

SMe: explicit & implicit constrained-space probabilistic threshold range queries for moving objects

Zhi-Jie Wang¹ · Bin Yao¹ · Reynold Cheng² ·
Xiaofeng Gao¹ · Lei Zou³ · Haibing Guan¹ ·
Minyi Guo¹

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Abstract This paper studies the constrained-space probabilistic threshold range query (CSPTRQ) for moving objects, where objects move in a *constrained-space* (i.e., objects are forbidden to be located in some specific areas), and objects' locations are uncertain. We differentiate two forms of CSPTRQs: explicit and implicit ones. Specifically, for each moving object o , we model its *location uncertainty* as a closed region, u , together with a probability density function. We also model a query range, R , as an arbitrary polygon. An explicit query can be reduced to a search (over all the u) that returns a set of tuples in form of (o, p) such that $p \geq p_t$, where p is the probability of o being located in R , and $0 \leq p_t \leq 1$ is a given probabilistic threshold. In contrast, an implicit query returns *only* a set of objects (without attaching the specific probability information), whose probabilities being located in R are higher than p_t . The CSPTRQ is a variant of the traditional probabilistic threshold range query (PTRQ). As objects moving in a constrained-space are common, clearly, it can also find many applications. At the first sight, our problem can be easily tackled by extending existing methods used to answer the PTRQ. Unfortunately, those classical techniques are not well suitable for our problem, due to a set of new challenges. Another method used to answer the constrained-space probabilistic range query (CSPRQ) can be easily extended to tackle our problem, but a simple adaptation of this method is inefficient, due to its weak pruning/validating capability. To solve our problem, we develop targeted solutions that are easy-to-understand and also easy-to-implement. Our central idea

✉ Zhi-Jie Wang
zjwang888@sjtu.edu.cn

✉ Bin Yao
yaobin@cs.sjtu.edu.cn

¹ Shanghai Key Laboratory of Scalable Computing and Systems, Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Shanghai, China

² Department of Computer Science, University of Hong Kong, Hongkong, China

³ Institute of Computer Science and Technology, Peking University, Beijing, China

is to swap the order of geometric operations and to compute the appearance probability in a multi-step manner. We demonstrate the efficiency and effectiveness of the proposed methods through extensive experiments. Meanwhile, from the experimental results, we further perceive the difference between explicit and implicit queries; this finding is interesting and also meaningful especially for the topics of other types of probabilistic threshold queries.

Keywords Probabilistic threshold range query · Uncertain objects · Obstacles · Query processing · Indexing

1 Introduction

The range query as one of fundamental operations in moving object search systems has attracted a lot of attention in the past decades [4, 10, 13, 15, 18–21, 25, 27, 33, 38, 42, 46]. A database server usually only stores the discrete location information due to various reasons such as the limited network bandwidth and battery power of the mobile devices [7, 24]. This fact implies that the current specific position of a moving object o is uncertain before obtaining the next (sampled) location information, which can lead to the incorrect answer if we simply take the recorded location (stored in the database) as the current position of o . In order to tackle the aforementioned problem, the idea of incorporating *uncertainty* into the moving object data has been proposed [40]. A widely-used uncertainty model is to use a closed region (known as *uncertainty region*) together with a probability density function (PDF), which is used to denote the object's *location distribution* [7, 40]. Figure 1a illustrates this model, in which the integration of PDF inside the uncertainty region equals one.

From then on, probabilistic range query (PRQ) as a derivative version of the traditional range query was naturally presented, and many outstanding works addressed this problem (see e.g., [5, 7, 9, 24, 28, 29, 35, 37, 45]). In existing results, one of important branches is to address the PRQ over objects moving freely (without predefined routes) in two-dimensional (2D) space (see e.g., [5, 7, 45]). Our work generally falls in the aforementioned branch.

Motivations. A common fact is that users usually are interested in the objects being located in the query range R with higher probabilities. Several classical papers (see e.g., [5, 32, 47]) already considered this fact and studied the probabilistic threshold range query (PTRQ). Existing results, however, are mainly developed for the case of non-constrained 2D space (i.e., no obstacles exist). To our knowledge, the constrained-space probabilistic threshold range query (CSPTRQ) has not been studied yet. Moreover, we realize that more and more intelligent terminals have been configured with touch screens by which one can input the query requirement using the finger or interactive pen [1, 11]. An obvious fact is that a more generic shaped query range should be better for the user experience, and can also improve the flexibility of a system itself. Existing works (see e.g., [28, 29]) already adopted the general polygon as the query range. Those results, however, are mainly developed from the theoretical perspective.

Specifically, this paper discusses the CSPTRQ for moving objects, supporting a generic shaped query range from the perspective of implementation. For reference, Fig. 1b illustrates an example of objects moving in a constrained 2D space, where objects' locations are

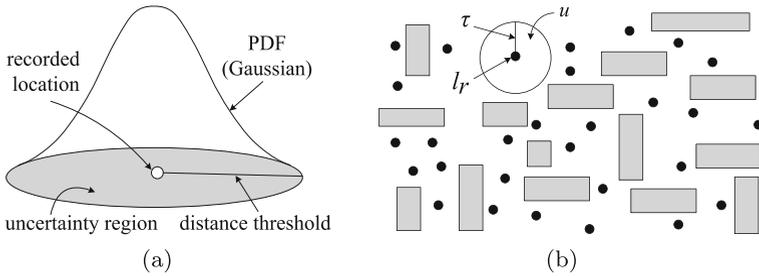


Fig. 1 (a) Illustration of the uncertainty model. (b) Illustration of the objects moving in a constrained 2D space, where l_r denotes the recorded location (see the black dot), τ denotes the distance threshold, u denotes the uncertainty region, the grey rectangles denote the obstacles. For other objects, we only plot their recorded locations (without plotting their distant thresholds and uncertainty regions) for clearness

uncertain. The CSPTRQ can be used in a lot of applications, as objects moving in a constrained space are common in the real world. For example, mobile robots are already used to rescue survivors after a disaster such as an earthquake [22]. The location information of robots is collected and stored on the database server. A typical application for dispatching scattered robots to a specific location is retrieving the identities of the robots that are currently located in a given region with no less than a predefined (e.g., 75 %) probability; here robots usually move freely but can be blocked by various obstacles (e.g., rocks, buildings). As another example, in the information warfare the location information of combat machineries is collected and usually stored in the military database [14, 41]. A typical application for the coordination combat is retrieving the identities of the friendly machineries (e.g., tanks and panzers) that are currently located in a given region with no less than a specific (e.g., 85 %) probability; here objects such as tanks and panzers usually move freely without predefined routes but can be blocked by various obstacles (e.g., lakes, hills).

Challenges. At the first glance, the CSPTRQ can be easily tackled by directly extending existing methods used to answer the PTRQ. As a matter of fact, there are several new challenges. (i) The CSPTRQ needs to handle a set of obstacles, and so the workload is larger, implying that to achieve a quick response time is more challenging. (ii) With the presence of obstacles, the uncertainty region u is usually a complicated geometry (see Section 3.3 for more details), rendering that the subsequent computation is more difficult. (iii) In a non-constrained space, u can be easily obtained (almost) without taking the precomputation cost, and thus existing methods usually pre-compute a set of bounds based on the uncertainty region u and the probability density function (PDF). These bounds are used to prune/validate unqualified/qualified objects, and can significantly improve the performance, especially when they are correctly indexed using the R-tree like data structure. In the context of our concern, the precomputation time is rather long (up to the hour level) even if we only pre-compute the uncertainty regions. (See Section 3.3 for more detailed discussion about *bounds* and the *precomputation*.) Imagine if we further pre-compute lots of bounds, the overall precomputation time should be larger. With these challenges (particularly, the third one) in mind, we have to resort to other proposals. Another method used to answer the constrained-space probabilistic range query (CSPRQ) [39] can be easily extended to tackle our problem. Unfortunately, a simple adap-

tation of this method is inefficient, due to its weak pruning/validating capability. (See Section 3.3 for more details about the baseline method).

Overall, we are confronted with the following troubles: (i) those classical techniques (used to answer the PTRQ) have powerful pruning/validating capabilities, but are not well suitable for the context of our concern, and (ii) the method used to answer the CSPRQ is easily incorporated, but to find a feasible and powerful pruning/validating mechanism is not easy.

Contributions. To tackle the problem efficiently, our first main idea is to swap the order of geometric operations, which simplifies the computation and can prune/validate some objects without the need of computing their uncertainty regions. After this, by carefully considering the details, we realize that the result obtained in the previous step possibly is a fake result, which stems from the *location unreachability*. The natural method to eliminate the fault is inefficient. Instead, our strategy is to take advantage of the location unreachability. This method not only eliminates the possible fault, but also prunes some objects in the early stages. All strategies developed above actually belong to *spatial* pruning/validating mechanisms.

When we strive to seek the *threshold* pruning/validating mechanisms, suddenly, we realize an interesting fact — the CSPTRQ can be classified into two forms: explicit and implicit ones (they can have different solutions, performance results, and purposes/applications). The former returns a set of tuples in form of (o, p) such that $p \geq p_t$, where p is the probability of the moving object o being located in the query range R , and $0 \leq p_t \leq 1$ is a given probabilistic threshold. A *potential purpose/application*¹ is like: listing the objects (e.g., tanks) that are currently located in the region R with no less than the 80 % probability in the descending order according to their appearance probabilities; it is similar to the following: listing the universities that are with no less than 80 points in the descending order according to their points, where the points usually be evaluated using a variety of indicators such as the publications in Nature/Science. In contrast, the latter returns a set of objects (without attaching the specific probability information), whose probabilities being located in R are higher than p_t . A *potential purpose/application*² is like: returning the number of objects (e.g., mobile robots) that are currently located in the region R with no less than the 75 % probability. Figure 2 gives an example, in which we assume no obstacles exist, R is a rectangle, and the location of o follows uniform distribution in u for simplicity. Suppose $p_t = 0.2$, the answer of explicit query is $\{(o_2, 50 \%), (o_3, 50 \%), (o_4, 25 \%)\}$, while the answer of implicit query is $\{o_2, o_3, o_4\}$.

The second main idea is to compute the appearance probability p in a multi-step manner, and thus objects that are obviously unqualified can be pruned in the early steps. This idea is especially effective when the locations of objects do not follow uniform distribution in their uncertainty regions. The multi-step strategy yields a set of *threshold* pruning/validating rules, which are employed by the explicit query. As the implicit query does not need to return the appearance probabilities of qualified objects, an enhanced multi-step strategy is naturally developed, which includes an *adaptive* pruning/validating mechanism and a two-way test mechanism. Furthermore, we optimize our solutions based on a new insight

¹It is noteworthy that the traditional probabilistic range query (PRQ) usually refers to the explicit form but $p_t = 0$, and so the immediate purposes/applications of the explicit CSPTRQ are the similar as the ones of the traditional PRQ.

²The traditional probabilistic threshold range query (PTRQ) usually refers to the implicit form, and so the immediate purposes/applications of the implicit CSPTRQ are similar to the ones of the traditional PTRQ.

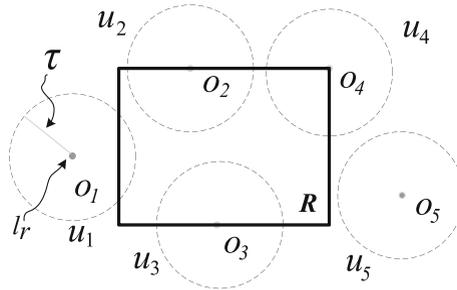


Fig. 2 Example of explicit and implicit queries, where l_r denotes the recorded location, τ denotes the distance threshold, and u_i denotes the uncertainty region of object o_i ($i \in [1, 2, \dots, 5]$)

— different *candidate moving objects* may share the same *candidate restricted areas*. In summary, our contributions are as follows:

- We propose the CSPTRQ, and show that (i) it can be used in many applications; (ii) the classical methods used to answer the traditional PTRQ are not well suitable for the context of our concern, and a simple adaptation of the method used to answer the CSPRQ is inefficient.
- We realize the CSPTRQ can be classified into two forms: explicit and implicit ones. We formally formulate them, and offer insights into their properties.
- We develop techniques to answer the explicit query, and then extend them to answer the implicit query. Our solutions are simple but without loss of efficiency.
- We give the detailed theoretical analysis for our algorithms. While we focus on the CSPTRQ in this paper, (part of) our techniques can be immediately extended to other types of probabilistic threshold queries.
- We experimentally evaluate our algorithms using both real and synthetic data sets. The experimental results demonstrate the efficiency and effectiveness of the proposed algorithms. From the experimental results, we can further perceive the difference between explicit and implicit queries. This interesting finding is valuable especially for the topics of other types of probabilistic threshold queries.

Paper organization. We review the related work in Section 2. We formally formulate our problem and present a baseline method in Section 3. The proposed methods for answering the explicit and implicit CSPTRQs are addressed in Sections 4 and 5, respectively. We further optimize our solution based on a new insight in Section 6. We evaluate the performance of our proposed methods through extensive experiments in Section 7. Finally, we conclude this paper with several interesting research topics in Section 8.

2 Related work

Range query over moving objects. Most of the representative works on *range query over moving objects* have been mentioned in Section 1. A common aspect of those works is not to capture the location uncertainty. In other words, they assume the current location of any object o is equal to the recorded location (stored on the database server). In contrast, we assume the current location of o is uncertain.

Uncertainty models. We also mentioned many outstanding works on *PRQ over uncertain moving objects* in Section 1. One of important branches assumed that objects move freely (without predefined routes) in 2D space. In this branch, there are several typical *uncertainty* models like, the free moving uncertainty (FMU) model [2, 7, 40], the moving object spatial temporal (MOST) model [28], the instance based uncertainty model [43, 47], the uncertain moving object (UMO) model [45], the 3D cylindrical (3DC) model [24, 37], and the necklace uncertainty (NU) model [17, 36]. Another important branch assumed that objects move on predefined routes [7] or road networks [48]. They usually adopt the line segment uncertainty (LSU) model [7, 9] to capture the location uncertainty. These models have different assumptions and purposes (e.g., 3DC and NU models are suitable for querying the trajectories of moving objects), but have their own advantages (note: it is a difficult task to say which one is the best. Please refer to [39] as a summary on the differences of these models and their assumptions). The model used in [39] roughly follows the FMU model, but it is different from the FUM model, as it introduces the concept of restricted areas (i.e., obstacles). Here we dub it the extensive free moving uncertainty (EFMU) model for clearness. Though our work also uses the EFMU model, there are at least two differences: (i) our work investigates CSPTRQs (including explicit and implicit ones) rather than the CSPRQ, and (ii) our work employs a more generic shaped query range.

Probabilistic threshold range query. According to the theme of this paper, we classify *PTRQs* into two subcategories: *PTRQs* for moving objects and the ones for other uncertain data (note: the terms “PRQ” and “PTRQ” are somewhat abused in the literature, we take those papers, which explicitly discussed the probabilistic threshold, as the related work of the *PTRQ*).

Many excellent works addressed the *PTRQ* for moving objects. For example, Chung et al. [9] addressed the *PTRQ* for objects moving in one-dimensional (1D) space. In contrast, we focus on the objects moving in 2D space. Zhang et al. [45] studied the *PTRQ* over objects moving in 2D space. They proposed the UMO model, in which they assumed both the *distribution* of velocity and the one of location are available at the update time. In contrast, we do not need to know the velocity (as well as its distribution), instead we assume the specific location of any object o is available at the update time. Moreover, the used model in this paper is the EFMU model, which considers the existence of restricted areas. Zheng et al. [48] studied the *PTRQ* for objects moving on the road networks. They proposed the UTH model that is developed for querying the trajectories of moving objects. In contrast, this paper is not interested in querying the trajectories, and it focuses on the objects moving in the constrained 2D space where no predefined route is given.

There are many classical papers that studied the *PTRQ* for other uncertain data. For example, Cheng et al. [8] addressed the *PTRQ* over 1D uncertain data (e.g. sensor data), they presented a clever idea, using a tighter bound (compared to the MBR of the uncertainty interval), called *x-bound*, to reduce the search cost. Later, Tao et al. [34] extended this idea to multi-dimensional uncertain data. They proposed a classical technique, probabilistic constrained region (PCR), which consists of a set of precomputed bounds, called *p-bounds*. This classical technique is not well suitable for the context of our concern, Section 1 has shown the reasons (more detailed discussion will be given in Section 3.3). Chen et al. [5] studied the *PTRQ* for such a scenario where the location of query issuer is uncertain (a.k.a, location based *PTRQ*); several smart ideas such as the *query expansion* were developed. They assumed the query range R and uncertainty region u are rectangles, and focused

on the non-constrained space, and thus employed the *p*-bounds technique. In contrast, both *R* and *u* used in our work are more complex, and we focus on the constrained space, where the *p*-bounds technique has some limitations (again, Section 1 has shown the reasons). Moreover, our work does not belong to the location based PTRQ.

Other probabilistic threshold queries. There are also many representative works that addressed other probabilistic threshold queries (PTQs); those works are clearly different from ours. For instance, Zhang et al. studied the *location based* probabilistic threshold range aggregated query [47]. Hua et al. [16] addressed the probabilistic threshold ranking query on uncertain data. The probabilistic threshold *KNN* query over uncertain data was investigated by Cheng et al. [6]. Yuan et al. [44] discussed the probabilistic threshold *shortest path* query over uncertain graphs. The *general* PTQ for arbitrary SQL queries that involve *selections, projections, and joins* was studied by Qi et al. [26].

3 Problem definition

3.1 Problem settings and notations

Let *R* be the query range. Let *r* denote the restricted area, and \mathcal{R} be a set of disjoint restricted areas. Let \mathbb{T} be a territory such that $\bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{R}} r \subset \mathbb{T}$. Let *o* denote the moving object, and \mathcal{O} be a set of moving objects. Let *l_r* be the latest recorded location (stored on the database server) of *o*, and *l_t* be the location of *o* at an arbitrary instant of time *t*. We assume that $l_t \in \mathbb{T} - \bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{R}} r$. Let τ be the distance threshold of *o*. We assume any object *o* reports its new location to the server once $dist(l_n, l_r) \geq \tau$, where *l_n* denotes its current specific location, *dist*(·) denotes the Euclidean distance. Finally, for any two different objects *o* and *o'*, we assume they cannot be located in the same location at the same instant of time *t*, i.e., $l_t \neq l'_t$.

We model both the query range and restricted areas as the arbitrary shaped polygons³. We capture the location uncertainty using two components [7, 40].

Definition 1 (Uncertainty region) The uncertainty region of a moving object *o* at a given time *t*, denoted by *u^t*, is a closed region where *o* can always be found.

Definition 2 (Uncertainty probability density function) The uncertainty probability density function of *o* at time *t*, denoted by *f^t*(*x*, *y*), is a probability density function (PDF) of *o*'s location at a given time *t*; its value is 0 if $l_t \notin u^t$.

The PDF has the property that $\int_{u^t} f^t(x, y) dx dy = 1$. In addition, under the distance based update policy (a.k.a., dead-reckoning policy [7, 40]), for any two different time *t₁* and *t₂* ($t_1, t_2 \in (t_r, t_n]$), the following conditions always hold: $u^{t_1} = u^{t_2}$ and $f^{t_1}(x, y) = f^{t_2}(x, y)$, where *t_r* refers to the latest reporting time, *t_n* refers to the current time. Henceforth, unless stated otherwise, we use *u* and *f*(*x*, *y*) to denote the uncertainty

³Any curve can be approximated into a polyline (e.g., by an interpolation method). Hence in theory any shaped restricted area or query range can be approximated into a polygon.

Table 1 Notations and their descriptions

Notations	Meanings
\mathcal{R}^*	the set of candidate restricted areas
\mathcal{O}^*	the set of candidate moving objects
R_b	the minimum bounding rectangle of the query range R
τ	distance threshold
l_r	recorded location of a moving object o
$o.\odot$	circle with the centre l_r and radius τ
\mathcal{I}_r	index of restricted areas
\mathcal{I}_o	index of moving objects
p_t	probabilistic threshold
u_o	outer ring of uncertainty region u
u_h^i	the i th hole in uncertainty region u
\mathcal{H}	the set of holes in uncertainty region u
s	intersection result between R and u
$ s $	the number of subdivisions of s
$s[i]$	the i th subdivision of s
$s[i]_o$	outer ring of $s[i]$
\mathcal{H}^*	the set of all holes in s
s_h^j	the j th hole among all the $ \mathcal{H}^* $ holes of s
γ	reference value

region and PDF of o , respectively⁴. With the presence of restricted areas (i.e., obstacles), the uncertainty region u under the distance based update policy can be formalized as follows.

$$u = o.\odot - \bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{R}} r \tag{1}$$

where $o.\odot$ denotes a circle with the centre l_r and radius τ . We remark that, in the rest of this paper, we abuse the notation ‘ $|\cdot|$ ’, but its meaning should be clear from the context. In addition, unless stated otherwise, a notation or symbol with a subscript ‘b’ usually refers to its corresponding minimum bounding rectangle (MBR). For instance, R_b refers to the MBR of R . For convenience, Table 1 summarizes the notations used frequently in the rest of this paper.

3.2 Problem statement

Let p_t be the probabilistic threshold, we have

Definition 3 (Explicit CSPTRQ) Given a set \mathcal{R} of restricted areas, a set \mathcal{O} of moving objects in a territory \mathbb{T} , and a query range R , an explicit constrained-space probabilistic

⁴If the time based update policy is assumed to be adopted, such a topic is more interesting and also more challenging, since the uncertainty region u is to be a continuously changing geometry over time. See, e.g., [39] for a clue about the relation between the location update policy and the uncertainty region u .

threshold range query (ECSPTQR) returns a set of tuples in form of (o, p) such that $p \geq p_t$, where p is the probability of o being located in R , and is computed as

$$p = \int_{u \cap R} f(x, y) dx dy \tag{2}$$

We note that $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{\alpha(u)}$ when the location of o follows uniform distribution in its uncertainty region u , where $\alpha(\cdot)$ denotes the area of this geometric entity. In this case, we have

$$p = \frac{\alpha(u \cap R)}{\alpha(u)} \tag{3}$$

Definition 4 (Implicit CSPTRQ) Given a set \mathcal{R} of restricted areas, a set \mathcal{O} of moving objects in a territory \mathbb{T} , and a query range R , an implicit constrained-space probabilistic threshold range query (ICSPTRQ) returns all the objects o such that $p \geq p_t$, where p is the probability of o being located in R , and is computed according to Eq. 2.

We remark that though the differences of two queries above are minor at the first glance, we will present different solutions respectively in Sections 4 and 5, and show their different performance results in Section 7. Sometimes, we also use terms the *explicit query* and the *implicit query* to denote the above two queries in the rest of this paper. For ease of understanding the proposed methods, we next introduce a baseline method.

3.3 Baseline method

The baseline method is a simple adaptation of the method in [39]. To save space, we only present an overall framework of the baseline method.

Preprocessing stage. Here a twin-index is adopted (e.g., a pair of R-trees or its variant): one is used to manage the set \mathcal{R} of restricted areas; another is used to manage the set \mathcal{O} of moving objects. To index restricted areas is simple, since we model them as arbitrary polygons. Naturally, we can easily find the MBR of any restricted area r ($\in \mathcal{R}$). In order to manage the set \mathcal{O} of moving objects, we here index them based on their recorded locations l_r and distance thresholds τ . Specifically, for each object o , its MBR is a square centering at l_r with $2\tau \times 2\tau$ size. For clearness, let \mathcal{I}_o and \mathcal{I}_r be the index of moving objects and the one of restricted areas, respectively.

Query processing stage. We first give two definitions before discussing the details of the query processing procedure.

Definition 5 (Candidate moving object) Given a moving object o and the query range R , o is a candidate moving object such that $R_b \cap o \circ_b \neq \emptyset$.

Definition 6 (Candidate restricted area) Given a moving object o and a restricted area r , r is a candidate restricted area such that $r_b \cap o \circ_b \neq \emptyset$.

Let \mathcal{R}^* denote the set of candidate restricted areas, and \mathcal{O}^* denote the set of candidate moving objects. There are several main steps for answering the implicit (or explicit) query. First, we search \mathcal{O}^* on \mathcal{I}_o using R_b as the input (here most of unrelated objects are to be pruned). Second, for each object $o \in \mathcal{O}^*$, we search \mathcal{R}^* on \mathcal{I}_r using $o \circ_b$ as the input (here most of unrelated restricted areas are to be pruned). We compute o 's uncertainty region u ,

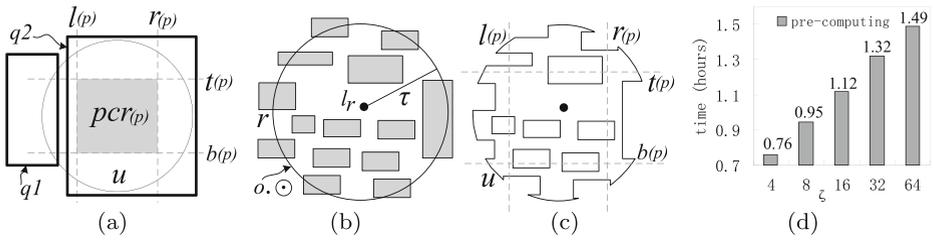


Fig. 3 Illustration of p -bounds and the precomputation. (a) The case of no restricted areas. (b) The case of existing restricted areas. (c) The uncertainty region. (d) The precomputation time when $|\mathcal{R}| = |\mathcal{O}| = 50k$. ζ denotes the number of edges in each restricted area r (note: it may be somewhat difficult to understand this figure, and the readers can revisit it after reading Section 7)

and then compute “ $u \cap R$ ”⁵. After this, we compute p using Eq. 2. We put o (or (o, p)) into the result if $p \geq p_t$. Otherwise, we discard it and process the next object. After all candidate moving objects are handled, we finally return the result, in which all qualified objects are included.

Update stage. When an object o reports its new location to the server, we update the database record, i.e., l_r . At the same time, we update the index of moving objects, i.e., \mathcal{L}_o .

Discussion. The readers may be curious why the baseline method does not employ existing *threshold pruning/validating mechanisms* such as p -bounds in [5, 32, 34, 47]. Briefly speaking, a p -bound of the uncertainty region u (of the object o) is a function of p , where $p \in [0, 0.5]$. A probabilistically constrained region (PCR) with the parameter p , denoted by $o.pcr(p)$, consists of four p -bounds, namely $l(p)$, $r(p)$, $t(p)$ and $b(p)$, see the four dashed lines in Fig. 3a. The line $l(p)$ divides the uncertainty region u (i.e., the circle) into two parts (on the left and right of $l(p)$ respectively), and the appearance probability of o on the left part equals p . (Other three lines have similar meanings.) The grey region illustrates $o.pcr(p)$. Assume the parameter p in Fig. 3a is 0.2; moreover, assume the probabilistic threshold $p_t = 0.8$, and if $q1$ is the query range, then o is an unqualified object, and thus to be pruned. In contrast, if $q2$ is the query range, then o is a qualified object, and thus to be validated. The example above illustrates the rationale of the classical p -bounds technique. In a non-constrained space (i.e., no obstacles exist), all the uncertainty regions can be easily obtained (almost) without taking the precomputation cost, and thus pre-computing a set of p -bounds is feasible. However, in the context of our concern, the precomputation time is rather long (up to the hour level) even if we only pre-compute the uncertainty regions. Figure 3d reports the time of pre-computing a set of uncertainty regions. Imagine if we further pre-compute lots of p -bounds, then the overall precomputation time should be larger. This is the main reason why the p -bounds technique is not well suitable for the context of our concern. Other minor (non-fatal) reasons have already been mentioned in Section 1. For example, the closed region with many holes shown in Fig. 3c illustrates the uncertainty region u , which is derived from Fig. 3b based on Eq. 1. Clearly, to obtain $o.pcr(p)$ in Fig. 3c is more difficult than the case of no restricted areas (e.g., see Fig. 3a).

To this step, it seems no better solution except the baseline method. In the next section, we introduce several new ideas, and then present the algorithm to answer the explicit query.

⁵Note that, the algorithm in [39] cannot support the generic shaped query range, and thus some modifications are necessary and inevitable when we compute $u \cap R$; moreover, the details of managing complicated geometric regions (e.g., u) can be found in that paper.

4 Explicit CSPTRQ

4.1 Spatial pruning/validating rules

For each object $o \in \mathcal{O}^*$, once we obtain the set \mathcal{R}^* of candidate restricted areas, the baseline method is to directly compute its uncertainty region u , and then to compute the intersection result between R and u . Let s be the intersection result between R and u , it can be formalized as follows.

$$s = u \cap R = (o \odot - \bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{R}^*} r) \cap R \tag{4}$$

Our method is to *swap* the order of geometric operations. The rationale behind it is surprisingly simple. Specifically, we first compute “ $o \odot \cap R$ ”, and then use the result of “ $o \odot \cap R$ ” to subtract $\bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{R}^*} r$. It is formalized as follows.

$$s = (o \odot \cap R) - \bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{R}^*} r \tag{5}$$

There are two significant benefits by swapping the order of geometric operations.

- (1) We can prune some objects, without the need of computing their uncertainty regions. Assume “q1” shown in Fig. 4a is the query range R . Clearly, o is a candidate moving object since $o \odot_b$ intersects with R_b . Here o can be safely pruned without the need of computing its uncertainty region u , since “ $R \cap o \odot = \emptyset$ ”. Similarly, assume that “q2” is R . Here “ $R \cap o \odot \neq \emptyset$ ” (see Fig. 4a), but $(o \odot \cap R) - \bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{R}^*} r = \emptyset$ (see Fig. 4b). Hence o can also be pruned safely without the need of computing u .
- (2) We no longer need to consider each $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$, which simplifies the computation of s . For example, regarding to “q2”, only the right most candidate restricted area is relevant with the computation of s . Similarly, regarding to “q3” shown in Fig. 4b, only two candidate restricted areas are relevant with the computation of s .

Hence, by swapping the order of geometric operations, we can easily develop the following pruning/validating rules.

Lemma 1 *Given the query range R and an object $o \in \mathcal{O}^*$, we have*

- *If $R \cap o \odot = \emptyset$, then o can be pruned safely.*
- *If $R \cap o \odot = o \odot$, then o can be validated safely.*

Proof The proof is immediate by *analytic geometry*. □

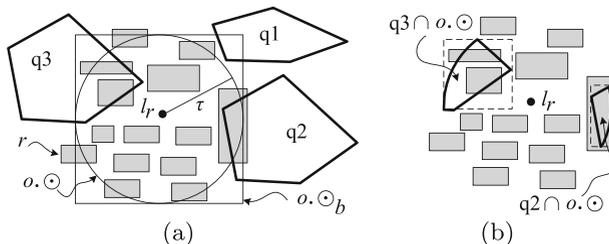


Fig. 4 Example of swapping the order of geometric operations

Let \mathcal{R}' be a set of restricted areas such that the MBR of each $r \in \mathcal{R}'$ has non-empty intersection set with the MBR of o . $\odot \cap R$, we have an immediate corollary below.

Corollary 1 *Given the query range R and an object $o \in \mathcal{O}^*$, o can be pruned safely if $(o \odot \cap R) - \bigcup_{r \in \mathcal{R}'} r = \emptyset$.*

Discussion. We remark that the swapping operation itself is very easy, as it does not rely on any complicated technique. Furthermore, after we swap the order of geometric operations, to develop the pruning/validating rules is also not difficult. We highlight it because it is surprisingly simple but clearly efficient.

Now, for any object $o \in \mathcal{O}^*$, if it has not been pruned (or validated) by Lemma 1 or Corollary 1, whether or not we can directly compute its appearance probability p using Eq. 2? At the first sight, it seems to be sure. However, we should note that the intersection result s obtained by Eq. 5 is possibly a fake result. We next share our insights and explain the details.

4.1.1 Why is it possibly a fake result?

The fake result stems from the *location unreachability*. To explain it, we need some basic concepts.

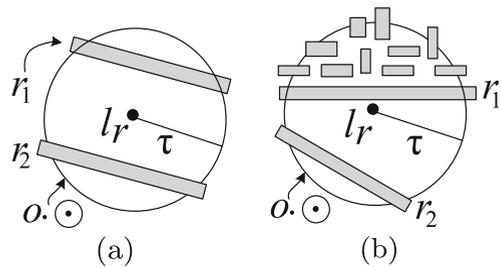
Given $o \odot$ and a set \mathcal{R}^* of candidate restricted areas, we say a restricted area $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$ can subdivide $o \odot$, if and only if the result of “ $o \odot - r$ ” consists of multiple disjoint closed regions. We term each of those closed regions as a *subdivision*. Let \mathcal{D} denote the set of subdivisions, we say a subdivision $d \in \mathcal{D}$ is an *effective subdivision* such that $l_r \in d$, where l_r is the (latest) recorded location of o (recall Section 3.1).

Theorem 1 *Assume that a restricted area $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$ subdivides $o \odot$, and \mathcal{D} is the set of subdivisions, if a subdivision $d \in \mathcal{D}$ is not the effective subdivision, then any point $p' \in d$ is unreachable.*

Proof It is easy to know that the object o is located in $o \odot$, as we adopt the *distance based update policy*, recall Section 3.1. We prove $p' \in d$ is unreachable by contraction. Assume that o can reach the point p' , implying that there exists at least a path from l_r to p' such that it does not directly pass through any restricted area and also the boundary of $o \odot$. However, by the condition “ d is not the effective subdivision”, implying that l_r and p' are located respectively in two disjoint closed regions. Based on *analytic geometry*, it is clear that no such a path exists. This completes the proof. \square

Theorem 1 gives us the insight into the location unreachability. See Fig. 5a for an example, here the subdivision above r_1 and the one below r_2 are *unreachable*. Hence, o 's real uncertainty region, u , is the subdivision below r_1 and above r_2 . With this (concept) in mind, we next use a more targeted example to show why s obtained by Eq. 5 possibly is a fake result. The shadow region shown in Figs. 6a or 6b illustrates s obtained by Eq. 5, which is not equal to \emptyset . Here o cannot be pruned/validated based on Lemma 1 and Corollary 1. The closed region with many holes shown in Fig. 6b illustrates u . For simplicity, assume that the location of o follows uniform distribution in u . In this example, if we simply use the area of

Fig. 5 Illustration of the location unreachability



the shadow region to divide the area of u , we will get that p is a positive number rather than 0. Clearly, it is a false answer, since u and s are disjoint, see Fig. 6b.

4.1.2 Natural solution

To eliminate the fault produced by the above problem, the natural solution is to compute u , and then to check if u intersects with s . If they are disjoint, then $p = 0$ and o should be pruned. This approach can indeed be used to eliminate the fault but it is inefficient. We next review two approaches [39] that are used to compute u , and then show the underlying reason.

Given a closed region c , we let v^-, v^+, h^-, h^+ denote the four (left, right, bottom, top) bounding lines of c , respectively. The *span* of c is $\text{argmax}\{\text{dist}(v^-, v^+), \text{dist}(h^-, h^+)\}$, where $\text{dist}(\cdot)$ denotes the Euclidean distance.

Heuristic 1 Given $o \odot$, and two different candidate restricted areas, the candidate restricted area with the larger span is more likely to subdivide $o \odot$ into multiple subdivisions.

To compute u , there are two approaches. The first one is using $o \odot$ to subtract each restricted area $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$ one by one, and finally it chooses the subdivision containing the point l_r as the uncertainty region u (see, e.g., Fig. 5a). For ease of describing the second approach, we let d^e denote the *effective subdivision* (recall Section 4.1.1), and slightly abuse the notation d^e .

The second one incorporates Heuristic 1, and can be generally described as follows. First, it sorts the set \mathcal{R}^* of candidate restricted areas according to their *spans* in the descending

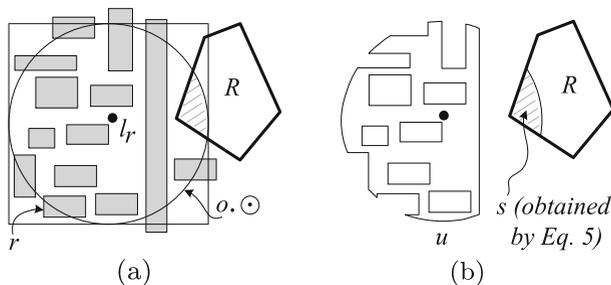


Fig. 6 Illustration of the fake result

order (implying that the restricted area $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$ with the larger span is to be handled firstly); and then it uses $o.\odot$ to subtract each $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$ one by one; particularly, when multiple subdivisions appear, it immediately chooses the effective subdivision d^e , and then uses d^e to subtract the next $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$, and so on; it finally gets u after all the restricted areas $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$ are handled. See Fig. 5b, r_1 is to be handled at first. The subdivision below r_1 is taken as d^e . Then, it uses d^e to subtract r_2 . Here, the subdivision below r_1 and above r_2 is taken as d^e . After this, the rest of restricted areas can be quickly pruned and thus do not need to execute (costly) geometric subtraction operations, improving the first approach.

Why is it inefficient? Consider the example in Fig. 6a again, we can easily see that, if we want to get the uncertainty region u , both of the approaches mentioned above need to execute subtraction operations many times. This justifies the natural solution mentioned in the beginning of Section 4.1.2 is inefficient. Our strategy is to *fight poison with poison*. In other words, we take advantage of the location uncertainty. This method is pretty simple, but clearly efficient. The challenge is to find the *point of penetration*, namely, when, where, and how to take advantage of the location unreachability.

4.1.3 Take advantage of the location unreachability

Based on the definition of *subdivision*, the nature of *location unreachability*, and Eq. 5, we can build the following theorem.

Theorem 2 *Given $o.\odot$ and \mathcal{R}^* , s (obtained by Eq. 5) is always a correct result such that for any $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$, $|o.\odot - r| = 1$, where $|\cdot|$ denotes the number of subdivisions.*

Theorem 1 implies that the presence of multiple subdivisions (i.e., $|o.\odot - r| > 1$) is an important sign of the fault to be happened. Hence, if we *correctly* and *timely* handle this special case, the possible fault could be eliminated efficiently. With this (concept) in mind, a more efficient solution comes into being. Specifically, we *manage* to compute its uncertainty region u ; in the process of computing u , once multiple subdivisions appear, we also choose the effective subdivision d^e , but we do not directly use d^e to subtract the next candidate restricted area. Instead, we here *check* the geometric relation between d^e and s (obtained by Eq. 5).

Lemma 2 *If $s \cap d^e = \emptyset$, then o can be pruned safely.*

Proof We just need to show $u \subseteq d^e$. (1) If r is the only candidate restricted area that can subdivide $o.\odot$, it is obvious that $u = d^e - \bigcup_{r' \in \mathcal{R}^*} r' \subseteq d^e$, where $r' \in \mathcal{R}^*$ and $r' \neq r$. (2) If $r' (\in \mathcal{R}^*)$ can subdivide $o.\odot$, it must belong to one of the following cases. (For ease of discussion, assume r_1 shown in Fig. 7a refers to the so-called r).

- r' is *not* located in the same side of d^e (e.g., r_2 in Fig. 7a). Since we adopt the distance based update policy (cf. Section 3.1), any point p' ($\notin d^e$) is unreachable (e.g., any point in the right of r_1). Clearly, r' makes no impact on the final result of u .

- r' is located in the same side of d^e . See Fig. 7a, r_3 illustrates this case. Here r_3 can subdivide d^e into two subdivisions, say $d^{e'}$ and $d^{e''}$. Clearly, we have

$$d^{e'} \cup d^{e''} \subset d^e \tag{6}$$

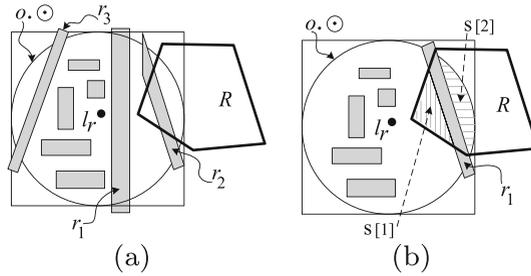


Fig. 7 Illustration of Lemma 2 and Corollary 2

Without loss of generality, assume $d^{e''}$ is the unreachable subdivision (i.e., any point in $d^{e''}$ is unreachable). For clarity, let r'' denote other candidate restricted areas such that $r'' \in \mathcal{R}^*$, $r'' \neq r$ and $r'' \neq r'$. Then, we have

$$u = d^{e'} - \bigcup_{r'' \in \mathcal{R}^*} r'' \subseteq d^{e'} \subset d^{e'} \cup d^{e''} \tag{7}$$

By Formulas (6) and (7), we have $u \subset d^e$ (note: when multiple candidate restricted areas are located in the same side of d^e , it is immediate by induction). This completes the proof. \square

We note that s obtained by Eq. 5 possibly consists of multiple subdivisions. From Lemma 2, we have an immediate corollary below.

Corollary 2 *Given $o \odot$ and R , we assume s (obtained by Eq. 5) consists of multiple subdivisions, say $s[1], s[2], \dots, s[|s|]$, where $|s|$ is the total number of subdivisions in s . Without loss of generality, assume that $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$ can subdivide $o \odot$ into multiple subdivisions, and d^e is the effective subdivision. We have that, any subdivision $s[i]$ ($i \in [1, \dots, |s|]$) can be pruned safely if $s[i] \cap d^e = \emptyset$.*

See Fig. 7b as an example. r_1 subdivides $o \odot$, $s[1]$ and $s[2]$ are two subdivisions of s (obtained by Eq. 5). Here $s[2] \cap d^e = \emptyset$. Thus, $s[2]$ should be pruned.

While this method is pretty simple, we can easily see that it gains two benefits: it not only eliminates the possible fault produced by Eq. 5, but also prunes some objects in the early stages, without the need of obtaining the final results of their uncertainty regions. See, e.g., Figs. 6a or 7a, o can be pruned after executing (only) one subtraction operation.

Discussion. All mechanisms discussed before belong to *spatial* pruning/validating mechanisms. For any object o that has not been pruned/validated by the above mechanisms, the natural method is to compute its appearance probability p using Eqs. 2 or 3, and then to see if $p \geq p_t$, where p_t is the so-called probabilistic threshold. In the next subsection, we present a more efficient method. We remark that s (discussed in the rest of this paper) refers to the correct result since we already eliminated the possible fault.

4.2 Threshold pruning/validating rules

Our method computes p in a multi-step rather than one-time way. We call it the multi-step mechanism. Briefly speaking, we first obtain a coarse-version result (CVR), which is possibly far away from the accurate value of p . We then make a comparison between the

CVR and p_t , and check if o can be pruned based on the current information. If otherwise, we refine the CVR by the further computation.

4.2.1 Uniform distribution PDF

To apply the multi-step mechanism to the case of uniform distribution PDF, we need to find appropriate *carriers* (or things) to which we can apply the multi-step mechanism.

Suppose that there is a closed region with many holes. Its exact area clearly equals that the area of the closed region subtracts the areas of all holes. In contrast, if we compute the area of the closed region, but do not subtract the areas of holes, we shall get the most coarse result. Furthermore, we can easily see that this coarse result can be gradually refined by subtracting the rest of holes one by one. Hence, the holes here are taken as the *carriers*. Based on this intuition, it is not difficult to develop the followings.

For ease of understanding the details, we first should note that the uncertainty region u is a single subdivision (possibly) with holes; and s may be multiple subdivisions (i.e., $|s| > 1$) and each subdivision (possibly) has holes. Given a closed region c with a hole h , we say the boundary of c is the *outer ring* of c , and say the boundary of h is the *inner ring* of c . We also use $\alpha(\cdot)$ to denote the area of a geometry.

Let u_o be the outer ring of uncertainty region u , u_h^i be the i th hole in u , and \mathcal{H} be the set of holes in u , where $|\mathcal{H}| \geq 0$. We have

$$\alpha(u) = \alpha(u_o) - \sum_{i=0}^{|\mathcal{H}|} \alpha(u_h^i) \tag{8}$$

Similarly, let $s[i]$ be the i th subdivision of s , $s[i]_o$ be the outer ring of $s[i]$, $s[i]_h^j$ be the j th hole in $s[i]$, and $|s[i]_h|$ be the number of holes in $s[i]$. We have

$$\alpha(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{|s|} \alpha(s[i]) = \sum_{i=1}^{|s|} \left(\alpha(s[i]_o) - \sum_{j=0}^{|s[i]_h|} \alpha(s[i]_h^j) \right) \tag{9}$$

For ease of presentation, we let \mathcal{H}^* denote the set of (all) holes in s (note: $|\mathcal{H}^*| = \sum_{i=0}^{|s|} |s[i]_h|$), and renumber these holes. Specifically, we let s_h^j denote the j th hole among all the $|\mathcal{H}^*|$ holes. Therefore, Eq. 9 can be rewritten as follows.

$$\alpha(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{|s|} \alpha(s[i]_o) - \sum_{j=0}^{|\mathcal{H}^*|} \alpha(s_h^j) \tag{10}$$

The natural solution (one-time way) is to compute $\alpha(u)$ and $\alpha(s)$ based on Eqs. 8 and 10, respectively, and then to check if $\frac{\alpha(s)}{\alpha(u)} \geq p_t$.

In the proposed method, we also compute $\alpha(u)$. We however, do not directly compute $\alpha(s)$. Specifically, we initially compute $\sum_{i=1}^{|s|} \alpha(s[i]_o)$. Then, we compute the first CVR, denoted by p^0 , as follows.

$$p^0 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{|s|} \alpha(s[i]_o)}{\alpha(u)} \tag{11}$$

Lemma 3 Given p^0 and the probability threshold p_t , o can be pruned safely if $p^0 < p_t$.

Proof We only need to show that the appearance probability p is less than p_t . Let ϵ denote an arbitrary non-negative number. We have

$$p^0 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{|s|} \alpha(s[i]_o)}{\alpha(u)} \geq \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{|s|} \alpha(s[i]_o)\right) - \epsilon}{\alpha(u)} \tag{12}$$

In addition, since $p = \frac{\alpha(s)}{\alpha(u)}$, by Eq. 10, we have

$$p = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{|s|} \alpha(s[i]_o) - \sum_{j=0}^{|\mathcal{H}^*|} \alpha(s_h^j)}{\alpha(u)} \tag{13}$$

Clearly, “ $\sum_{j=0}^{|\mathcal{H}^*|} \alpha(s_h^j)$ ” in Eq. 13 is a non-negative number. By Formula (12) and Eq. 13, we have $p \leq p^0$. Combining the condition “ $p^0 < p_t$ ”, hence $p < p_t$. \square

If the object o cannot be pruned based on Lemma 3, and there exist holes in s , we further compute the second CVR, and so on. Let p^{k-1} be the k th CVR, where $1 < k \leq |\mathcal{H}^*| + 1$. We have

$$p^{k-1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{|s|} \alpha(s[i]_o) - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \alpha(s_h^j)}{\alpha(u)} \tag{14}$$

We should note that $p^{k-1} = p$ when $k = |\mathcal{H}^*| + 1$. In other words, the final CVR is equal to the appearance probability p . Furthermore, $\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \alpha(s_h^j) \leq \sum_{j=0}^{|\mathcal{H}^*|} \alpha(s_h^j)$, since $1 < k \leq |\mathcal{H}^*| + 1$. Hence, from Lemma 3, we have an immediate corollary below.

Corollary 3 *Given the k th CVR p^{k-1} and the probability threshold p_t , o can be pruned safely if $p^{k-1} < p_t$.*

Discussion. We have shown how to apply the multi-step mechanism to the case of uniform distribution PDF, and developed new pruning rules. The small challenge is to find appropriate *carriers* to which we can apply the multi-step mechanism. To apply this mechanism to the case of non-uniform distribution PDF, there is also a small challenge, which however, is different from the previous, as we can easily find appropriate *carriers* by the similar observation. To explain this small challenge, we need some preliminaries. In the next subsection, we first introduce the preliminaries, then clarify this small challenge, and finally give the details of our method.

4.2.2 Non-uniform distribution PDF

Regarding to the non-uniform distribution PDF, a classical numerical integration method is the Monte Carlo method [5, 7, 32]. Let N_1 denote a pre-set value, where N_1 is an integer. The natural solution is to randomly generate N_1 points in the uncertainty region u . For each generated point p' , it computes the value $f(x_i, y_i)$ based on its PDF, where (x_i, y_i) are the coordinates of the point p' , and then to check if $p' \in s$. Without loss of generality, assume that N_2 points (among N_1 points) are to be located in s . Then

$$p = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_2} f(x_i, y_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{N_1} f(x_i, y_i)} \tag{15}$$

Finally, it checks if $p \geq p_t$. If so, it puts the tuple (o, p) into the result. Otherwise, o is to be pruned.

We should note that the Monte Carlo method is a non-deterministic algorithm. Thus we usually use a large sample as the input, in order to assure the accuracy of computation. Here the number of generated points is the size of sample. In general, the larger N_1 is, the *workload error* is more close to 0. Without loss of generality, assume that the allowable workload error is δ , we can get the specific value of N_1 by the off-line test.

To this step, we can easily realize that the generated points can be taken as *carriers* to which we can apply the multi-step mechanism. In other words, the following steps are easily brought to mind: we initially generate a *small* number of points, and thus get a coarse result; then, we refine the previous coarse result by gradually adding points. A small challenge is to construct the pruning rules. In other words, assume that we get a coarse result, how to decide whether or not o can be pruned based on the current coarse result and the probabilistic threshold p_t .

To alleviate the small challenge above, we take advantage of the workload error. Henceforth, we can easily determine whether or not o can be pruned based on three parameters: the current coarse result, its corresponding workload error, and the probabilistic threshold p_t . We remark that the workload error can also be estimated by the off-line test, when we use a *small* number of points. (In our experiments, we use the *maximum* workload error. For example, assume there are 100 approximate values, say x_a^i , where $i \in [1, 100]$, and assume the exact value is x_e . Then, the maximum workload error for this single value is $\text{argmax}\{|x_e - x_a^i|\}$. By the extensive off-line test, an overall maximum workload error thus can be estimated. Again, the Monte Carlo method is a non-deterministic algorithm, thus the extensive off-line test is needed, in order to assure the accuracy of computation.) Once we get rid of this small challenge, it is not difficult to develop the followings.

Specifically, in the proposed method, we do not directly generate N_1 points; instead we initially generate $\lfloor \frac{N_1}{\theta} \rfloor$ points in u , where θ is an integer (e.g., 10). Let N_2^0 be the number of points being located in s , where $N_2^0 \leq \lfloor \frac{N_1}{\theta} \rfloor$. Then, we get the first CVR p^0 as follows.

$$p^0 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_2^0} f(x_i, y_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{N_1}{\theta} \rfloor} f(x_i, y_i)} \tag{16}$$

Let δ^0 be the workload error when we use $\lfloor \frac{N_1}{\theta} \rfloor$ points as the input. We have

Lemma 4 *If $p^0 + \delta^0 < p_t$, then o can be pruned safely.*

Proof Let V_∞ be the value obtained by Eq. 15 when we set $N_1 \rightarrow +\infty$ (note: in this case the workload error can be taken as 0). It is clearly that $p^0 - \delta^0 \leq V_\infty \leq p^0 + \delta^0$. Incorporating the condition “ $p^0 + \delta^0 < p_t$ ”, hence $V_\infty < p_t$. This completes the proof. \square

If o cannot be pruned based on Lemma 4, we refine the first CVR by adding points. For the k th coarse-version, we denote by $\lfloor \frac{k \cdot N_1}{\theta} \rfloor$, δ^{k-1} , and N_2^{k-1} the number of generated points, the workload error and the number of points being located in s , respectively. Then, the k th CVR p^{k-1} ($1 < k \leq \theta$) can be derived as follows.

$$p^{k-1} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_2^{k-1}} f(x_i, y_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{\lfloor \frac{k \cdot N_1}{\theta} \rfloor} f(x_i, y_i)} \tag{17}$$

Furthermore, since each coarse-version corresponds to a workload error, from Lemma 4, we have an immediate corollary below.

Algorithm 1 Explicit CSPTRQ

- (1) **if** $o \odot \subseteq R$
 - (2) Set $p \leftarrow 1$, and let $\mathfrak{R} \leftarrow \mathfrak{R} \cup (o, p)$ // o be validated, Lemma 1
 - (3) **else if** $o \odot \cap R = \emptyset$
 - (4) Discard o // o be pruned, Lemma 1
 - (5) **else** // $o \odot \cap R \neq \emptyset$
 - (6) Obtain \mathcal{R}' by searching on \mathcal{I}_r , and set $s \leftarrow (o \odot \cap R) - \cup_{r \in \mathcal{R}'} r$
 - (7) **if** $s = \emptyset$
 - (8) Discard o // o be pruned, Corollary 1
 - (9) **else** // $s \neq \emptyset$
 - (10) Obtain \mathcal{R}^* by searching on \mathcal{I}_r , set $u[temp] \leftarrow o \odot$, and sort all the restricted area $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$ according to their spans
 - (11) **for each** $r \in \mathcal{R}^*$
 - (12) Let $u[temp] \leftarrow u[temp] - r$
 - (13) **if** $|u[temp]| > 1$ // multiple subdivisions appear
 - (14) $u[temp] \leftarrow$ Choose the effective subdivision
 - (15) **if** $u[temp]$ and s are disjoint
 - (16) Discard o // o be pruned, Lemma 2
 - (17) **for each** $s[i]$ // $s[i]$ is a subdivision of s
 - (18) **if** $u[temp] \cap s[i] = \emptyset$
 - (19) Remove $s[i]$ from s // Corollary 2
 - (20) Set $u \leftarrow u[temp]$
 - (21) $p[temp] \leftarrow$ Compute the first CVR // Eq. 9 (or 14)
 - (22) **if** $p[temp] < p_t$ (or $p[temp] + \delta^0 < p_t$)
 - (23) Discard o // o be pruned, Lemma 3 (or 4)
 - (24) **else**
 - (25) **while** $p[temp]$ is not the final CVR
 - (26) $p[temp] \leftarrow$ Compute the next CVR // Eq. 12 (or 15)
 - (27) **if** $p[temp] < p_t$ (or $p[temp] + \delta^{k-1} < p_t$)
 - (28) Discard o // o be pruned, Corollary 12 (or 15)
 - (29) Set $p \leftarrow p[temp]$, and let $\mathfrak{R} \leftarrow \mathfrak{R} \cup (o, p)$ // o cannot be pruned by all the rules
-

Corollary 4 *Given the probability threshold p_t , the k th CVR p^{k-1} and its corresponding workload error δ^{k-1} . If $p^{k-1} + \delta^{k-1} < p_t$, then o can be pruned safely.*

Up to now, we have shown all our pruning/validating rules (including spatial and threshold ones), we next pull them together to answer the explicit query.

4.3 Query processing for explicit CSPTRQ

4.3.1 Algorithm

Let \mathfrak{R} be the query result. Recall that \mathcal{R}' be a set of restricted areas such that the MBR of each $r \in \mathcal{R}'$ has non-empty intersection set with the MBR of $o \odot \cap R$ (cf. Section 4.1). Furthermore, we use $u[temp]$ to denote the intermediate result of the uncertainty region u (since we *manage* to compute the uncertainty region u , and hope some objects can be pruned in the early stages, recall Section 4.1.3); similarly, we use $p[temp]$ to denote the

intermediate result of p (since we adopt multi-step way to compute the appearance probability p , recall Section 4.2).

We first search the set \mathcal{O}^* of candidate moving objects on the index \mathcal{I}_o using R_b as the input. We then process each object $o \in \mathcal{O}^*$ based on Algorithm 1. Note that in the algorithm, the clause “Discard o ” denotes that the object o is to be pruned, and we shift to process the next object, without the need of executing the remaining lines.

Lines 1–20 of Algorithm 1 incorporate spatial pruning/validating mechanisms discussed in Section 4.1. More specifically, Lines 1–8 employ the strategy discussed before Section 4.1.1, and Lines 10–19 employ the strategy discussed in Section 4.1.3. Moreover, Lines 21–28 incorporate threshold pruning/validating mechanisms discussed in Section 4.2. Note that, to save space, we write the pseudo codes for uniform and non-uniform distribution PDFs together, the pseudo codes in brackets are used for the latter (cf. Lines 21–28). Moreover, the detailed algorithm for handling the generic shaped query range is built by modifying the baseline method, which is not difficult but somewhat tedious, the details are omitted.

Naturally, after all objects $o \in \mathcal{O}^*$ are handled, we get the answer \mathfrak{R} , in which all qualified objects together with their appearance probabilities are included.

4.3.2 Theoretical analysis

I/O cost. Let C_o be the cost of searching the set \mathcal{O}^* of candidate moving objects, C'_r be the cost of searching the set \mathcal{R}' of restricted areas, and C_r be the cost of searching the set \mathcal{R}^* of candidate restricted areas (note: \mathcal{R}^* is different from \mathcal{R}'). Let k_1 be the (average) number of objects pruned/validated by Lemma 1, and k_2 be the (average) number of objects pruned by Corollary 1, where $k_1 + k_2 \leq |\mathcal{O}^*|$. Note that, each cost mentioned earlier refers to the average cost. Let C_{io} be the total I/O cost, which can be estimated as follows.

$$C_{io} = C_o + (|\mathcal{O}^*| - k_1)C'_r + (|\mathcal{O}^*| - k_1 - k_2)C_r \tag{18}$$

Query cost. Let C_s be the cost of computing s (cf. Line 6 in Algorithm 1). Let C_u be the cost of computing u , and let k_3 be the (average) number of objects pruned by Lemma 2. The cost, computing the uncertainty regions of $|\mathcal{O}^*| - k_1 - k_2$ objects, is about $(|\mathcal{O}^*| - (k_1 + k_2 + k_3)) \cdot C_u$, since k_3 objects are to be pruned and usually in the early stages (recall Section 4.1.3). Let θ denote the number of multiple versions (since we use multi-step computation, recall Section 4.2). Let C_m be the cost of computing all the θ steps. For the rest of $|\mathcal{O}^*| - (k_1 + k_2 + k_3)$ objects, without loss of generality, assume that they are to be pruned (by multi-step mechanism) at the (average) i th step, where $1 \leq i \leq \theta$. Then, the cost of handling all the $|\mathcal{O}^*| - (k_1 + k_2 + k_3)$ objects is $(|\mathcal{O}^*| - (k_1 + k_2 + k_3)) \cdot \frac{i \cdot C_m}{\theta}$. Let C_q denote the total query cost (including I/O cost). Combing all the above results, C_q can be estimated as follows.

$$C_q = C_{io} + (|\mathcal{O}^*| - k_1) \cdot C_s + (|\mathcal{O}^*| - (k_1 + k_2 + k_3)) \cdot \left(C_u + \frac{i \cdot C_m}{\theta} \right) \tag{19}$$

We remark that we overlook the cost such as adding a tuple (o, p) into \mathfrak{R} , comparing the geometric relation between two entities, etc., as these costs are trivial. Moreover, the span is a real number, hence the overhead to sort $|\mathcal{R}^*|$ candidate restricted areas is pretty small and can (almost) be overlooked compared to the overhead to execute $O(|\mathcal{R}^*|)$ times geometric

subtraction operations. In the sequel, we show how to extend techniques proposed in this section to answer the implicit query.

5 Implicit CSPTRQ

We first introduce the *enhanced* multi-step computation, and then integrate the techniques proposed in Section 4.1 to answer the implicit query. The enhance multi-step computation is easily brought to mind, as we have discussed the multi-step computation in the previous section, and we can easily see that the implicit query does not need to return the appearance probabilities of qualified objects, implying that some threshold validating rules can be developed. Note that the performance differences between the explicit and implicit queries stem mainly from this step.

5.1 Enhanced multi-step computation

The enhance multi-step strategy includes (i) an *adaptive* pruning/validating mechanism, which is used for the uniform distribution case, and (ii) a *two-way test* mechanism, which is used for the non-uniform distribution case. Regarding to the two-way test mechanism, there is no much surprise. Regarding to the first mechanism, its central idea is to cleverly choose appropriate rule (or method) according to the specific case. A small challenge can be generally described as follows: given two methods and a specific case, how to determine which method is more suitable for this specific case? In the sequel, we discuss more details. (Remark: most of notations discussed later actually have already been defined in previous sections, if any question, please refer to Table 1 and/or Section 4.2.)

5.1.1 Adaptive pruning/validating mechanism

Recall the tactic discussed in Section 4.2.1. For the first coarse-version result (CVR), it is to compute $\alpha(u)$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{|s|} \alpha(s[i]_o)$ at first, and then to compute the first CVR p^0 based on Eq. 11. Since the implicit query does not need to explicitly return the probabilities of the qualified objects, clearly, it is also feasible that we first compute $\alpha(s)$ and $\alpha(u_o)$, and then compute the first CVR p^0 as follows.

$$p^0 = \frac{\alpha(s)}{\alpha(u_o)} \tag{20}$$

Lemma 5 *Given the probability threshold p_t and the first CVR p^0 (obtained by Eq. 20), we have that if the first CVR $p^0 > p_t$, then o can be validated safely.*

Proof We only need to show $p > p_t$. The proof is the similar as the one of Lemma 3. \square

If o cannot be validated based on Lemma 5, and the number of holes in u is not equal to 0 (i.e., $|\mathcal{H}| \neq 0$), we further compute the second CVR, and so on. Then, the k th CVR p^{k-1} ($1 < k \leq |\mathcal{H}| + 1$) can be derived as follows.

$$p^{k-1} = \frac{\alpha(s)}{\alpha(u_o) - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \alpha(u_h^i)} \tag{21}$$

Algorithm 2 Adaptive pruning/validating mechanism

```

(1)  $\gamma \leftarrow$  Compute the reference value // Equation (20)
(2) if  $\gamma < p_t$ 
(3)    $p[temp] \leftarrow$  Compute the first CVR // Equation (9)
(4)   if  $p[temp] < p_t$ 
(5)     Discard  $o // o$  be pruned, Lemma 3
(6)   else
(7)     while  $p[temp]$  is not the final CVR
(8)        $p[temp] \leftarrow$  Compute the next CVR // Equation (12)
(9)       if  $p[temp] < p_t$ 
(10)        Discard  $o // o$  be pruned, Corollary 3
(11)        Let  $\mathfrak{R} \leftarrow \mathfrak{R} \cup o // o$  is a qualified object
(12)   else //  $\gamma \geq p_t$ 
(13)      $p[temp] \leftarrow$  Compute the first CVR // Equation (18)
(14)     if  $p[temp] \geq p_t$ 
(15)       Let  $\mathfrak{R} \leftarrow \mathfrak{R} \cup o // o$  be validated, Lemma 5
(16)     else
(17)       while  $p[temp]$  is not the final CVR
(18)          $p[temp] \leftarrow$  Compute the next CVR // Equation (19)
(19)         if  $p[temp] \geq p_t$ 
(20)           Let  $\mathfrak{R} \leftarrow \mathfrak{R} \cup o // o$  be validated, Corollary 5
(21)         Discard  $o // o$  is an unqualified object

```

Note that p^{k-1} equals the appearance probability p when $k = |\mathcal{H}| + 1$. Furthermore, $\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \alpha(u_h^i) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{|\mathcal{H}|} \alpha(u_h^i)$, since $1 < k \leq |\mathcal{H}| + 1$. Hence, from Lemma 5, we have an immediate corollary below.

Corollary 5 *Given the probability threshold p_t and the k th CVR p^{k-1} (obtained by Eq. 21), o can be validated safely, if $p^{k-1} > p_t$. \square*

Hence, we can easily see that, if an object o cannot be pruned/validated based on the spatial information, then there are two methods to handle it.

- Method 1: We compute the CVRs according to Eq. 11 or 14, and then check if o can be pruned based on Lemma 3 or Corollary 3.
- Method 2: We compute the CVRs according to Eq. 20 or 21, and then check if o can be validated based on Lemma 5 or Corollary 5.

The naive solution is always to use one of the two methods to handle those candidate moving objects that cannot be pruned/validated by the spatial information. Instead, we adopt an *adaptive* pruning/validating mechanism. In brief, if o is more likely to be pruned, we use the “Method 1”; in contrast, if o is more likely to be validated, we use the “Method 2”. Note that, there is a question “given an object o , how to know it is more likely to be pruned (or validated)?”

Specifically, we compute a *reference value*, which is used to estimate the *trend* of o (being more likely to be pruned/validated). Let γ denote the reference value, which is computed as follows.

$$\gamma = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{|s|} \alpha(s[i]_o)}{\alpha(u_o)} \tag{22}$$

Heuristic 2 Given γ and p_t , if $\gamma < p_t$, then o is more likely to be pruned. Otherwise, o is more likely to be validated.

Algorithm 2 shows the pseudo codes of the adaptive pruning/validating mechanism. Lines 2-10 focus on pruning objects, and Lines 12-20 focus on validating objects. (Note that the meanings of the notations used in this algorithm are the same as the ones in Algorithm 1).

5.1.2 Two-way test mechanism

The two-way test mechanism is a simple extension of the method in Section 4.2. For the sake of completeness, we present it below.

Regarding to the first CVR, we can also compute it according to Eq. 16. Then, we have

Lemma 6 Given the probability threshold p_t , the first CVR p^0 and its corresponding workload error δ^0 , we have

- If “ $p^0 + \delta^0 < p_t$ ”, then o can be pruned safely.
- If “ $p^0 - \delta^0 \geq p_t$ ”, then o can be validated safely.

Proof It is immediate by extending the proof of Lemma 4. □

If o can be neither pruned nor validated based on Lemma 6, we further compute the second CVR, and so on. For the k th CVR, we can also compute it according to Eq. 17. From Lemma 6, we have an immediate corollary below.

Corollary 6 Given the probability threshold p_t , the k th CVR p^{k-1} and its corresponding workload error δ^{k-1} , we have

- If “ $p^{k-1} + \delta^{k-1} < p_t$ ”, then o can be pruned safely.
- If “ $p^{k-1} - \delta^{k-1} \geq p_t$ ”, then o can be validated safely.

The pseudo codes of the two-way test mechanism are shown in Algorithm 3. We remark that in the two-way test mechanism, if o cannot (still) be pruned/validated by the final CVR, we take the object o as a qualified object, since the final CVR equals p , and $p \in [p - \delta, p + \delta]$, where δ is the allowable workload error.

5.2 Query processing for implicit CSPTRQ

Algorithm. The spatial pruning/validating mechanisms proposed in Section 4.1 can be seamlessly incorporated for answering the implicit query, implying that the algorithm for the implicit query is the similar as the one for the explicit query. Specifically, we need to replace Line 2 and Lines 20-28 in Algorithm 1 with new pseudo codes. Clearly, Line 2 should be replaced by “ $\mathfrak{R} \leftarrow \mathfrak{R} \cup o$ ”, and Lines 20-28 should be replaced by the pseudo codes of the *enhanced multi-step computation*, i.e., Algorithms 2 and 3.

I/O and query cost. The I/O cost is the same as the one of Algorithm 1. The query cost can be estimated using the similar method presented in Section 4.3. Specifically, the i in

Algorithm 3 Two-way test mechanism

```

(1)  $p[temp] \leftarrow$  compute the first CVR // Equation(14)
(2) if  $p[temp] + \delta^0 < p_t \parallel p[temp] - \delta^0 \geq p_t$ 
(3)   if  $p[temp] + \delta^0 < p_t$ 
(4)     Discard  $o$  //  $o$  be pruned, Lemma 6
(5)   else //  $p[temp] - \delta^0 \geq p_t$ 
(6)      $\mathfrak{R} \leftarrow \mathfrak{R} \cup o$  //  $o$  be validated, Lemma 6
(7)   else
(8)     while  $p[temp]$  is not the final CVR
(9)        $p[temp] \leftarrow$  Compute the next CVR // Equation (15)
(10)      if  $p[temp] + \delta^{k-1} < p_t \parallel p[temp] - \delta^{k-1} \geq p_t$ 
(11)        if  $p[temp] + \delta^{k-1} < p_t$ 
(12)          Discard  $o$  //  $o$  be pruned, Corollary 6
(13)        else //  $p[temp] - \delta^{k-1} \geq p_t$ 
(14)           $\mathfrak{R} \leftarrow \mathfrak{R} \cup o$  //  $o$  be validated, Corollary 6
(15)       $\mathfrak{R} \leftarrow \mathfrak{R} \cup o$ 

```

Eq. 19 should be replaced with a more small value, since the enhanced multi-step mechanism not only prunes but also validates objects.

Discussion. Up to now, we have presented the algorithms used to answer the explicit and implicit queries, respectively. Recall Section 1, we mentioned potential purposes/applications of the explicit and implicit queries. One is to sort the qualified objects according to their appearance probabilities, which is (somewhat) similar to the *ranking query* [3, 16, 23]; another is to return the number of qualified objects, which is (somewhat) similar to the *aggregate query* [31, 47]. Both of tasks can be easily achieved by the minor modifications of our proposed algorithms. Specifically, an additional $O(|\mathfrak{R}| \log |\mathfrak{R}|)$ time can sort the qualified objects according to their probabilities, where $|\mathfrak{R}|$ is the cardinality of the qualified objects (note: compared to C_q in Eq. 19, this additional time can almost be overlooked, as the appearance probabilities are real numbers). Similarly, an additional $O(|\mathfrak{R}|)$ time can obtain the number of qualified objects (again, this additional time can almost be overlooked). We remark that the focuses of this paper are not the so-called ranking and/or aggregate queries. Hence, we are not ready to discuss more details about them (even though there may be more efficient solutions). The real reason (we mention them) is to show that the explicit and implicit queries can have different potential purposes/applications (note: it actually also reminds us that we should choose the appropriate query scheme instead of using the explicit or implicit query scheme for all tasks). In the next section, we attempt to further optimize our solutions based on a new insight.

6 Further optimization

In previous sections, for each candidate moving object $o \in \mathcal{O}^*$ we retrieve the set \mathcal{R}' of restricted areas from the database and then compute s , if o cannot be pruned/validated by Lemma 1. Particularly, we further retrieve the set \mathcal{R}^* of restricted areas from the database and then compute u , if o cannot still be pruned by Corollary 1 (c.f., Algorithm 1). Note that there is an overlap between \mathcal{R}' and \mathcal{R}^* (as $\mathcal{R}' \subseteq \mathcal{R}^*$). This implies that in this case we retrieve two times for the $|\mathcal{R}'|$ restricted areas, which incurs the extra I/O cost. With the similar observation we can also realize that for different candidate moving objects, their

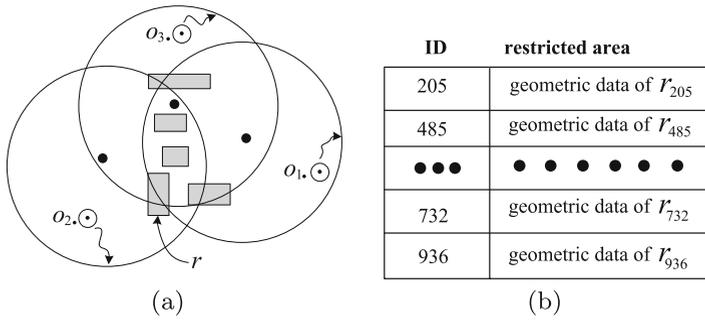


Fig. 8 Illustrations of the “overlapped” restricted areas and the data structure used to manage the <key,value> pairs. (a) In this example the three candidate moving objects have the same candidate restricted areas. (b) All these data are stored in memory in order to avoid to retrieve redundant data from the database

candidate restricted areas may have an overlap (see Fig. 8a for an illustration). This implies that previous methods retrieve multiple times for those “overlapped” restricted areas, which also incurs the extra I/O cost.

To overcome the above limitations, we develop a novel strategy. The rationale behind this strategy is to track restricted areas that have been retrieved, avoiding to retrieve redundant data from the database. Generally speaking, for each restricted area that has been retrieved from the database, we use the <key,value> pair to store the ID and geometric data of restricted area in memory. (See Fig. 8b for an example.) For brevity, we denote by D_m the data structure used to manage the set of <key,value> pairs⁶. Furthermore, we build another R-tree, which is used to index restricted areas that have been retrieved. For brevity, we use \mathcal{I}'_r to denote this R-tree. Here the leaf node does not store the detailed geometric data of restricted area, instead it only stores the ID and MBR of restricted area. With the help of D_m and \mathcal{I}'_r , we can easily track the restricted areas that have been retrieved. Specifically, we do as follows:

- If we need to obtain \mathcal{R}' (or \mathcal{R}^*), we do not directly search on \mathcal{I}_r and fetch restricted area data from the database. Instead, we first search on \mathcal{I}'_r , getting a set, say S_1 , of IDs of restricted areas (note: these restricted area data can be obtained by accessing D_m which is stored in memory); we then search on \mathcal{I}_r , getting another set, say S_2 , of IDs of restricted areas. Let S_3 be the set of IDs of restricted areas such that $S_3 = S_2 - S_1$. We here only need to fetch restricted area data (from the database) whose IDs are in S_3 . The $|S_3|$ restricted areas fetched from the database and the $|S_1|$ ones obtained from D_m constitute \mathcal{R}' (or \mathcal{R}^*).
- If restricted areas are fetched from the database, we immediately index these restricted areas using \mathcal{I}'_r , and add corresponding <key,value> pairs into D_m . That is to say, we update \mathcal{I}'_r and D_m immediately once we fetched restricted area data from the database.

With the above concepts in mind, we can easily develop the improved algorithm for the explicit query. First, we search the set \mathcal{O}^* of candidate moving objects on the index \mathcal{I}_o using R_b as the input. We then initialize D_m and \mathcal{I}'_r . Next, we process each object $o \in \mathcal{O}^*$. The steps of processing each object o are the similar as the ones in Algorithm 1, except that we need to make minor modifications on Lines 6 and 10 (here we use the strategy proposed

⁶Note that in our implementation, we employ the map container of C++ STL (standard template library).

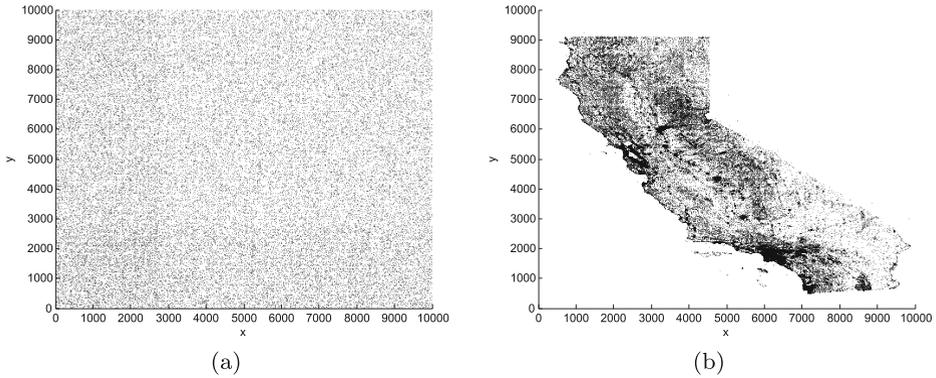


Fig. 9 Distributions of points. (a) Random distributed points. (b) Clustered California points

in this section). Note that, the improved algorithm for implicit query is available by similar modifications. The pseudo codes of these two improved algorithms are immediate, and thus are omitted for saving space. In the next section, we test the effectiveness and efficiency of the proposed algorithms, using extensive experiments under various experimental settings.

7 Experimental evaluation

7.1 Experimental setup

Our experiments are based on both real and synthetic data sets, and the size of 2D space is fixed to 10000×10000 . Two real data sets called CA and LB⁷, are deployed. The data sets are the similar as the ones in [7, 12, 30, 32]. The CA contains 104770 2D points, the LB contains 53145 2D rectangles. We let the CA denote the (latest) recorded locations of moving objects, and the LB denote the restricted areas. (Remark: this paper is not interested in querying the trajectories, and thus does not use the trajectory data sets.) All data sets are normalized in order to fit the 10000×10000 2D space. Synthetic data sets also consist of two types of data. We generate a set of polygons to denote the restricted areas, and place them in this space uniformly. We generate a set of points to denote the (latest) recorded locations of moving objects, and let them randomly distributed in this space (note: there is a constraint that these points cannot be located in the interior of any restricted area). Moreover, we randomly generate different *distant thresholds* (between 20 and 50) for different moving objects. For brevity, we use the CL and RU to denote the real (California points together with Long Beach rectangles) and synthetic (Random distributed points together with Uniform distributed polygons) data sets, respectively. The distributions of points (used to denote the recorded locations of moving objects) are plotted in Fig. 9 for reference, in which all points being located in restricted areas are already removed.

The performance metrics include the preprocessing time, update time, I/O time and query time. Specifically, the query time is the sum of I/O and CPU time. The update time is the

⁷The CA is available in site: <http://www.cs.utah.edu/lifeifei/SpatialDataset.htm>, and the LB is available in site: <http://www.rtreportal.org/>.

Table 2 Parameters Used in Our Experiments

Parameter	Description	Value
N	number of moving objects	10k, 20k, 30k, 40k, 50k
M	number of restricted areas	10k, 20k, 30k, 40k, 50k
ζ	number of edges of each r	4 , 8, 16, 32, 64
ψ	number of edges of R	4 , 8, 16, 32, 64
ϵ	size of R	100, 200, 300, 400, 500
p_r	probabilistic threshold	0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7 , 0.9
η	shape of R	Sq , Ta, Dm, Tz, Cc
N_1	number of pre-set points	700
θ	number of versions	7

sum of the time for updating the database record (i.e., l_r) and the one for updating the index \mathcal{I}_o , when an object reports its new location to the database server (note: we here do not consider the network transfer time). In order to investigate the update time, we randomly update 100 location records, and run 10 times for each test, and then compute the average value for estimating a single location update. To estimate the average I/O and query time of a single query, we randomly generate 50 query ranges, and run 10 times for each query range, and then compute the average value. Also, we run 10 times and compute the average value for estimating the preprocessing time.

Our experiments are conducted on a computer with 2.16GHz dual core CPU and 1.86GB of memory. The page size is fixed to 4K. The maximum number of children nodes in the R-tree \mathcal{I}_o (\mathcal{I}_r) is fixed to 50. The (latest) recorded locations of moving objects and the restricted areas are stored using the MySQL Spatial Extensions⁸. (Henceforth, we call them location records and restricted area records, respectively.) Other parameters are listed in Table 2, in which the numbers in **bold** denote the default settings. N , M and ζ are the settings of synthetic data sets. The default setting of each restricted area r is a rectangle with 40×10 size. Sq, Ta, Dm, Tz and Cc denote square, triangle, diamond, trapezoid and crosscriss, respectively. The specific settings of these geometries are listed in Table 3. These geometries are all bounded by the 500×500 rectangular box (i.e., MBR). L in Table 3 is 500, and (x, y) are the coordinates of left-bottom point of its MBR, which are generated randomly. We use two types of PDFs: uniform distribution and distorted Gaussian. We use the UD and DG to denote them, respectively. In our experiments, the standard deviation is set to $\frac{\tau}{5}$ (note: τ is the distance threshold), and the mean u_x and u_y are set to the coordinates of the recorded location l_r . Following the guidance of [39], we choose 700 as the number of pre-set points. In addition, we use 7 coarse versions for the multi-step computation, corresponding workload errors (WEs) are listed in Table 4, these data are obtained by the off-line test. All workload errors refer to the absolute workload errors. More specifically, CV_7 is the average (absolute) workload error, other versions are the *maximum (absolute) workload errors*. We remark that although $\theta = 7$ is not mandatory, a too small value weakens the efficiency of the multi-step mechanism, and a too large value incurs not only over-tedious tests, but also negligible pruning/validating power between two consecutive versions.

⁸More information can be obtained in site: <http://dev.mysql.com/doc/refman/5.1/en/spatial-extensions.html>.

Table 3 Use Cases of η

Shape	Value
Ta	$(x, y), (x + L, y), (x + L/2, y + L)$
Tz	$(x, y), (x + L, y), (x + 2L/3, y + L), (x + L/3, y + L)$
Dm	$(x + L/2, y), (x + 2L/3, y + L/3), (x + L, y + L/2), (x + 2L/3, y + 2L/3), (x + L/2, y + L),$ $(x + L/3, y + 2L/3), (x, y + L/2), (x + L/3, y + L/3)$
Cc	$[(x + L/3, y), (x + 2L/3, y), (x + 2L/3, y + L/3), (x + L, y + L/3), (x + L, y + 2L/3),$ $(x + 2L/3, y + 2L/3), (x + 2L/3, y + L), (x + L/3, y + L), (x + L/3, y + 2L/3),$ $(x, y + 2L/3), (x, y + L/3), (x + L/3, y + L/3)]$

7.2 Performance study

As this paper is the first attempt to the CSPTRQ, the competitors are unavailable. We implemented the baseline method⁹ (Section 3.3), the proposed methods for the explicit (Section 4) and implicit (Section 5) queries, respectively. For brevity, we use the B, PE and PI to denote the baseline method, the proposed method for the explicit query, and the proposed method for the implicit query, respectively. Note that we present the results for the explicit and implicit queries in a mixed manner, in order to save space. We first investigate the impact of parameters ψ , p_t and η on the performance based on both real and synthetic data sets, and then study the impact of parameters N , M , ϵ , ζ on the performance based on synthetic data sets. Finally, we investigate the effectiveness of the optimization strategy proposed in Section 6.

Effect of ψ . Figure 10 illustrates the results by varying ψ (the number of edges of R) from 4 to 64. Specifically, Figs. 10a and 10b are the results when synthetic data sets are used. In contrast, Figs. 10c and 10d are the results when real data sets are used. Furthermore, Figs. 10a and 10c are the results by setting the PDF as the uniform distribution; Figs. 10b and 10d are the results by setting the PDF as the distorted Gaussian. The columns in figures indicate the I/O time, whereas the curves represent the query time. Each query range in this group of experiments is an equilateral polygon. It has the property that the distance from its center to vertex is 250. From these figures, we can see that, regardless of the I/O or query performance, the PE always outperforms the B, which demonstrates the efficiency of the tactics proposed in Section 4. The query time of the PI is obviously less than the one of the PE, which proves the efficiency of the tactics proposed in Section 5. Furthermore, we can see that the query time is slightly increasing when ψ increases. This is mainly because the time computing s increases. The I/O time of the B is almost constant. There are two reasons: (i) the size of MBR is a fixed value, so the number of candidate moving objects (i.e., $|\mathcal{O}^*|$) are almost same for two queries with different ψ ; and (ii) for each object $o \in \mathcal{O}^*$, it always fetches restricted area records from the database only if the object o has candidate restricted areas (i.e., $|\mathcal{R}^*| \neq 0$). Whereas the I/O time of the proposed methods are slightly

⁹Note that, the efficiency of the baseline method for the explicit and implicit queries are identical; for ease of presentation, we here do not differentiate them.

Table 4 Multiple Version Workload Errors

Property	CV_1	CV_2	CV_3	CV_4	CV_5	CV_6	CV_7
$\lfloor \frac{k \cdot N_1}{\theta} \rfloor$	100	200	300	400	500	600	700
WE	0.3607	0.2499	0.2131	0.1921	0.1504	0.1067	0.0095

increasing. This is because both the PE and PI fetch restricted area records according to the result of $o \odot \cap R$, this intersection set is more likely equal to \emptyset when ψ is small; in this case, the proposed methods need not fetch restricted area records. On the whole, this set of experiments demonstrate that the number of edges of R makes small impact on the performance, and the proposed methods always outperform the B.

Effect of p_t . Figure 11 illustrates the results by varying the probability threshold p_t from 0.1 to 0.9. We can see that the size of p_t makes no impact on the performance of the B, whereas it makes big impact on the performance of the proposed methods. Specifically, the query time of the PE decreases when p_t increases. This demonstrates the efficiency of multi-step computation discussed in Section 4.2 (note: the strategies proposed in Section 4.1 are unrelated with the value of p_t , as the parameter p_t is only used in the threshold pruning/validating mechanisms. Figures 12a and 12b reflect this fact. In the figures $|\mathcal{O}^*|$ denotes the number of candidate moving objects, and $k_1 + k_2 + k_3$ denotes the objects pruned/validated using techniques presented in Section 4.1, recall Algorithm 1 and Section 4.3.2). Interestingly, as p_t increases, the query time of the PI first decreases (when $p_t < 0.5$), and then increases (when $p_t > 0.5$). This phenomenon is due to the enhanced multi-step computation. In particular, this interesting results are more obvious when the

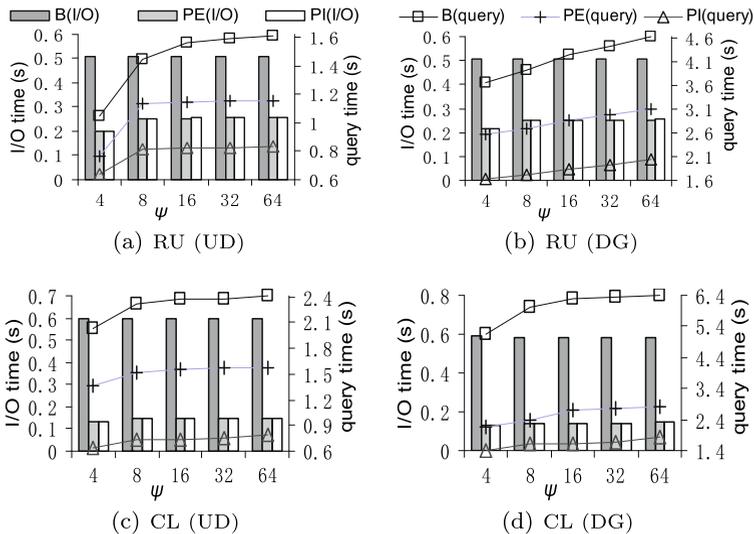


Fig. 10 Query and I/O Efficiency vs. ψ

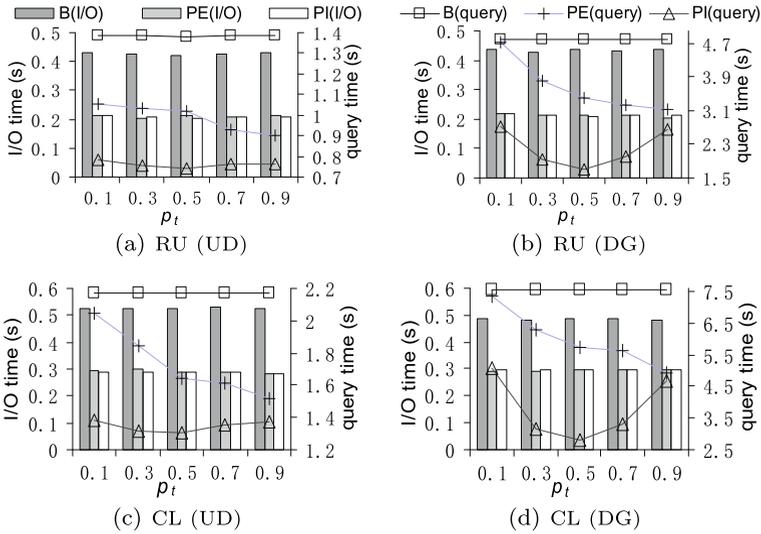


Fig. 11 Query and I/O Efficiency vs. p_t

PDF is the distorted Gaussian (see Figs. 11b and 11d). This set of experiments also show the proposed methods always outperform the B regardless of the query or I/O performance.

Effect of η . In this set of experiments, we adopt several typical geometries (cf. Table 3) as the query ranges. Figure 13 illustrates the results. From these figures, we can see that the I/O time of the B is almost constant. This is because these geometries have the same size of MBRs. Interestingly, we observe that the query time goes up when we vary η (the shape of R) from the Dm to the Tz. It is easy to know that, the areas of the Dm, Ta, Cc and Tz are $\frac{L^2}{3}$, $\frac{L^2}{2}$, $\frac{5L^2}{9}$ and $\frac{2L^2}{3}$, respectively. This implies that, for two different query ranges with the same size of MBRs, the one with the larger area usually is more likely to spend more time. This set of experiments also demonstrate the robustness and flexibility of our methods.

So far, all the experiments are based on both real and synthetic data sets. For the two data sets, the preprocessing time and update time are illustrated in Figs. 14a and 14b, respectively. The preprocessing process is very fast, it only takes several seconds.

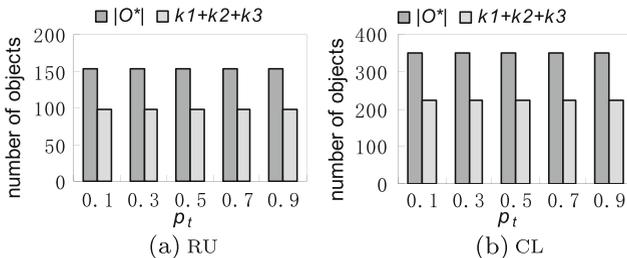


Fig. 12 $|O^*|$ and $k_1 + k_2 + k_3$ vs. p_t

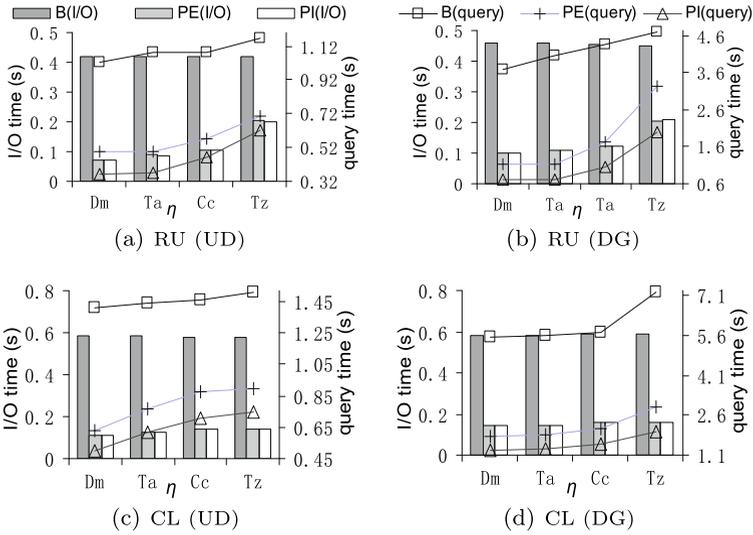


Fig. 13 Query and I/O Efficiency vs. η

(Note: recall Fig. 3d, the time is the *hour* level if we pre-compute a set of uncertainty regions). Also, the update time is very short, it only takes about tens of milliseconds. In the sequel, we study the impact of N , M , ϵ and ζ on the performance, based on synthetic data sets.

Effect of ϵ . Figure 15 illustrates the results by varying ϵ (the size of R) from 100×100 to 500×500 . From these figures, we can see that, the superiorities of the proposed methods are more obvious when ϵ is large and/or when the PDF is the distorted Gaussian. When ϵ

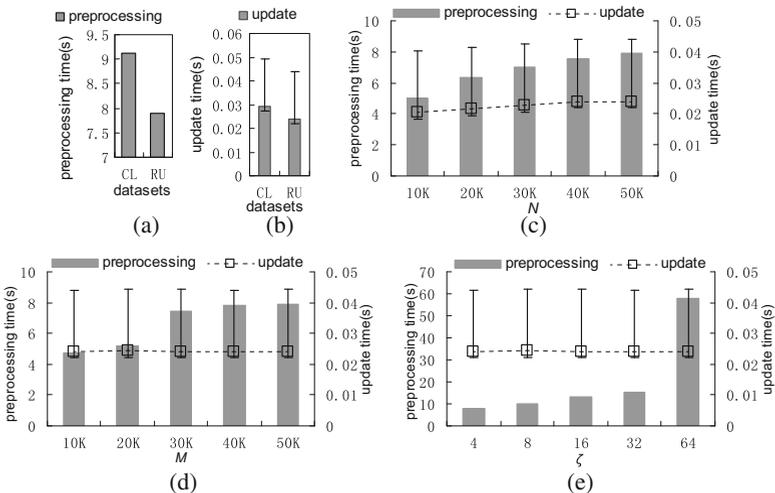


Fig. 14 Preprocessing and Update Performance

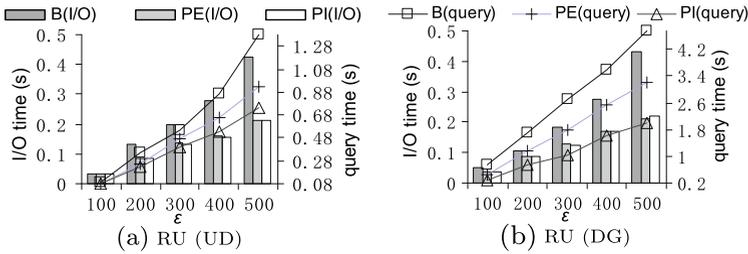


Fig. 15 Query and I/O Efficiency vs. ϵ

increases, both the I/O and query time increase for all the methods. This is because there are more candidate moving objects to be located in R (with the increase of ϵ). Naturally, more location records and corresponding restricted area records need to be fetched from the database, which incurs more I/O time. For those increased objects, we also have to compute their probabilities, which incurs more CPU time.

Effect of N . Figures 14c and 16 illustrate the experimental results by varying N (the number of moving objects) from $1e + 4$ to $5e + 4$. From these figures, we can see that the preprocessing time, update time, query time and I/O time increase as N increases. In terms of the query and I/O time, the proposed methods always outperform the B, and the (time) growth rate of the B is significantly faster than the ones of the proposed methods as N increases (especially when $N > 3e + 4$). This demonstrates that the proposed methods have better scalability.

Effect of M . Figures 14d and 17 illustrate the results by varying M (the number of restricted areas) from $1e + 4$ to $5e + 4$. We can see from Fig. 14d that the preprocessing time increases as M increases, whereas the update time is constant as M increases. This is because the preprocessing process needs to construct \mathcal{L}_r (the index of restricted areas); the update process however, is irrelevant with \mathcal{L}_r . In addition, Fig. 17 shows that both the query and I/O time slightly increase as M increases, and the proposed methods always outperform the B. Similar to the last set of experiments, in terms of the query and I/O time, the growth rate of the B is significantly faster than the proposed methods as M increases. This further demonstrates that the proposed methods have better scalability.

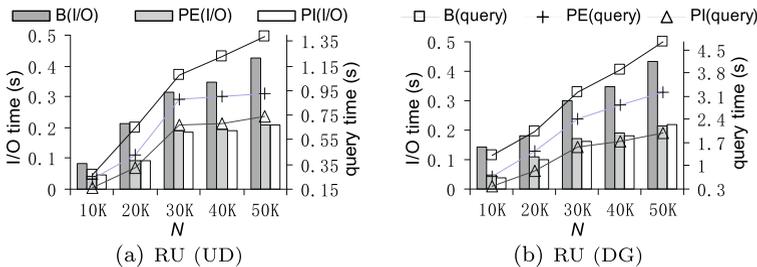


Fig. 16 Query and I/O Efficiency vs. N

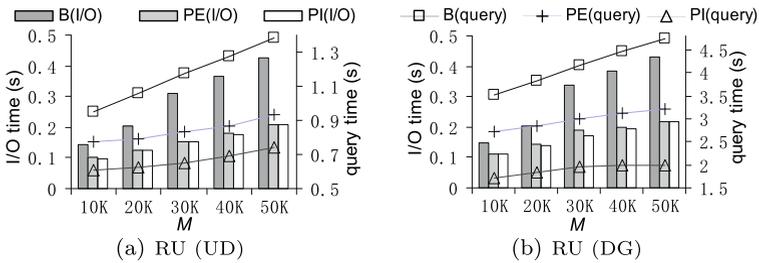


Fig. 17 Query and I/O Efficiency vs. M

Effect of ζ . Figures 14e and 18 illustrate the results by varying ζ (the number of edges of the restricted area) from 4 to 64. In this group of experiments, each restricted area r is set to an equilateral polygon. It has the property that the distance from its center to vertex is 20. As we expected, the update time is constant as ζ increases, which is shown in Fig. 14e. Interestingly, the preprocessing time increases as ζ increases. Note that, we stored the edges of each r together with its MBR in the database beforehand. In theory, constructing \mathcal{I}_r is relevant with the MBRs rather than the number of edges of each r . The experimental results however, show the preprocessing time is positively proportional to ζ . This is mainly because the time fetching the MBRs from the database goes up as ζ increases¹⁰. Even so, the preprocessing time is still short. It only takes about one minute even if ζ is set to 64. As we expected, when ζ increases, both the query and I/O time increase, which is shown in Fig. 18. Also, the proposed methods always outperform the B, and the superiorities are more obvious when ζ is large.

Up to now, we have reported the main experimental results related to the baseline method and proposed methods. We are now ready to investigate the effectiveness of the optimization strategy proposed in Section 6. With regard to explicit and implicit queries, we use respectively the PE+O and PI+O to denote the algorithms integrated the optimization strategy presented in Section 6, for ease of discussion.

Effectiveness of optimization strategy. Figure 19a reports the results when explicit queries are executed. From this figure we can easily see that the I/O time of PE+O is obviously less than the one of PE, i.e., the improvement factor¹¹ is relatively large. This demonstrates that the strategy proposed in Section 6 is effective. Note that the query time of PE+O is also less than the one of PE (although the improvement factor is not as much as the one for I/O time). Figure 19b reports the results when implicit queries are executed, from which we can derive similar findings. We remark that when we vary other parameters (e.g., ξ , N , M) instead of ζ , the experimental results also support our findings, i.e., the PE+O (PI+O) outperforms the PE (PI), and the improvement factor for I/O time is relatively large. To save space, we here do not plot those results.

¹⁰The reason is that, for two groups of restricted area records with different ζ , the group of restricted area records with more edges usually occupy more disk space, which renders more time on skipping between different disk pages, when we fetch a series of MBRs from database. Further demonstration is beyond the theme of this paper.

¹¹Here the improvement factor refers to the ratio of time. Assume that the I/O time of PE is 0.8736 seconds and the one of PI+O is 0.274 seconds, for example, the improvement factor is $\frac{0.8736}{0.274} = 3.189$.

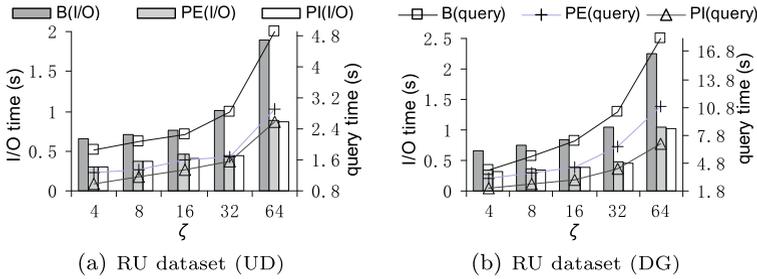


Fig. 18 Query and I/O Efficiency vs. ζ

In addition to testing the total I/O time, we also investigate the I/O time for retrieving restricted areas and moving objects, respectively. Figure 20 reports the results when the default settings are used. We can easily see that in terms of PE, most of I/O time are spent on retrieving restricted area data from the database. In contrast, the PE+O takes less time to retrieve restricted areas, as the optimization strategy discussed in Section 6 avoids to retrieve redundant restricted area data from the database. Another interesting finding is that when the CL data sets are used, the effectiveness of optimization strategy is more obvious. This is because the points (i.e., recorded locations of moving objects) are clustered in the CL data sets, rendering that different candidate moving objects easily share the same restricted areas. We remark that the I/O time of implicit query is the same as the one of explicit query, omitted for saving space.

Summary. On the whole, these experimental results show us that (i) the proposed algorithms obviously outperform the baseline method regardless of the I/O or query performance; (ii) the proposed algorithms have better scalability, compared to the baseline method; (iii) while the I/O performance of two proposed algorithms is identical, they have different query performance (it is consistent with our theoretical analysis); (iv) the preprocessing process is fast and the update efficiency is high; (v) the optimization strategy (discussed in Section 6) can significantly improve the I/O efficiency, and also reduce the query time although the improvement factor is not very large. Furthermore, these experimental results also demonstrate the robustness and flexibility of our methods.

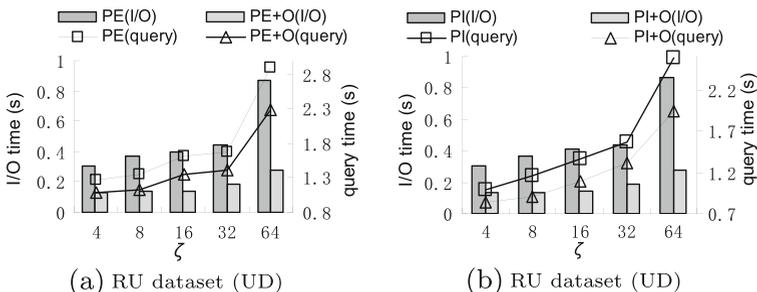


Fig. 19 The effectiveness of optimization

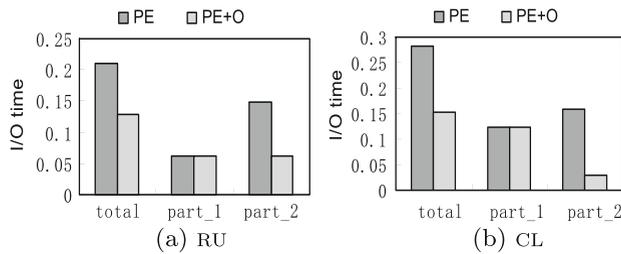


Fig. 20 Total I/O time and partial I/O time. In these figures, the term “part_1” denotes the I/O cost for retrieving moving objects, and the term “part_2” denotes the I/O cost for retrieving restricted areas

8 Concluding remarks

In this paper, we discussed the CSPTRQ for moving objects. We differentiated two forms of CSPTRQs: explicit and implicit ones (as they can have different solutions, performance results, and purposes/applications). We showed the challenges, and proposed efficient solutions that are easy-to-understand and also easy-to-implement. In brief, to answer the explicit query, we incorporated two main ideas: swapping the order of geometric operations; and computing the probability using a multi-step mechanism. We then extended these ideas to answer the implicit query, in which an enhanced multi-step mechanism is naturally developed. Furthermore, we developed a novel strategy used to retrieving restricted areas in a more efficient manner. While the rationales behind our solutions are simple, extensive experimental results demonstrated the effectiveness and efficiency of the proposed algorithms. Meanwhile, from the experiential results, we further perceived the difference between explicit and implicit queries; this interesting finding is meaningful for the future research. In the future, we prepare to study other types of probabilistic threshold queries (e.g., *concurrent queries*, *kNN queries*) while considering the existence of restricted areas (i.e., obstacles). Another interesting research topic is to extend the concept of restricted areas to other uncertainty models.

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Zhi-Jie Wang is currently the fifth-year PhD candidate in the Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, China. His research interests include query processing on uncertain data, management of moving object data, scalable data analytics, algorithm design & analysis in computational geometry and spatial databases.



Bin Yao received the PhD degree in computer science from the Florida State University, the United States. He is currently an associate professor in the Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, China. His research interests include management and indexing of large databases, query processing in spatial and multimedia databases, string and keyword search, and scalable data analytics.



Reynold Cheng received the PhD degree in computer science from the Purdue University, the United States. He is currently an associate professor in the Department of Computer Science, University of Hong Kong. His research interests include uncertainty management and efficient execution of high-update streaming applications such as location databases and sensor networks. He is also interested in privacy and data mining. He is a member of the IEEE and ACM.



Xiaofeng Gao received the PhD degree in computer science from the University of Texas at Dallas, the United States. She is currently an associate professor with the Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, China. Her research interests include indexing of large databases, data retrieval, distributed database systems, algorithm design, wireless communications, and combinatorial optimizations.



Lei Zou received the PhD degree in Computer Science from the Huazhong University of Science and Technology (HUST), China. He is currently an associate professor in the Institute of Computer Science and Technology, Peking University, China. His research interests include graph database, knowledge-base construction & search, data mining and semantic data management.



Haibing Guan received the PhD degree in computer science from the Tongji University, China. He is currently a professor with the Faculty of Computer Science, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Shanghai, China. His current research interests include, but not limited to, computer architecture, compiling, virtualization, and hardware/software codesign. He is a member of the IEEE and ACM.



Minyi Guo received the PhD degree in computer science from the University of Tsukuba, Japan. He is currently a chair professor and a head of the Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, China. His research interests include, but not limited to, embedded systems and pervasive computing. He is on the editorial board of the journals IEEE TPDS and IEEE TC. He is a member of the ACM, and a senior member of the IEEE.