

COMPUTATIONAL GEOMETRY INTRODUCTION

Computational Geometry

- 1.What is Computational Geometry (CG)?
- 2.Why to study CG and how?
- 3.Typical application domains
- 4.Typical tasks
- 5.Complexity of algorithms
- 6.Programming techniques (paradigms) of CG
- 7.Robustness Issues

Felkel: Computational geometry

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- 8.CGAL – CG algorithm library intro
- 9.References and resources
- 10.Course summary

- CG Solves geometric problems that require clever geometric algorithms
- Ex 1: Where is the nearest phone, metro, pub,...?

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- CG Solves geometric problems that require clever geometric algorithms
- Ex 1: Where is the nearest phone, metro, pub,...?

- F Good solutions need both:
	- Understanding of the geometric properties of the problem
- Felkel: Computational geometry (5) – Proper applications of algorithmic techniques (paradigms) and data structures

■ Computational geometry

= systematic study of algorithms and data structures for geometric objects (points, lines, line segments, n-gons,…) with focus on exact algorithms that are asymptotically fast

–– "Born" in 1975 (Shamos), boom of papers in 90s (first papers sooner: 1850 Dirichlet, 1908 Voronoi,…)

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 Many problems can be formulated geometrically (e.g., range queries in databases)

\Box Problems:

- – Degenerate cases (points on line, with same *x*,…)
	- Ignore them first, include later

Robustness - correct algorithm but not robust

- Limited numerical precision of real arithmetic
- Inconsistent *eps* tests (a=b, b=c, but a ≠ c)

П Nowadays:

– focus on practical implementations, not just on asymptotically fastest algorithms

–- nearly correct result is better than nonsense or crash

2. Why to study computational geometry?

- \blacksquare Graphics- and Vision- Engineer should know it ("Data structures and algorithms in nth-Dimension") -DSA, PRP
- Set of ready to use tools
- **Nou will know new approaches to choose from**

2.1 How to teach computational geometry?

- Typical "mathematician" method:
	- definition-theorem-proof
- Our "practical" approach:
	- $-$ practical algorithms and their complexity
	- $-$ practical programing using a geometric library
- **Iour Is it OK for you?**

3. Typical application domains

- **Computer graphics**
	- – $-$ Collisions of objects
	- Mouse localization
	- – $-$ Selection of objects in region
	- –Visibility in 3D (hidden surface removal)
	- $-$ Computation of shadows

Robotics

Motion planning (find path - environment with obstacles)

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[Berg]

[Farag]

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- Task planning (motion + planning order of subtasks)
- Design of robots and working cells

3.1 Typical application domains (…)

\Box GIS

- How to store huge data and search them quickly
- $-$ Interpolation of heights
- Overlap of different data

- Extract information about regions or relations between data (pipes under the construction site, plants x average rainfall,.)
- Detect bridges on crossings of roads and rivers...

CAD/CAM

- Intersections and unions of objects
- Visualization and tests without need to build a prototype
- –Manufacturability

3.2 Typical application domains (…)

E Convex hull

 $=$ smallest enclosing convex polygon in $E²$ or n-gon in $E³$ containing all the points

■ Voronoi diagrams

–– Space (plane) partitioning into regions whose points are nearest to the given primitive (most usually a point)

Planar triangulations and space tetrahedronization of given point set

Intersection of objects

- –Detection of common parts of objects
- –Usually linear (line segments, polygons, n-gons,…)

- Motion planning
	- –– Search for the shortest path between two points in the environment with obstacles

5. Complexity of algorithms and data struc.

- \blacksquare We need a measure for comparison of algorithms
	- $-$ Independent on computer HW and prog. language
	- Dependent on the problem size *ⁿ*
	- $-$ Describing the behavior of the algorithm for different data
- **College** Running time, preprocessing time, memory size
	- $-$ Asymptotical analysis $-$ **O(g(***n***))**, $\Omega(g(n))$, $\Theta(g(n))$
	- Measurement on real data

F Differentiate:

- $-$ complexity of the algorithm (particular sort) and
- $-$ complexity of the problem (sorting)
	- given by number of edges, vertices, faces,… = problem size
	- equal to the complexity of the best algorithm

5.1 Complexity of algorithms

- **Norst case behavior**
	- –– Running time for the "worst" data
- **Expected behavior (average)**
	- –– expectation of the running time for problems of particular size and probability distribution of input data
	- Valid only if the probability distribution is the same as expected during the analysis
	- Typically much smaller than the worst case behavior
	- Ex.: Quick sort *O*(*n*2) worst and *O*(*ⁿ* log*n*) expected

6. Programming techniques (paradigms) of CG

3 phases of a geometric algorithm development

- 1. Ignore all degeneracies and design an algorithm
- 2. Adjust the algorithm to be correct for degenerate cases
	- Degenerate input exists
	- Integrate special cases in general case
	- It is better than lot of case-switches (typical for beginners)
- Felkel: Computational geometry (22) e.g.: lexicographic order for points on vertical lines or Symbolic perturbation schemes 3. Implement alg. 2 (use sw library)

6.1 Sorting

- **A preprocessing step**
- **Simplifies the following processing steps**
- Sort according to:
	- $-$ coordinates x, y,..., or lexicographically to [y,x],
	- angles around point
- *O(n logn)* time and *O(n)* space

6.2 Divide and Conquer (divide et impera)

Split the problem until it is solvable, merge results

```
DivideAndConquer(S)
```
- 1.**If** known solution **then** return it
- 2. **else**
- 3.Split input *^S* to *^k* distinct subsets *S*ⁱ
- 4.Foreach *i* call DivideAndConquer(S_i)
- 5.Merge the results and return the solution

Prerequisite

- The input data set must be separable
- Solutions of subsets are independent
- The result can be obtained by merging of sub-results

6.3 Sweep algorithm

■ Split the space by a hyperplane (2D: sweep line)

- "Left" subspace solution known
- "Right" subspace solution unknown
- **Stop in event points and update the status**
- **Data structures:**
	- – **Event points** – points, where to stop the sweep line and update the status, sorted
	- **Status** state of the algorithm in the current position of the sweep line
- **Prerequisite:**
	- –- Left subspace does not influence the right subspace

6.3b Sweep-line algorithm

6.4 Prune and search

– Binary search

Links and Committee

Eliminate parts of the state space, where the solution clearly does not exist

 $\,<$

>

prune

Felkel: Computational geometry (27) – Search trees **Links and Committee** - Back-tracking (stop if solution worse than current optimum) 123 $3\sqrt{14}$ 5678'ه' 7 9

6.5 Locus approach

- Subdivide the search space into regions of constant answer
- **Use point location to determine the region**
	- Nearest neighbor search example

6.6 Dualisation

- **Use geometry transform to change the problem** into another that can be solved more easily
- Points ↔ hyper planes
	- Preservation of incidence (A \in p \Rightarrow $\,$ p* \in A*)
- Ex. 2D: determine if 3 points lie on a common line

6.7 Combinatorial analysis

- = The branch of mathematics which studies the number of different ways of arranging things
- Ex. How many subdivisions of a point set can be done by one line?

6.8 New trends in Computational geometry

- From 2D to 3D and more from mid 80s, from linear to curved objects
- Focus on line segments, triangles in $E³$ and hyper planes in Ed
- **Strong influence of combinatorial geometry**
- Randomized algorithms
- Space effective algorithms (in place, in situ, data stream algs.)
- **Robust algorithms and handling of singularities**
- **Practical implementation in libraries (CGAL,)**

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 \Box Approximate algorithms

7. Robustness issues

- F Geometry in theory is exact
- F Geometry with floating-point arithmetic is not exact
	- $-$ Limited numerical precision of real arithmetic
	- Numbers are rounded to nearest possible representation
	- Inconsistent *epsilon* tests (a=b, b=c, but a [∫]c)
- **Naïve use of floating point arithmetic causes** geometric algorithm to
	- $-$ Produce slightly or completely wrong output
	- Crash after invariant violation
	- Infinite loop

Geometry in theory is exact

ccw(s,q,r) & ccw(p,s,r) & ccw(p,q,s) => $ccw(p,q,r)$

Geometry with float. arithmetic is not exact

F ccw(s,q,r) & $lccw(p,s,r)$ & $ccw(p,q,s)$ \neq $ccw(p,q,r)$

Floating-point arithmetic is not exact

- a) Limited numerical precision of real numbers
- **Numbers represented as normalized**

Floating-point special values

Floating-point arithmetic is not exact

b) Smaller numbers are shifted right during additions and subtractions to align the digits of the same order Example for float:

Floating-point arithmetic is not exact

b) Smaller numbers are shifted right during additions and subtractions to align the digits of the same order Example for float:

12 – p for $p \sim 0.5$ (such as 0.5+2^(-23))

– Mantissa of *p* is shifted 4 bits right to align with 12 –> four least significant bits (LSB) are lost

 24 – *p* for *p* ~ 0.5 Mantissa of *p* is shifted 5 bits right to align with 24 -> 5 LSB are lost Try it on [http://www.h-schmidt.net/FloatConverter/IEEE754.html or http://babbage.cs.qc.cuny.edu/IEEE-754/index.xhtml] Felkel: Computational geometry (38)

Orientation predicate - definition

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\text{orientation}(p, q, r) &= \text{sign}\left(\det\begin{bmatrix} 1 & p_x & p_y \\ 1 & q_x & q_y \\ 1 & r_x & r_y \end{bmatrix}\right) \\
&= \text{sign}\left((q_x - p_x)(r_y - p_y) - (q_y - p_y)(r_x - p_x)\right), \\
\text{where point } p &= (p_x, p_y), \dots \\
&= \text{third coordinate of} \\
&= (\vec{u} \times \vec{v}), \\
\text{Three points} \\
&- \text{lie on common line} \\
&- \text{form a left turn} \\
&- \text{form a right turn} \\
\text{Time in the image:} \\
\
$$

Experiment with orientation predicate

orientation(p,q,r) = sign((p_x-r_x)(q_y-r_y)-(p_y-r_y)(q_x-r_x))

orientation(p,q,r) = sign((p_x-r_x)(q_y-r_y)-(p_y-r_y)(q_x-r_x))

orientation(p,q,r) = sign((p_x-r_x)(q_y-r_y)-(p_y-r_y)(q_x-r_x))

F **orientation**(p,q,r) = sign((p_x-r_x)(q_y-r_y)-(p_y-r_y)(q_x-r_x))

orientation(p,q,r) = sign((p_x-r_x)(q_y-r_y)-(p_y-r_y)(q_x-r_x))

Return values during the experiment for exponent -52

orientation(p,q,r) = sign((p_x-r_x)(q_y-r_y)-(p_y-r_y)(q_x-r_x))

Return values during the experiment for exponent -52

orientation(p,q,r) = sign((p_x-r_x)(q_y-r_y)-(p_y-r_y)(q_x-r_x))

Return values during the experiment for exponent -52

Floating point orientation predicate double exp=-53

Pivot *p*

Errors from shift ~0.5 right in subtraction

 \blacksquare 4 bits shift \spadesuit \geq 2⁴ values rounded to the same value

 \blacksquare 5 bits shift \spadesuit => 2⁵ values rounded to the same value

$$
\text{orientation}(p, q, r) = \text{sign}\left(\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & p_x & p_y \\ 1 & q_x & q_y \\ 1 & r_x & r_y \end{bmatrix}\right) =
$$

$$
= \text{sign}\left((q_x - p_x)(r_y - p_y) - (q_y - p_y)(r_x - p_x)\right) \\
= \text{sign}\left((r_x - q_x)(p_y - q_y) - (r_y - q_y)(p_x - q_x)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_x)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_x - r_x)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_y - r_y)(q_y - r_y) - (q_y - r_y)\right) + \text{sign}\left((p_y - r_y)(
$$

$$
\text{orientation}(p, q, r) = \text{sign}\left(\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & p_x & p_y \\ 1 & q_x & q_y \\ 1 & r_x & r_y \end{bmatrix}\right) =
$$

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$$
\text{orientation}(p, q, r) = \text{sign}\left(\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & p_x & p_y \\ 1 & q_x & q_y \\ 1 & r_x & r_y \end{bmatrix}\right) =
$$

$$
= sign ((q_x - p_x)(r_y - p_y) - (q_y - p_y)(r_x - p_x))
$$

= sign ((r_x - q_x)(p_y - q_y) - (r_y - q_y)(p_x - q_x))
= sign ((p_x - r_x)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_x - r_x))

$$
p_x = 0.5, q_x = 12, r_x = 24
$$

$$
\text{orientation}(p, q, r) = \text{sign}\left(\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & p_x & p_y \\ 1 & q_x & q_y \\ 1 & r_x & r_y \end{bmatrix}\right) =
$$

$$
= \text{sign}\left((q_x - {}^{4 \text{ bits lost}}_{p_x})(r_y - p_y) - (q_y - {}^{4 \text{ bits lost}}_{p_y})(r_x - p_x)\right)
$$

\n
$$
= \text{sign}\left((r_x - q_x)(\frac{4 \text{ bits lost}}{p_y} - q_y) - (r_y - q_y)(\frac{4 \text{ bits lost}}{p_x} - q_x)\right)
$$

\n
$$
= \text{sign}\left((p_x - r_x)(q_y - r_y) - (p_y - r_y)(q_x - r_x)\right)
$$

\n
$$
p_x = 0.5, q_x = 12, r_x = 24
$$

$$
\text{orientation}(p, q, r) = \text{sign}\left(\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & p_x & p_y \\ 1 & q_x & q_y \\ 1 & r_x & r_y \end{bmatrix}\right) =
$$

$$
= \text{sign}\left((q_x - \overset{4 \text{ bits lost}}{p_x})(r_y - \overset{5 \text{ bits lost}}{p_y}) - (q_y - \overset{4 \text{ bits lost}}{p_y})(r_x - \overset{5 \text{ bits lost}}{p_x})\right)
$$

$$
= \text{sign}\left((r_x - q_x)(\overset{4 \text{ bits lost}}{p_y} - q_y) - (r_y - q_y)(\overset{4 \text{ bits lost}}{p_x} - q_x)\right)
$$

$$
= \text{sign}\left((\overset{5 \text{ bits lost}}{p_x} - r_x)(q_y - r_y) - (\overset{5 \text{ bits lost}}{p_y} - r_y)(q_x - r_x)\right)
$$

$$
p_x = 0.5, \ q_x = 12, \ r_x = 24
$$

$$
\text{orientation}(p, q, r) = \text{sign}\left(\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & p_x & p_y \\ 1 & q_x & q_y \\ 1 & r_x & r_y \end{bmatrix}\right) =
$$

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Little improvement - selection of the pivot

(b) double exp=-53

Pivot – subtracted from the rows in the matrix

Little improvement - selection of the pivot

(b) double exp=-53

Pivot – subtracted from the rows in the matrix

Pivot

Pivot q_{12}

=> Pivot *q* (point with middle *x* or *y* coord.) is the best But it is typically not used – pivot search is too complicated in comparison to the predicate itself [Kettner]

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÷ ¥ $+$ $+$ $\ddot{}$ Felkel: Computational geometry [Kettner] (47)

\blacksquare Use tolerance $\varepsilon = 0.00005$ to 0.0001 for float

Felkel: Computational geometry (47) Kettner

- \blacksquare Use tolerance $\varepsilon = 0.00005$ to 0.0001 for float
- Points are declared collinear if float_orient returns a value ≤ε0.5+2^(-23) , the smallest repr. value 0.500 000 06

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- \blacksquare Use tolerance $\varepsilon = 0.00005$ to 0.0001 for float
- Points are declared collinear if float_orient returns a value ≤ε0.5+2^(-23) , the smallest repr. value 0.500 000 06

Epsilon tweaking is the wrong approach

- \blacksquare Use tolerance $\varepsilon = 0.00005$ to 0.0001 for float
- Points are declared collinear if float_orient returns a value ≤ε0.5+2^(-23) , the smallest repr. value 0.500 000 06

Consequences in convex hull algorithm

Consequences in convex hull algorithm

Consequences in convex hull algorithm

Consequences in convex hull algorithm

Exact Geometric Computing [Yap]

Make sure that the control flow in the implementation corresponds to the control flow with exact real arithmetic

Solution

- 1. Use predicates, that always return the correct result -> Schewchuck, YAP, LEDA or CGAL
- 2. Change the algorithm to cope with floating point predicates but still return something *meaningful* (hard to define)
- 3. Perturb the input so that the floating point implementation gives the correct result on it

Computational Geometry Algorithms Library

Slides from [siggraph2008-CGAL-course]

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CGAL

Example 12 Example 10 Figgs I Large library of geometric algorithms

- –Robust code, huge amount of algorithms
- Users can concentrate on their own domain
- **Open source project**
	- Institutional members (Inria, MPI, Tel-Aviv U, Utrecht U, Groningen U, ETHZ, Geometry Factory, FU Berlin, Forth, U Athens)

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- 500,000 lines of C++ code
- 10,000 downloads/year (+ Linux distributions)
- 20 active developers
- 12 months release cycle

CGAL algorithms and data structures

Exact geometric computing

CGAL Geometric Kernel (see [Hert] for details)

Encapsulates

- $-$ the representation of geometric objects
- $-$ and the geometric operations and predicates on these objects

\Box CGAL provides kernels for

– Points, Predicates, and Exactness

Points, predicates, and Exactness

```
#include "tutorial.h"
#include <CGAL/Point 2.h>
#include <CGAL/predicates_on_points_2.h>
#include <iostream>
int main() \{Point p(1.0, 0.0);
    Point q(1.3, 1.7);Point r(2.2, 6.8);switch (CGAL::orientation( p, q, r)) {
                                  std::cout << "Left turn. \langle n'';case CGAL::LEFTTURN:
                                                                  break:
                                  std::cout << "Right turn. \n"; break;
        case CGAL::RIGHTTURN:
                                  std::count \le "Collinear. \n";
        case CGAL:: COLLINEAR:
                                                                  break:
    return 0;
                                                      [CGAL at SCG '99]Felkel: Computational geometry
                                        (56)
```
Number Types

- · Builtin: double, float, int, long, ...
- CGAL: Filtered_exact, Interval_nt, ...
- LEDA: leda_integer, leda_rational, leda_real, ...
- \bullet Gmpz: $CGAL::Gmpz$
- others are easy to integrate

Coordinate Representations

- $p = (x, y)$: CGAL::Cartesian<Field_type> \bullet Cartesian
- Homogeneous $p = (\frac{x}{w}, \frac{y}{w})$: CGAL::Homogeneous<Ring_type>

Precissionxslow-down

Cartesian with double

#include <CGAL/Cartesian.h> #include <CGAL/Point_2.h>

Cartesian with double

#include <CGAL/Cartesian.h> #include <CGAL/Point_2.h>

```
typedef CGAL::Cartesian<double>
                                         Rep;
typedef CGAL::Point_2<Rep>
                                         Point;
```

```
int main()
                                  \overline{A}Point p(0.1, 0.2);
            …
ł
                                                                                                                       \textcolor{red}{\blacksquare} CGAL at SCG '991\textcolor{red}{\blacksquare}+ + + + + + + +<br>Felkel: Computational geometry
                                                                                        (59)
```
Cartesian with Filtered_exact and leda_real

```
#include <CGAL/Cartesian.h>
#include <CGAL/Arithmetic filter.h>
#include <CGAL/leda real.h>
#include <CGAL/Point_2.h>
```

```
Number typetypedef CGAL::Filtered_exact<double, leda_real>
                                                         NT:typedef CGAL:: Cartesian<NT>
                                                         Rep;
typedef CGAL::Point_2<Rep>
                                                         Point:
int \text{main}()Point p(0.1, 0.2);
                                A single-line declaration
     …changes the 
                              precision of all computations
                                                 [CGAL at SCG '99]
                             Felkel: Computational geometry
                                   (60)
```
Exact orientation test – homogeneous rep.

```
#include <CGAL/Homogeneous.h>
#include <CGAL/Point 2.h>
#include <CGAL/predicates_on_points_2.h>
#include <iostream>
typedef CGAL:: Homogeneous<long>
                                            Rep;
typedef CGAL::Point_2<Rep>
                                            Point:
int main() \{Point p(10, 0, 10);
    Point q(13, 17, 10);
    Point r(22, 68, 10);
    switch ( CGAL::orientation( p, q, r)) {
                                  std::cout << "Left turn. \langle n'';case CGAL::LEFTTURN:
                                                                    break:
                                  std::cout << "Right turn. \n"; break;
        case CGAL:: RIGHTTURN:
                                  std::count << "Collinear.\n\n\cdot\n ; break;
        case CGAL:: COLLINEAR:
l
                                                        [CGAL at SCG '99]Felkel: Computational geometry
                                         (61)
```
9 References – for the lectures

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- $\overline{}$ **[Mount] Mount, D.:** *Computational Geometry Lecture Notes for Spring 2007* **http://www.cs.umd.edu/class/spring2007/cmsc754/Lects/comp-geomlects.pdf**
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ **Franko P. Preperata, Michael Ian Shamos:** *Computational Geometry***. An Introduction. Berlin, Springer-Verlag,1985**
- \blacksquare **Joseph O'Rourke: .: Computational Geometry in C, Cambridge University Press, 1993, ISBN 0-521- 44592-2 http://maven.smith.edu/~orourke/books/compgeom.html**
- $\overline{}$ **Ivana Kolingerová:** *Aplikovaná výpočetní geometrie***, Přednášky, MFF UK 2008**
- \blacksquare **Kettner et al.** *Classroom Examples of Robustness Problems in Geometric Computations***, CGTA 2006, http://www.mpi-inf.mpg.de/~kettner/pub/nonrobust_cgta_06.pdf**

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9.1 References – CGAL

CGAL

- Г **www.cgal.org**
- $\overline{}$ **Kettner, L.: Tutorial I: Programming with CGAL**
- \blacksquare **Alliez, Fabri, Fogel: Computational Geometry Algorithms Library, SIGGRAPH 2008**
- \blacksquare Susan Hert, Michael Hoffmann, Lutz Kettner, Sylvain Pion, and Michael Seel. **An adaptable and extensible geometry kernel**. *Computational Geometry: Theory and Applications*, 38:16-36, 2007. [doi:10.1016/j.comgeo.2006.11.004]

9.2 Useful geometric tools

- OpenSCAD *The Programmers Solid 3D CAD Modeler*, http://www.openscad.org/
- $\overline{}$ J.R. Shewchuk - *Adaptive Precision Floating-Point Arithmetic and Fast Robust Predicates*, Effective implementation of Orientation and InCircle predicates http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~quake/robust.html
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ *OpenMESH* - A generic and efficient polygon mesh data structure, https://www.openmesh.org/
- \blacksquare *VCG Library* - The Visualization and Computer Graphics Library, http://vcg.isti.cnr.it/vcglib/ $\overline{}$ *MeshLab* - A processing system for 3D triangular meshes https://sourceforge.net/projects/meshlab/?source=navbar $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$
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9.3 Collections of geometry resources

- \blacksquare **N. Amenta,** *Directory of Computational Geometry Software***, http://www.geom.umn.edu/software/cglist/.**
- \blacksquare **D. Eppstein,** *Geometry in Action***, http://www.ics.uci.edu/~eppstein/geom.html.**
- \blacksquare **Jeff Erickson,** *Computational Geometry Pages***, http://compgeom.cs.uiuc.edu/~jeffe/compgeom/**

10. Computational geom. course summary

- F Gives an overview of geometric algorithms
- F Explains their complexity and limitations
- F Different algorithms for different data
- **Ne focus on**
	- discrete algorithms and precise numbers and predicates
	- principles more than on precise mathematical proofs
	- practical experiences with geometric sw

GEOMETRIC SEARCHING PART 1: POINT LOCATION

PETR FELKEL

FEL CTU PRAGUE

Version from 25.1.2019

Geometric searching problems

- П Point location (static) – Where am I?
	- (Find the name of the state, pointed by mouse cursor)
	- –– Search space S: a planar (spatial) subdivision
	- Query: point Q
	- Answer: region containing Q
- П Orthogonal range searching – Query a data base (Find points, located in d-dimensional axis-parallel box)

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- Search space S: a set of points
- –- Query: set of orthogonal intervals q
- Answer: subset of points in the box
- (Was studied in DPG)

Point location

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Point location in polygon
- F Planar subdivision
- $\overline{}$ DCEL data structure
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Point location in planar subdivision
- Felkel: Computational geometry (3) – slabs monotone sequence – trapezoidal map

1. Ray crossing - O(n)

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	- Compute number *t* of ray intersections with polygon edges (e.g., ray X+ after point moved to origin)

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	- If odd(*t*) then inside else out

Point location in polygon

- 2. Winding number O(n) (number of turns around the point)
	- Sum oriented angles φi = *∟(p_i, z, p_{i+1})*
	- If (sum φi = 2 π) then inside (1 turn)
	- $I = \text{If (sum pi = 0)}$ then outside (no turn)
	- About 20-times slower than ray crossing

Point location in polygon

- $-$ For convex polygons
- $-$ If (left from all edges) then inside

Area of Triangle

Vector product of vectors AB x AC

- Vector perpendicular to both vectors AB and AC
- p. For vectors in plane is perpendicular to the plane (normal)
- F In 2D (plane *xy) –* only *z-*coordinate is non-zero
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ $|AB \times AC|$ = z-coordinate of the normal vector

= area of parallelopid

= 2x area *T* of triangle ABC

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Area of Triangle

Point location in polygon

4. Binary search in angles

Works for convex and star-shaped polygons

- 1. Choose any point *q* inside / in the polygon core
- *2.q* forms wedges with polygon edges
- 3. Binary search of wedge výseč based on angle
- 4. Finaly compare with one edge (left, CCW => in,

Planar graph

Planar graph U=set of nodes, H=set of arcs

 $=$ Graph G $=$ (U,H) is planar, if it can be embedded into plane without crossings

Planar embedding of planar graph $G = (U,H)$

mapping of each *node in U to vertex* in the plane and each *arc in H into simple curve (edge)* between the two images of extreme nodes of the arc, so that **no** two **images of arc intersect** except at their endpoints

Every planar graph can be embedded in such a way that arcs map to straight line segments [Fáry 1948]

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Planar subdivision

- = Partition of the plane determined by straight line planar embedding of a planar graph. Also called PSLG – Planar Straight Line Graph
- \Box (embedding of a planar graph in the plane such that its arcs are mapped into straight line segments)

Planar subdivision

 \Box A structure for storage of planar subdivision

- \Box Vertex record v
	- –Coordinates(v) and pointer to one IncidentEdge(v)

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[Berg]

- \Box Face record f
	- –- OuterComponent(f) pointer (boundary)
	- – $-$ List of holes – InnerComponent(f)
- **Half-edge record e**
	- –Origin(e), Twin(e), IncidentFace(e)
	- –Next(e), Prev(e)
	- –[Dest(e) = Origin(Twin(e))]
- П Possible attribute data for each

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 $\vec{e}_{1,1}$

 $\overline{e_{4,2}}$

 $\overline{\vec{e}_{2,1}}$

 $\vec{e}_{2,2}$

InnerComponents

 $\vec{e}_{1,1}$

nil

IncidentFace

 f_1

 $f₂$

 f_1

 f_1

 $f₁$

 $f₂$

 $f₂$

 f_{1}

[Berg]

Prev

 $\vec{e}_{3,1}$

 $\overrightarrow{e}_{4,1}$

 $\vec{e}_{4,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{2,1}$

 $\overline{e}_{2,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{1,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{3,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{1,1}$

Next

 $\vec{e}_{4,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{3,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{2,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{3,1}$

 $\vec{e}_{1,1}$

 $\vec{e}_{4,1}$

 $\vec{e}_{1,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{2,1}$

 $\overline{e_{4,2}}$ $\overline{\vec{e}_{2,1}}$ $\vec{e}_{2,2}$ **InnerComponents OuterComponent** $\vec{e}_{1,1}$ nil

IncidentEdge

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One of edges

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[Berg]

One of edges

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[Berg]

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 $\overrightarrow{e}_{4,1}$

 $\vec{e}_{4,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{2,1}$

 $\vec{e}_{2,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{1,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{3,2}$

 $\vec{e}_{1,1}$

One of edges $\overline{}$

IncidentEdge

 $\vec{e}_{1,1}$

 $\overline{\vec{e}_{4,2}}$

 $\overline{\vec{e}_{2,1}}$

 $\overline{\vec{e}_{2,2}}$

DCEL simplifications

- F If no operations with vertices and no attributes
	- –No vertex table (no separate vertex records)
	- –Store vertex coords in half-edge origin (in the half-edge table)
- **If no need for faces (e.g. river network)**
	- –No face record and no IncidentFace() field (in the half-edge table)
- \blacksquare If only connected subdivision allowed
	- – $-$ Join holes with rest by dummy edges
	- –Visit all half-edges by simple graph traversal
	- – $-$ No InnerComponent() list for faces

Point location in planar subdivision

- F Using special search structures an optimal algorithm can be made with
	- $-$ O(n) preprocessing,
	- $-$ O(n) memory and
	- $-$ O(log n) query time.
- \Box Simpler methods
	- 1. Slabs $O(log n)$ query, $O(n^2)$ memory 2. monotone chain tree $O(log^2 n)$ query, $O(n^2)$ memory 3.trapezoidal map O(log n) query expected time

O(n) expected memory

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1. Vertical (horizontal) slabs [Dobkin and Lipton, 1976]

- \Box Draw vertical or horizontal lines through vertices
- \Box It partitions the plane into vertical slabs
	- –Avoid points with same x coordinate (to be solved later)

Horizontal slabs example

Horizontal slabs complexity

- \Box Query time $O(\log n)$
	- $O(\log n)$ time in slab array T_v (size max 2n endpoints)
	- + $O(\log n)$ time in slab array T_χ (slab crossed max by n edges)
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Memory $O(n^2)$
	- –– Slabs: Array with y-coordinates of vertices \ldots $O(n)$
	- –– For each slab $\mathit{O}(n)$ edges intersecting the slab

Horizontal slabs complexity

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	- $O(\log n)$ time in slab array T_v (size max 2n endpoints)
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2. Monotone chain tree

3. Trapezoidal map (TM) search

- F The simplest and most practical known optimal algorithm
- F Randomized algorithm with O(n) expected storage and O(log n) expected query time
- p. Expectation depends on the random order of segments during construction, not on the position of the segments
- F TM is refinement of original subdivision
- p. Converts complex shapes into simple ones

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[Mount]

(25)

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[Mount]

(25)

- F Faces are trapezoids Δ with vertical sides
- p. Given n segments, TM has
	- at most 6n+4 vertices
	- $-$ at most 3n+1 trapezoids
- F Proof:

– each <u>point</u> 2 bullets -> 1+2 points

- $-$ 2n endpoints $*$ 3 + 4 = 6n+4 vertices
- start point –> max 2 trapezoids **BBOX**
- end point –> 1 trapezoid
- $-$ 3 * (n segments) + 1 left Δ $\;$ => $\;$ max 3n+1 Δ

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Each face has

- F one or two vertical sides (trapezoid or triangle) and
- F exactly two non-vertical sides

Two non-vertical sides

Non-vertical side

- F is contained in one of the segments of set *S*
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ ■ or in the horizontal edge of bounding rectangle R

Vertical sides – left vertical side of D

Left vertical side is defined by the segment end-point *p=leftp*(∆) (a) common left point *p* itself

- (b) by the lower vert. extension of left point *p* ending at bottom()
- (c) by the upper vert. extension of left point *p* ending at top()
- (d) by both vert. extensions of the right point *p*
- (e) the left edge of the bounding rectangle R (leftmost Δ only)

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Vertical sides - summary

Vertical edges are defined by segment endpoints

- F \blacksquare *leftp*(Δ) = the end point defining the left edge of Δ
- F \blacksquare *rightp*(Δ) = the end point defining the right edge of Δ

leftp(∆) is

- П the left endpoint of *top*() or *bottom*() or both (c, b, a)
- П the right point of a third segment (d)
- П the lower left corner of the bounding rectangle R

Trapezoid \triangle

F Trapezoid Δ is uniquely defined by

- $-$ the segments *top*(Δ), *bottom*(Δ)
- $-$ And by the endpoints *leftp*(Δ), *rightp*(Δ)

Adjacency of trapezoids segments in general position

p. **Trapezoids** Δ **and** Δ' **are adjacent, if they meet along a** vertical edge

Adjacency of trapezoids segments in general position

p. **Trapezoids** Δ **and** Δ' **are adjacent, if they meet along a** vertical edge

Representation of the trapezoidal map *T*

Special trapezoidal map structure *Τ*(*S*) stores:

- F Records for all line segments and end points
- П **■** Records for each trapezoid Δ ∈ $T(S)$
	- Definition of Δ pointers to segments *top*(Δ), *bottom*(Δ), pointers to points *leftp*(Δ), *rightp*(Δ)
	- Pointers to its max four neighboring trapezoids
	- Pointer to the leaf⊠in the[search structure *D*](see below)

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- \Box Does not store the geometry explicitly!
- \Box Geometry of trapezoids is computed in O(1)

Construction of trapezoidal map

F Randomized incremental algorithm

- 1. Create the initial bounding rectangle (${\mathcal T}_0$ =1∆) … O(n)
- 2. Randomize the order of segments in S
- 3. for *i* = 1 to *n* do
- 4.Add segment *Si* to trapezoidal map *Ti*
- 5.locate left endpoint of *Si* in *Ti-1*
- 6.find intersected trapezoids
- 7.shoot 4 bullets from endpoints of *Si*
- 8.trim intersected vertical bullet paths

Trapezoidal map point location

- $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}}$ While creating the trapezoidal map *T* construct the *Point location data structure D*
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Query this data structure

Point location data structure D

- F Rooted directed acyclic graph (not a tree!!)
	- Leaves IX – trapezoids, each appears exactly once
	- $-$ Internal nodes $-$ 2 outgoing edges, guide the search
		- \mathbf{x}_λ)x-node x-coord x_0 of segment start- or end-point left child lies left of vertical line x=x $_{\rm 0}$ p_1
			- right child lies right of vertical line x=x $_{\rm 0}$
			- used first to detect the vertical slab

 y-node – pointer to the line segment of the subdivision (not only its y!!!) left – above, right – below ${\tt S_1}$

Construction – addition of a segment

a) Single (left or right) endpoint - 3 new trapezoids

Construction – addition of a segment

b) Two segment endpoints – 4 new trapezoids

Construction – addition of a segment

c) No segment endpoint – create 2 trapezoids

Segment insertion example

Segment insertion example

Analysis and proofs

F This holds:

– Number of newly created $\Delta\;$ for inserted segment: ${\sf k}_{\sf i}$ = K+4 => O(k $_{\sf i}$) = O(1) for K trimmed bullet paths

- Search point O(log *n*) in average $=$ Expected construction $O(n(1 + log n)) = O(n log n)$
- П For detailed analysis and proofs see

Handling of degenerate cases - principle

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ No distinct endpoints lie on common vertical line

–- Rotate or shear the coordinates x'=x+ y, y'=y

Handling of degenerate cases - realization

F **Trick**

- – $-$ store original (x,y) , not the sheared x',y'
- – $-$ we need to perform just 2 operations:
- 1. For two points *p,q* determine if transformed point *q* is to the left, to the right or on vertical line through point *p*
	- $-$ If x_{p} = x_{q} then compare y_{p} and $y_{\text{q}}^{}$ (on only for $y_{\text{p}}^{} = y_{\text{q}}^{}$)
	- => use the original coords (x, y) and **lexicographic order**
- 2. For segment given by two points decide if 3rd point *q* lies above, below, or on the segment $p_1 p_2 + p_3$
	- Mapping preserves this relation
	- $=$ => use the original coords (x, y)

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Point location summary

- p. Slab method [Dobkin and Lipton, 1976]
	- –*O*(*n2*) memory *O*(log *n*) time
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Monotone chain tree in planar subdivision [Lee and Preparata,77]

O(*n2*) memory *O*(log*² ⁿ*) time

- p. Layered directed acyclic graph (Layered DAG) in planar subdivision [Chazelle , Guibas, 1986] [Edelsbrunner, Guibas, and Stolfi, 1986]
	- *O*(*n*) memory *O*(log *n*) time => optimal algorithm

of planar subdivision search (optimal but complex alg. => see elsewhere)

- \blacksquare Trapeziodal map
	- $-$ O(n) expected memory *■ O***(log** *n***) expected time**

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O(n log *n*) expected preprocessing (simple alg.

References

- $\overline{}$ **[Berg] Mark de Berg, Otfried Cheong, Marc van Kreveld, Mark Overmars: Computational Geometry:** *Algorithms and Applications***, Springer-Verlag, 3rd rev. ed. 2008. 386 pages, 370 fig. ISBN: 978-3-540-77973-5 http://www.cs.uu.nl/geobook/**
- \blacksquare **[Mount] Mount, D.:** *Computational Geometry Lecture Notes for Fall 2016***, University of Maryland, Lectures 9, 10** http://www.cs.umd.edu/class/fall2016/cmsc754/Lects/cmsc754-fall16-lects.pdf

GEOMETRIC SEARCHING PART 2: RANGE SEARCH

PETR FELKEL

FEL CTU PRAGUE

Version from 19.10.2017

Range search

- F Orthogonal range searching
- $\overline{}$ Canonical subsets
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ 1D range tree
- \mathcal{L}_{max} 2D-nD Range tree
	- With fractional cascading (Layered tree)
- П Kd-tree

 $-$ Given a set of points P, find the points in the region Q

- Example: Databases (records->points)
	- Find the people with given range of salary, date of birth, kids, …

 $-$ Given a set of points P, find the points in the region Q

• Search space: a set of points P (somehow represented)

Example: Databases (records->points)

• Find the people with given range of salary, date of birth, kids, …

- $-$ Given a set of points P, find the points in the region Q
	- Search space: a set of points P (somehow represented)
	- Query: $intervals Q$ (axis parallel rectangle)
- Example: Databases (records->points)
	- Find the people with given range of salary, date of birth, kids, …

- $-$ Given a set of points P, find the points in the region Q
	- Search space: a set of points P (somehow represented)
	- Query: $intervals Q$ (axis parallel rectangle)
	- Answer: points contained in Q
- Example: Databases (records->points)
	- Find the people with given range of salary, date of birth, kids, …

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Query region = axis parallel rectangle
	- – nDimensional search can be decomposed into set of 1D searches (separable)

Other range searching variants

- \mathbf{r} Search space S: set of
	- $-$ line segments,
	- rectangles, …
- \blacksquare Query region Q: any other searching region
	- disc,
	- polygon,

How to represent the search space?

Basic idea:

- F Not all possible combination can be in the output (not the whole power set)
- П => Represent only the "selectable" things (a well selected subset –> one of the canonical subsets)

How to represent the search space?

Basic idea:

- F Not all possible combination can be in the output (not the whole power set)
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Subsets selectable by given range class

- \Box The number of subsets that can be selected by simple ranges Q is limited
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ It is usually much smaller than the power set of P
	- $-$ Power set of P where P = {1,2,3,4} (potenční množina) is {{ }, {1},{2},{3},{4}, {1,2},{1,3},{1,4}, {2,3},…,{2,3,4}, $\{1,2,3,4\}$ \ldots O(2ⁿ)

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- i.e. set of all possible subsets
- Simple rectangular queries are limited
	- Defined by max 4 points along 4 sides \Rightarrow O(n⁴) of O(2ⁿ) power set
	- Moreover not all sets can be formed
		- by \Box query Q

Canonical subsets Si

Search space $S = (P, Q)$ represented as a collection of canonical subsets $\{S_{1}, S_{2},..., S_{k}\},$ each S_{i} , S_{j}

- S_i may overlap each other (elements can be multiple times there)
- Any set can be represented as disjoint union disjunktní sjednocení of canonical subsets S_i each element knows from which subset it came
- $-$ Elements of disjoint union are ordered pairs (x, i) (every element x with index i of the subset S_i)
- S_i may be selected in many ways
	- from *n* singletons $\{pi\}$... $O(n)$
	- to power set of $P \ldots O(2^n)$
	- Good DS balances between total number of canonical subsets and number of CS needed to answer the query

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1D range queries (interval queries)

- F **Query: Search the interval** $[x_{lo}, x_{hi}]$
- F Search space: Points $P = \{p_1, p_2, ..., p_n\}$ on the line a) Binary search in an array
	- Simple, but
	- not generalize to any higher dimensions
	- b) Balanced binary search tree

1D range tree definition

F Balanced binary search tree (with repeated keys)

- – $-$ leaves – sorted points
- –– inner node label – the largest key in its left child
- Each node associate with subset of descendants

Canonical subsets and <2,23> search

1D range tree search interval <2,23>

- F Canonical subsets for any range found in O(log *n*)
	- $-$ Search x_{lo}: Find leftmost leaf *u* with key(*u*) \ge x_{lo} 2 ->[$_3$
	- $-$ Search x_{hi} : Find leftmost leaf *v* with key(*v*) \geq x_{hi} 23 - F_{24}
	- – Points between *^u* and *^v* lie within the range => report canon. subsets of maximal subtrees between *u* and *v*
	- Split node = node, where paths to *^u* and *^v* diverge

1D range tree search

- F Reporting the subtrees (below the split node)
	- On the path to *^u* whenever the *path goes left*, report the canonical subset (CS) associated to right child
	- – On the path to *^v* whenever the *path goes right*, report the canonical subset associated to left child
	- $-$ In the leaf *u*, if key(*u*) \in [x_{lo}:x_{hi}] then report CS of *u*
	- – $-$ In the leaf *v*, if key(*v*) \in [x_{lo}:x_{hi}] then report CS of *v*

1D range tree search complexity

F Path lengths O(log n)

> => O(log n) canonical subsets (subtrees)

F Range counting queries

[Berg]

- Return just the number of points in given range
- Sum the total numbers of leaves stored in maximum subtree roots … O(log *n*) time
- П Range reporting queries
	- Return all *k* points in given range
	- Traverse the canonical subtrees … O(log *ⁿ* ⁺*k*) time

Find split node

Multidimensional range searching

- F Equal principle – find the largest subtrees contained within the range
- П Separate one *n*-dimensional search into *n* 1-dimensional searches
- **COL** Different tree organization
- Felkel: Computational geometry (17) Orthogonal (Multilevel) range search tree e.g. nd range tree – Kd tree
From 1D to 2D range tree

- F Search points from $[Q.x_{\text{lo}}\ Q.x_{\text{hi}}]$ $[Q.y_{\text{lo}}\ Q.y_{\text{hi}}]$
- F 1d range tree: log n canonical subsets based on x
- F Construct an y auxiliary tree for each such subset

y-auxiliary tree for each canonical subset

2D range tree

2D range search

2D range tree

- F Search $O(\log^2 n + k)$... $\log n$ in x, $\log n$ in
- F Space $O(n \log n)$
	- $\mathit{O}(n)$ the tree for x-coords
	- $\emph{O}(n\log n)$ trees for y-coords
		- Point p is stored in all canonical subsets along the path from root to leaf with p,
		- once for x-tree level (only in one x-range)
		- each canonical subsets is stored in one auxiliary tree
		- log n levels of x-tree => $O(n \log n)$ space for y-trees
- \Box Construction - $O(n \log n)$

 $-$ Sort points (by x and by y). Bottom up construction

[Berg]

Canonical subsets

nD range tree (multilevel search tree)

Fractional cascading - principle

- F ■ Two sets S_1 , S_2 stored in sorted arrays A_1 , A_2
- F Report objects in both arrays whose keys in [y:y']
- \blacksquare Naïve approach – search twice independently
	- O(log *n 1*+ k_1) – search in A₁ + report k_1 elements
	- O(log*n₂+k₂) –* search in A₂ + report *k₂* elements
- $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}}$ **Fi** Fractional cascading – adds pointers from A_1 to A_2
	- O(log *n 1*+ k_1) – search in A₁ + report k_1 elements
	- – $-$ O(1 + k_2) $-$ jump to A₂ + report k_2 elements
- –– Saves the O(log*n₂*) – search Felkel: Computational geometry (25)

Fractional cascading – principle for arrays

- F **• Add pointers from** A_1 **to** A_2
	- From element in A_1 with a key ${\color{black} y}_i$ point to the element in A_2 with the smallest key *larger or equal* to \boldsymbol{y}_i
- F Example query with the range [20 : 65]

Fractional cascading in the 2D range tree

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ How to save one log n during last dim. search?
	- –– Store canonical subsets in arrays sorted by y
	- – $-$ Pointers to subsets for both child nodes $v_{\scriptscriptstyle L}$ and $v_{\scriptscriptstyle R}$
	- – $O(1)$ search in lower levels => in two dimensional search $O(\log^2 n)$ time -> $O(\log n)$

internal node in x-tree

Orthogonal range tree - summary

- F Orthogonal range queries in plane
	- – $-$ Counting queries $O(\log^2 n$) time, or with fractional cascading $O(\log n)$ time
	- Reporting queries plus $O(\:k\:$) time, for k reported points
	- $-$ Space $O($ $n\log n$ $)$
	- –– Construction $O(\ n \log n$)
- \Box Orthogonal range queries in d-dimensions, $d\geq 2$
	- $-$ Counting queries $O(\,log^d n\,)$ time, or with fractional cascading $O(\log^{d-1} n)$ time
	- Reporting queries plus $O(\:k\:$) time, for k reported points

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- $-$ Space $O(n\log^{d-1} n$)
- \neq Constru<u>ction $O(n\log^{d-1}n$) time</u>

Kd-tree

- F Easy to implement
- F Good for different searching problems (counting queries, nearest neighbor,…)
- П Designed by Jon Bentley as k-dimensional tree (2-dimensional kd-tree was a 2-d tree, …)
- \Box Not the asymptotically best for orthogonal range search (=> range tree is better)
- Felkel: Computational geometry (29) × Types of queries – Reporting – points in range –Counting – number of points in range

- \Box Subdivide space according to different dimension $(x$ -coord, then y -coord, ...)
- П This subdivides space into rectangular cells => hierarchical decomposition of space
- \Box In node *t* store: cutDim, cutVal, (size (for counting queries)) = Cutting line

 p_3^{\bullet}

 P_1

- \Box Subdivide space according to different dimension $(x$ -coord, then y -coord, ...)
- П This subdivides space into rectangular cells => hierarchical decomposition of space

 p_8

 p_7

 p_{6}^{\bullet}

Subdivision

 $|p_1|$

 p_{2}

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 P_4

 P_3

[Mount]

 $p_{\rm o}$

 $p_{\rm g}$

Tree structure

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- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ This subdivides space into rectangular cells => hierarchical decomposition of space
- \Box In node *t* store: cutDim, cutVal, (size (for counting queries)) = Cutting line

F Which dimension to cut? (cutDim)

- – Cycle through dimensions (round robin)
	- Save storage cutDim is implicit \sim depth in the tree
	- May produce elongated cells (if uneven data distribution)
- – Greatest spread (the largest difference of coordinates)
	- Adaptive
	- Called "Optimal kd-tree"
- \Box Where to cut? (cutVal)
	- – Median, or midpoint between upper and lower median $\rightarrow O(n)$
	- $-$ Presort coords of points in each dimension $(x, y, ...)$ for $O(1)$ median – resp. $O(d)$ for all d dimensions

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ What about points on the cell boundary?
	- –Boundary belongs to the left child
	- – $-$ Left: $\qquad \qquad \mathsf{p}_{\mathsf{cutDim}}$ \leq <code>cutVal</code>
	- –— Right: p_{cutDim} p_{cutoff} > cutVal

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Kd-tree construction in 2-dimensions

- **1.If (***P* contains only one point) [or small set of (10 to 20) points]
- 2.**then return** a leaf storing this point
- 3.**else if (***depth* is even)
- 4. **then** split *P* with a vertical line *l* through median *^x* into two subsets P_1 and P_2 (left and right from median)
- 5. **else** split *P* with a horiz. line *l* through median y into two subsets P_1 and P_2 (below and above the median)
- 6.*t* $_{\text{left}}$ = BuildKdTree(P_1 , depth+1)
- 7.*t*_{right} = BuildKdTree(P_2 , depth+1)
- 8.create node *t* storing *l*, t_{left} and t_{right} children $+$ // l = cutDim, cutVal

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9.**return** *t*

If median found in $O(1)$ and array split in $O(n)$ $T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + n = > O(n \log n)$ construction

Kd-tree construction in 2-dimensions

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- Felkel: Computational geometry 3. **else if (***depth* is even) 4. **then** split *P* with a vertical line *l* through median *^x* into two subsets P_1 and P_2 (left and right from median) 5. **else** split *P* with a horiz. line *l* through median y into two subsets P_1 and P_2 (below and above the median) 6.*t* $_{\text{left}}$ = BuildKdTree(P_1 , depth+1) 7. t_{riath} = BuildKdTree(P_2 , depth+1) 8.create node *t* storing *l*, t_{left} and t_{right} children $+$ // l = cutDim, cutVal 9. **return** *t* If median found in O(1) and array split in O(n) $T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + n$ => $O(n \log n)$ construction Split according to (*depth%max_dim)* dimension

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a) Compare rectang. array Q with rectangular cells C

- –Rectangle C: $[x_{\text{lo}}, x_{\text{hi}}, y_{\text{lo}}, y_{\text{hi}}]$ – computed on the fly
- –Test of kD node cell C against query Q (in one cutDim)
	- 1. if cell is disjoint with Q $\;\ldots\;$ C \cap Q $=\varnothing\;$ \ldots stop
	- 2. If cell C completely inside Q … *C* \subseteq Q … stop and report cell points
	-

3. else cell C overlaps Q … recurse on both children

Recursion stops on the largest subtree (in/out)

Kd-tree rangeCount (with rectangular cells)

Kd-tree rangeCount example

b) Compare Q with cutting lines

- –Line = Splitting value *p* in one of the dimensions
- – Test of single position given by dimension against Q
	- 1.Line *p* is right from Q ... recurse on left child only (prune right child)
	- 2.
- Line *p* intersects Q ... recurse on both children
	- 3. Line p is left from Q
- ... recurse on right child only (prune left ch.)
- Recursion stops in leaves traverses the whole tree

Kd-tree rangeSearch (with cutting lines)

Input: Output: int rangeSearch(*t*, *Q*) The root *t* of (a subtree of a) kD tree and query range *Q.* Points at leaves below *t* that lie in the range.

- **1.if (***t* is a leaf)
- **2.if** (*t.point* lies in *Q) report t.point //* or loop test for all points in leaf
- *3. else return*

Kd-tree - summary

- F Orthogonal range queries in the plane (in balanced 2d-tree)
	- $-$ Counting queries $O(|\sqrt{n}|)$ time
	- Reporting queries O(\sqrt{n} + k) time, where $k = No$. of reported points
	- Space O(n)
	- Preprocessing: Construction O(n log n) time (Proof: if presorted points to arrays in dimensions. Median in O(1) and split in O(n) per level, log n levels of the tree)

$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ For $d \geq 2$:

 $-$ Construction O(d n log n), space O(dn), Search O(d n^(1-1/d) + k)

Proof sqrt(n)

Každé sudé patro se testuje osa x.

- • V patře 0 je jeden uzel a jde se do obou synů (v patře 1 se jde taky do obou)
- • v patře 2 jsou 4 uzly, z nich jsou ale 2 bud úplně mimo, nebo úplně in => stab jen 2
- • v 4. patře stab 4 z 8, … • v i-tém patře stab 2^i uzlů Výška stromu je log n Proto tedy sčítám sudé členy z 0..log n z 2^i. Je to exponenciála, proto dominuje poslední člen $2^{\wedge}(\log n / 2) = 2^{\wedge} \log (\text{sqrt}(n)) = \text{sqrt}(n)$ Felkel: Computational geometry (40)

Orthogonal range tree (RT)

- $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}}$ DS highly tuned for orthogonal range queries
- **Query times in plane**

References

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CONVEX HULLS

PETR FELKEL

FEL CTU PRAGUE

Version from 16.11.2017

Talk overview

- F Motivation and Definitions
- F Graham's scan – incremental algorithm
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Divide & Conquer
- \Box Quick hull
- П Jarvis's March – selection by gift wrapping

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 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Chan's algorithm – optimal algorithm

Convex hull (CH) – why to deal with it?

- F *Shape approximation* of a point set or complex shapes (other common approximations include: minimal area enclosing rectangle, circle, and ellipse,…) – e.g., for collision detection
- F *Initial stage* of many algorithms to filter out irrelevant points, e.g.:
	- diameter of a point set

 minimum enclosing convex shapes (such as rectangle, circle, and ellipse) depend only on points on CH

Convexity

F A set *S* is *convex*

- $-$ if for any points p,q \in S $\,$ the lines segment $\overline{\rho q} \subseteq$ S, or
- – $\,$ if any convex combination of ρ and q is in $\, {\bf S}$
- \Box Convex combination of points *p, q* is any point that can be expressed as $(1 - \alpha) p + \alpha q$, where $0 \le \alpha \le 1$ p q α =0 α =1
- \Box *Convex hull* CH(S) of set *S* – is (similar definitions)
	- the smallest set that contains *S (convex)*
	- or: intersection of all convex sets that contain *S*
	- Or in 2D for points: the smallest convex polygon containing all given points

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Definitions from topology in metric spaces

- p. ■ *Metric space* – each two of points have defined a *distance*
- p. *r-neighborhood* of a point *p* and radius *^r > 0* = set of points whose distance to *p* is strictly less than *^r* (open ball of diameter *^r* centered about *p*) *p*
- F Given set S, point *p* is
	- $-$ Interior point of S if ∃ $r, r > 0$, (r-neighborhood about ρ) \subset S
	- Exterior point if it lies in interior of the complement of S
	- Border point is neither interior neither exterior

Definitions from topology in metric spaces

Clopen (otevřená i uzavřená)

– Ex. Empty set ϕ , finite set of disjoint components if it is both closed and open space $Q =$ rational numbers (S= all positive rational numbers whose square is bigger than 2) $S = (\sqrt{2}, \infty)$ in Q, $\sqrt{2} \notin Q$, S = S

 $\sqrt{2} = 1.414213562$

Definitions from topology in metric spaces

 \Box *Convex set S may be bounded or unbounded*

 \Box *Convex hull* CH(S) of a finite set *S* of points in the plane

= Bounded, closed, (= compact) convex polygon

Convex hull representation

- F CCW enumeration of vertices
- F Contains only the extreme points ("endpoints" of collinear points)

Felkel: Computational geometry \Box Simplification for the whole semester: Assume the input points are in general position, no two points have the same *x*-coordinates and – no three points are collinear -> We avoid problem with non-extreme points on *^x* (solution may be simple – e.g. lexicographic ordering)

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Online x offline algorithms

- F Incremental algorithm
	- –– Proceeds one element at a time (step-by-step)
- П Online algorithm (must be incremental)
	- $\hbox{--}$ is started on a partial (or empty) input and
	- $-$ continues its processing as additional input data becomes available (comes online, thus the name).
	- Ex.: insertion sort
- \Box Offline algorithm (may be incremental)
	- requires the entire input data from the beginning

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- than it can start
- –Ex.: selection sort (any algorithm using sort)

Graham's scan

- F Incremental O(*ⁿ* log *n*) algorithm
- F Objects (points) are added one at a time
- F Order of insertion is important
	- 1. Random insertion
		- –> we need to test: *is-point-inside-the-hull(p)*
	- 2. Ordered insertion

Find the point p with the smallest y coordinate first

- a) Sort points $\boldsymbol{p_i}$ according to *increasing angles* around the point p (angle of pp_i and \overline{x} axis)
- b) Andrew's modification: sort points \overline{p}_i according to \overline{x} and add them left to right (construct upper & lower hull)

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Sorting *x-coordinates* is simpler to implement than sorting of angles

Graham's scan – b) modification by Andrew

- F O(*n* log *n*) for unsorted points, O(*n)* for sorted pts.
- F Upper hull, then lower hull. Merge.
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Minimum and maximum on *^x* belong to CH

Graham's scan – incremental algorithm

Position of point in relation to segment

> 0 < 0

 ^r is left from *pq*, CCW orient orient(p, q, r) \leq = 0 if (p, q, r) are collinear *^r* is right from *pq*, CW orient

Is Graham's scan correct?

Stack H at any stage contains upper hull of the points

- ${p_1, ..., p_j, p_i}$, processed so far
- $-$ For induction basis $H = \{p_{\bf 1}, p_{\bf 2}\} \dots$ true
- $\; p_i$ = last added point to CH, p_j = its predecessor on CH
- $-$ Each point p_k that lies between p_j and p_i lies below $p_j p_i\;$ and should not be part of UH after addition of p_i => is removed before push $p_i.$ [orient(p_i, p_k, p_i) > 0, p_k is right from $p_i p_i \Rightarrow p_k$ is removed from UH]

Complexity of Graham's scan

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Sorting according x – O(*ⁿ* log *n*)
- F Each point pushed once $-O(n)$
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Some $(d_i \le n)$ points deleted while processing p_i

–O(*n*)

П The same for lower hull $- O(n)$

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П
    Total O(n log n) for unsorted points
             O(n) for sorted points
```
Divide & Conquer

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ (*n* log(*n*)) algorithm
- F Extension of mergesort
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Principle
	- Sort points according to *x*-coordinate,
	- recursively partition the points and solve CH.

ConvexHullD&C(points **P)**

Input: Output: CCW points on the convex hull points p

1.Sort points P according to *^x*

Input: Output: upper tangent *ab* **Upper_tangent**(H_1 , H_R) two non-overlapping CH's

- 1. a = rightmost H_L
- 2. $\,$ b = leftmost $\rm H_R$

- 3.while(ab is not the upper tangent for H_L , H_R) do
- 4.while(ab is not the upper tangent for H_1) $a = a$. *succ* // move CCW
- 5.while(ab is not the upper tangent for H_R) $b = b$. pred // move CW 6.Return *ab*

Where: (ab is not the upper tangent for H_1) => orient(a, b, a.succ) ≥ 0 which means *a.succ* is left from line *ab*

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Convex hull by D&C complexity

- F Initial sort O(*ⁿ* log(*n*))
- F Function hull()
	- Upper and lower tangent $O(n)$
	- – $-$ Merge hulls $O(1)$ \rightarrow $O(n)$
	- –Discard points between tangents O(*n*)
- \Box Overall complexity
	- Recursion $T(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & ... \text{ if } n \leq 3 \\ 2T(n/2) + O(n) & ... \text{ otherwise } \end{cases}$
		-

–Overall complexity of CH by D&C: => O(*ⁿ* log(*n*))

Quick hull

- F A variant of Quick Sort
- F O(*n* log *n*) expected time, max O(*n*2)
- \blacksquare Principle
	- $-$ in praxis, most of the points lie in the interior of CH
	- E.g., for uniformly distributed points in unit square, we expect only O(log *n*) points on CH

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- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Find extreme points (parts of CH) quadrilateral, discard inner points
	- –Add 4 edges to temp hull T
	- –Process points outside 4 edges

Process each of four groups of points outside

- F For points outside *ab* (left from *ab* for clockwise CH)
	- –Find point *^c* on the hull *–* max. perpend. distance to *ab*
	- –Discard points inside triangle *abc* (right from the edges)
	- –– Split points into two subsets
		- outside *ac* (left from *ac*) and outside *cb* (left from *cb*)
	- Process points outside *ac* and *cb* recursively
	- Replace edge *ab* in *T* by edges *ac* and *cb*

Quick hull complexity

- \Box *ⁿ* points remain outside the hull
- \Box *T*(*n*) = running time for such *n* points outside
	- –O(*n*) - selection of splitting point *^c*
	- – $-$ O(*n*) - point classification to inside & (*n*₁+*n*₂) outside
	- Felkel: Computational geometry n_1 + n_2 \le n – The running time is given by recurrence 1 if *n* = 1 $T(n_1)$ + $T(n_2)$ where n_1 + n_2 \leq n $-$ If evenly distributed that $\max(n_1,n_2)\leq \alpha n, 0<\alpha< 1$ then solves as QuickSort to $O(cn \log n)$ where $c=f(\alpha)$ else O*(n*²*)* for unbalanced splits *T*(*n*) = \boldsymbol{n} $n_1 \leq \alpha n$ n_2 α $n_1 > \alpha + n_2$ **OK WRONG**

(27)

Jarvis's March – selection by gift wrapping

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Variant of $O(n^2)$ selection sort
- F Output sensitive algorithm
- $\overline{}$ O*(nh) … h = number of points on convex hull*

Output sensitive algorithm

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Worst case complexity analysis analyzes the worst case data
	- Presumes, that all (const fraction of) points lie **on** the CH
	- The points are ordered along CH
		- \Rightarrow We need sorting \Rightarrow $\Omega(n \log n)$ of CH algorithm

Chan's algorithm

- F Cleverly combines Graham's scan and Jarvis's march algorithms
- П Goal is O(*ⁿ* log *h*) running time
	- We cannot afford sorting of all points (*n* log *n*)
	- \Rightarrow Idea: work on parts, limit the part sizes to polynomial h^c the complexity does not change \Rightarrow log h^c = log *h*
	- –*h* is unknown – we get the estimation later
	- – $-$ Use estimation m , better not too high => h \leq m \leq h^2
- П 1. Partition points *P* into *r-*groups of size *m, r = n/m*
	- –– Each group take O(*m* log *m*) time + + + + sort + Graham

Felkel: Computational geometry

(31)

r-groups take O(*^r ^m*log *^m*) = O(*n* log *^m*) - Jarvis

Merging of *^m* **parts in Chan's algorithm**

- **The Co** 2. Merge *r*-group CHs as "fat points"
	- – Tangents to convex *^m*-gon can be found in O(log *m*) by binary search

Chan's algorithm complexity

- F *h* points on the final convex hull
	- => at most *h* steps in the Jarvis march algorithm
	- –– each step computes *r*-tangents, O(log *m*) each
	- –merging together O(*hr* log *m*)

```
r-groups of size m, r = n/m
```
\Box Complete algorithm O(*n* log *h*)

- Graham's scan on partitions O(*r .m* log *m*)=O(*n* log *m*)
- Jarvis Merging: O(*hr* log *m*) = O(*h n*/*m* log *m*), …4a) $h \leq$ $= O(n \log m)$

 $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$
Felkel: Computational geometry

(33)

- Altogether Other State (1980)
- How to guess *m? Wait!*
	- *1) use m as an estimation of h 2) if it fails, increase m*

Chan's algorithm for known *^m*

Input: Output: group of size *^m* PartialHull(*P*, *^m*) points P

O(log *m***)**

- 1.. Partition *P* into *r* = n/m disjoint subsets {p₁, p₂, …, p_r} of size at most *m*
- $\overline{2}$ for *i=1 to r do*
	- a) Convex hull by GrahamsScan (P_i) , store vertices in ordered array
- 3. Let p_1 = the bottom most point of P and p_0 = (– ∞ , p_1 .y)
- 4.for $k = 1$ to m do $\frac{1}{2}$ compute merged hull points

a) for *i* = 1 to *r* do // angle to all *^r* subsets => points *qi*Compute the point $q_i \in P$ that maximizes the angle $\scriptstyle\perp$ p_{k-1}, p_k, q_i

- b) let p_{k+1} be the point $q \in \{q_{1},\, q_{2},\, ...,\, q_{r}\}$ that maximizes $\mathfrak{c} \mathrel{{p_{k+1}}}, \, p_{k},\, q$ (p $_{\mathsf{k+1}}$ is the new point in CH) Jarvis
	- c) if $p_{k+1} = p_1$ then return $\{p_1, p_2, ..., p_k\}$

5.return "Fail, *^m* was too small"

Chan's algorithm – estimation of *^m*

```
Input:
Output: convex hull p<sub>1</sub>…p<sub>k</sub>
                                + + + + + + + + + + +(35)
ChansHull
         points P
1. for t = 1, 2, … , [lg lg h] do {
      a) let m = min(2^{2^{n}t}, n)b) L = PartialHull( P, m)
      c) if L \neq "Fail, m was too small" then return L
     }
Sequence of choices of m are { 4, 16, 256,…, 22^t ,…, n } … squares
Example: for h = 23 points on convex hull of n = 57 points, the algorithm
    will try this sequence of choices of m \{4, 16, 57\}1. 4 and 16 will fail
      2. 256 will be replaced by n=57
```
Complexity of Chan's Convex Hull?

- F The worst case: Compute all iterations
- F tth iteration takes O(*n* $log 2^{2^{t}}$) = O(*n* 2^t)
- F Algorithm stops when $2^{2^{n}t} \geq h \Rightarrow t = \sqrt{g} \lg h$
- a. All $t = \sqrt{lg}$ lg h iterations take:

Using the fact that
$$
\sum_{i=0}^{k} 2^{i} = 2^{k+1} - 1
$$

$$
\sum_{t=1}^{\lg\lg h} n 2^t = n \sum_{t=1}^{\lg\lg h} 2^t \leq n 2^{1+\lg\lg h} = 2n \lg h = O(n \log h) + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1
$$

Felkel: Computational geometry (36) 2x more work in the worst case

Complexity of Chan's Convex Hull?

- F The worst case: Compute all iterations
- F tth iteration takes O($n \log 2^{2^{t}} = O(n 2^{t})$
- F Algorithm stops when $2^{2^{n}t} \geq h \Rightarrow t = \sqrt{g} \lg h$

—

 \Box All $t = \sqrt{g} \lg h$ iterations take: Using the fact that $\sum 2^i = 2^{k+1} - 1$ 0 $\sum^{k} 2^{i} = 2^{k+1}$ *i* $\,{}^+$ \sum

 $2^{\iota}=n\sum2^{\iota}\leq n2^{\frac{1+\lg\lg h}{n}}=2n\lg\, h=O(n\log h)$ lg lg 1 lg lg 1 $n2^t = n \sum 2^t \leq n2^{1+\lg\lg h} = 2n \lg h = O(n \log h)$ *h t t h t* $t' = n \sum 2^t \leq n2^{1+\lg\lg h} = 2n \lg\, h = 1$ $=$ 1 1 $=$ $\sum n2^{t} = n \sum$

 $F = + + + + + +$

(36)

2x more work in the worst case

one iteration

Complexity of Chan's Convex Hull?

- F The worst case: Compute all iterations
- F tth iteration takes O($n \log 2^{2^{t}} = O(n 2^{t})$
- F Algorithm stops when $2^{2^{n}t} \geq h \Rightarrow t = \sqrt{g} \lg h$
- All *t* =|lg lg *h*| iterations take:

Using the fact that
$$
\sum_{i=0}^{k} 2^{i} = 2^{k+1} - 1
$$

$$
\sum_{t=1}^{\lg\lg h} n 2^t = n \sum_{t=1}^{\lg\lg h} 2^t \leq n 2^{1+\lg\lg h} = 2n \lg h = O(n \log h)
$$

one iteration

Felkel: Computational geometry (36) 2x more work in the worst case

Conclusion in 2D

F Graham's scan: O(*ⁿ* log *n*), O(*n*) for sorted pts

(37)

- F Divide & Conquer: O(*ⁿ* log *n*)
- F
- \Box
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$

Felkel: Computational geometry Quick hull: $O(n \log n)$, max $O(n^2) \sim$ distrib. Jarvis's march: O(*hn*), max O(*n*2) ~ pts on CH Chan's alg.: O(*ⁿ* log *h*) ~ pts on CH asymptotically optimal butconstants are too high to be useful

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CONVEX HULL IN 3 DIMENSIONS

PETR FELKEL

FEL CTU PRAGUE

Version from 1.11.2018

Talk overview

- F Upper bounds for convex hull in 2D and 3D
- F Other criteria for CH algorithm classification
- F Recapitulation of CH algorithms
- \Box Terminology refresh
- П Convex hull in 3D
	- Terminology
	- Algorithms
		- Gift wrapping
		- D&C Merge
		- Randomized Incremental

Upper bounds for Convex hull algorithms

F ■ O(n) for sorted points and for simple polygon

Other criteria for CH algorithm classification

- p. Optimality – depends on data order (or distribution) In the worst case x In the expected case
- F Output sensitivity – depends on the result $\sim O(f(h))$
- **College** Extendable to higher dimensions?
- F Off-line versus on-line
	- $-$ Off-line all points available, preprocessing for search speedup
	- $-$ On-line stream of points, new point ρ_i on demand, just one new \overline{a} point at a time, CH valid for $\{p_{\jmath},\, p_{\jmath},..., \, p_{\jmath}\}$
	- $-$ Real-time points come as they "want" (come not faster than optimal constant O(log *ⁿ*) inter-arrival delay)
- F Parallelizable x serial $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Dynamic – points can be deleted P. Deterministic x approximate (lecture 13) + Computational geometry (4)

Graham scan

F O(*ⁿ* log *n*) time and O(*n*) space is

- – $-$ optimal in the worst case
- – $-$ not optimal in average case (not output sensitive)
- $-$ only 2D
- off-line
- serial (not parallel)
- not dynamic (no deleted points)

Computational geometry

(5)

Jarvis March – Gift wrapping

- F ■ *O(hn)* time and *O(n)* space is
	- – $-$ not optimal in worst case $\ O($ n 2)
	- –may be optimal if *h* << *n* (output sensitive)
	- –3D or higher dimensions (see later)
	- off-line
	- –– serial (not parallel)
	- –– not dynamic

Divide & Conquer

- F ■ O(n log n) time and O(n) space is
	- – $-$ optimal in worst case (in 2D or 3D)
	- – $-$ not optimal in average case (not output sensitive)
	- –2D or 3D (circular ordering), in higher dims not optimal

Computational geometry

(7)

a

b

- off-line
- –Version with sorting (the presented one) – serial
- – Parallel for overlapping merged hulls (see Chapter 3.3.5 in Preparata for details)
- not dynamic

Quick hull

- F O(*ⁿ* log *n*) expected time, O(*n²*) the worst case and O(*n*) space *in 2D* is
	- $-$ not optimal in worst case $\ O(n^2)$
	- $-$ optimal if uniform distribution $\overline{}$ then *h* << *n* (output sensitive)
	- 2D, or higher dimensions [see http://www.qhull.org/]
	- off-line
	- parallelizable
	- not dynamic

Chan

\Box *O(n log h)* time and *O(n)* space is

- – $-$ optimal for h points on convex hull (output sensitive)
- –2D and 3D --- gift wrapping

On-line algorithms

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Preparata's on-line algorithm
- \mathcal{L}_{max} Overmars and van Leeuven

Preparata's 2D on-line algorithm

$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ New point *p* is tested

- Inside \rightarrow ignored
- Outside \rightarrow added to hull
	- Find left and right supporting lines (touch at supporting points)
	- Remove points between supporting points
	- Add *p* to CH between supporting lines

Overmars and van Leeuven

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Allow dynamic 2D CH (on-line insert & delete)
- \blacksquare Manage special tree with all intermediate CHs
- П Will be discussed on seminar [7]

Convex hull in 3D

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ **Terminology**
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Algorithms
	- 1. Gift wrapping
	- 2. D&C Merge
	- 3. Randomized Incremental
	- 4. Quick hull … minule

Terminology

- F. Polytope (d-polytope) = a geometric object with "flat" sides Ed (may be or may not be convex)
- P. Flat sides mean that the sides of a (*k*)-polytope consist of (*k-1)*-polytopes that may have (*k*-2)-polytopes in common.

Terminology

The State Convex Polytope (convex d-polytope) = convex hull of finite set of points in Ed

Terminology (2)

p. Affine combination

i

—

1

i

n

= linear combination of the points $\{p_1, p_2, ..., p_n\}$ whose coefficients $\{\lambda_{1},$ $\lambda_{2},$ …, $\lambda_{\sf n}\}$ sum to 1, and $\lambda_{\sf i}$ \in R

$$
\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i p_i
$$

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Affine independent points
	- = no one point can be expressed as affine combination of the others p_1

 p_2

 $_{2}$ or $_{2}$ p

F Convex combination

= linear combination of the points $\{p_1, p_2, ..., p_n\}$ whose coefficients $\{\lambda_1, \, \lambda_2, \, ..., \, \lambda_n\}$ sum to 1, and $\lambda_i \in \mathsf{R}^+_{\;\;0}$ (i.e., "*i* ^œ {1*,…,n},* lⁱ ¥ 0) ⇒ l݅ [∈] 0, 1

(18)

Computational geometry

Terminology (3)

- $\overline{}$ Any (d-1)-dimensional hyperplane *h* divides the space into (open) halfspaces *h+ and h–, so that En = h+* (*h* (*h–*
- p. *Def:* $\overline{h^+}$ = $h^+ \cup h$, $\overline{h^-}$ = $h^- \cup h$ (closed halfspaces)
- $\overline{}$ Hyperplane supports a convex polytope *P* (Supporting hyperplane – *opěrná nadrovina*)

– if *P* is entirely contained within either *h+* or *h–*

Faces and facets

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Face of the convex polytope
	- = Intersection of convex polytope *P* with a supporting hyperplane *h*
		- Faces are convex polytopes of dimension *d* ranging from 0 to d *–* 1
		- 0-face = vertex
		- –1-face = edge
		- – (d *–*1)-face = facet

Proper faces: Vertices: a,b,c,d Edges: ab, ac, ad, bc, bd, cd Facets: abc, abd, acd, bcd

In 3D we often say *face*, but more precisely a *facet* $(ln 3D a 2$ -face = facet). (In 2D a 1-face = facet) Computational geometry (20)

Proper faces

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Proper faces
	- = Faces of dimension *d* ranging from 0 to *d –* 1
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Improper faces
	- = proper faces + two additional faces:
		- $-\{\}$ = Empty set = face of dimension -1
		- Entire convex polytope = face of dimension *d*

Incident graph

Facts about polytopes

- F Boundary o polytope is *union of its proper faces*
- F Polytope has *finite number of faces (next slide)*. Each face is a polytope
- П Convex polytope is *convex hull of its vertices (the def),* its bounded
- \Box Convex polytope is the *intersection of finite number of closed halfspaces h +* (conversely not: intersection of closed halfspaces may be unbounded => called *unbounded polytope*)

Number of faces on a d-simplex

vertices (0-dim faces)

 $\overline{}$ ■ Number of *j*-dimensional faces on a *d*-simplex

$$
\binom{d+1}{j+1} = \frac{(d+1)!}{(j+1)!(d-j)!}
$$

Ex.: Tetrahedron = 3-simplex:

–

 facets (2-dim. faces) edges (1-dim. faces) 43!1!4!2131 62!2!4!1131

Computational geometry

(24)

4

—

1!3!

 $\overline{0}$

I I \setminus

 $(3+1)$

∓

1

t $\overline{)}$

—

 $\frac{1}{1} = \frac{1}{121}$

4!

Complexity of 3D convex hull is O(n)

- F 3-polytope - has polygonal faces
- F convex 3-polytope (CH of a point set in 3D)
- F simplical 3-polytope

–

- has triangular faces (=> more edges and vertices)
- \Box simplical convex 3-polytope with all *n* points on CH
	- the worst case complexity
	- $-$ => maximum # of edges and vertices
	- – has triangular facets, each generates 3 edges, shared by 2 triangles \Rightarrow 3F = 2E $+$ 2-manifold

 $\mathsf{F} = 2\mathsf{V} - 4 \;\;\;\;\; \Rightarrow \mathsf{F} \leq 2\mathsf{V} - 4 \;\;\; \; \; \; \; \; \; \; \; \mathsf{F} = \mathsf{O}(\mathsf{n})$

 $E = 3V - 6$ + => $E \le 3V - 6$ + + + $E = O(n)$

 $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$
Computational geometry

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Complexity of 3D convex hull is O(n)

- F **The worst case complexity** \rightarrow **if all** *n* **points on CH**
- => use simplical convex 3-polytop for complexity derivation
	- 1.has all points on its surface – on the Convex Hull
	- 2. has triangular facets, each generates 3 edges, shared by 2 triangles \Rightarrow 3F = 2E

1. Gift wrapping in higher dimensions

- F First known algorithm for n-dimensions (1970)
- F Direct extension of 2D alg.
- F Complexity O(nF)
	- F is number of CH facets
	- Algorithm is output sensitive
	- –– Details on seminar, assignment [10]

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1. Gift wrapping in higher dimensions

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	- F is number of CH facets
	- Algorithm is output sensitive
	- –– Details on seminar, assignment [10]

2. Divide & conquer 3D convex hull [Preparata, Hong77]

- F Sort points in x-coord
- F Recursively split, construct CH, merge
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ ■ Merge takes O(n) => O(n log n) total time

Divide & conquer 3D convex hull [Preparata, Hong 77]

- $\overline{}$ \blacksquare Merge(C₁ with C₂) uses gift wrapping
	- $-$ Gift wrap plane around edge $e-$ find new point ρ on C_1 or on C_2 (neighbor of *a* or *b*)
	- $-$ Search just the CW or CCW neighbors around *a, b*

Divide & conquer 3D convex hull [Preparata, Hong 77]

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Performance O*(n* log *n)* rely on circular ordering

- –– In 2D: Ordering of points around CH
- – $-$ In 3D: Ordering of vertices around 2-polytop C_0 (vertices on intersection of new CH edges with

Computational geometry

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separating plane ${\sf H}_0$) [ordering around horizon of C_1 and C_2 does not exist, both horizons may be non-convex and even not simple polygons]

Divide & conquer 3D convex hull EPreparata, Hong 77]

$\mathsf{Merge}(\mathsf{C}_1 \text{ with } \mathsf{C}_2)$

- p. \blacksquare Find the first CH edge L connecting $\textsf{C}_\textsf{1}$ with $\textsf{C}_\textsf{2}$
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ *e* = *L*
- F While not back at *L do*
	- store *e* to *C*
	- $-$ Gift wrap plane around edge $e-$ find new point P on C_1 or on C_2 (neighbor of *a* or *b*)
	- *e* = new edge to just found end-point *P*
	- Store new triangle *eP* to *C*
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Discard hidden faces inside CH from *C*
- **The State** Report merged convex hull *C*

Divide & conquer 3D convex hull EPreparata, Hong 77]

 $\mathsf{Merge}(\mathsf{C}_1 \text{ with } \mathsf{C}_2)$

- p. \blacksquare Find the first CH edge L connecting $\textsf{C}_\textsf{1}$ with $\textsf{C}_\textsf{2}$
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ *e* = *L*
- **College** While not back at *L do* **CHYBA**
	- store *e* to *C*
	- $-$ Gift wrap plane around edge $e-$ find new point P on C_1 or on C_2 (neighbor of *a* or *b*)
	- *e* = new edge to just found end-point *P*
	- Store new triangle *eP* to *C*
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Discard hidden faces inside CH from *C*
- **The State** Report merged convex hull *C*

Divide & conquer 3D convex hull [Preparata, Hong 77]

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Problem of the wrapping phase [Edelsbrunner 88]

3. Randomized incremental alg. principle

- 1. Create tetrahedron (smallest CH in 3D)
	- $-$ Take 2 points $\bm{\rho}_\text{\it 1}$ and $\bm{\rho}_\text{\it 2}$
	- $-$ Search the 3rd point not lying on line $\rho_{\it 1}^{} \rho_{\it 2}^{}$
	- $-$ Search the 4th point not lying in plane $p_{\it 1}^{} p_{\it 2}^{} p_{\it 3}^{}$ …if not found, use 2D CH
- 2. Perform random permutation of remaining points $\{p_5, ..., p_n\}$
- 3. For p_r in $\{p_5, ..., p_n\}$ do add point p_r to CH(P_{r-1}) Notation: for $r \geq 1$ let P_r = { $\boldsymbol{p}_1, ..., \boldsymbol{p}_r$ } is set of already processed pts
	- $-$ If $\rho_{_{I}}$ lies inside or on the boundary of CH($P_{_{I^{\text{-}}1}}$) then do nothing
	- $-$ If p_r lies outside of CH(P_{r-1}) then
		- find and remove visible faces
		- create new faces (triangles) connecting p_r with lines of horizon

Conflict graph

Stores unprocessed points with facets of CH they see

Conflict graph – init and final state

(37)

COL Initialization

- $-$ Points $\{ {\boldsymbol{\rho}}_5,...,{\boldsymbol{\rho}}_n \}$ (not in tetrahedron)
- $-$ Facets of the tetrahedron (four)
- Arcs connect each tetrahedron facet with points visible from it

$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Final state

- $-$ Points {} = empty set
- Facets of the convex hull
- Arcs none

Visibility between point and face

 $\overline{}$ ■ Face *f* is visible from a point *p* if that point lies in the open half-space on the other side of *h f* than the polytope

f is visible from *p* (*p* is *above* the plane)

f is not visible from *q*

Visibility between point and face

 $\overline{}$ ■ Face *f* is visible from a point *p* if that point lies in the open half-space on the other side of *h f* than the polytope

f is visible from *p* (*p* is *above* the plane)

f is not visible from *r* lying *in the plane* of *f* (this case will be discussed next)

f is not visible from *q*

New triangles to horizon

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ **Horizon** = edges e incident to visible and invisible facets

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ ■ New triangle *f* connects edge *e* on horizon and point *p_r* and
	- creates new node for facet *f*

p**tane**)

- updates the conflict graph
- $-$ add arcs to points visible from f (subset from $P_{\text{coflict}}(f_1) \cup P_{\text{coflict}}(f_2)$)
- p. ■ Coplanar triangles on the plane *ep*_r are merged with new triangle.

Conflicts in G are copied from the deleted triangle (same

Computational geometry

(39)

Overview of new point insertion

Processing of point p_{r} outside

- Remove facets that p_r sees from the CH -(do not delete them from the graph G)
- Find horizon edges (around the hole in CH)
- $\,$ Create new facets from horizon edges to p_{r}
	- add them to CH
	- create face nodes f in G for them
- Compute what p_r sees search only from $\mathcal{L}_{conflict}(f_1) \cup \mathcal{P}_{conflict}(f_2)$

- Delete node p_r and face $F_{conflict}(p_r)$ from

 $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$
Computational geometry

(40)

Incremental Convex hull algorithm

IncrementalConvexHull(P)

Incremental Convex hull algorithm (cont…)

- *Input:* 13.*Output:* 14. $12.$ **else** … not coplanar => determine conflicts for new facet *f* Insert f into hull C **i** Create node for f in G //... new face in conflict graph G 15. $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}$ in the sum in the facets incident to e in the old $CH(P_{r-1})$ 16. \vdots : $P(e) = P_{conflict}(f_1) \cup P_{conflict}(f_2)$ 17. $\mathbf{a} : \mathbf{b} : \mathbf{b} : \mathbf{c} : \mathbf{c} \in \mathbf{b}$ for all points $p \in P(e)$ do 18. **if**if f is visible from p, then $\operatorname{add}(p, f)$ to $G \ldots$ new edges in G 19. $\colon \colon$ Delete the node corresponding to p_r and the nodes corresponding to facets in $F_{conflict}(p_r)$ from G, together with their incident arcs 20. return $\mathcal C$
- Complexity: Convex hull of a set of points in $E³$ can be computed incrementally in $O(n \log n)$ randomized expected time (process $O(n)$ points, but number of facets and arcs depend on the order of inserting points – up to $O(n^2)$) For proof see: [Berg, Section11.3]

Convex hull in higher dimensions

- \Box **n** Convex hull in *d* dimensions can have $\Omega(n)$ *d*/2 \mathcal{L} Proved by [Klee, 1980]
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Therefore, 4D hull can have quadratic size
- П No *O(n log n)* algorithm possible for d>3
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ These approaches can extend to d>3

Conclusion

- \sim Recapitulation of 2D algorithms
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ >=3D algorithms
	- Gift wrapping
	- D&C
	- Randomized incremental
	- QuickHull

References

VORONOI DIAGRAM

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Version from 8.11.2018

Talk overview

Voronoi diagram (VD)

F One of the most important structure in Comp. geom.

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- F Encodes proximity information What is close to what?
- П Standard VD – this lecture
	- $-$ Set of points nDim
	- Euclidean space & metric
- П **Generalizations**
	- $-$ Set of line segments or curves
	- Different metrics
	- Higher order VD's (furthest point)

Voronoi cell (for points in plane)

- \Box **Let** $P = \{p_1, p_2,..., p_n\}$ **be a set of points (***sites***) in** dDim space **1988** ... 2D space (plane) here
- Voronoi cell *V(p_i)* is open! = set of points *q* closer to *pi* than to any other site: $V(p_i) = \{q, \|p_i q\| < \|p_j q\|, \forall j \neq i\}$, where $pq\|$ is the Euclidean distance between p and q $\forall j \neq$ $(p_i) = \bigcap h(p_i, p_i)$ *j i* $V(p_i) = \bigcap h(p_i, p_j)$ \neq $=$ | $n(p_{i},$ $(p_{_{i}},p_{_{j}})$ $h(p_{_i},p_{_j})$ = open halfplane = set of pts strictly closer to p_i than to p_j = intersection of open halfplanes [Berg] Felkel: Computational geometry (4 / 43)

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{eff}}$ ■ Voronoi diagram Vor(*P*) of points *P*
	- = what is left of the plane after removing all the open Voronoi cells
	- = collection of line segments

(possibly unbounded)

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ ■ Voronoi diagram Vor(*P*) of points *P* = what is left of the plane after removing all the open Voronoi cells = collection of line segments (possibly unbounded) Site (given point) VoroGlide demoFelkel: Computational geomet (5 / 43)

Voronoi diagram examples

1 point

Voronoi diagram examples

Voronoi diagram (in plane)

= planar graph

- Subdivides plane into *n* cells (*n* = num. of input sites |P|)
- Edge $=$ locus of equidistant pairs of points (cells) = part of the bisector of these points
- – $-$ Vertex $-$ = center of the circle defined by ≥ 3 points => vertices have degree ≥ 3
- $-$ Number of vertices $n_v \leq 2n-5$ => O(*n*)
- Number of edges *n e*≤ 3 *n* 6 => O(*n*) (only O(*n*) from O(*n*²) intersections of bisectors)
- In higher dimensions complexity from O(*ⁿ*) up to O(*n|d/2|*)
- Unbounded cells belong to sites (points) on convex hull

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Felkel: Computational geometry

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Voronoi diagram O(n) complexity derivation

- $\cdot \cdot \cdot$ For *n* collinear sites: $n_v = 0$ $\leq 2n 5$ $n_e = (n - 1) \leq 3n - 6$ both hold
	- For *n* non-collinear sites:

7

- $-$ Add extra VD vertex v in infinity $m_{\nu}=n_n+1$
- Apply Euler's formula: $m_{\nu} m_e + m_f = 2$
- $-$ Obtain $(n_v + 1) n_e + n = 2$ $n_e=n_v+n-1$ $n_{\nu} = n_e - n + 1$
- $-$ Every VD edge has 2 vertices \quad Sum of vertex degrees $=2n_e$
- $-$ Every VD vertex has degree ≥ 3 Sum of vertex degrees = 3 m_ν = 3($n_\nu+1$)

- Together
$$
2n_e \ge 3(n_v + 1)
$$

 $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ + $+$ (10 / 43) $2n_e \geq 3(n_v + 1)$ $2n_e \geq 3(n_v + 1)$ $2(n_v + n - 1) \ge 3(n_v + 1)$ $2n_e \ge 3(n_e - n + 1 + 1)$ $2n_e\geq 3n_e-3n+6$ $n_e \leq 3n-6$ $2n_v + 2n - 2 \geq 3n_v + 3$ $n_v \leq 2n-5$

Voronoi diagram and convex hull

Delaunay triangulation

- F point set triangulation (straight line dual to VD)
- F maximize the minimal angle (tends to equiangularity)

Delaunay triangulation

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- F maximize the minimal angle (tends to equiangularity)

Edges, vertices and largest empty circles

Largest empty circle $C_P(q)$ with center in

- 1.In VD vertex *q*: has 3 or more sites on its boundary
- 2.On VD edge: contains exactly 2 sites on its boundary and no other site

Edges, vertices and largest empty circles

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Some applications

- F Nearest neighbor queries in Vor(P) of points P
	- Point $\mathsf{q}\in\mathsf{P}\;$ … search sites across the edges around the cell q
	- Point q \notin P $\,\,\dots\,$ point location queries see Lecture 2 (the cell where point *q* falls)
- П Facility location (shop or power plant)
	- Largest empty circle (better in Manhattan metric VD)
- П Neighbors and Interpolation
	- Interpolate with the nearest neighbor,
		- in 3D: surface reconstruction from points

Voronoi Art

Voronoi Art

Algorithms in 2D

- \blacksquare D&C
- Fortune's Sweep line O(n log n)

 $O(n \log n)$

Monotone chain search in O(n)

- p. Avoid repeated rescanning of cell edges
- p. Start in the last tested edge of the cell (each edge tested ~once)
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ **n** In the left cell l_i continue CW, in the right cell r_i go CCW
- \blacksquare **n** Image shows CW search on cell l_0 and CCW on cells r_i :

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Divide and Conquer method complexity

- Initial sort $O(n \log n)$
- F $O(log n)$ recursion levels
	- $-$ O(n) each merge (chain search, trim, add edges to VD)
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Altogether $O(n \log n)$

Fortune's sweep line algorithm – idea in 3D

Fortune's sweep line algorithm

- \Box Differs from "typical" sweep line algorithm
- \Box Unprocessed sites ahead from sweep line may generate Voronoi vertex behind the sweep line

DONETODO

Fortune's sweep line algorithm idea

- П ■ Subdivide the halfplane above the sweep line *l* into 2 regions
	- 1. Points closer to some site above than to sweep line *l* (solved part)
	- 2. Points closer to sweep line *l* than any point above (unsolved part – can be changed by sites below *l*)
- \Box Border between these 2 regions is a beach line

Sweep line and beach line

- П ■ Straight sweep line *l*
	- –Separates processed and unprocessed sites (points)
- \Box Beach line (Looks like waves rolling up on a beach)
	- – Separates *solved* and *unsolved* regions above sweep line (separates sites above *l* that can be changed from sites that cannot be changed by sites below *l*)
	- *x*-monotonic curve made of parabolic arcs
	- Follows the sweep line
	- Prevents us from missing unanticipated events until the sweep line encounters the corresponding site

Beach line

- П ■ Every site p_i above *l* defines a complete parabola
- F Beach line is the function, that passes through the lowest points of all the parabolas (lower envelope)

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Break point (*bod zlomu***)**

- = Intersection of two arcs on the beach line
- П Equidistant to 2 sites and sweep line *l*
- $\overline{}$ Lies on Voronoi edge of the final diagram

[Berg] *x*Felkel: Computational geometr (31 / 43)

Notes

Beach line is x-monotone

= every vertical line intersects it in exactly ONE point

Along the beach line

What event types exist?

Events

There are two types of events:

- F Site events (SE)
	- $-$ When the sweep line passes over a new site $\rho_{_{i},i}$
		- *new arc* is added to the beach line
		- *new edge fragment* added to the VD.
	- –All SEs known from the beginning (sites sorted by *y*)
- **Noronoi vertex event ([Berg] calls a circle event)**
	- –– When the parabolic arc shrinks to zero and disappears, *new Voronoi vertex* is created.

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 Created dynamically by the algorithm for triples or more neighbors on the beach line

(triples changed by both types of events)

Site event

Generated when the sweep line passes over a site *pⁱ*

–– New parabolic arc created,

it starts as a vertical ray from $\rho_{_{i}}$ to the beach line

- As the sweep line sweeps on, the arc grows wider
- $-$ The entry $\langle \ldots, \rho_j, \ldots \rangle$ on the sweep line status is replaced by the triple $\langle \ldots, \rho_j, \rho_i, \rho_j, \ldots \rangle$

Dangling future VD edge created on the bisector (*pi, p^j*)

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Voronoi vertex event (circle event)

Generated when *l* passes the lowest point of a circle

- $-$ Sites $\bm{\rho}_i$ *,* $\bm{\rho}_j$ *,* $\bm{\rho}_k$ appear consecutively on the beach line
- – Circumcircle lies partially below the sweep line (Voronoi vertex has not yet been generated)
- This circumcircle contains no point below the sweep line (no future point will block the creation of the vertex)
- Vertex & bisector (*pi, pk*) created, (*^pi, p^j*) & (*^pj, pk*) finished

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– One parabolic arc removed from the beach line

DCGI

Data structures

- 1.(Partial) Voronoi diagram
- 2.Beach line data structure T
- 3.Event queue Q

Data structures

- 1.(Partial) Voronoi diagram
- $\overline{2}$ Beach line data structure T
- 3.Event queue Q

1. (Partial) Voronoi diagram data structure

Any PSLG data structure, e.g. DCEL (planar stright line graph)

- \Box Stores the VD during the construction
- \Box Contain unbounded edges
	- – dangling edges during the construction (managed by the beach line DS) and
	- edges of unbounded cells at the end

=> create a bounding box

2. Beach line tree data structure T – status

- F Used to locate the arc directly above a new site
- F E.g. Binary tree *T*
	- Leaves ordered arcs along the beach line (x-monotone) $\boldsymbol{p}_{\!i}$ – possibly multiple times
		- *T* stores only the sites *pⁱ* in leaves, *T* does not store the parabolas
	- Inner tree nodes breakpoints as ordered pairs <*pj, pk*>
		- *^pj, p^k* are neighboring sites
		- Breakpoint position computed on the fly from p_i , p_k and y-coord of the sweep line
	- Pointers to other two DS
		- [Mount] • In leaves – pointer to event queue, point to node when arc disappears via Voronoi vertex event – if it exists

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• In inner nodes - pointer to (dangling) half-edge in DCEL of VD, that is being traced out by the break point

p

Max 2n -1 arcs on the beach line

3. Event queue Q

- F Priority queue, ordered by y-coordinate
- F For site event
	- stores the site itself
	- $-$ known from the beginning
- **For Voronoi vertex event (circle event)**
	- stores the lowest point of the circle
	- stores also pointer to the leaf in tree T (represents the parabolic arc that will disappear)
	- created by both events, when triples of points become neighbors (possible max three triples for a site)

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 $-\overline{\rho}_i$, $\overline{\rho}_j$, $\overline{\rho}_k$, $\overline{\rho}_l$, $\overline{\rho}_m$ insert of $\overline{\rho}_k$ can create up to 3 triples and delete up to 2 triples (p_i, p_j, p_l) and (p_i, p_l, p_m)

Fortune's algorithm

FortuneVoronoi(*P***)**

Input: Output: A set of point sites $P = \{p_1, p_2, ..., p_n\}$ in the plane Voronoi diagram Vor(*P*) inside a bounding box in a DCEL struct.

- 1.Init event queue Q with all *site events*
- **2.while**(Q not empty) **do**
- 3.consider the event with largest *y*-coordinate in Q (next in the queue)
- 4.**if**(event is a *site event* at site *pi*)
- 5.**then** HandleSiteEvent(*pi*)
- 6.**else** HandleVoroVertexEvent(*p_i*), where *p_i* is the lowest point of the circle causing the event
- 7.remove the event from Q
- 8.Create a bbox and attach half-infinite edges in *T* to it in DCEL.
- 9.Traverse the halfedges in DCEL and **Fig. 1** + + + + add cell records and pointers to and from th

Handle site event

- 1.. Search in *T* for arc α vertically above p_i . Let p_j be the corresponding site
- 2.. Apply insert-and-split operation, inserting a new entry of p_i to the beach $\mathsf{line}\;\mathcal{T}$ (new arc), thus replacing $\langle \dots, \, \textcolor{red}{p_j}, \dots \rangle$ with $\; \langle \dots, \, \textcolor{red}{p_j}, \, \textcolor{red}{p_i}, \, \textcolor{red}{p_j}, \dots \rangle$
- 3. Create a new (dangling) edge in the Voronoi diagram, which lies on the bisector between *pi* and *p^j*
- 4.Neighbors on the beach line changed -> check the neighboring triples of arcs and *insert or delete Voronoi vertex events* (insert only if the circle intersects the sweep line and it is not present yet). Note: Newly created triple p_i , p_i , p_i cannot generate a circle event because it only involves two distinct sites.

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Handle Voronoi vertex (circle) event

Let *pi , p^j , p^k* be the sites that generated this event (from left to right).

- 1. Delete the entry \bm{p}_j from the beach line (thus eliminating its arc α), i.e.: Replace a triple $\langle \, \ldots, \, \rho_i \, , \, \rho_j \, , \, \rho_k, \ldots \rangle$ with $\langle \, \ldots, \, \rho_i \, , \, \rho_k, \ldots \rangle \,$ in $\mathcal{T}.$
- 2. Create a new vertex in the Voronoi diagram (at circumcenter of $\langle \bm{\rho}_i$ *,* $\bm{\rho}_j$ *,* $\bm{\rho}_k \rangle$ *) and join the two Voronoi edges for the bisectors* $\langle \bm{\rho}_i$ *<i>,* $\bm{\rho}_j \rangle$ and $\langle p_j, p_k \rangle$ to this vertex (dangling edges – created in step 3 above).
- 3. Create a new (dangling) edge for the bisector between $\langle \boldsymbol{\rho}_j$ *,* $\boldsymbol{\rho}_k \rangle$
- 4. Delete any Voronoi vertex events (max. three) from Q that arose from triples involving the arc α of p_j and generate (two) new events corresponding to consecutive triples involving *pⁱ,* and *p^k*.

Q: Beach line contains: abcdef After deleting of d, which triples vanish and which triples are added to the beach line?

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Handling degeneracies

Algorithm handles degeneracies correctly

- \Box 2 or more events with the same y
	- – $-$ if x coords are different, process them in any order
	- $-$ if x coords are the same (cocircular sites) –process them in any order, it creates duplicated vertices with zero-length edges, remove them in post processing step zero-length edge

[Berg]

[Berg]

- \Box degeneracies while handling an event
	- Site below a beach line breakpoint
	- Creates circle event on the same position
		- remove zero-length edges in post processing step

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References

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VORONOI DIAGRAM PART II

PETR FELKEL

FEL CTU PRAGUE

Version from 16.11.2017

Talk overview

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Incremental construction
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Voronoi diagram of line segments
- **No.** VD of order **k**
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Farthest-point VD

Summary of the VD terms

- F Site = input point, line segment, …
- F Cell = area around the site, in VD_1 the nearest to site
- П Edge, arc = part of Voronoi diagram (border between cells)
- **Number 12 Section of VD edges**

Incremental construction algorithm

Input: Output: VD after insertion of *y* **InsertPoint(***S***, Vor(***S***), y) …, y = a new site** Point set *S*, its Voronoi diagram, and inserted point $y \notin S$ 1. Find the site *x* in which cell point *y* falls, …O(log *ⁿ*) 2. Detect the intersections {*a,b*} of bisector *L*(*x,y*) with cell *x* boundary \Rightarrow create the first edge $e = ab$ on the border of site *x* …O(*n*) 3.Set start intersection point $p = b$, set new intersection $c =$ undef 4. site *z* = neighbor site across the border with intersection *b* …O(1) **5. while**($\text{exists}(p)$ and $c \neq a$) // trace the bisectors from *b* in one direction a. Detect intersection *c* of *L*(*y,z*) with border of cell *^z* b. Report Voronoi edge *pc* …O(*n2*) *c. p* ⁼*c, z*=neighbor site across border with intersec. *^c* **5. if**($c \neq a$) **then** // trace the bisectors from *a* in other direction a. p = a *b. Similarly as in steps 3,4,5 with a* $O(n^2)$ worst-case, $O(n)$ expected time for some distributions
 $\begin{array}{r} \uparrow \\ \uparrow \\ \uparrow \\ \uparrow \end{array}$

Input: $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_n\}$ = set of *n* disjoint line segments (sites)

VD of line segments with bounding box

F Consists of line segments and parabolic arcs

- $-$ Line segment bisector of end-points $\mathfrak{g}_{(1)}$ or of interiors $\mathfrak{g}_{(2)}$
- $-$ Parabolic arc of point and interior $_{{\scriptscriptstyle (3)}}$ of a line segment

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Bisector in greater details

VD of points and line segments examples

Voronoi diagram of line segments

- \Box More complex bisectors of line segments
	- –VD contains line segments and parabolic arcs
- \Box ■ Still combinatorial complexity of O(n)
- \Box Assumptions on the input line segments:
	- –— non-crossing
	- –strictly disjoint end-points (slightly shorten the segm.)

Shape of Beach line for line segments

- = Points with distance to the closest site above sweep line *l* equal to the distance to *l*
- **Contract** Beach line contains
	- *parabolic arcs* when closest to a site end-point
	- *straight line segments* when closest to a site interior (or just the part of the site interior above *l* if the site *s* intersects *l*)

(This is the shape of the beach line)

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Beach line breakpoints types

Breakpoint *p* is equidistant from *l* and equidistant and closest to:

Breakpoints types and what they trace

Site event – sweep line reaches an endpoint

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- I.At upper endpoint of \sim
	- –Arc above is split into two
	- four new arcs are created (2 segments ⁺ 2 parabolas)
	- Breakpoints for two segments are of type 4-5-4
	- Breakpoints for parabolas depend on the surrounding sites
		- Type 1 for two end-points
		- Type 3 for endpoint and interior
		- $etc...$

Circle event – lower point of circle of 3 sites

- F Two breakpoints meet (on the beach-line)
- F Solution depends on their type
	- Any of first three types (1,2,or 3) meet
		- 3 sites involved Voronoi vertex created
	- Type 4 with something else
		- two sites involved breakpoint changes its type
		- Voronoi vertex not created(Voronoi edge may change its shape)
	- Type 5 with something else
		- never happens for disjoint segments (meet with type 4 happens before)

Find path for a circular robot of radius *r* from *Qstart* to Q*end*

- p. Create Voronoi diagram of line segments, take it as a graph
- **The State** ■ Project Q_{start} to P_{start} on VD and Q_{end} to P_{end}
- **The State** Remove segments with distance to sites smaller than radius *r* of a robot
- $\mathcal{L}_{\rm{max}}$ ■ Depth first search if path from P_{start} to P_{end} exists
- m. Report path *QstartPstart…path… Pend* to Q*end*
- $\overline{}$ *O*(*n* log *n*) time using *O*(*n*) storage

 $-[N$ andy $]$ ÷ $\ddot{}$ Q. $\frac{1}{2}$ Felkel: Computational geometry (23 / 45)

Order-2 Voronoi vertex $u_{\emptyset}(Q \cup p)$

Order-k Voronoi Diagram

cell V₋₁(7) = V_{n-1}({1,2,3,4,5,6}) = set of points in the plane farther from *pi=7* site

cell V₋₁(7) = V_{n-1}({1,2,3,4,5,6}) = set of points in the plane farther from *pi=7* than from any other site

 $Vor_{-1}(P) = Vor_{n-1}(P)$ = partition of the plane formed by the farthest point Voronoi regions, their edges, and vertices

Farthest-point Voronoi diagrams example

Roundness of manufactured objects

- p. Input: set of measured points in 2D
- p. Output: width of the smallest-width annulus mezikruží s nejmenší šířkou (region between two concentric circles $\mathsf{C}_{\mathsf{inner}}$ and $\mathsf{C}_{\mathsf{outer}}$)

Three cases to test – one will win:

Smallest width annulus

Smallest-Width-Annulus

Input: Output: Set *P* of *n* points in the plane Smallest width annulus center and radii r and R (roundness)

- 1. Compute Voronoi diagram Vor(*P*) and farthest-point Voronoi diagram Vor₋₁(*P*) of *P*
- 2. For each vertex of Vor(*P*) (*r*) determine the *farthest point* (*R*) from *P => O*(*n*) sets of four points defining candidate annuli – case a)
- 3. For each vertex of Vor-1(*P*) (*R*) determine the *closest point* (*r*) from *P => O*(*n*) sets of four points defining candidate annuli – case b)
- 4. For every pair of edges $\mathsf{Vor}(\mathsf{P})$ and $\mathsf{Vor}_{\mathsf{\textup{--}1}}(\mathsf{P})$ test if they intersect \Rightarrow another set of four points defining candidate annulus $\pm c$) *1.O*(*n* log *n*)
- 5. For all candidates of all three types chose the smallest-width annulus *2. O*(*n²*) *3.O*(*n²*)

V-1(*pi*) cell = set of points in the plane farther from *pi* than from any other site

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Vor₋₁(P) diagram = partition of the plane formed by the farthest point Voronoi regions, their edges, and vertices

Computed as intersection of halfplanes, but we take "other sides" of bisectors

Properties:

 \blacksquare Only vertices of the convex hull have their cells in farthest Voronoi diagram

Properties:

p. Only vertices of the convex hull have their cells in farthest Voronoi diagram

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- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ The farthest point Voronoi regions are unbounded
- $\overline{}$ The farthest point Voronoi edges and vertices form a tree (in the graph sense)

Application of Vor₋₁(P) : Smallest enclosing circle

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Construct $Vor_{-1}(P)$ and find minimal circle with center in $\text{Vor}_{-1}(P)$ vertices or on edges

Modified DCEL for farthest-point Voronoi d

- \Box Half-infinite edges -> we adapt DCEL
- \Box Half-edges with origin in infinity
	- –- Special vertex-like record for origin in infinity
	- Store direction instead of coordinates
	- –Next(e) or Prev(e) pointers undefined
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ For each inserted site *pj*
	- –– store a pointer to the most CCW half-infinite half-edge of its cell in DCEL

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Idea of the algorithm

- 1. Create the convex hull and number the CH points randomly
- 2. Remove the points starting in the last of this random order and store $\textit{cw}(p_{\scriptscriptstyle i})$ and $\textit{ccw}(p_{\scriptscriptstyle i})$ points at the time of removal.
- 3.Include the points back and compute V_{-1}

Farthest-pointVoronoi $O(n \log n)$ time in $O(n)$ storage

Input: Set of points *P* in plane

- *Output:* Farthest-point VD Vor-1(*P*)
- 1.Compute convex hull of *P*
- 2. Put points in CH(*P)* of *P* in random order $p_1,...,p_h$
- 3.Remove p_h , \ldots , p_4 from the cyclic order (around the CH). When removing p_i , store the neighbors: $cw(p_i)$ and $ccw(p_i)$ at the time of removal. (This is done to know the neighbors needed in step 6.)
- 4.Compute Vor_{-1} $\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}$ as init
- **5. for** i = 4 **to** *h* **do**

7.

8.

9.

10.

- 6.. Add site p_i to $\text{Vor}_{-1}(\{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_{i-1}\})$ between site $cw(p_i)$ and $ccw(p_i)$
	- start at most CCW edge of the cell *ccw*(*pi*)
	- continue CW to find intersection with bisector(*ccw*(*pi*), *pi*)
	- trace borders of Voronoi cell *pⁱ* in CCW order, add edges
		- remove invalid edges inside of Voronoi cell *pⁱ*

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TRIANGULATIONS

PETR FELKEL

FEL CTU PRAGUE

Version from 30.11.2017

Talk overview

T. Polygon triangulation

- –Monotone polygon triangulation
- –Monotonization of non-monotone polygon
- T. Delaunay triangulation (DT) of points
	- **Land and Committee** $-$ Input: set of 2D points
	- –– Properties
	- $-$ Incremental Algorithm
	- Relation of DT in 2D and lower envelope (CH) in 3D andrelation of VD in 2D to upper envelope in 3D

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Polygon triangulation problem

- T. Triangulation (in general) = subdividing a spatial domain into simplices
- T. Application
	- –decomposition of complex shapes into simpler shapes
	- art gallery problem (how many cameras and where)
- T. We will discuss
	- – $-$ Triangulation of a simple polygon
	- – $-$ without demand on triangle shapes
- er
K Complexity of polygon triangulation
	- –O(*n*) alg. exists [Chazelle91], but it is too complicated

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–practical algorithms run in O(*ⁿ* log *n*)

Simple polygon

region enclosed by a closed polygonal chain that does not intersect itself

!

- Visible points
- = two points on the boundary are visible if the interior of the line segment joining them lies entirely in the interior of the polygon
- **Diagonal**
- =line segment joining any pair of visible vertices

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- T. A polygonal chain C is strictly monotone with respect to line L, if any line orthogonal to L intersects C in at most one *point*
- A chain C is monotone with respect to line L, if any line orthogonal to L intersects C in at most one *connected component* (point, line segment,...)

er
K Polygon P is monotone with respect to line L, if its boundary (bnd(P), ∂P) can be split into two chains, each of which is monotone with respect to L

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- T. Horizontally monotone polygon = monotone with respect to *x*-axis
	- –Can be tested in *O*(*n*)
	- –Find leftmost and rightmost point in *O*(*n*)
	- –– Split boundary to upper and lower chain
	- Walk left to right, verifying that x-coord are nondecreasing

x-monotone polygon

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[Mount]

- T. Every simple polygon can be triangulated
- T. Simple polygon with *ⁿ* vertices consists of
	- exactly n-2 triangles
	- –– exactly n-3 diagonals
	- – $-$ Each diagonal is added once \Rightarrow O(n) sweep line algorithm exist

Simple polygon triangulation

- T. Simple polygon can be triangulated in 2 steps:
	- 1. Partition the polygon into x-monotone pieces
	- 2. Triangulate all monotone pieces

(we will discuss the steps in the reversed order)

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```
Simple polygon triangulation

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(we will discuss the steps in the reversed order)

- T. Sweep left to right - in O(n) time
- T. Triangulate everything you can by adding diagonals between visible points
- Remove triangulated region from further consideration – mark as DONE

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Main invariant of the untriangulated region

Main invariant

- **Let** *v_i* **be the vertex being just processed**
- T ■ The untriangulated region left of *v_i* consists of two x-monotone chains (upper and lower)
- Each chain has at least one edge
- er
K If it has more than one edge
	- –– these edges form a reflex chain
		- = sequence of vertices with interior angle $\geq 180^\circ$
- Initial invariant
- $-$ the other chain consist of single edge *u* \boldsymbol{v}_i
- T. Left vertex of the last added diagonal is *^u*
- T. **EXTERGHT IN ADDETER IN ADDETER IN ADDET** Vertices between *u* and v_i are waiting in the stack

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[Moun

Triangulation cases for V_i (vertex being just processed)

- T. ■ Case 1: *v_i* lies on the opposite chain
	- – $-$ Add diagonals from next(u) to $\mathsf{v}_{\mathsf{i}\text{-}1}$ (empty the stack-pop)
	- –– Set u = v_{i-1}. Last diagonal (invariant) is v_iv_{i-1}
- T. **Case 2:** v_i **is on the same chain as** v_{i-1}
	- a) walk back, adding diagonals joining v_i to prior vertices until the angle becomes > 180° or *u* is reached - pop)

Simple polygon triangulation

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1. Polygon subdivision into monotone pieces

T. X-monotonicity breaks the polygon in vertices with edges directed both left or both right

T. The monotone polygons parts are separated by the splitting diagonals (joining vertex and helper)

Data structures for subdivision

- T. **Events**
	- – $-$ Endpoints of edges, known from the beginning
	- –Can be stored in sorted list – no priority queue
- T. Sweep status
	- – $-$ List of edges intersecting sweep line (top to bottom)
	- –Stored in O(log n) time dictionary (like balanced tree)
- T. Event processing
	- Six event types based on local structure of edges around vertex *v*

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Helper – definition

helper(*e a*)

- = the rightmost vertically visible processed vertex *u on or* below edge $\boldsymbol{e}_{\mathsf{a}}$ on polygonal chain between edges $\boldsymbol{e}_{\mathsf{a}}$ & $\boldsymbol{e}_{\mathsf{b}}$
- is visible to every point along the sweep line between \bm{e}_{a} & \bm{e}_{b}

Helper

helper(*ea*) is defined only for edges intersected by the sweep line

Six event types of vertex *^v*

Six event types of vertex *^v*

3. Start vertex \sim in

- –Both incident edges lie right from *^v*
- – $-$ But interior angle \leq 180°
- $-$ Insert both edges to SL status
- –Set helper(upper edge) ⁼*^v*
- 4. End vertex in
	- Both incident edges lie left from *^v*
	- But interior angle <180°
	- –– Delete both edges from SL status
	- –No helper set – we are out of the polygon

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Six event types of vertex *^v*

- 5. Upper chain-vertex in
	- – $-$ one side is to the left, one side to the right, $\,$ interior is below
	- – $-$ replace the left edge with the right edge in SL status
	- –Make *^v* helper of the new (upper) edge
- 6. Lower chain-vertex in
	- $-$ one side is to the left, one side to the right, interior is above
	- replace the left edge with the right edge in SL status

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Make *v* helper of the edge *e above*

in

Polygon subdivision complexity

- T. Simple polygon with *ⁿ* vertices can be partitioned into x-monotone polygons in
	- –O(*ⁿ* log *n*) time (n steps of SL, log n search each)
	- –O(*n*) storage
- Felkel: Computational geometr T. Complete simple polygon triangulation – O(*ⁿ* log *n*) time for partitioning into monotone polygons – O(*n*) time for triangulation O(*n*) storage (21 / 79)

Delaunay triangulation

Dual graph G for a Voronoi diagram

Delaunay graph *DG***(***P***)**

Delaunay graph and Delaunay triangulation

- T. Delaunay *graph DG(P)* has convex polygonal faces (with number of vertices ≥3, equal to the degree of Voronoi vertex)
- Delaunay *triangulation DT*(*P*)
	- = Delaunay graph for sites in general position
		- No four sites on a circle

unique

–– Faces are triangles (Voronoi vertices have degree = 3)

f / \vee *v*

DT is unique (DG not! Can be triangulated differently)

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DG(P) sites not in general position

– $-$ Triangulate larger faces $-$ such triangulation is not

[Berg]

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[Berg]

Delaunay triangulation properties

Circumcircle property

- The circumcircle of any triangle in DT is empty (no sites) Proof: It's center is the Voronoi vertex
- Three points *a,b,c* are vertices of the same face of *DG*(*P*) **iff** circle through *a,b,c* contains no point of *P* in its interior
- Empty circle property and legal edge
- Two points *a,b* form an edge of *DG*(*P*) it is a legal edge **iff E** closed disc with *a,b* on its boundary that contains no other point of *P* in its interior **matter** minimal diameter = dist(a,b)

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- Closest pair property
- p. The closest pair of points in *P* are neighbors in

Delaunay triangulation properties 2/2

- r. DT edges do not intersect
- Triangulation *T* is legal, **iff** *T* is a Delaunay triangulation (i.e., if it does not contain illegal edges)

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- Edge that was legal before may become illegal if one of the triangles incident to it changes
- In convex quadrilateral *abcd* (*abcd* do not lie on common circle) exactly one of *ac, bd* is an illegal edge and the other edge is legal principle of edge flip operation

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(27 / 79)

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- = a local operation, that increases the angle vector
- Given two adjacent triangles $\triangle abc$ and $\triangle cda$ such that their union forms a convex quadrilateral, the edge flip operation replaces the diagonal *ac* with *bd*.

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Delaunay triangulation

- Let *T* be a triangulation with *^m* triangles (and 3*m angles*)
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Angle-vector
	- = non-decreasing ordered sequence $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_{3m})$ inner angles of triangles, $\alpha_{\rm i}$ \leq $\alpha_{\rm j},$ for ${\rm i}$ $<$ ${\rm j}$
- Г In the plane, Delaunay triangulation has the lexicographically largest angle sequence
	- – $-$ It maximizes the minimal angle (the first angle in angle-vector)
	- $-$ It maximizes the second minimal angle, \dots
	- It maximizes all angles
	- $-$ It is an angle sequence optimal triangulation

Delaunay triangulation

T. It maximizes the minimal angle

- – $-$ The smallest angle in the DT is at least as large as the smallest angle in any other triangulation.
- T. However, the Delaunay triangulation
	- $-$ does not necessarily minimize the maximum angle.
	- does not necessarily minimize the length of the edges.

Respective Central Angle Theorem

Let $C =$ circle,

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- l =line intersecting C in points a, b
- $p, q, r, s =$ points on the same side of l
	- *p,q* on *C*, *r* is *in*, *s* is out
- b Then for the angles holds: $\langle \alpha x \rangle > \langle \alpha x \rangle = \langle \alpha x \rangle > \langle \alpha x \rangle$

http://www.mathopenref.com/arccentralangletheorem.html

Edge flip of illegal edge and angle vector

=> After limited number of edge flips

Terminate with lexicographically maximum triangulation

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 $\overline{}$ It satisfies the empty circle condition => Delauney T

Edge flip of illegal edge and angle vector

T. The minimum angle increases after the edge flip

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Incremental algorithm principle

- 1. Create a large triangle containing all points (to avoid problems with unbounded cells)
	- must be larger than the largest circle through 3 points
	- –will be discarded at the end
- 2. Insert the points in random order
	- Find triangle with inserted point *p*
	- – Add edges to its vertices (these new edges are correct)
	- – Check correctness of the old edges (triangles) "around *p*" and legalize (flip) potentially illegal edges

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3. Discard the large triangle and incident edges

Incremental algorithm in detail

LegalizeEdge(*p, ab, T* **)**

- **1.if**(*ab* is edge on the exterior face) **return**
- 2.let *d* be the vertex to the right of edge *ab*
- 3.if(inCircle(*p, a, b, d*)) // *d* is in the circle around *pab* => *d* is illegal
- 4.Flip edge *ab* for *pd*
- LegalizeEdge(*p, ad, T*)

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Correctness of edge flip of illegal edge

- r. Assume point p is in C (it violates DT criteria for adb)
- adb was a triangle of $DT \Rightarrow C$ was an empty circle
- Create circle C' trough point p, C' is inscribed to C, $C' \subset C$ \Rightarrow C' is also an empty circle $(a, b \notin C)$

Correctness of edge flip of illegal edge

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DT- point insert and mesh legalization

Correctness of the algorithm

- T. Every new edge (created due to insertion of *p)*
	- – $-$ is incident to ρ
	- – must be legal
		- => no need to test them
- Edge can only become illegal if one of its incident triangle changes
	- Algorithm tests any edge that may become illegal

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- => the algorithm is correct
- T. Every edge flip makes the angle-vector larger => algorithm can never get into infinite loop

- T. For finding a triangle $abc \in T$ containing p
	- – $-$ Leaves for active (current) triangles
	- – $-$ Internal nodes for destroyed triangles
	- $-$ Links to new triangles
- T. Search *p*: start in root (initial triangle)
	- In each inner node of *T*:
		- Check all children (max three)
		- Descend to child containing *p*

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Simplified Δ_2 Δ_3 Δ_1 - it should also contain the root node

InCircle test

- T. *a,b,c* are counterclockwise in the plane
- T Test, if *d* lies to the left of the oriented circle through *a,b,c*

Creation of the initial triangle

Idea: For given points set *P:*

- Г Initial triangle $p_{-2}p_{-1}p_{0}$
	- Must contain all points of *P*
	- Must not be (none of its points) in any circle defined by non-collinear points of *P*
- *l–2* = horizontal line above *P*
- I_{-1} = horizontal line below *P*

- Г ■ *p*₋₂ = lies on *l*₋₂ as far left that *p*₋₂ lies outside every circle
- *p₋₁* = lies on *l₋₁* as far right that *p₋₁* lies outside every circle defined by 3 non-collinear points of *P*

Symbolical tests with this triangle => *p–1* and *p–2* always out

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Complexity of incremental DT algorithm

- T. Delaunay triangulation of a set *P* in the plane can be computed in
	- – $-$ O(n log n) expected time
	- – $-$ using O(n) storage
- For details see [Berg, Section 9.4]

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Idea
–- expected number of created triangles is 9n+1 \,–- expected search O(log n) in the search structure
  done n times for n inserted points
                                (56 / 79)
```
Delaunay triangulations and Convex hulls

- T. Delaunay triangulation in *Rd* can be computed as part of the convex hull in *Rd+1* (lower CH)
- T. 2D: Connection is the paraboloid: $z = x^2 + y^2$

Vertical projection of points to paraboloid

- Vertical projection of 2D point to paraboloid in 3D $(x, y) \rightarrow (x, y, x^2 + y^2)$
- Lower convex hull = portion of CH visible from $z = -\infty$ (forms DT)

- T. Delaunay condition (2D) Points $p,q,r \in S$ form a Delaunay triangle iff the circumcircle of *p,q,r* is empty (contains no point)
- Convex hull condition (3D) Points p' , q' , $r' \in S'$ form a face of $CH(S')$ iff the plane passing through *p',q',r'* is supporting *S'*
	- –all other points lie to one side of the plane
	- plane passing through *p',q',r'* is supporting hyperplane of the convex hull CH(S')

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- p. 4 distinct points *p,q,r,s* in the plane, and let *p', q', r', s'* be their respective projections onto the paraboloid, $z = x^2 + y^2$.
- The point *s* lies within the circumcircle of *pqr* iff *s*' lies on the lower side of the plane passing through *p', q', r'.*

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Tangent and secant planes

Tangent plane to paraboloid

Plane intersecting the paraboloid (secant plane)

- T. Non-vertical tangent plane through $(a, b, a^2 + b^2)$ $2 + k^2$
- **Shift this plane** r^2 **upwards** \rightarrow **secant plane** intersects the paraboloid in an ellipse in 3D $^{2}+b^{2})+r^{2}$
- **Eliminate** *z* (project to 2D) $z = x^2 + y^2$ $a^2 + y^2 = 2ax + 2by - (a^2 + b^2) + r^2$
- T. This is a circle projected to 2D with center (*a, b*):

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[Mount]

$$
(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2 = r^2
$$

Secant plane defined by three points

Test inCircle – meaning in 3D

- T. Points *p,q,r* are counterclockwise in the plane
- T. Test, if *s* lies in the circumcircle of $\triangle pqr$ is equal to
	- = test, weather *s'* lies within a lower half space of the plane passing through *p',q',r'* (3D)
	- = test, if quadruple *p',q',r',s'* is positively oriented (3D)
	- = test, if *s lies* to the left of the oriented circle through *pqr* (2D)

Delaunay triangulation and inCircle test

- **I** DT splits each quadrangle by one of its two diagonals
- $\overline{}$ For a valid diagonal, the fourth point is not inCircle
	- => the fourth point is right from the oriented circumcircle (outside)
	- => inCircle(….) < 0 for CCW orientation
- \mathbf{r} $incircle(P,Q,R,S) = incircle(P,R,S,Q) = - incircle(P,Q,S,R) = - incircle(S,Q,R,P)$

Delaunay triangulation and inCircle test

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inCircle test detail

Point *P* moves right toward point *R* We test position of *R* in relation to oriented circle (*P,Q,S*)

inCircle test detail

An the Voronoi diagram?

- T. VD and DT are dual structures
- T. Points and lines in the plane are dual to points and planes in 3D space
- T. VD of points in the plane can be transformed to intersection of halfspaces in 3D space

Voronoi diagram as upper envelope in Rd+1

- T. For each point $p = (a, b)$ a tangent plane to the paraboloid is $z = 2ax + 2by - (a^2 + b^2)$
- $H^*(p)$ is the set of points above this plane $f(n) = \frac{(x - 1)(x - 2)}{x - 1} = \frac{2}{3}$

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Felkel: Computational geom VD of points in the plane can be computed as intersection of halfspaces *H+(pi)* in 3D This intersection of halfspaces = unbounded convex polyhedron = upper envelope of halfspaces *H+(pi)*

Upper envelope of planes

Projection to 2D

- T. Upper envelope of tangent hyperplanes (through sites projected upwards to the cone)
- T. Projected to 2D gives Voronoi diagram

Voronoi diagram as upper envelope in 3D

Derivation of projected Voronoi edge

- **2** points: $p = (a, b)$ and $q = (c, d)$ in the plane Tangent planes to paraboloid $2 + k^2$ $2 \frac{1}{4}$
- m. Intersect the planes, project onto xy (eliminate *z*) $a^2 - c^2$)+($b^2 - d^2$
- This line passes through midpoint between *p* and *q* T. $b\!+\!d$ $a\!+\!c$ $a^2 - c^2$)+($b^2 - d^2$ $\overline{2}$ $\overline{2}$ It is perpendicular bisector with slope T. $-(a-c)/(b-d)$ $\sqrt{p^2}$ [Mount] Felkel: Computational geo q^{\bullet} (80 / 79)

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INTERSECTIONS OF LINE SEGMENTS AND POLYGONS

PETR FELKEL

FEL CTU PRAGUE

Version from 17.1.2019

Talk overview

- F Intersections of line segments (Bentley-Ottmann)
	- Motivation
	- –Sweep line algorithm recapitulation
	- – $-$ Sweep line intersections of line segments
- \Box Intersection of polygons or planar subdivisions

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- – $-$ See assignment [21] or [Berg, Section 2.3]
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Intersection of axis parallel rectangles
	- –– See assignment [26]

Geometric intersections – what are they for?

One of the most basic problems in computational geometry

- \mathbf{r} Solid modeling
	- $-$ Intersection of object boundaries in $\mathsf{CSG}\nolimits$
- \mathcal{L} Overlay of subdivisions, e.g. layers in GIS
	- $-$ Bridges on intersections of roads and rivers
	- Maintenance responsibilities (road network X county boundaries)

Line segment intersection

- $\overline{}$ Intersection of complex shapes is often reduced to simpler and simpler intersection problems
- F Line segment intersection is the most basic intersection algorithm
- **College** Problem statement:

Given *n* line segments in the plane, report all points where a pair of line segments intersect.

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- F Problem complexity
	- $-$ Worst case $-I$ = O(n²) intersections
	- Practical case only some intersections
	- Use an output sensitive algorithm
		- O(*n* log *ⁿ* ⁺*^I*) optimal randomized algorithm
		- $O(n \log n + I \log n)$ sweep line algorithm % \angle \triangle

Plane sweep line algorithm recapitulation

- F Horizontal line (sweep line, *scan line*) ℓ moves top-down (or vertical line: left to right) over the set of objects
- \Box The move is not continuous, but ℓ jumps from one
- event point to another Postupový plán *Postupový plán*
	- –Event points are in priority queue or sorted list (~y)
	- The (left) top-most event point is removed first
	- New event points may be created
		- (usually as interaction of neighbors on the sweep line) and inserted into the queue
	- Scan-line status

 \Box

Status

 $-$ Stores information about the objects intersected by ℓ

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–It is updated while stopping on event point

Line segment intersection - Sweep line alg.

- **I** Avoid testing of pairs of segments far apart
- p. Compute intersections of neighbors on the sweep line only
- \mathcal{L} $O(n \log n + I \log n)$ time in $O(n)$ memory
	- 2*ⁿ* steps for end points,
	- *I* steps for intersections,
	- log *ⁿ* search the status tree

Line segment intersections

Status = ordered sequence of segments intersecting the sweep line ℓ

Events (waiting in the priority queue)

Postupový plán

Stav

= points, where the algorithm actually does something

Detecting intersections

- \Box Intersection events must be detected and inserted to the event queue before they occur
- \Box Given two segments *a, b* intersecting in point *p*, there must be a placement of sweep line ℓ prior
	- to p, such that segments a, b are adjacent along l (only adjacent will be tested for intersection)
		- –segments *a, b* are not adjacent when the alg. starts
		- segments *a, b* are adjacent just before *p*
		- => there must be an event point when *a,b* become adjacent and therefore are tested for intersection

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[Berg]

=> All intersections are found

Sweep line ℓ status = order of segments along ℓ

- F Balanced binary search tree of segments
- \Box Coords of intersections with ℓ vary as ℓ moves => store pointers to line segments in tree nodes

– Position of ℓ is plugged in the *y=mx+b* to get the x-key

Felkel: Computational geometry 1 $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$ 3(11 / 71)
Problem with duplicities of intersections

Felkel: Computational geometry 3x detected intersection1 $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$ 3(11 / 71)

Intersection may be detected many times

Problem with duplicities of intersections

Felkel: Computational geometry 3x detected intersection1 $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$ 3(11 / 71)

Intersection may be detected many times

Data structures

Event queue data structure

a) Heap

- Problem: can not check duplicated intersection events (reinvented & stired more than once)
- – $-$ Intersections processed twice or even more times
- Memory complexity up to O(*n*2)
- b) Ordered dictionary (balanced binary tree)
	- –– Can check duplicated events (adds just constant factor)
	- Nothing inserted twice
	- If non-neighbor intersections are deleted
		- i.e., if only intersections of neighbors along ℓ are stored

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then memory complexity just O(*n*)

Line segment intersection algorithm

FindIntersections(*S***)**

Input: Output: A set *S* of line segments in the plane The set of intersection points + pointers to segments in each

- 1.init an empty event queue *Q* and insert the segment endpoints
- 2.init an empty status structure *T*
- **3. while** Q in not empty
- 4.remove next event *p* from *Q*
- 5.handleEventPoint(*p*)

Felkel: Computational geometry Note: Upper-end-point events store info about the segnent Upper endpoint **Intersection** Lower endpoint (13 / 71)

Line segment intersection algorithm

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- 1.init an empty event queue *Q* and insert the segment endpoints
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Felkel: Computational geometry Note: Upper-end-point events store info about the segment Upper endpoint **Intersection** Lower endpoint Improved algorithm: Handles all in *p* in a single step

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handleEventPoint() principle

- \Box Upper endpoint *U*(*p*)
	- –insert *p* (on *^sj*) to status *^T*
	- add intersections with left and right neighbors to *Q*
- \Box Intersection *C*(*p*)
	- $-$ switch order of segments in $\mathcal T$
	- add intersections with nearest left and nearest right neighbor to *Q*
- \Box Lower endpoint *L*(*p*)

neighbors to *Q*

- remove *p* (on *^sl*) from *T*
- add intersections of left and right

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More than two segments incident

Handle Events IBerg, page 251

handleEventPoint(p)

1. Let *U*(*p*) = set of segments whose Upper endpoint is *p*. These segmets are stored with the event point *p* (will be added to *T*)

p

U(*p*)

p

p

L(*p*)

C(*p*)

- 2. Search *T* for all segments *S*(*p*) that contain *p* (are adjacent in *T*): Let $L(p) \subset S(p)$ = segments whose Lower endpoint is p Let $C(p) \subset S(p)$ = segments that Contain *p* in interior
- **3. if**($L(p) \cup U(p) \cup C(p)$ contains more than one segment)
- 4.report *p* as intersection \circ together with $L(p)$, $U(p)$, $C(p)$
- 5.Delete the segments in $L(p) \cup C(p)$ from T
- 6.Insert the segments in $U(p) \cup C(p)$ into T (order as below ℓ , horizontal segment as the last) $\frac{\mathcal{S}\lambda}{\mathcal{S}}$ $\frac{\rho\lambda}{\mathcal{S}}$ $\frac{\rho\lambda}{\mathcal{S}}$ Reverse order of *C*(*p*) in *T*
- **7.if** $(U(p) \cup C(p) = \emptyset)$ then findNewEvent(s_l , s_r , p) // left & right neighbors
- **8. else** \mathbf{s}' = leftmost segment of $U(\rho) \cup C(\rho)$; findNewEvent($\mathbf{s}_{\bm{l}}$ *, s', p*)
	- ^s'' = rightmost segment of *U*(*p*) *C*(*p*); findNewEvent(*s'', s^r , p*)

Detection of new intersections

Input: Output: **findNewEvent(***^sl , s^r , p***) // with handling of horizontal segments** two segments (left & right from *p* in *T*) and a current event point *p* updated event queue *Q* with new intersection

1. if [**(** s_t and s_r intersect below the sweep line ℓ) // line 7. above

Line segment intersections

- П Memory $O(I) = O(n^2)$ with duplicities in Q or O(n) with duplicities in Q deleted
- П Operational complexity
	- *n* + *I* stops
	- log *ⁿ* each
	- \Rightarrow O($I + n$) log *n* total

П The algorithm is by Bentley-Ottmann

Intersection of axis parallel rectangles

F Given the collection of *ⁿ isothetic* rectangles, report all intersecting parts

Brute force intersection

Brute force algorithm

Input: Output: pairs of intersected rectangles set *S* of axis parallel rectangles

- 1.For every pair (r_i, r_j) of rectangles $\in S, i \neq j$
- 2.. if $(r_i \cap r_j \neq \emptyset)$ then
- 3.. The report (r_i, r_j)

Plane sweep intersection algorithm

- F Vertical sweep line moves from left to right
- F Stops at every x-coordinate of a rectangle (either at its left side or at its right side).
- active rectangles a set
	- *⁼*rectangles currently intersecting the sweep line
	- left side event of a rectangle \square start
		- => the rectangle is added to the active set.
	- right side \Box end => the rectangle is deleted from the active set.
- \Box The active set used to detect rectangle intersect

 $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$
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Example rectangles and sweep line

Interval tree as sweep line status structure

- F Vertical sweep-line => only *y*-coordinates along it
- F The status tree is drawn horizontal - turn 90° right as if the sweep line (*y*-axis) is horizontal

Intersection test – between pair of intervals

F Given two intervals $R = [y_1, y_2]$ and $R' = [y'_1, y'_2]$ the condition R \cap R' is equivalent to one of these $\hspace{0.1mm}$ mutually exclusive conditions:

Static interval tree – stores all end points

- \blacksquare **Let** $v = y_{med}$ be the median of end-points of segments
- $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$ ■ *S_l* : segments of S that are completely to the left of y_{med}
- F S_{med} : segments of S that contain y_{med}
- \mathbf{r} S_r : segments of S that are completely to the right of y_{med}

Static interval tree – Example

Static interval tree [Edelsbrunner80]

Primary structure – static tree for endpoints

Secondary lists of incident interval end-pts.

Active nodes – intersected by the sweep line

Query = sweep and report intersections

RectangleIntersections(*S* **)**

Input: Set *S* of rectangles *Output:* Intersected rectangle pairs

Preprocessing

Input: Output: Primary structure of the interval tree *T* and the event queue *Q* **Preprocess(S)** Set *S* of rectangles

- *1.T* = PrimaryTree(S) // Construct the static primary structure // of the interval tree -> sweep line STATUS *T*
- 2. // Init event queue Q with vertical rectangle edges in ascending order ~x // Put the left edges with the same *^x* ahead of right ones

Interval tree – primary structure construction

Input: Set *S* of rectangles *Output:* Primary structure of an interval tree *T* **PrimaryTree(***S***) // only the y-tree structure, without intervals** *1. Sy ⁼*Sort endpoints of all segments in *S* according to *y*-coordinate *2. T =* BST(*Sy*) **3. return** *T* **BST(** *Sy* **) 1. if**(|*Sy* | = 0) **return** null 2. *yMed* = median of S_v *<i>// the smaller item for even* S_v *size*

Felkel: Computational geometry *3. ^L*= endpoints *py yMed* 4. R = endpoints *py* >*yMed 5. t = new* IntervalTreeNode*(yMed) 6. t.left* = BST(*L*) *7. t.right* = BST(*R*) **8. return** *t* (33 / 71)

Interval tree – search the intersections

Interval tree - interval insertion

Example 1

4 4 $\ddot{}$ ÷ ¥ ÷. **Single CAR** $\overline{}$ $+$ \perp \perp $\ddot{}$ $\ddot{}$ $+$ Felkel: Computational geometry ÷. (36 / 71)

Example 1 – static tree on endpoints

Interval insertion [1,3] a) Query Interval YSearch MR(v) or ML(v): \longleftarrow b < H(v) < e $1 < (2) < 3$ MR(v) is empty

No active sons, stop

Current node

e C

Active node

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[Drtina]

Interval insertion [2,4] a) Query Interval

Interval delete [1,3]

Interval delete [1,3]

Interval delete [2,4]

Interval delete [2,4]

Example 2

Input: Set S of rectangles *Output:* Intersected rectangle pairs **RectangleIntersections(** *S* **) // this is a copy of the slide before // just to remember the algorithm**

1. Preprocess(S) *II* create the interval tree *T* and event queue *Q*

Example 2 – tree from PrimaryTree(*S***)**

Example 2 – slightly unbalanced tree

Insert [3,7] b) Insert Interval

 $\mathsf{b}\leq\mathsf{H}(\mathsf{v})\leq\mathsf{e}$

Insert $[0,2]$ a) Query Interval b $$

Insert $[0,2]$ a) Query Interval b $$

Insert $\begin{bmatrix} 1, 5 \end{bmatrix}$ a) Query Interval $1/2$ b < H(v) < e

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Insert $\begin{bmatrix} 1, 5 \end{bmatrix}$ a) Query Interval $1/2$ b < H(v) < e

Insert $\begin{bmatrix} 1, 5 \end{bmatrix}$ a) Query Interval $1/2$ b < H(v) < e Yfor (all in MR(v)) ? 1 < (3) \times 5 ? => report intersection c,d 3go left -> 1 8fgo right - nil 75 \cap 6 $2,3$ (7,3) e5 7 1b43 c $0₂$ 0) U 2 (2) (4) (6 Ω 2 a 10 | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | | 7 | | 8 Ω 0 X c dfaActive rectangle bCurrent node $\mathsf{\Omega}$ Active node [Drtina] Felkel: Computational geometry DCC (56 / 71)

Insert $\begin{bmatrix} 1, 5 \end{bmatrix}$ a) Query Interval $1/2$ b < H(v) < e Yfor (all in MR(v)) ? 1 < (3) \times 5 ? => report intersection c,d 3go left -> 1 8fgo right - nil 75 d62,3 $\sqrt{7,3}$ e5 7 1b43 c $0₂$ 0) U 2 (2) (4) (6 Ω 2 a 10 | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | | 7 | | 8 Ω 0 X c dfaActive rectangle bCurrent node $\mathsf{\Omega}$ Active node [Drtina] Felkel: Computational geometry DCC (56 / 71)

Insert $\begin{bmatrix} 1, 5 \end{bmatrix}$ b) Insert Interval b $\leq H(v) \leq e$

Insert $[7,8]$ b) Insert Interval b $\leq H(v) \leq e$

Insert $[7,8]$ b) Insert Interval b $\leq H(v) \leq e$

Delete $[3,7]$ Delete Interval b $\leq H(v) \leq e$

Y $3 \leq 4 < 6$? 38 f7 5 d6 $1,2$ $(5,3)$ e 5 $\begin{array}{ccc} \textbf{1} & & & \end{array}$ 1b 43 $2(2)$ $4)$ $6)78$ c 0 20 0) U 2 (2) (4) (6 2 a 10 | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | | 6 | | | 7 | | | 8 00 X c d facActive rectangle bCurrent node eActive node [Drtina] Felkel: Computational geometry **DCC** (62 / 71)

Y $3 \leq 4 < 6$? 38 f7 5 id. 6 $1,2$ $(5,3)$ e 5 $\begin{array}{ccc} \textbf{1} & & & \end{array}$ 1 $\sf b$ 43 $2(2)$ $4)$ $6)78$ c 0 20 0) U 2 (2) (4) (6 2 a 10 | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | | 6 | | | 7 | | | 8 00 X c d facActive rectangle bCurrent node eActive node [Drtina] Felkel: Computational geometry **DCC** (62 / 71)

Y $3 \leq 4 < 6$? 3 8 f7 5 a 6 $1,2$ $(5,3)$ e 5 $\begin{array}{ccc} \textbf{1} & & & \end{array}$ 1 $\sf b$ 43 $2(2)$ $4)$ $6)78$ c 0 20 0) U 2 (2) (4) (6 2 a 10 | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | | 6 | | | 7 | | | 8 00 X c d facActive rectangle bCurrent node eActive node [Drtina] Felkel: Computational geometry **DCC** (62 / 71)

Y $3 \leq 4 < 6$? 3 8 f7 5 ia. $1,2$ $(5,3)$ 6 e 5 1) (7 1b 43 $2(2)$ $4)$ $6)78$ c 0 20 0) U 2 (2) (4) (6 2 a 10 | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | | 6 | | | 7 | | | 8 00 X c d facActive rectangle bCurrent node eActive node [Drtina] Felkel: Computational geometry **DCC** (62 / 71)

 $\mathsf{b}\leq\mathsf{H}(\mathsf{v})\leq\mathsf{e}$

 $\mathsf{b}\leq\mathsf{H}(\mathsf{v})\leq\mathsf{e}$

 $\mathsf{b}\leq\mathsf{H}(\mathsf{v})\leq\mathsf{e}$

Delete [4,6] Delete Interval

Empty tree

Complexities of rectangle intersections

- F *ⁿ* rectangles, *^s* intersected pairs found
- F O(*ⁿ* log *n*) preprocessing time to separately sort
	- x-coordinates of the rectangles for the plane sweep
	- –– the y-coordinates for initializing the interval tree.
- The plane sweep itself takes O(*n* log *n* + *s*) time, so the overall time is O(*ⁿ* log *ⁿ* ⁺*s*)
- П O(*n*) space
- × This time is optimal for a decision-tree algorithm (i.e., one that only makes comparisons between rectangle coordinates).

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WINDOWING

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FEL CTU PRAGUE

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Windowing queries - examples

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Windowing versus range queries

- F Range queries (see range trees in Lecture 03)
	- Points
	- –Often in higher dimensions
- **Nindowing queries**
	- –Line segments, curves, …
	- –Usually in low dimension (2D, 3D)
- \Box The goal for both: Preprocess the data into a data structure $-$ so that the objects intersected by the query rectangle can be reported efficiently

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2 2 2 2 2 3 3 4

Windowing queries on line segments

Talk overview

1. Windowing of axis parallel line segments in 2D

- 3 variants of *interval tree – IT in x-direction*
- – $-$ Differ in storage of segment end points M $_{\mathsf{L}}$ and M $_{\mathsf{R}}$
- i.Line stabbing (standard *IT* with *sorted lists*) lecture 9 - intersections
- ii.Line segment stabbing (*IT* with *range trees*)
- iii. Line segment stabbing (*IT* with *priority search trees*)
- 2. Windowing of line segments in general position
	- *segment tree*

1. Windowing of axis parallel line segments

1. Windowing of axis parallel line segments

Window query

- \Box Given
	- –a set of orthogonal line segments *S* (preprocessed),
	- – $-$ and orthogonal query rectangle W = [$x : x'$] \times [$y : y'$]
- \Box Count or report all the line segments of *S* that intersect *W*

- a) 1 point inside
	- –Use a range tree (Lesson 3)
	- –O(*n* log *ⁿ*) storage
	- –O(log 2 *n + k*) query time or
	- – $O(log n + k)$ with fractional cascading

- b) 2 points inside as a) 1 point inside
	- Avoid reporting twice
		- 1. Mark segment when reported (clear after the query)
		- 2. When end point found, check the other end-point. Report only the leftmost or bottom endpoint

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Line segments that cross over the window

No points inside

- Such segments not detected using end-point range tree
- Cross the boundary twice or

contain one boundary edge

- It is enough to detect segments intersected by the left and bottom boundary edges (not having end point inside)
- For left boundary: Report the segments intersecting vertical query *line segment* (1/ii.)

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- –Let's discuss vertical query *line* first (1/i.)
	- Bottom boundary is rotated 90°

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(9 / 59)

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1. Windowing of axis parallel line segments in 2D (variants of *interval tree - IT*)

i.Line stabbing (standard *IT* with *sorted lists*)

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segment tree

i. Segment intersected by vertical line – 1D

Interval tree principle (see lecture 9 - intersections)

Static interval tree [Edelsbrunner80]

Primary structure – static tree for endpoints

Secondary lists – sorted segments in M

Interval tree construction

Merged procedures from in lecture 09

- PrimaryTree(*S*) on slide 33
- InsertInterval (*b, e, T*) on slide 35

Line stabbing query for an interval tree

```
Less effective variant of QueryInterval ( b, e, T )
Stab( t, xq)
                                                              on slide 34 in lecture 09Input:
           IntTreeNode t, Scalar xq
                                                              with merged parts: fork and search right
Output:
prints the intersected intervals
    if (t == null) return // no leaf: fell out of the tree1.if (xq < t.xMed) // left of median?
2.for (i = 0; i < t. ML. length; i++) // traverse ML
3.if (t.ML[i].|0 \leq xq) print(t.ML[i]) // .. report if in range
4.5.else break luites and luites luites and luites done
6.stab(t.left, xq) and the stab of the stab 
7.else \pi (xq \ge t.xMed) \pi // right of or equal to median
         for (i = 0; i < t. MR. length; i++) { \ell // traverse MR ++8.9.if (t.MR[i].hi \geq xq) print(t.MR[i]) // ..report if in range
10.else break and a late of the l
11. stab(t.right, xq) // recurse on right
     Note: Small inefficiency for xq == t.xMed – recurse on right
                                                                                  [Mount]
                                             A A A A A A A
                                                     + + + +(21 / 59)
```
Complexity of line stabbing via interval tree

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Construction - $O(n \log n)$ time
	- – Each step divides at maximum into two halves or less (minus elements of M) => tree of height $h = O(\log n)$
	- If presorted endpoints in three lists L,R, and M then median in O(1) and copy to new L,R,M in O(*n*)]
- **•** Vertical line stabbing query $O(k + \log n)$ time
	- One node processed in $O(1 + k')$, k' reported intervals
	- ν visited nodes in $O(\nu + k), \quad \enskip k$ total reported intervals
	- $-\,\,\nu=h=$ tree height = $O(\log n)^{-k}=\Sigma k^{\prime}$
- \blacksquare Storage - $O(n)$ $-$ Tree has $O(n)$ nodes, each segment stored twice (two endpoints) $+$ + + + + + + + + + +

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Line segment stabbing (*IT* **with** *range trees***)**

Enhance 1D interval trees to 2D

- –– Change 1D test $q_{\textstyle \mathop{\bar{x}}\nolimits} \in \langle \textstyle \mathop{\bar{x}}\nolimits, \textstyle \mathop{\bar{x}}\nolimits'$ done by interval tree with sorted lists M_L and M_R into 2D testt $q_x \in (-\infty : q_x]$
- and change lines $q_{\textit{\textbf{x}}}$ $q_x \times [-\infty : \infty]$ (no y-test) to segments $q_x \times [q_y : q'_y]$ (additional y-test)

i. Segment intersected by vertical line - 2D

Data structure for endpoints

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ **B** Storage of M_L and M_R
	- –1D Sorted lists not enough for line segments
	- –– Use two 2D range trees
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ \blacksquare Instead O(*n*) sequential search in M_L and M_R perform O(log *ⁿ*) search in range tree with fractional cascading

2D range tree (without fractional cascading-more in Lecture 3)

Complexity of line segment stabbing

- П Construction - O(*n* log *n*) time
	- Each step divides at maximum into two halves L,R or less (minus elements of M) => tree height O(log *n*)
	- $-$ If the range trees are efficiently build in $O(n)$ after points sorted
- Vertical line segment stab. q. O(*k* + log² *n*) time 2D range tree search with Fractional Cascading
	- One node processed in O(log *ⁿ* + k'), k'=reported inter.
	- *^v*-visited nodes in O(*^v* log *ⁿ* + k), k=total reported inter.
	- *^v*= interval tree height = O(log *n*)
	- –O(*k +* log2 *ⁿ*) time - range tree with fractional cascading
	- O(*k +* log3 *ⁿ*) time range tree without fractional casc.

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- F Priority search trees – in case c) on slide 9
	- –– Exploit the fact that query rectangle in range queries is unbounded (in x direction)
	- Can be used as secondary data structures for both left and right endpoints (ML and MR) of segments in nodes of interval tree – one for ML, one for MR
	- – $-$ Improve the storage to $O(n)$ for horizontal segment intersection with window edge (Range tree has O(*n* log *ⁿ*))
- \Box ■ For cases a) and b) - O(*n* log *n*) remains

– we need range trees for windowing segment endpoints

Rectangular range queries variants

- П **Let** $P = \{p_1, p_2, ..., p_n\}$ is set of points in plane
- F Goal: rectangular range queries of the form $(-\infty:q_{_{\mathcal{X}}}] \times [q_{_{\mathcal{Y}}} \, ; \, q_{_{\mathcal{Y}}}^{\prime}]$
- **I** In 1D: search for nodes *v* with $v_x \in (-\infty : q_x]$
	- range tree O(log *n* + *k*) time
	- ordered list O(1 + *k*) time (start in the leftmost, stop on *v* with $v_{\sf x}\!\!>\!q_{\sf x}$)
	- – use heap O(1 + $O(1 + k)$ time ! (traverse all children, stop when $v_{\sf x}\!\!>\!\!q_{\sf x})$
- **n** 2D use heap for points with $x \in (-\infty : q_x]$ + integrate information about y-coordinate $+$ + + + + + + + + + +

Heap for 1D unbounded range queries

- F Traverse all children, stop when $v_x > q_x$
- F Example: Query $(-\infty:10]$

Principle of priority search tree

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ **Heap**

- – $-$ relation between parent and its child nodes
- no relation between the child nodes themselves
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Priority search tree
	- – $-$ relate the child nodes according to y

Priority search tree (PST)

- F Heap in 2D can incorporate info about both *x,y*
	- BST on *y*-coordinate (horizontal slabs) ~ range tree
	- Heap on *x -*coordinate (minimum *x* from slab along *x*)
- $\overline{}$ If P is empty, PST is empty leaf
- F else

Priority search tree construction example

Priority search tree construction

PrioritySearchTree(*P* **)** *Input:* set *P* of points in plane *Output:* priority search tree *T* if $P=\emptyset$ then PST is an empty leaf 1.2. else = point with smallest x-coordinate in *P* // heap on x root 3. p_{min} 4. $=$ y-coord. median of points $P \setminus \{p_{min}\}$ // BST on y root *ymed*Split points $P \setminus \{p_{min}\}$ into two subsets – according to y_{med} 5.6.. $P_{below} := \{ p \in P \setminus \{ p_{min} \} : p_y \le y_{med} \}$ 7.. $P_{above} := \{ p \in P \setminus \{ p_{min} \} : p_y > y_{med} \}$ *T* = newTreeNode() and the Motation in alg: 8.9.*T.p* = p_{min} // point [*x, y*] … p(v) *10.* $T.y = y_{mid}$ // skalar \mathcal{L}^{max} , where \mathcal{L}^{max} is the skalar \mathcal{L}^{max} is the skalar \mathcal{L}^{max} *11. T.left* = PrioritySearchTree(*Pbelow*) … lc(v) *12. T.rigft* = PrioritySearchTree(*Pabove*) … rc(v) 13. O(*ⁿ* log *ⁿ*) *,* but O(*n*) if presorted on *y-*coordinate and bottom up(61 / 59)

Input: Output: All points lying in the range **QueryPrioritySearchTree(** T , $(-\infty : q_x] \times [q_y : q'_y]$) A priority search tree and a range, unbounded to the left

- 1. Search with *qy* and *^q'y* in *^T* // BST on *y*-coordinate select *^y* range Let v_{split} be the node where the two search paths split (split node)
- 2. for each node *ν* on the search path of *qy* or *q'y* // points along the paths
- 3.if $p(v) \in (-\infty : q_x] \times [q_v; q_v']$ then report $p(v)$ // starting in tree root
- 4.for each node *ν* on the path of *qy* in the left subtree of *νsplit* // inner trees

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- 5.if the search path goes left at *^ν*
- 6.ReportInSubtree(*rc(ν)*, *qx*) // report right subtree
- 7.for each node *ν* on the path of *q'y* in right subtree of *νsplit*
- 8. if the search path goes right at *^ν* 9.
	- ReportInSubtree(*lc(ν)*, *qx*) // rep. left subtree

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Reporting of subtrees between the paths

ReportInSubtree(*^ν***,** *qx* **)**

Input: Output: All points in the subtree with *x*-coordinate at most *qx.* The root *ν* of a subtree of a priority search tree and a value $q_{\textit{\textbf{x}}}$.

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- 1.if *v* is not a leaf and *x*($p(v)$) $\le q_x$
- 2.Report *p*(*ν*).
- 3.ReportInSubtree(*lc*(*ν*)*, qx*)
- 4.ReportInSubtree(*rc*(*ν*)*, qx*)

 $\sqrt{X} \in (-\infty: q_x]$ -- heap condition

Priority search tree complexity

For set of *n* points in the plane

- F **Ruild** $O(n \log n)$
- F Storage *n*)
- \Box **n** Query $O(k + log n)$
	- $-$ points in query range $(-\infty:q_{_{\mathsf{x}}}] \times [q_{_{\mathsf{y}}} \, ; \, q_{_{\mathsf{y}}}')]$
	- *k* is number of reported points
- \Box Use Priority search tree as associated data structure for interval trees for storage of M (one for M_{L} , one for $\mathsf{M}_{\mathsf{R}})$

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2. Windowing of line segments in general position

Windowing of arbitrary oriented line segments

- F Two cases of intersection
	- a,b) Endpoint inside the query window \Rightarrow range tree
	- c) Segment intersects side of query window => ???
- \mathbf{r} Intersection with BBOX (segment bounding box)?
	- Intersection with 4n sides
	- –But segments may not intersect the window –> query y

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 segment tree (41 / 59)

\Box Exploits locus approach

- –Partition parameter space into regions of same answer
- – $-$ Localization of such region = knowing the answer
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ For given set *S* of *n* intervals (segments) on real line
	- –Finds *m* elementary intervals (induced by interval end-points)
	- Partitions 1D parameter space into these elementary –intervals p_2 p_3 p_4 D_1 $(-\infty : p_1), [p_1 : p_1], (p_1 : p_2), [p_2 : p_2], \ldots,$ $(p_{m-1}: p_m), [p_m: p_m], (p_m: +\infty)$

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- Stores intervals *si* with the elementary intervals
- Reports the intervals s_i containing query point q_{x} .

Segment tree example

Segment tree example

Intervals $S = \{ [x_1 : x_1'], [x_2 : x_2'], \ldots, [x_n : x_n'] \}$ $s_i = [x_i : x_i']$ S_{5} s_2, s_5 $S₃$ \overline{S} 1 S_3, S_4 s_3 S_2, S_5 Elementary Intervals *x* $\overline{(-\infty:p_1)}^{\circ}$ ○($(p_1 : p_2)$: +[∞]) … $[p_1: p_1]$ [p $_2$: p $_2$] [p $_2$: p $_3$] Intervals … $\sqrt{S_3}$ $S₁$ S_4 S_5 [Berg] (43 / 59)

Segment tree definition

Segment tree

- F ■ Skeleton is a balanced binary tree T
- П Leaves \sim elementary intervals $Int(v)$
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ **u** Internal nodes v
	- ~ union of elementary intervals of its children
		- Store: 1. interval $Int(v)$ = union of elementary intervals
			- of its children segments *si*
			- 2. canonical set $S(v)$ of intervals $[x : x'] \in S$
		- $-$ Holds Int($v) \subseteq [x : x^r]$ and Int(parent($v)$] $\nsubseteq [x : x^r]$ [(node interval is not larger than the segment)
		- Intervals [*x* : *x'*] are stored as high as possible, such that

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Int(*v*) is completely contained in the segment

Segments span the slab

Query segment tree – stabbing query

Input: Output: All intervals in the tree containing *qx*. QuerySegmentTree(*v*, q_x) The root of a (subtree of a) segment tree and a query point q_x

Segment tree construction

Input: Output: segment tree ConstructSegmentTree(*S*) Set of intervals *S -* segments

- 1. Sort endpoints of segments in *S* -> get elemetary intervals …O(*ⁿ* log *n*)
- 2. Construct a binary search tree *T* on elementary intervals …O(*n*) (bottom up) and determine the interval Int(*v*) it represents
- 3.Compute the canonical subsets for the nodes (lists of their segments):
- $v = root(T)$ 4.5.for all segments $s_i = [x : x^i] \in S$ InsertSegmentTree(*v,* [*x* : *x'*])6. $+ + + + + + + + + + +$ $+ + + + + + + +$ (94 / 59)

Segment tree construction – interval insertion

```
InsertSegmentTree( v, [x : x'] ) 
Input:
          The root of (a subtree of) a segment tree and an interval.
Output:
The interval will be stored in the subtree.
    if Int(v) \subseteq [x : x']\mathcal{I}/\mathcal{I} Int(v) \subseteq [ x : x' ] \qquad \qquad \qquad \mathcal{I}/\mathcal{I} Int(v) contains s_i = [x : x']1.2. store [ x : x' ] at ν
3. else if \text{Int}( \textit{lc}(v) ) \cap [x : x'] \neq \emptyset InsertSegmentTree( lc(ν), [x : x' ] )
4.if \text{Int}( rc(v)) \cap [x : x'] \neq \emptyset5. if6. InsertSegmentTree(rc(ν), [x : x' ] )
One interval is stored at most twice in one level =>Single interval insert O(\log n), insert n intervals O(2n \log n)Construction total O(n\log n)Storage O(n \log n)Tree height O(\log n), name stored max 2x in one level
    Storage total O(n \log n) – see next slide
                    + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +(95 / 59)
```
Space complexity - notes

Segment tree complexity

A segment tree for set S of *n* intervals in the plane,

- F **Ruild** $O(n \log n)$
- F **Reduce Storage** $O(n \log n)$
- **The State n** Query $O(k + log n)$
	- Report all intervals that contain a query point
	- *k* is number of reported intervals

Segment tree versus Interval tree

F Segment tree

- –– O(*n* log *n*) storage x O(*n*) of Interval tree
- – But returns exactly the intersected segments *si*, interval tree must search the lists ML and/or MR

\Box Good for

- 1. extensions (allows different structuring of intervals)
- 2. stabbing counting queries
	- store number of intersected intervals in nodes
	- O(n) storage and O(log *n*) query time = optimal
- 3. higher dimensions multilevel segment trees

(Interval and priority search trees do not exist in ^dims)

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2. Windowing of line segments in general position

Windowing of arbitrary oriented line segments

- \Box Let S be a set of arbitrarily oriented line segments in the plane.
- П Report the segments intersecting a vertical query ${\sf segment}\; q := q_{{\sf x}} \times \llbracket q_{{\sf y}}: q'_{{\sf y}} \rrbracket$
- \Box Segment tree *T* on *^x* intervals of segments in *S*
	- $-$ node *v* of T corresponds to vertical slab $\mathsf{Int}(v) \times (-\infty : \infty)$

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- $-$ segments span the slab of the node, but not of its parent
- segments do not intersect
	- => segments in the slab (node) can be vertically ordered – BST

[Berg]

- П Segments (in the slab) do not mutually intersect
	- => segments can be vertically ordered and stored in BST
	- Each node *v* of the x segment tree has an associated y BST
	- BST *T*(*^v*) of node *v* stores the canonical subset *S* (*v*) according to the vertical order
	- **Links and Committee** – Intersected segments can be found by searching $T(v)$ in O(k_v + log *n*), k_v is the number of intersected segments

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- F **Example 2** Segment s is intersected by vert.query segment q iff
	- –The lower endpoint (B) of *q* is below *s* and
	- –The upper endpoint (A) of *q* is above *s*

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- F **Example 2** Segment s is intersected by vert.query segment q iff
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Windowing of arbitrary oriented line segments complexity

Structure associated to node (BST) uses storage linear in the size of *S*(*v*)

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Build O(*n* log *n*)
- П Storage O(*n* log *n*)
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Query $O(k + log^2 n)$
	- Report all segments that contain a query point
	- *k* is number of reported segments

Windowing of line segments in 2D – conclusions

Construction: all variants O(n logn)

- 1. Axis parallel Search Memory i. Line (*sorted lists*) O(*k +* log *ⁿ*) O(*n*)
	- ii. Segment (*range trees*) O(*k +* log 2 *ⁿ*) O(*n* log *n*)

```
iii. Segment 
(priority s. tr.) O( k + log 
                                               n) O(
n
)
2. In general position
                                              2
      segment tree O( k + log
                                                n) \hbox{O}(n \log n)
     –+ + + + + + + + + + + ++ + + + + + +(58 / 59)
```
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ARRANGEMENTS (uspo řádání)

PETR FELKEL

FEL CTU PRAGUE

Version from 25.1.2019

Talk overview

$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Arrangements of lines

- Incremental construction
- Topological plane sweep
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Duality – next lesson

Arrangements

- F The next most important structure in CG after CH, VD, and DT
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Possible in any dimension arrangement of (d-1)-dimensional hyperplanes
- \Box We concentrate on arrangement of lines in plane
- \Box Typical application: problems of point sets in dual plane (collinear points, point on circles, …)

Some more applications (see CGAL)

- $\overline{}$ Finding the minimum-area triangle defined by a set of points,
- **The State** computation of the sorted angular sequences of points,
- **The State** finding the ham-sandwich cut,
- F planning the motion of a polygon translating among polygons in the plane,
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ computing the offset polygon,
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ constructing the farthest-point Voronoi diagram,
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ coordinating the motion of two discs moving among obstacles in the plane,
- F performing Boolean operations on curved polygons.

Line arrangement

- F A finite set *L* of lines subdivides the plane into a cell complex, called arrangement *A* (*L*)
- \Box In plane, arrangement defines a planar graph
	- Vertices intersections of (2 or more) lines
	- Edges – intersection free segments (or rays or lines)
	- Faces $-$ convex regions containing no line (possibly unbounded)

Line arrangement

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Simple arrangement assumption
	- = no three lines intersect in a single point
		- Can be solved by careful implementation or symbolic perturbation

Line arrangement

П Formal problem: graph must have bounded edges

- Topological fix: add vertex in infinity
- Geometrical fix: BBOX, often enough as abstract with corners $\{ -\infty, -\infty \}, \{ \infty, \infty \}$

Combinatorial complexity of line arrangement

- F \blacksquare $O(n^2)$
- **Given** *n* lines in general position, max numbers are F $\binom{n}{k}$ $\binom{n}{n}$ *n*(*n* $(n-1)$ $=$ $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ – Vertices $| \quad | = \frac{m(n-1)}{2}$ - each line intersect n – 1 others \setminus \int 22*n2* – Edges - *n*–1 intersections create *n* edges on each of *n* lines $\binom{n}{k}$ $\bigg($ $(n+1)$ $\frac{1}{2}+1=\binom{n}{2}+n+$ *n*(*n*+1) 1*n* $\frac{+1)}{n+1}$ + 1 = $\binom{n}{n+1}$ $-$ Faces $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}+1=\binom{n}{2}+n+1$ $\rm{f}_{_{\alpha}}=1$, and the set of the set of the celá rovina) $\frac{1}{2}$ + 1 $+1=$ Ξ $\hat{\textbf{f}}^0 = \hat{\textbf{f}}$ \setminus $= 1$, \pm $_n = 1_{n-1} + n$ π $n=0$ $n=1$ 1 \times n=2 \times n=3 $(n+1)$ $= f_{0} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{n+1}$ $\sum_{n=1}^{n}$ **f**₀⁺ $\sum_{i=1}^{n}$ **i** $i = \frac{n(n-1)}{n+1}$ $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{n+1}$ *n* $f^* = f$ 1÷ *i* $f_0 = 1$ $f_1 = 2$ $f_2 = 4$ $f_3 = 7$ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +

Construction of line arrangement

A. Incremental construction of arrangement

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ $O(n^2)$ time, $O(n^2)$ space ~size of arrangement => it is an optimal algorithm
- Not randomized depends on *n* only, not on order
- П Add line l_i one by one $(i = 1 ... n)$
	- Find the leftmost intersection with the BBOX among $2(i - 1) + 4$ edges already on the BBOX \ldots $O(i)$
	- $-$ Trace the line through the arrangement $A(L_{i-1})$ and split the intersected faces $...$ $O(i)$ – why? See later
	- –- Update the subdivision (cell split) $\ldots O(1)$
- Altogether $O(ni) = O(n^2)$ \Box $+ + + + + + + + +$ (10 / 55)

A. Incremental construction of arrangement

Arrangement(*L*)

Input: Output: Line arrangement *A*(*L*) (resp. part of the arrangement stored in Set of lines *L* in general position (no 3 intersect in 1 common point) BBOX *B*(*L*) containing all the vertices of *A*(*L*))

- 1.Compute the BBOX *B*(*L*) containing all the vertices of *A*(*L*) …O(*n*2)
- 2. Construct DCEL for the subdivision induced by BBOX *B*(*L*) \dots O(1)
- **3.***for* $i = 1$ **to** *ⁿ do // insert line li*
- 4.find edge *^e*, where line *li* intersects the BBOX of 2(*i-1*)+4 edges …O(*i*)
- 5. *f* = bounded face incident to the edge *^e*
- *6.* **while** *f* is in *B*(*L*) (bounded face f = f is in the BBOX) … O(i)
- 7. split *f* and set *f* to be the next intersected face
	- across the intersected edge
- 8. update the DCEL (split the cell)

- \Box Walk around edges of current face (face walking)
- \Box ■ Determine if the line *l_i* intersects current edge *e*
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ When intersection found, jump to the face on the other side of edge *e*

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- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ When intersection found, jump to the face on the other side of edge *e*

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Number of traversed edges determines the insertion complexity
- Naïve estimation would be $O(i^2)$ traversed edges $(i \text{ faces}, i \text{ lines per face}, i^2 \text{ edges})$
- **The Co** According to the Zone theorem, it is $O(i)$ edges only!

Zone theorem

= given an arrangement $A(L)$ of n lines in the plane and given any line l in the plane, the total number of edges in all the cells of the zone $Z_A(L)$ is at

 $\text{most } 6n$. For proof see [Mount, page 69] $+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +$ $+$ + + + + + + + + + +

Cell split in *O***(1)**

- \Box 1 new vertex
- 2 new face records, 1 face record (f) destroyed
- 3x2 new half-edges, 2 half-edges destroyed
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ update pointers … O(1)

Complexity of incremental algorithm

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ n insertions
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ $\theta(i) = \theta(n)$ time for one line insertion instead of $O(P)$ (Zone theorem)

$$
\Rightarrow \text{Complexity: } O(n^2) + n. O(i) = O(n^2)
$$

bbox edges walked

B. Topological plane sweep algorithm

- F Complete arrangement needs $O(n^2)$ storage
- F Often we need just to process each arrangement element just once – and we can throw it out then
- П Classical Sweep line algorithm (for arrangement of lines)
	- –– needs $O(n)$ storage

 $\sim O(n^2)$ algorithm

- –– needs log n for heap manipulation in $O(n^2)$ event points
- \Rightarrow $O(n^2 \log n)$ algorithm
- **Topological sweep line TSL**
	- –- no $O(\log n)$ factor in time complexity
	- – $-$ array of *n* neighbors and a stack of ready vertices $O(1)$

a a month and a

(16 / 55)

Illustration from Edelsbrunner & Guibas

Topological line and cut

- Topological line (curve) (an intuitive notion)
- p. Monotonic curve in y-dir
- F intersects each line exactly once (as a sweep line)

Cut in an arrangement A

is an ordered sequence of edges $c_1, c_2,...,c_n$ in A F (one taken from each line), such that for $1 \le i \le n-1$, *c*i and *c*i+1 are incident to the same face of A and *c*i is above and *c*i+1 below the face **Edges** in the cut are **not necessarily connected (as** c_2 **and** c_3 **)** p. (18 / 55)

Topological plane sweep algorithm

p. Starts at the leftmost cut

- $-$ Consist of left-unbounded edges of A (ending at $-\infty)$
- Computed in O(*n* log *ⁿ*) time order of slopes
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ The sweep line is
	- $-$ pushed from the leftmost cut to the rightmost cut

ready vertex topological sweep line

Advances in elementary steps

\mathcal{L}^{max} Elementary step

- = Processing of any *ready vertex* (intersection of consecutive edges at their right-point)
- Swaps the order of lines along the sweep line
- $-$ Is always possible (e.g., the point with smallest *x*)
- Searching of smallest x would need O(log *ⁿ*) time …

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Step 0 – the leftmost cut

Step 1 – after processing of c4 x c5

Step 2 – after processing of c3 x c4

How to determine the next right point?

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Elementary step (intersection at edges right-point)
	- Is always possible (e.g., the point with smallest *x*)
	- But searching the smallest x would need O(log *ⁿ*) time
	- We need O(1) time
- \Box Right endpoint of the edge in the cut results from
	- –**EXECT A line of smaller slope intersecting it from above (traced** from L to R) or

Slope

 L HT line of *larger slope* intersecting it *from below*.

- П Use Upper and Lower Horizon Trees (UHT, LHT)
	- –Common segments of UHT and LHT belong to the cut

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- Intersect the trees, find pairs of consecutive edges

–use the right points as legal steps (push to stack)

Upper and lower horizon tree

F Upper horizon tree (UHT)

- Insert lines in order of decreasing slope (cw)
- When two edges meet, keep the edge with higher slope and trim the inserted edge (with lower slope)
- – To get one tree and not the forest of trees (if not connected) add a vertical line in + ∞ (slope +90°)
- –- Left endpoints of the edges in the cut do not belong to the tree
- × Lower horizon tree (LHT) construction is symmetrical × UHT and LHT serve for right endpts determination

Upper horizon tree (UHT) – initial tree

Insert lines in order of decreasing slope ("cw")

Upper horizon tree (UHT) – initial tree

Overlap UHT and LHT – detect ready vertices

Upper horizon tree (UHT) – init. construction

- \Box Insert lines in order of decreasing slope (cw)
- \Box Each new line starts above all the current lines
- \Box The uppermost face = convex polygonal chain
- \Box Walk left to right along the chain to determine the intersection
- **COL** Never walk twice over a segment
	- –- Such segment is no longer part of the upper chain
	- $-$ O(*n*) segments in UHT
	- => O(*ⁿ*) initial construction
		- (after n log *n* sorting of the lines ~slope)

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new line

Upper horizon tree (UHT) – update

Data structures for topological sweep alg.

Topological sweep line algorithm uses 5 arrays:

1) Line equation coefficients – *E* [1*:n*] 2) Upper horizon tree – UHT [1*:n*] 3) Lower horizon tree – LHT [1*:n*] 4) Order of lines cut by the sweep line – C [1*:n*] 5) Edges along the sweep line – N [1*:n*] 6) Stack for ready vertices (events) – S (*ⁿ* number of lines) $+ + + + + + + + + + + +$ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + (30 / 55)

1) Line equation coefficients *E* **[1***:n* **]**

Array of line equations E $y = a_ix + b$

■ Array of line equation coefs. E

- Contains coefficients *ai* and *bi*of line equations $y = a_i x + b_i$
- *E* is indexed by the line index
- Lines are ordered according to their slope (angle from -90° to 90°)

2) and 3) – Horizon trees UHT and LHT

4) Order of lines cut by sweep line – C [1*:n***]**

- F The topological sweep line cuts each line once
- F Order of the cuts (along the topological sweep line) is stored in array C as a sequence of line indices

5) Edges along the sweep line – N [1*:n* **]**

- F Edges intersected by the topological sweep line are stored here (edges along the sweep line)
- **COL** Instead of endpoints themselves, we store the indices of lines whose intersections delimit the edge
- \mathcal{L}_{max} Order of these edges is the same as in C(both use the index *ci*)
- \Box Index *ci* stores the index of *i-th* edge from top along the sweep line $c₂$ c3 $c₄$ c5

CUT edges N Pairs of line indicesdelimiting the edge

 $c₁$

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 $+ + + + + +$

6) Stack S

- F The exact order of events is not important (event = intersection in ready vertex)
- П Alg. can process any of the "ready vertex"
- П Event queue is therefore replaced by a stack (faster: O(1) instead of O(log *n*) for queue) Stack S
- \Box The stack stores just the upper edge c_i from the pair intersecting in ready vertex
- \Box Intersection in the ready vertex is computed between stored \mathbf{c}_{i} and $\mathbf{c}_{\mathsf{i+1}}$

Ready vertex first edge idx

Topological sweep line demo

Example 1 Set of lines L in the plane

 ordered in increasing slope $(\angle$ -90 $^{\circ}$ to 90 $^{\circ}$), simple, not vertical

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- line parameters in array E

1) Initial leftmost cut - C

1) Initial leftmost cut - N

1) Initial leftmost cut - N

2a) Compute Upper Horizon Tree - UHT

2b) Compute Lower Horizon Tree - LHT

3a) Determine right delimiters of edges - N

4b) Swap lines c4 and c5 – swap 4 and 5

4c) Update the horizon trees – UHT and LHT

4d) Determine new cut edges endpoints – N

4b) Swap lines c4 and c5 – swap 4 and 5

4c) Update the horizon trees – UHT and LHT

4d) Determine new cut edges endpoints

Topological sweep algorithm

TopoSweep(*L***)**

Input: Output: All parts of an **Arrangement** *A***(***L***)** detected and then destroyed Set of **lines** *L* **sorted by slope (-90° to 90°**), simple, not vertical

- 1.Let *C* be the initial (leftmost) cut – lines in increasing order of slope
- 2. Create the initial UHT and LHT incrementally:
	- a) UHT by inserting lines in decreasing order of slope
	- b) LHT by inserting lines in increasing order of slope
- 3. By consulting UHT and LHT
	- a) Determine the right endpoints N of all edges of the initial cut C

Slope

- b) Store neighboring lines with common endpoint into stack *S* (initial set of *ready vertices*)
- 4. Repeat until stack not empty
	- a) Pop next ready vertex from stack *S* (its upper edge *ci*)
	- b) Swap these lines within the cut *C* (*ci <-> ci+1*)
	- Update the horizon trees UHT and LHT (reenter edge parts)
	- Consulting UHT and LHT determine new cut edges endpoints N
	- If new neighboring edges share an endpoint -> push them on Sg + + + + + + + + + + + + + +

+ + + + + + + + + + + + + +

4d) Determining cut edges from UHT and LHT

- F for lines $i = 1$ to n
	- Compare UHT and LHT edges on line *i*
	- Set the cut lying on edge *i* to the shorter edge of these
- **Order of the cuts along the sweep line**
	- Order changes only at the intersection *v* (neighbors)
	- Order of remaining cuts not incident with intersection *^v* does not change
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ After changes of the order, test the new neighbors for intersections
	- Store intersections right from sweep line into the stack

Complexity

- F O(n2) intersections \Rightarrow O(n²) events (elementary steps)
- \bullet O(1) amortized time for one step $-4c$) \Rightarrow O(n²) time for the algorithm

Amortized time

= even though a single elementary step can take more than $O(1)$ time, the total time needed to perform $O(n^2)$ elementary steps is $O(n^2)$, hence the average time for each step is O(1).

(55 / 55)

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DUALITY AND APPLICATIONS OF ARRANGEMENTS

PETR FELKEL

FEL CTU PRAGUE

Version from 5.2.2017

Talk overview

F **Duality**

- 1. Points and lines
- 2. Line segments
- 3. Polar duality (different points and lines)
- 4. Convex hull using duality
- \blacksquare Applications of duality and arrangements

1. Duality of lines and points in the plane

- F Points and lines - both have 2 parameters:
	- –Points – coords *^x* and *y*
	- – Lines – slope *k* and y-intercept *q* $y = kx + q$

- \Box We can simply map points and lines 1:1
- \Box Many mappings exist – it depends on the context

Why to use duality?

Some reasons why to use duality:

- F Transforming a problem to dual plane may give a new view on the problem
- П Looking from a different angle may give the insight needed to solve it
- \Box Solution in dual space may be even simpler

Definition of duality transformation *D*

Example and more about duality *D*

F Example: line $y = 5x - 3$ can be represented as point *y**=[5, 3]

See the [applet]

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Duality *D*

is its own inverse *DDp = p, DDl = l*

 cannot represent vertical lines =>Take vertical lines as special cases, use lexicographic order, or rotate the problem space slightly.

Felkel: Computational geometry

(6)

- Primal plane plane with coordinates *x, y*
- Dual plane* plane with coordinates *a, b*

Duality of lines and points in the plane

Duality of lines and points in the plane

Duality of lines and points in the plane

Why is *b* **negated in the line equation?**

- F In primal plane, consider
	- –*–* point *p* = [$\rho_{_{\chi}},$ $\rho_{_{\textit{y}}}$] and
	- set of non-vertical lines *li* :*y = aix – bi* passing through p satisfy the equation $p_v = a_i p_x - b_i$ (each line with different constants *ai,bi*)
- П In dual plane, these lines transform to collinear points $\{ \vert i \rangle^* = [a_i, b_i] : b_i = p_x a_i - p_y \}$

If *b not* **negated in the line equation…**

Lines l_i have equartion l_i : $y = a_i x - b_i$ \quad OR $y = a_i x + b_i$ Passing through point $p = [p_x, p_y]$:

F With minus

Properties of points and lines duality

Incidence is preserved

F Point *p* is incident to the line *l* in primal plane **iff**point *l** is incident to the line *p** in the dual plane.

Properties of points and lines duality

But order is reversed

- \Box Point *p* lies above (below) line *l* in the primal plane **iff**
	- line *p** passes below (above) point *l** in the dual

plane Or said order is preserved: … **iff** Point *l** lies above (below) line *p**

Properties of points and lines duality

Collinearity

F Points are collinear in the primal plane **iff** their dual lines intersect in a common point

Handling of vertical lines

- F Dual transform is undefined for vertical lines
	- – Points with the same *x* coordinate dualize to lines with the same slope (parallel lines) and therefore
	- These dual lines do not intersect (as should for collinear points)
	- Vertical line through these points does not dualize to an intersection point
	- For detection of vertically collinear points use other method - $O(n)$ vertical lines \Rightarrow $O(n^2)$ brute force $\frac{1}{3}$ || lines s.

2. Duality of line segments

- F Line segment *^s*
	- =set of collinear points \Longrightarrow set of lines passing one point dual
	- – union of these lines is a (left-right) double wedge *^s** Dvojitý klín

Intersection of line and line segment

- F Line *b* intersects line segment *^s*
	- – if point *b** lays in the double wedge *s*,* i.e., between the duals *p*,q** of segment endpoints *p,q*
	- point *p* lies above line *b* and *q* lies below line *b*
	- point b* lies above line *p** and *b** lies below line *q**

3. Polar duality (Polarity)

- F Another example of point-line duality
- F In 2D: Point $p = (p_x, p_y)$ in the primal plane corresponds to a line T_p with equation $ax + by = 1$ in the dual plane and vice versa $p_x x + p_y y = 1$
- \Box In dD: Point *p* is taken as a radius-vector (starts in origin O). The dot product $(p \cdot x) = 1$ defines a polar hyperplane $p^* = T_p = \{ \mathbf{x} \in R^d : (p \cdot \mathbf{x}) = 1 \}$

Polar duality (Polarity)

- F *Geometrically in 2D, this means that*
	- – *if d is the distance from the origin(O) to the point p, the dual* T_p *of p is the line perpendicular to Op at distance 1/d from O and placed on the other side of O.*

4. Convex hull using duality – definitions

- F An optimal algorithm
- F Let *P* be the given set of *ⁿ* points in the plane.
- F **Let** $p_a \in P$ **be the point with smallest x-coordinate**
- Felkel: Computational geometr (18) \Box **Let** $p_d \in P$ **be the point with largest x-coordinate** Both $\bm{{\mathsf{p}}}_\text{a}$ and $\bm{{\mathsf{p}}}_\text{d} \in \textsf{CH}(P)$ Upper hull = CW polygonal chain p_a,…, p_d along the hull Lower hull = CCW polygonal chain p_a,…, p_d along the hull $p_{\rm a}$ p_{d} lower hullupper hull

Definitions

- F Let *L* be a set of lines in the plane
- П The upper envelope is a polygonal chain E_u such that no line *l L* is above Eu.
- П The lower envelope is a polygonal chain E_L such that no line $\textit{\textbf{l}} \in \textit{\textbf{L}}$ is below $\textsf{E}_\textsf{L}.$

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[Goswami]

lower envelope

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Convex hull via upper and lower envelope

F Upper envelope complexity

- – After sorting *ⁿ* lines by their slopes in O(*ⁿ* log*n*) time, the upper envelope can be obtained in O(*n*) time
- Proof: It may check more than one line segment when inserting a new line, but those ones checked are all removed except the last one. (O(*n*) insertions, max O(*n*) removals $=$ \circ $O(n)$ all steps. Average step $O(1)$ amortized time
- \Box Convex hull complexity
	- Given a set *P* of n points in the plane, CH(*P*) can be computed in O(*ⁿ* log *n*) time using O(*n*) space.

Applications of line arrangement

Examples of applications – solved in $O(n^2)$ and ζ O(n²) space by constructing a line arrangement or O(*n*) space through topological plain sweep.

b) Minimum k-corridor

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Given a set of *n* points, and an integer $k \in [1:n]$, determine the narrowest pair of parallel lines that enclose at least *k* points of the set.
- \Box The distance between the lines can be defined
	- either as the vertical distance between the lines
	- $-$ or as the perpendicular distance between the lines
- \Box **Simplifications**
	- Assume *k* = 3 and no 3 points are collinear => narrowest corridor - contains exactly 3 points - has width > 0 No 2 points have the same *x* coordinate (avoid I duals vertica

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b) Minimum k-corridor

- \Box **Number 1** Vertical distance of $I_a, I_b = (-)$ distance of I_a^*, I_b^*
- \Box Nearest lines – one passes 2 vertices, e.g., *p* & *^r*
- \Box In dual plane are represented as intersection $p^* \times r^*$
- \Box Find nearest 3-stabber similarly as trapezoidal map

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c) Minimum area triangle [Goswami]

- \Box Given a set of *ⁿ* points in the plane, determine the minimum area triangle whose vertices are selected from these points
- \Box Construct "trapezoids" as in the nearest corridor
- \Box Minimize perpendicular distances (converted from vertical) multiplied by the distance from *pi* to *pj*

d) Sorting all angular sequences – naïve

- F Natural application of duality and arrangements
- F Important for visibility graph computation
- F Set of *ⁿ* points in the plane
- \Box For each point perform an CCW angular sweep
- П Naïve: for each point compute angles to remaining $n-1$ points and sort them
- \Box => *O(n* log *n*) time per point
- \Box *O(n2* log *n*) time overall
- \Box Arrangements can get rid of O(log *n*) facto

d) Sorting all angular sequences – optimal

- F For point *pi*
	- – $-$ Dual of point $\rho_{_i}$ is line $\rho_{_i}{}^*$
	- –Line p_i^* intersects other dual lines in order of slope (angles from -90 $^{\circ}$ to 90 $^{\circ}$) (180 $^{\circ}$)
	- We need order of angles around *pi*(angles from -90 $^{\circ}$ to 270 $^{\circ}$) (360 $^{\circ}$)
	- Split points in primal plane by vertical line through *pi*
	- First, report intersections of points right of *pi*
	- Second, report the intersections of points left of *pi*
	- Once the arrangement is constructed:
		- *O*(*n*) time for point, *O*(*n2*) time for all *ⁿ* points

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d) Angular sequence around p_9

d) Angular sequence around p_9

d) Angular sequence around p_9

d) Angular sequence around p_9

d) Angular sequences around p_3

d) Angular sequences around p_3

d) Angular sequences around p_3

d) Angular sequences around p4

d) Angular sequences around p_4

e) More applications of line arrangement

Visibility graph

Given a set of *n* non-intersecting line segments, compute the *visibility graph*, whose vertices are the endpoints of the segments, and whose edges are pairs of visible endpoints (use angular sequences).

Maximum stabbing line Given a set of *n* line segments in the plane, compute the line that stabs (intersects) the maximum number of these line segments.

More applications of line arrangement

Ham-Sandwich cut

Given two sets of points, *ⁿ* red and *^m* blue points compute a single line that simultaneously bisects both sets

Principle – intersect middle levels of arrangements

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MODERN ALGORITHMS (not only in computational geometry)

FEL CTU PRAGUE

Version from 2.1.2019

Modern algorithms

- 1. Computational geometry today
- 2. Space efficient algorithms (In-place / in situ algorithms)
- 3. Data stream algorithms
- 4. Randomized algorithms

Computational geometry today

- F Popular: beauty as discipline, wide applicability
- F Started in 2D with linear objects (points, lines,…), now 3D and nD, hyperplanes, curved objects,…
- П Shift from purely mathematical approach and asymptotical optimality ignoring singular cases
- \Box to practical algorithms, simpler data structures and robustness => algorithms and data structures provable efficient in realistic situations (application dependent)

Space efficient algorithms

Space efficient algorithms

- F output is in the same location as the input and
- F need only a small amount of additionally memory
	- *in-place* O(1) extra storage sometimes including O(*log n)* bits for indice
	- *in situ* O(*log n*) extra storage

Space efficient algorithms - practical advantages

- F Allow for processing larger data sets
	- Algorithms with separate input and output need space for 2n points to store – O(*n*) extra space
	- Space efficient algs. n points + O(1) or O(log *n*) space
- \Box Greater locality of reference
	- –- Practical for modern HW with memory hierarchies (e.g., main RAM – ram on chip – registers, caches, disk latency, network latency)
- П Less prone to failure
	- no allocation of large amounts of memory, which can fail at run time

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- good for mission critical applications
- × ess memory => faster program

Ex: String reverse

```
function reverse(a[0..n])
    allocate b[0..n]
    for i from 0 to n
       b[n-i] = a[i]return b×
```

```
function reverseInPlace(a[0..n])
     for i from 0 to floor(n/2)
        swap (a[n-i], a[i])
                                 Felkel: Computational geometry
                                         (7)
```
- F In array – continuous block in memory
	- – $-$ nth element in $O(1)$ time
	- –- Select sort, insert sort ... in-place,

 $O(1)$ additional memory, $O(n^2)$ time

- Heapsort in-place, $O(1)$ add. memory, $O(n \log n)$ time
- $-$ Quicksort in-situ, $O(\log n)$ add. memory for recursion
- $-$ Mergesort not in-place, not in-situ, $\mathit{O}(n)$ add. memory
- \Box In list – linked lists in dynamical memory
	- $-$ nth element in $O(n)$ time
	- $-$ Mergesort –in-situ, $O(\log n)$ add. memory, $O(n\log n)$ time

Graham in-place algorithm

```
Input:
ܵ – index to array of length ݊ with points in plane, ݀ = ±1 direction
Output:
Convex Hull in clockwise order
                                   Felkel: Computational geometry
Graham-InPlaceScan(S, n, d)
                                    // d controls the sort direction:
1.InPlace-Sort(S, n, d) \vert d \vert = 1 sort ascending for upper hull
2.h \leftarrow 1 // empty stack // d = -1 sort descending for lower hull
3.for i \leftarrow 1...n - 1 do
4.while h \geq 2 and not right turn( S[h - 2], S[h - 1], S[i] ) do
5.h \leftarrow h - 1 // pop top element from the stack
6.swap S[i] \leftrightarrow S[h] // push the new point to the stack
7.h \leftarrow h + 1 // increment stack length
8.return h // end of convex hull (the first point above the stack)
The array: S = offset of the sub-array (index of its first point)
              h = index of the first point above the stack (offset to S)
              i = index of the current point
                                           TOS-1 TOS NEW
                                                        TOS
                                          (9 / 38)
```
Graham in-place algorithm

Graham in-place algorithm

Graham in-place algorithm

Optimized Graham in-place algorithm

Data stream algorithms

F Data stream = a massive sequence of data

–Too large to store (on disk, memory, cache,…)

\Box **Examples**

- Network traffic
- –Database transactions
- Sensor networks
- –Satellite data feeds

× Approaches

…

–

- –Ignore it (CERN ignores 9/10 of the data)
- –Develop algorithms for dealing with such data

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Motivation example *[Muthukrishnan]*

- F Paul presents numbers $x = \{1...n\}$ in random order, one number missing
- **EXTE: Carole must determine the missing number** but has only $O(\log n)$ bits of memory

Any idea?

 Compute the sum of the numbers and subtracts П the incoming numbers one by one.
 $n(n+1)$ $missing$ number $=$ $i{<}n$ The missing number "remains" П Felkel: Computational geometry (16)

Motivation example *[Muthukrishnan]*

And two missing numbers i, j?

\Box Store sum of numbers s and sum of squares s'

- F **Single pass over the data:** $a_1, a_2, ...$, a_n
	- – $-$ Typically n is known
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ **Bounded storage (typically** n^{α} **or log^cn or only c)**
	- – Units of storage: bits, words, or elements (such as points, nodes/edges, …)
	- Impossible to store the complete data
- \Box Fast processing time per element
	- Randomness is OK (in fact, almost necessary)

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- Often sub-linear time for the whole data
- Often approximation of the result

Data stream models classification

- F **IDED** Input stream $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$
	- – $-$ arrives sequentially, item by item
	- – $-$ describes an underlying signal A , a 1D function $A: [1.. N] \rightarrow R$
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Models differ on how the input a_i 's describe the signal A for increasing i (in increasing order of generality):
	- a) Time series model $\,$ a_i equals to signal $A[i]$
	- b) Cash register model- $a^{\vphantom{\dagger}}_i$ are increments to $A[j]$, $\,I^{\vphantom{\dagger}}_i\,>\,0$
	- c) Turnstile model $-a_i$ are updates to $A[j], U_i \in R$

 $F = + + + + + + + +$
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a) Time series model (*časová řada* **)**

- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ **Stream elements** a_i **are equal to** (a_i) 's are samples of the signal)
- П **a** a_i 's appear in increasing order of i (*i*~time)

\Box **Applications**

П Observation of the traffic on IP address each 5 minutes

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ NASDAQ volume of trades per minute

b) Cash register model (*pokladna* **)**

- F \blacksquare a_i are increments to signal $A[j]'$
- F Stream elements $a_i = (j, I_i)$, $I_i \geq 0$ to mean

 I_i = Increment

(*i*~time, j~bucket)

$$
A_i[j] = A_{i-1}[j] + I_i
$$

where

- $A_i[j]$ is the state of the signal after seeing *i*-th item
- multiple a_i can increment given $A[j]$ over time
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{max}}$ A most popular data stream model
	- IP addresses accessing web server (histogram)
	- Source IP addresses sending packets over a link

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access many times, send many packets,…

+ only

c) Turnstile model (*turniket***)**

- p. $a^{\vphantom{\dagger}}_i$ are updates to signal $A[j]'s$
- p. ■ Stream elements $a_i = (j, U_i)$, $U_i \in R$ to mean
	- $A_i[j] = A_{i-1}[j] + U_i$

where

- ($i{\sim}$ time, j ${\sim}$ bucket, turnstile)
- A_i is the state of the signal after seeing *i*-th item
- $\;{U}_i$ may be positive or negative
- multiple a_i can update given $A[j]$ over time
- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ A most general data stream model
	- Passengers in NY subway arriving and departing

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- Useful for completely dynamic tasks
- Hard to get reasonable solution in this model

 U_i = Update

c) Turnstile model variants (for completeness)

- F strict turnstile model $-A_i[j] \geq 0$ for all i
	- – $-$ People can only exit via the turnstile they entered in
	- –Databases – delete only a record you inserted
	- –Storage – you can take items only if they are there
- \Box non-strict turnstile model $-A_i[i] < 0$ for some i
	- –Difference between two cash register streams
	- $(A_i[j] < 0 \dots$ negative amount of items for some $i)$

Examples: Iceberg queries *Examples: Iceberg queries*

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Identify all elements whose current frequency f exceeds support threshold $s = 0.1\%$

Ex: Iceberg queries – a) ordinary solution

The ordinary solution in two passes (not data stream)

- 1. Pass identify frequencies (count the hashes)
	- a set of counters is maintained. Each incoming item is hashed onto a counter, which is incremented.
	- These counters are then compressed into a bitmap, with a 1 denoting a large counter value.
- 2. Pass count exact values for large counters only
	- exact frequencies counters for only those elements which hash to a value whose corresponding bitmap value is 1

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 \Box Hard to modify for data stream $-$ unknown when $-$ ≠ frequencies after only 1st pass

Ex: Iceberg queries – data stream definition

- F Input: threshold $s \in (0,1)$, error $\varepsilon \in (0,1)$, length N
- Output: list of items and frequencies $\epsilon \ll s$ F
- F Guarantees:
	- $-$ No item omitted (reported all items with frequency > $sN)$
	- $-$ No item added (no item with frequency < $(s-\epsilon)N)$
	- – $-$ Estimated frequencies are not less than ϵN of the true frequencies
- П **Ex:** $s = 0.1\%$, $\epsilon = 0.01\% \rightarrow \epsilon$ about $\frac{1}{s}$ 10 $\mathbf 1$ 20
	- $-$ All elements with freq. $>0.1\%$ will output
	- $-$ None of element with freq. $< 0.09\%$ will output
- \neq -Some elements between 0.09% and 0.1% will output Felkel: Computational geometry

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- $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ Probabilistic algorithm, given threshold s , error ϵ and probability of failure δ
	- Data structure S of entries (e, f) , \qquad // S = subset of counters e element, f estimated frequency, r sampling rate, sampling probability $\frac{1}{x}$

$$
\blacksquare \quad S \leftarrow \emptyset, r \leftarrow 1
$$

- If $e \in S$ then $(e, f++)$ //count, if the counter exists else insert (e, f) into S with probability $\frac{1}{e}$
- \Box S sweeps along the stream as a magnet, attracting all elements which already have an entry in S

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 \Box **r** changes over the stream, $t = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \log \left(\frac{1}{s \delta} \right)$

- 2 t elements $r=1$
- $-$ next 2 t elements $r=2$
- $-$ next 4t elements $r = 4$...
- П whenever r changes, we update S
	- $-$ For each entry (e,f) in S $\;\;$ // random decrement of counters
		- toss a coin until successful (head) // with probability 1/2
		- if not successful (tail), decrement f
		- if f becomes 0, remove entry (e, f) from S
- \Box Output: list of items with threshold s i.e. all entries in S where $f \geq (s - \epsilon)N$ Felkel: Computational geometry (28)

F Space complexity is independent on N

F For

- support threshold $s = 0.1\%$,
- – $-$ error $\epsilon = 0.01\%$,
- – $-$ and probability of failure $\delta = 1\%$

Ex: Iceberg queries – c) lossy counting

- F Deterministic algorithm (user specifies error ε and threshold s)
- F Stream conceptually divided into buckets
	- With bucket size $w = \lceil 1/\varepsilon \rceil$ items each
	- – $-$ Numbered from 1, current bucket id is b_{current}
- \Box Data structure D of entries (e, f, Δ) ,

П

 e element, –- f estimated frequency, – Δ maximum possible error of f, $\Delta = b_{current} - 1$ (max number of occurrences in the previous buckets) \blacksquare At most $\smash{\frac{1}{\blacksquare}}$ ϵ entries $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$ $+$
Felkel: Computational geometry (32)

Ex: Iceberg queries – c) lossy counting

Ex: Iceberg queries – c) lossy counting alg.

- $D \leftarrow \emptyset$ F
- F New element e
	- $−\,$ If $e\in D$ then increment its f
	- $-$ If $e \notin D$ then
		- Create a new entry $(e, 1, b_{current} 1)$
		- If on the bucket border, i.e., N $mod w = 0$ then delete entries with $f + \Delta \leq b_{current}$
		- i.e., with zero or one occurrence in each of the previous buckets
	- $−\,$ New $\Delta =$ $b_{\mathit{current}} 1$ is maximum number of times e could have occurred in the first $b_{current}-1$ buckets

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П Output: list of items with threshold s i.e. all entries in S where $f \geq (s - \epsilon)N$

Comparison of sticky and lossy sampling

- F Sticky sampling performs worse
	- – $-$ Tendency to remember every unique element
	- –The worst case is for sequence without duplicates
- \mathcal{L}_{max} Lossy counting
	- – $-$ Is good in pruning low frequency elements quickly
	- – Worst case for pathological sequence which never occurs in reality

Number of mutually different entries 1/2

- F **If** Input: stream $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$, with repeated entries
- F Output: Estimate of number c of different entries
- F Appl: # of different transactions in one day
- a) Precise deterministic algorithm:
	- $-$ Array $\mathit{b}[1\mathinner{.\,.} U]$, $U = \mathsf{max}$ number of different entries

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- $-$ Init by $b[i] \ = \ 0$ for all i , counter $c=0$
- $-$ for each $a^{\vphantom{\dagger}}_i$

if $b[a_i] = 0$ then $inc(c)$, $b[i] = 1$

- – $-$ Return c as number of different entries in $b[\,]$
- – $O(1)$ update and query times, $O(U)$ memory

b) Approximate algorithm

- – $-$ Array $\mathit{b}[1\mathinner{\ldotp\ldotp} \log U],\, U = \mathsf{max}\; \mathsf{number}\; \mathsf{of}\; \mathsf{different}\; \mathsf{entries}$
- – $\hskip1cm{-}$ Init by $\mathit{b}[i] \ = \ 0$ for all i
- – $-$ Hash function $h\colon \{1.. U\} \to \{0.. \log U\}$
- – $-$ For each $a^{\vphantom{\dagger}}_i$

Set $b[h(a_i)] = 1$

– $-$ Extract probable number of different entries from $b[]$

Sublinear time example $O(\text{alg}) < O(n)$

- F Given mutually different numbers $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$
- F Determine any number from upper half of values
- F Alg: select k numbers equally randomly
	- Compute their maximum
	- Return this estimation as solution
- \mathbf{r} Probability of wrong answer = probability of all selected numbers are from the lower half = $\binom{1}{n}$ $\overline{2}$ \boldsymbol{k} \Box For error ϵ take $\log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ $\frac{1}{\epsilon}$ samples \Box Not useful for MIN, MAX selection Felkel: Computational geometry (38)

Motivation

- F Array of elements, half of char "a", half of char "b"
- F Find "a"
- \Box Deterministic alg: $n/2$ steps of sequential search (when all "b" are first)
- \Box Randomized:
	- Try random indices
	- Probability of finding "a" soon is high regardless of the order of characters in the array (Las Vegas algorithm – keep trying up to $n/2$ steps)

- F May be simpler even if the same worst time
- F Deterministic algorithm
	- $-$ is not known (prime numbers)
	- does not exist
- \Box Randomization
	- –- can improve the average running time (with the same worst case time), while
	- –- the worst time depends on our luck – not on the data distribution

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(It is "hard" to prepare killing datasets)

- a) Incremental algorithms (insert something in random order)
	- Linear programming (random plane insertion)
	- Convex hulls
	- –Intersections, space subdivisions

Another classification

F Monte Carlo

- –– We always get an answer, often not correct
- –Fast solution with risk of an error
- –- It is not possible to determine, if the answer is correct
	- \rightarrow run multiple times and compare the results
- Output can be understand as a random variable
- Example: prime number test
	- Task: Find a $\in \langle 2, \frac{\pi}{2} \rangle$ $\binom{n}{2}$ such as *n* is divisible by a

• Algorithm: Sample 10 numbers from the given interval, answer

 \Box Las Vegas

Las Vegas algorithms

Las Vegas

- –We always get a correct answer
- $-$ The run time is random (typically \leq deterministic time)
- –- Sometimes fails -> perform restart
- –- Example: Randomized quicksort

Randomized quicksort (Las Vegas alg.)

Input: sequence of data elements $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \in S$ *Output:* sorted set S $RQS(S)$ = Randomized Quicksort

Step 1: choose $i \in \langle 1, n \rangle$ in random 1.2. Step 2: Let A is a multiset $\{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n\}$ if $n = 1$ then output(S) \bullet else – create three subsets of S_{\leq} , S_{\leq} , S_{\geq} • $S_{\leq} = \{ b \in A : b < a_i \}$ $S_{=} = \{b \in A : b = a_i\}$ $S_{\ge} = \{ b \in A : b > a_i \}$ 3. Step 3: $RQS(S_<)$ and $RQS(S_>)$ 4. Return: $R \text{QS}(S_<)$, $S_=$, $R \text{QS}(S_>)$ + + + + + + + + + + + + + Felkel: Computational geometry (46 / 38)

Conclusion on randomized algs.

- F Randomized algorithms are often experimental
- F We would not get perfect results, but nicely good
- $\overline{}$ We use randomized algorithm if we do not know how to proceed

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