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The distribution of communication cost for a mobile service scenario

by

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Abstract: We consider the following mathematical model for a mobile service scenario. Consider a planar stationary Poisson process, with its points radially ordered with respect to the origin (the anchor); these points may correspond to locations of e.g. restaurants. A user, with a location different from the origin, asks for the location of the first Poisson point and keeps asking for the location of the next Poisson point until the first time that he can be completely certain that he knows which Poisson point is his nearest neighbour. The distribution of this waiting time, called the communication cost, is analysed in detail. In particular the expected communication cost and the asymptotic behaviour as the distance between the user and the anchor increases are of interest.

Keywords: nearest-neighbour search; Poisson process; radial simulation algorithm; waiting time.

1 Introduction

The mobile Internet offers services that e.g. receive the location of the nearest point of interest such as a store, restaurant, or tourist attraction, see Yiu et al. (2008, 2009) and the references therein. Tools from applied probability
and in particular stochastic geometry should be useful for an analysis of the performance of such services.

We illustrate this by considering a user located at a given point \( q \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) and data points \( p_1, p_2, \ldots \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) corresponding to the locations of e.g. stores. In order to preserve some privacy, the user queries a server for nearby points but he reports not his correct location \( q \) but another location \( q' \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) referred to as the anchor. An incremental query processing on the server is used so that the data points are ordered in increasing distance to the anchor. The user then stops to queries the server as soon as possible, i.e., when the nearest data point with respect to \( q \) can be determined. The waiting time for this to happen is called the communication cost and is denoted \( M \); further details are given in Section 2.

The purpose of this note is to analyse the distribution of \( M \) assuming that the data points follow a stationary Poisson process \( \Phi = \{p_1, p_2, \ldots\} \) with intensity \( \rho > 0 \) (see, e.g., Kingman, 1993, or Chapter 3 in Möller and Waagepetersen, 2004). In particular the expected communication cost and the asymptotic behaviour as the distance between \( q \) and \( q' \) increases are of interest. Section 3 discusses our results.

2 The communication cost

We use the following notation. By stationarity and isotropy of \( \Phi \), we can without loss of generality take \( q' = (0,0) \) and \( q = (l,0) \), where \( l > 0 \) is the distance between the anchor and the user location. Let \( (R_i, \theta_i) \in [0, \infty) \times [0, 2\pi) \) be the polar coordinates of \( p_i \) with respect to the anchor (the origin), and order the data points such that the \( R_i \) are increasing, \( R_0 := 0 \leq R_1 \leq R_2 \leq \ldots \). Let \( p_i = p_i \) be the first NN (nearest-neighbour) to \( q \) among \( p_1, p_2, \ldots \). For \( i = 1, 2, \ldots \), let \( q_i \) denote the first NN to \( q \) among the first \( i \) data points \( p_1, \ldots, p_i \), and let \( \tilde{R}_i = \|q - q_i\| \) denote the distance from \( q \) to \( q_i \). Moreover, let \( B(x,r) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|y - x\| \leq r\} \) denote the closed disc with centre \( x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) and radius \( r \geq 0 \).

Then the communication cost \( M \) is defined as the first time \( m \) such that the user can be completely ensured that \( p = q_m \) when he has only received \( p_1, \ldots, p_m \) from the server, i.e., no matter where the points \( p_{m+1}, p_{m+2}, \ldots \) potentially could be located in \( \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus B(q',R_m) \). In other words, if for \( m \in \mathbb{N} \), we define the demand space \( D_m \) and the supply space \( S_m \) by

\[
D_m = \text{disc}(q, \tilde{R}_m), \quad S_m = \text{disc}(q', R_m),
\]

then

\[
M = \inf\{m \in \mathbb{N} : D_m \subseteq S_m\} \tag{1}
\]
(setting $\inf \emptyset = \infty$). Furthermore,

$$p = q_M$$

is returned as the NN to $q$, provided of course $M < \infty$. See Figure 1.

Figure 1: An example with $M = 3$, showing the corresponding demand space $D_3$ and supply space $S_3$.

### 3 Results

Since $M = 1$ implies that $p_1$ lies on the halfline $H$ with endpoint $q$ and direction $q-q'$, and this happens with probability zero, we have almost surely that $M \geq 2$ and $R_M \geq l$. Similarly, with probability one, for $m \in \{2, 3, \ldots\}$, $M = m$ implies that $p_m$ cannot be the NN to $q$ among $p_1, \ldots, p_m$, because this would imply that $p_m \in H$. Moreover, with probability one, the sequence $R_1, R_2, \ldots$ is strictly increasing to infinity, and so the sequence of supply spaces $S_1 \subset S_2 \subset \ldots$ tends to $\mathbb{R}^2$. On the other hand, the sequence of demand spaces decreases. Consequently, by (1) and (2), with probability one, $2 \leq M < \infty$, $D_1 \supseteq D_2 \supseteq \ldots \supseteq D_M$, and

$$p = q_M = q_{M-1}, \quad R_M = R_{M-1}, \quad R_M \geq l.$$

The distribution of $M$ may be estimated by Monte Carlo methods using a radial simulation algorithm due to Quine and Watson (1984). The radial simulation algorithm simply utilizes the fact that the squared radial coordinates $R_1^2, R_2^2, \ldots$ form a homogeneous Poisson process with intensity $\pi \rho$ on the positive halfline, so $R_l^2 - R_{l-1}^2, l = 1, 2, \ldots$, are independent and exponentially distributed with mean $1/(\pi \rho)$, and they are independent of the
angular coordinates $\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots$, which in turn are independent and uniformly distributed on $[0, 2\pi)$. The following Lemma 1 follows straightforwardly from these properties. In Lemma 1, when we consider the first $m$ data points and ignore their radial ordering, we write $\{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ for the corresponding point configuration. Moreover, $\text{Unif}([0, 2\pi))$ denotes the uniform distribution on $[0, 2\pi)$, and $\Gamma(\alpha, \beta)$ the gamma distribution with shape parameter $\alpha$ and inverse scale parameter $\beta$.

**Lemma 1** For any $m \in \mathbb{N}$, we have the following.

(i) $R_m^2 \sim \Gamma(m, \pi \rho)$ is independent of $\theta_m : \text{Unif}([0, 2\pi))$.

(ii) Conditional on $R_{m+1} = r$, the configuration of the first $m$ points $\{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ is a binomial point process on $B(q', r)$ (i.e., the $x_i$ are independent and uniformly distributed on $B(q', r)$).

(iii) Conditional on $R_{m+1} = r$, we have that $\theta_m : \text{Unif}([0, 2\pi))$ is independent of $R_m$, where $R_m / r \sim B(1, m - 1)$. If $m \geq 2$ and we condition on both $R_{m+1} = r$ and $(R_m, \theta_m)$ with $R_m = t$, then $\{x_1, \ldots, x_{m-1}\}$ is a binomial point process on $B(q', t)$.

We now turn to exact results for the distribution of the communication cost $M$, where its distribution function turns out to be more tractable than its probability density function, and we can obtain an expression for the expectation $E[M]$. We need the following notation. Let

$$f_{m+1}(r) = 2(\pi \rho)^{m+1} r^{2m+1} \exp \left( -\pi \rho r^2 \right), \quad r > 0,$$

(4)

denote the density function of $R_{m+1}$, cf. (i) in Lemma 1. For $r \geq l$ and $0 \leq \varphi < 2\pi$, let

$$v(\varphi, r) = \left( r^2 - l^2 \sin^2 \varphi \right)^{1/2} - l \cos \varphi.$$

(5)

Finally, for $0 \leq r - l \leq s \leq v(\varphi, r)$, define

$$g(r, s) = \frac{|B(q', r) \setminus B(q, s)|}{|B(q', r)|} = 1 - h(r, s) / (\pi r^2)$$

(6)

where

$$h(r, s) = |B(q', r) \cap B(q, s)|$$

(7)

$$= r^2 \arccos \left( \frac{l^2 + r^2 - s^2}{2lr} \right) - \frac{l^2 + r^2 - s^2}{4l^2} \left[ 4l^2 r^2 - (l^2 + r^2 - s^2)^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

$$+ s^2 \arccos \left( \frac{l^2 + s^2 - r^2}{2ls} \right) - \frac{l^2 + s^2 - r^2}{4l^2} \left[ 4l^2 s^2 - (l^2 + s^2 - r^2)^2 \right]^{1/2}.$$
Here $|\cdot|$ denotes area (Lebesgue measure), and we suppress in the notation that the functions in (5)-(7) depend on $l > 0$.

**Proposition 1** For $m = 2, 3, \ldots$, we have that

$$P(M > m) = \int_0^l f_{m+1}(r) \, dr + \int_l^\infty \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{r-l}^{r+l} \frac{s}{\pi r^2} g(r, s)^{m-1} f_{m+1}(r) \, ds \, d\varphi \, dr$$

and

$$EM = 2 + \pi \rho l^2 - \int_0^l \left[1 + \pi \rho r^2\right] \exp\left(-\pi \rho r^2\right) \, dr + \int_l^\infty \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{r-l}^{r+l} 2\pi \rho^2 s r \left[\exp(-\rho h(r, s)) - \exp(-\pi \rho r^2)\right] \, ds \, d\varphi \, dr$$

is finite.

**Proof** Using (1) and (3), considering each of the cases $R_{m+1} < l$ and $R_{m+1} \geq l$, we see that the probability that $M > m$ is equal to the sum of two terms, viz the term

$$P(R_m \leq l) = \int_0^l f_{m+1}(r) \, dr$$

and the term

$$\int_l^\infty \sum_{i=1}^m P(x_i \text{ is the NN to } q \text{ among } x_1, \ldots, x_m \text{ and } B(q, \|x_i - q\|) \not\subset B(q', r) | R_{m+1} = r) f_{m+1}(r) \, dr.$$ 

By (ii) in Lemma 1,

$$P(x_i \text{ is the NN to } q \text{ among } x_1, \ldots, x_m \text{ and } B(q, \|x_i - q\|) \not\subset B(q', r) | R_{m+1} = r) = \int_{B(q', r) \setminus B(q, r-l)} \left(\frac{|B(q', r) \setminus B(q, \|x - q\|)|}{|B(q', r)|}\right)^{m-1} \frac{1}{|B(q', r)|} \, dx.$$ 

Hence, by making a shift of coordinates from

$$x = q + s(\cos \varphi, \sin \varphi)$$
to the polar coordinates \((s, \varphi)\), we obtain (8) after a straightforward calculation, noticing the following facts: in (11) we can set \(q = (l, 0)\) and \(q' = (0, 0)\); for fixed \(r > l\) and \(\varphi \in [0, 2\pi)\), since \(x \in B(q', r) \setminus B(q, r - l)\), we obtain that \(s\) ranges from \(r - l\) to \(v(\varphi, r)\); here the latter bound follows from the equation \(\|l, 0 + s(\cos \varphi, \sin \varphi)\| = r\), which has only one solution because \(s > 0\). See also Figure 2.

Figure 2: Illustration of the notation used in the proof of Proposition 1. The function \(v(\varphi, r)\) is the upper bound on \(s\) considering a case with \(i\) data points such that \(x_i = q_i\) is the nearest-neighbour to \(q\), \(B(q', r)\) is the corresponding supply space, and \(B(q, s)\) is the corresponding demand space.

Since \(M - 2\) is a non-negative discrete random variable, we have that
\[
EM = 2 + \sum_{m=2}^{\infty} P(M > m).
\]
Combining this with (8), we obtain
\[
EM = 2 + \int_0^l \int_0^\infty f_{m+1}(r) \, dr \\
+ \int_l^\infty \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{r-l}^{r+l} s \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \sum_{m=2}^{\infty} mg(r, s)^{m-1} f_{m+1}(r) \, ds \, d\varphi \, dr.
\]
From this and (4), we easily obtain (9).

Since \(k(\varphi, r) \leq r + l\), it follows from (9) that \(EM\) is finite if for some number \(r_0 > l\),
\[
I := \int_{r_0}^{\infty} \int_{r-l}^{r+l} sr \left[ \exp(-\rho h(r, s)) - \exp(-\pi \rho r^2) \right] \, ds \, dr
\]
is finite. This is indeed the case, since for any \(\epsilon > 0\), if \(r_0 > l+\epsilon\) is sufficiently large, then \(h(r, s) \geq \pi (r - l - \epsilon)^2\) whenever \(r \geq r_0\) and \(r - l \leq s \leq r + l\), and so
\[
0 \leq I \leq 2l \int_{r_0}^{\infty} r^2 \exp(-\pi \rho (r - l - \epsilon)^2) \, dr - 2l \int_{r_0}^{\infty} r^2 \exp(-\pi \rho r^2) \, dr
\]
where both integrals are finite.

The integrals in (8) and (9) can be evaluated by numerical methods. In (9), as \( l \) increases towards infinity, \( EM \) is dominated by the term \( \pi \rho l^2 \), meaning that the dominating part of the expected communication cost is proportional to \( \rho \) and \( l^2 \). It is worth noticing that \( \pi \rho l^2 \) is the expected number of points in the disc \( b(q',l) \).

Note that the distribution of \( M \) depends only on \((\rho,l)\) through \( \sqrt{\rho l} \). Figure 3 visualizes the difference between \( EM \) and its dominant term \( \pi \rho l^2 \) (shown as ‘O’), where for different values of \( l \) and with \( \rho \) fixed to 1, \( EM \) has been estimated both by using (9) and a numerical method (shown as ‘×’) and by the Monte Carlo method based on 1000 independent simulations obtained by the radial simulation algorithm (shown as ‘\( \nabla \)’). The axes in Figure 3 are shown in the log-scale, the estimates of \( EM \) obtained by the two methods are rather close, and the dominating term of \( EM \) is seen to converge to \( EM \) as \( l \to \infty \). The figure also shows the Monte Carlo estimates of the 5% and 95% quantiles (shown as ‘+’).

Figures 4 and 5 show further Monte Carlo estimates with \( \rho = 1 \) and based on 1000 independent simulations obtained by the radial simulation algorithm for each tested value of \( l \). Figure 4 suggests an approximate log-linear relation between \( \sqrt{\text{Var}M/EM} \) and \( l \). Considering values of \( l \geq 2 \), the regression line in Figure 4 was estimated by the method of least squares to \( y = 0.5524x^{-0.9147} \), where \((x,y)\) corresponds to \((\log_{10} l, \log_{10} \sqrt{\text{Var}M/EM})\) \((\log_{10} \text{denotes the logarithm function with base 10})\). Figure 5 shows four histograms of the distribution of \( M \) corresponding to the simulations with \( l = 0.1, 1, 10, 100 \). For the larger values of \( l \), the distribution of \( M \) seems to be well approximated by a Gaussian distribution.

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References


Figure 3: Estimates of $E(M)$ vs. $l$ when $\rho = 1$ and $E(M)$ is estimated by the result in Proposition 1 using a numerical method (shown as ‘×’) and by the Monte Carlo method (shown as ‘∇’), together with the dominant term $\pi \rho l^2$ (shown as ‘O’) and Monte Carlo estimates of the 5% and 95% quantiles (shown as ‘+’).
Figure 4: Monte Carlo estimates of $\sqrt{\text{Var}M/EM}$ vs. $l$ when $\rho = 1$. 

![Graph showing Monte Carlo estimates of $\sqrt{\text{Var}M/EM}$ vs. $l$ when $\rho = 1$.]
Figure 5: Histograms of the distribution of M corresponding to 1000 independent simulations with $\rho = 1$ and $l = 0.1, 1, 10, 100$. 