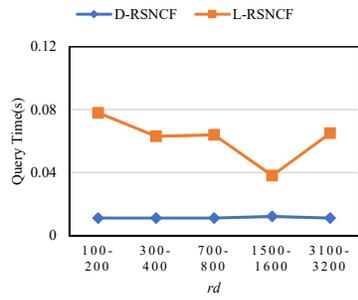
**Fig. 9.** Effect of  $k$  on query time



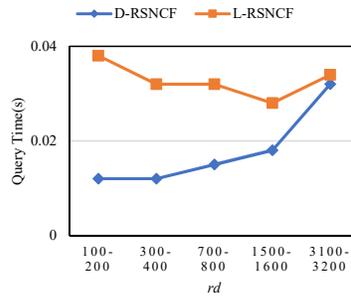
(a) BR\_rangeBAY + BAY



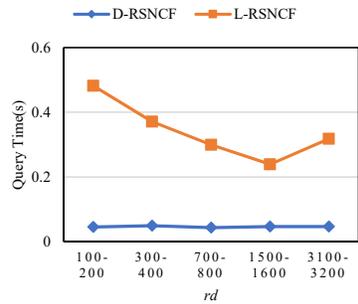
(b) GA\_rangeBAY + BAY



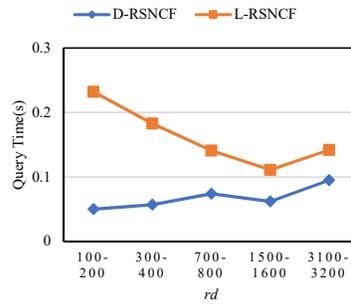
(c) UBR + TG



(d) ZBR + TG



(e) UGA + SF



(f) ZGA + SF

Fig. 10. Effect of *rd* on query time

and the  $RSk\ell$ -NCF query algorithm based on IS-Label index (L-RSNCF) are proposed. For both methods, several hash tables are used to speed the query. D-RSNCF is based on Dijkstra algorithm to traverse the user objects needed. L-RSNCF is based on IS-Label and R-Tree to traverse the user objects needed. Real datasets and synthetic datasets are used to test the two algorithms. Through experiments, we find that D-RSNCF is more suitable for dataset with high user object density, while L-RSNCF is just the opposite.

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**Zijun Chen** received the bachelor’s degree from the Northeast Heavy Machinery Institute, China, the master’s degree from Yanshan University, and the PhD degree from Fudan University in 2002, all in computer science. Since 1995, he has been with the School of Information Science and Engineering, Yanshan University, Qinhuangdao, China, where he is currently a professor. His research interests include moving object databases, spatio-temporal databases and graph databases.

**Ruoyu Jiang** received the bachelor’s degree in software engineering from Hebei Normal University, China, in 2018. She received the master’s degree in computer technology from Yanshan University, China, in 2021. Her research interest includes geo-social networks.

**Wenyuan Liu** received the bachelor's and master's degrees from the Northeast Heavy Machinery Institute, China, and the PhD degree from the Harbin Institute of Technology in 2000, all in computer science. Since 1996, he has been with the School of Information Science and Engineering, Yanshan University, Qinhuangdao, China, where he is currently a professor. His research interests include wireless sensor networks and mobile networks.

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