

Trilateration Index - Masters Thesis

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Using Trilateration Distances as Geospatial Coordinates, Indexes, and Geohashes

Abstract

We present an alternative method for pre-processing and storing geospatial point data to improve query performance for some distance related queries. We propose storing the distances from three fixed points (as in trilateration) as an alternative to Latitude and Longitude. This effectively creates a coordinate system where the coordinates are the trilateration distances. We explore this alternative coordinate system and the theoretical, technical, and practical implications of using it.

Initial results are promising for some use cases. Nearest-neighbor logic is both simplified (compared to R-Tree style indexing) and performant. Trilateration (or, more generally, “n-point lateration”) is applicable to 2D, 3D, and higher dimension systems with minimal adaptation. The system is easily extensible to common geospatial database types such as lines and polygons. The concept of “Bounding Bands” (rather than “Bounding Boxes”) is introduced for coordinate systems on spheres and ellipsoids.

While we focus on geospatial data, potential applications to this approach extend to any distance-measured n-dimensional metric space, and we touch on those (briefly, here, to constrain our scope). For example, we consider applying the technique to Levenshtein distance, and even facial recognition or systems where distances do not follow the triangle inequality.

Trilateration Index – General Definition

Given an n -dimensional metric space (M, d) (the universe of points M in the space and a distance function d which respects the triangle inequality), a typical point X in the coordinate system will be described by coordinates x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , which, typically, represents the decomposition of a vector V from an “origin” point $O : 0, 0, \dots, 0$ to X into orthogonal vectors $0, x_1, 0, x_2, \dots, 0, x_n$ along each of the n dimensional axes of the space.

The Trilateration of such a point requires $n + 1$ fixed points F_p (p from 1 to $n + 1$), no three of which occupy the same $(n - 1)$ -dimensional hyperplane. The Trilateration Coordinate for the point X is then: t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{n+1} where t_i is the distance (according to d) from X to F_i (in units applicable to the system).

Network Adequacy

The trilateration index was originally designed to improve efficiency of the “network adequacy” problem for health care. Network adequacy is a common legal requirement for medicare or insurance companies with constraints such as:

- 90% of members must live within 50 miles of a covered emergency room
- 80% of female members over the age of 13 must live within 25 miles of a covered OB/GYN
- 80% of members under the age of 16 must live within 25 miles of a covered pediatrician
- etc.

Similar questions, if not legal requiremenst, show up in cellular network and satellite communication technology (numbers are illustrative):

- Maximize the number of people living within 10 miles of a 5G cell tower
- 100% of all major highways should be within 5 miles of a 4G cell tower
- There must be at least 2 satellites within 200 km of a point 450 km directly above every ground station for satellite network connectivity at any given time
- There must be at least 1 satellite with access to a ground station within 50 km of a point 450 km directly above as many households as possible at any given time

The nearest-neighbor problem was called the “Post-Office Problem”, although the system of post offices lends itself to a similar construction: * Ensure that all US Postal addresses are within range of a post office and so forth.

Note that these are all illustrative examples; the real “Medicare Advantage Network Adequacy Criteria Guidance” document for example, is a 75 page document.

Formalization of Network Adequacy

We formalize the concept of “Network Adequacy” mathematically:

Given a set of points P and set of query points Q in a metric space M (where $P \cap Q$ comprises the ‘network’), the network is ‘adequate’ for a distance d and a distance function $D(a, b)$ describing the distance between points a and b for $a \in M$ and $b \in M$ if for every point q (where $q \in Q$) \exists at least one point p ($p \in P$) $\ni D(p, q) \leq d$. Otherwise the network is inadequate.

Nearest Neighbor

2-D Bounded Example

Consider a 2-dimensional grid – a flattened map, a video game map, or any mathematical $x - y$ coordinate grid with boundaries. WOLOG in this example consider the two-dimensional Euclidean space $M = \mathbb{R}^2$ and bounded by $x, y \in \{0..100\}$. Also, let us use the standard Euclidean distance function for d . This is, trivially, a valid metric space.

Since the space has dimension $n = 2$, we need 3 fixed points F_p . While the Geospatial example on Earth has a specific prescription for the fixed points, an arbitrary space does not. We therefore prescribe the following construction for bounded spaces:

Construct a circle (hypersphere for other dimensions) with the largest area inscribable in the space. In this example, that will be the circle centered at $(50, 50)$ with radius $r = 50$.

Select the point at which the circle touches the boundary at the first dimension (for spaces with uneven boundary ratios, select the point at which the circle touches the earliest boundary x_i). Such a point is guaranteed to exist since the circle is largest (if it does not, then the circle can be expanded since there is space between every point on the circle and an axis, and it is not a largest possible circle).

From this point, create a regular $n + 1$ -gon (triangle here) which touches the circle at $n + 1$ points. These are the points we will use as F_p . They are, by construction, not all co-linear (or in general do not all exist on the same n -dimensional hyperplane) satisfying our requirement [proof].

The point $y = 0, x = 50$ is the first point of the equilateral triangle. The slope of the triangle's line is $\tan(\frac{\pi}{3})$, so setting the equation of the circle:

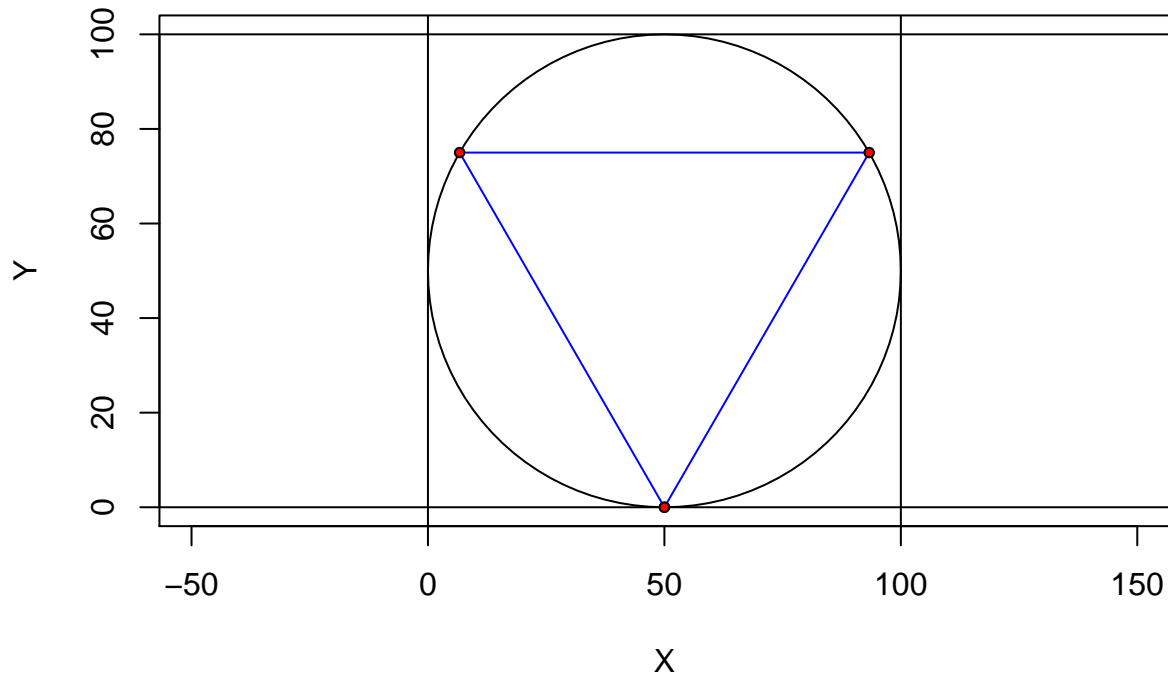
$(x - 50)^2 + (y - 50)^2 = 50^2$ equal to the lines: $y = \tan(\frac{\pi}{3})(x - 50)$ gives $x = 25(2 + \sqrt{3})$ on the right and $y = \tan(\frac{-\pi}{3})(x - 50)$ gives $x = -25(\sqrt{3} - 2)$ on the left, and of course the original $(0, 50)$ point. Applying x to our earlier equations for y we get a final set of three points:

$$F_1 = (x = 50, y = 0)$$

$$F_2 = (x = 25(2 + \sqrt{3}), y = \tan(\frac{\pi}{3})((25(2 + \sqrt{3})) - 50))$$

$$F_3 = (x = -25(\sqrt{3} - 2), y = \tan(\frac{-\pi}{3})((-25(\sqrt{3} - 2)) - 50))$$

Example calculation of reference points in 2d area



Remember, any three non-colinear points will do, but this construction spaces them fairly evenly throughout the space, which may be beneficial later* [Add section (reference) with discussions of precision and examples where reference points are very near one another].

The trilateration of any given point X in the space, now, is given by:

$$T(X) = d(F_1, X), d(F_2, X), d(F_3, X)$$

That is, the set of (three) distances d from X to F_1 , F_2 , and F_3 respectively.

10 Random Points

As a quick example of the trilateration calculations, we use a basic collection of 10 data points:

```
##          x          y
## 1  58.52396 53.516719
## 2  43.73940 43.418684
## 3  57.28944  7.950161
## 4  35.32139 58.321179
## 5  86.12714 52.201894
## 6  41.08036 78.065907
## 7  51.14533 47.157734
## 8  15.42852 80.836340
## 9  85.13531 64.090063
## 10 99.60833 78.055071
```

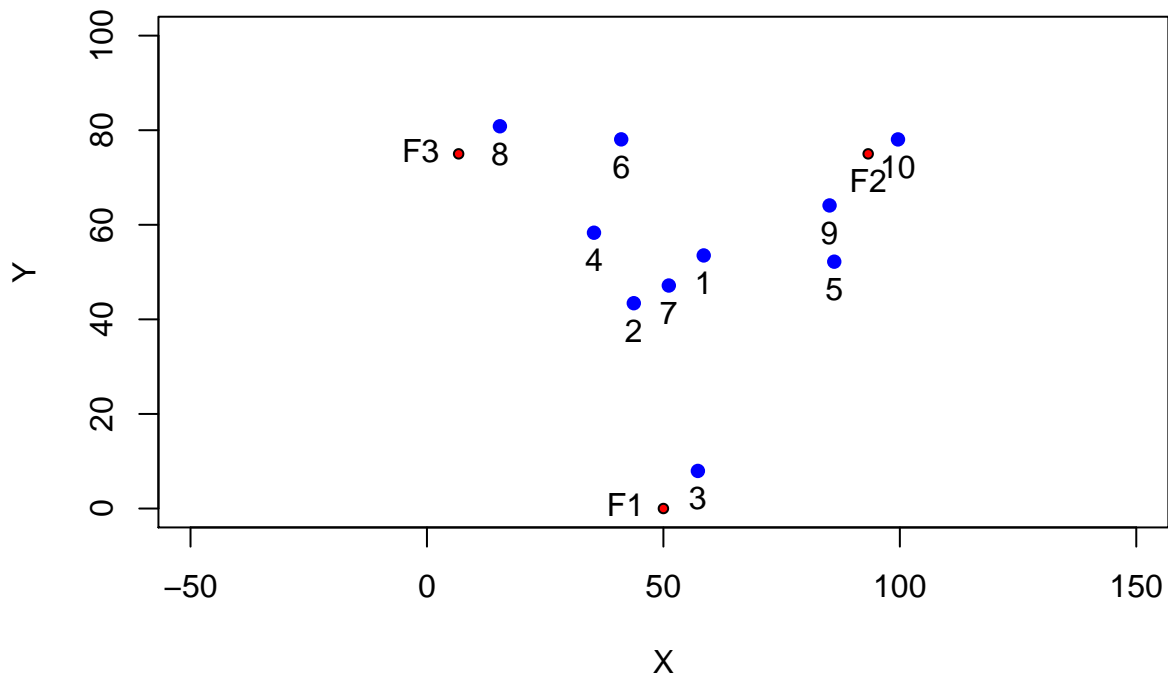
The trilateration of those points, that is, the three points $d_1, d_2, d_3 = d(F_1, X), d(F_2, X), d(F_3, X)$ are (next to the respective x_n):

##	x	y	d1	d2	d3
## 1	58.52396	53.516719	54.19130	40.877779	56.10157
## 2	43.73940	43.418684	43.86772	58.768687	48.67639
## 3	57.28944	7.950161	10.78615	76.108693	83.99465
## 4	35.32139	58.321179	60.14002	60.331164	33.12763
## 5	86.12714	52.201894	63.48392	23.900246	82.63550
## 6	41.08036	78.065907	78.57382	52.310835	34.51806
## 7	51.14533	47.157734	47.17164	50.520446	52.44704
## 8	15.42852	80.836340	87.91872	78.091149	10.50105
## 9	85.13531	64.090063	73.08916	13.627535	79.19169
## 10	99.60833	78.055071	92.48557	7.008032	92.95982

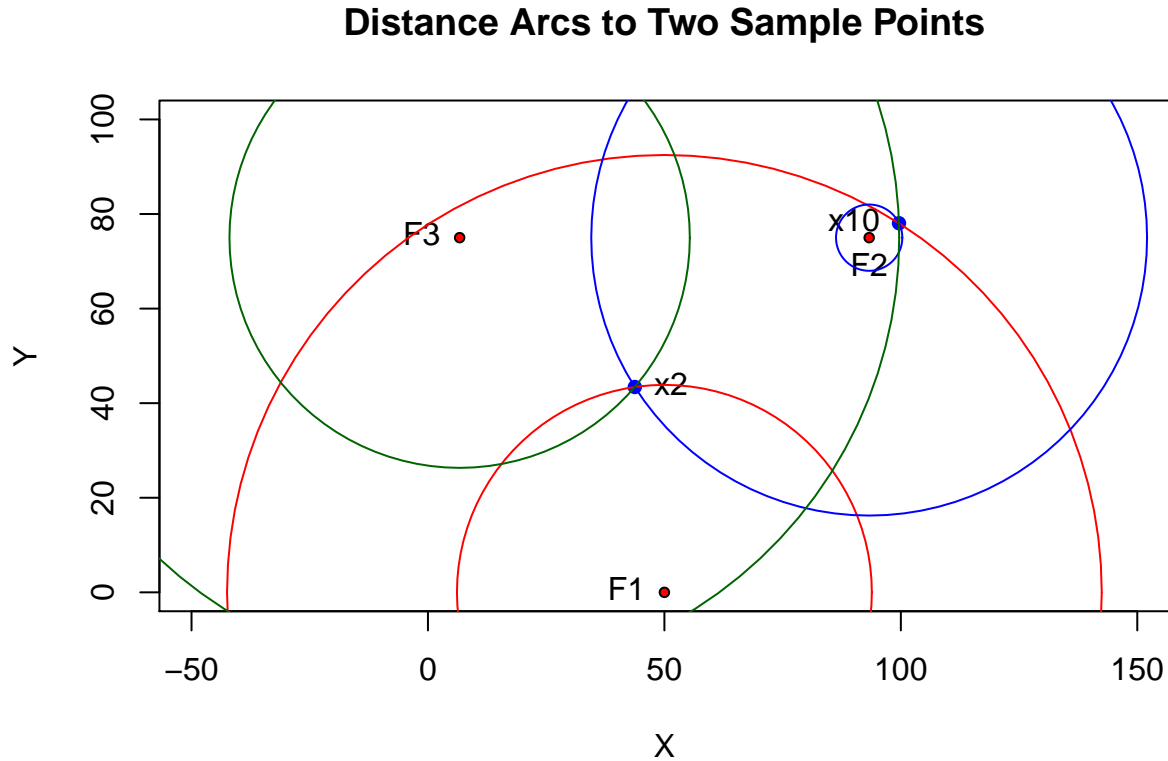
Note that we do not need to continue to store the original latitude and longitude. We can convert the three d_n distances back to Latitude and Longitude within some ϵ based on the available precision. Geospatial coordinates in Latitude and Longitude with six digits of precision are accurate to within $< 1 \text{ meter}$, and 8 digits is accurate to within $< 1 \text{ centimeter}$, although this varies based on the latitude and longitude itself; latitudes closer to the equator are less accurate than those at the poles. The distance values d_x are more predictable, since they measure distances directly. While the units in this sample are arbitrary, $F(x)$ in a real geospatial example could be in kilometers, so three decimal digits would precisely relate to 1 meter , and so on. This is one reason that we will later examine using the trilateration values as an outright replacement for Longitude and Latitude, and this feature is important when considering storage requirements for this data in large real-world database applications.

For now, continuing with the example, those 10 points are shown here in blue with the three reference points F_1, F_2, F_3 in red:

Sample Reference and Data Points



To help understand the above values, the following chart shows the distances for points x_2 and x_1 above. Specifically, the distances d_1 from point F_1 are shown as arcs in red, the distances d_2 from point F_2 in blue, and d_3 from point F_3 in green.



Use of trilateration as an index for nearest-neighbor

One of our expected benefits of this approach is an improvement in algorithms like nearest-neighbor search.

Geospatial Example

Applying this to real sample points; let the following be the initial reference points on the globe:

Point 1: 90.000000, 0.000000 (The geographic north pole)

Point 2: 38.260000, -85.760000 (Louisville, KY on the Ohio River)

Point 3: -19.220000, 159.930000 (Sandy Island, New Caledonia)

Optional Point 4: -9.420000, 46.330000 (Aldabra)

Optional Point 5: -48.870000, -123.390000 (Point Nemo)

Note that the reference points are defined precisely, as exact latitude and longitude to stated decimals (all remaining decimal points are 0). This is to avoid confusion, and why the derivation of the points is immaterial (Point Nemo, for example is actually at a nearby location requiring more than two digits of precision).

Only three points are required for trilateration (literally; thus the “tri” prefix of the term), but we include 5 points to explore the pros and cons of n-fold geodistance indexing for higher values of n.

Theoretical Discussion

Theoretical benefits:

Precision: Queries are not constrained by precision choices dictated by the index, as can be the case in Grid Indexes and similar R-tree indexes. R-tree indexes improve upon naïve Grid Indexes in this area, by allowing the data to dictate the size of individual grid elements, and even Grid Indexes are normally tunable to specific data requirements. Still, this involves analysis of the data ahead of time for optimal sizing, and causes resistance to changes in the data.

Distributed Computing: Trilateration distances can be used as hash values, compatible with distributed computing (I.e. MongoDB shards or Teradata AMP Hashes).

Geohashing: Trilateration distances can be used as the basis for Geohashes, which improve somewhat on Latitude/Longitude geohashes in that distances between similar geohashes are more consistent in their proximity.

Bounding Bands: The intersection of Bounding Bands create effective metaphors to bounding boxes, without having to artificially nest or constrain them, nor build them in advance.

Readily Indexed (B-Tree compatible): Trilateration distances can be stored in traditional B-Tree indexes, rather than R-tree indexes, which can improve the sorting, merging, updating, and other functions performed on the data.

Fault Tolerant: This coordinate system is somewhat self-checking, in that many sets of coordinates that are individually within the correct bounds, cannot be real, and can therefore be identified as data quality issues. For example, a point cannot be 5 kilometers from the north pole (fixed point F1) and 5 kilometers from Louisville, KY (fixed point F2) at the same time. A point stored with those distances could be easily identified as invalid.

Theoretical shortcomings:

Index Build Cost: Up front calculation of each trilateration is expensive, when translating from standard coordinates. Each point requires three (at least) distance calculations from fixed points and the sorting of the resulting three lists of distances. This results in $O(n \cdot \log n)$ just to set up the index.

*This could be mitigated by upgrading sensor devices and pushing the calculations back to the data acquisition step, in much the way that Latitude and Longitude are now trivial to calculate in practice by use of GPS devices. Also, we briefly discuss how GPS direct measurements (prior to conversion to Lat/Long) may be useful in constructing trilateration values.

Storage: The storing of three distances (32- or 64- bits per distance) is potentially a sizeable percent increase in storage requirement from storing only Latitude/Longitude and some R-Tree or similar index structure.

*Note that if the distances are stored instead of the Lat/Long, rather than in addition to them, storage need not increase.

Projection-Bound: The up-front distance calculations means that transforming from one spatial reference system (I.e. map projection – geodetic – get references to be specific) to another requires costly recalculations bearing no benefit from the calculation. For example a distance on a spherical projection of the earth between a given lat/long combination will be different than the distance calculated on the earth according to the standard WGS84 calculations).

*This said, we expect in most real-world situations, cross-geodetic comparisons are rare.

Difficult Bounding Band Intersection: Bounding Bands intersect in odd shapes, which, particularly on ellipsoids, but even on 2D grids, are difficult to describe mathematically. Bounding boxes on the other hand, while they distort on ellipsoids, are still easily understandable as rectangles.

Figure 1 - An example problem with radio towers R1, R2, and R3, and various receivers. Dashed lines represent the bounding bands with +/- a small distance from a given receiver (center black circle)

Figure 2 - A close look at the intersection of three bounding bands limiting an index search around a point with a search radius giving the circle in A. Note that the area B is an intersection of two of the three bands. Area C is the intersection of all three.

Appendixy stuff

Alternate Database Indexes

References (I need to finish reading and digesting these):

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