## Introduction to Algorithms 6.046J/18.401



## Lecture 19

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## Computational Geometry

- Algorithms for geometric problems
- Applications: CAD, GIS, computer vision,.......
- E.g., the closest pair problem:
- Given: a set of points $\mathrm{P}=\left\{\mathrm{p}_{1} \ldots \mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{n}}\right\}$ in the plane, such that $\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{i}}=\left(\mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{i}}, \mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{i}}\right)$
- Goal: find a pair $\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{i}} \neq \mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{j}}$ that minimizes $\left\|\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{i}}-\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{j}}\right\|$
- We will see more examples in the next lecture


## Computational Model

- In the next two lectures, we will assume that
- The input (e.g., point coordinates) are real numbers
- We can perform (natural) operations on them in constant time, with perfect precision
- Advantage: simplicity
- Drawbacks: highly non-trivial issues:
- Theoretical: if we allow arbitrary operations on reals, we can compress $n$ numbers into a one number
- Practical: algorithm designed for infinite precision sometimes fail on real computers


## Closest Pair

- Find a closest pair among $p_{1} \ldots p_{n}$
- Easy to do in $\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{n}^{2}\right)$ time
- For all $p_{i} \neq p_{j}$, compute $\left\|p_{i}-p_{j}\right\|$ and choose the minimum
- We will aim for $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n} \log \mathrm{n})$ time


## Divide and conquer

- Divide:
- Compute the median of x-coordinates
- Split the points into $P_{L}$
and $P_{R}$, each of size $n / 2$
- Split the points into $\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{L}}$
- Conquer: compute the closest pairs for $\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{L}}$ and $\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{R}}$
Combine the results (the hard part)


## Combine

- Let $\mathrm{d}=\mathrm{min}\left(\mathrm{d}_{1}, \mathrm{~d}_{2}\right)$
- Observe:
- Need to check only pairs which cross the dividing line
- Only interested in pairs within distance < d
- Suffices to look at points in the 2d-width strip around the median line


## Scanning the strip

- Sort all points in the strip by their y -coordinates, forming $\mathrm{q}_{1} \ldots \mathrm{q}_{\mathrm{k}}, \mathrm{k} \leq \mathrm{n}$.
- Let $y_{i}$ be the $y$-coordinate of $\mathrm{q}_{\mathrm{i}}$
- For $\mathrm{i}=1$ to k
- j=i-1
- While $y_{i}-y_{j}<d$
- Check the pair $\mathrm{q}_{\mathrm{i}}, \mathrm{q}_{\mathrm{j}}$
- $\mathrm{j}:=\mathrm{j}-1$
- Correctness: easy
- Running time is more involved
- Can we have many $q_{j}$ 's that are within distance d from $\mathrm{q}_{\mathrm{i}}$ ?
- No
- Proof by packing argument


## Analysis, ctd.

Theorem: there are at most 7
$q_{j}$ 's such that $y_{i}-y_{j} \leq d$.
Proof:


- Each such $q_{j}$ must lie either in the left or in the right $\mathrm{d} \times \mathrm{d}$ square
- Within each square, all points have distance distance $\geq \mathrm{d}$ from others
- We can pack at most 4 such points into one square, so we have 8 points total (incl. $q_{i}$ )


## Packing bound

- Proving " 4 " is not trivial
- Will prove " 5 "
- Draw a disk of radius d/2 around each point
- Disks are disjoint
- The disk-square intersection has area $\geq \pi(\mathrm{d} / 2)^{2} / 4=\pi / 16$ $\mathrm{d}^{2}$

- The square has area $\mathrm{d}^{2}$
- Can pack at most $16 / \pi \approx 5.1$ points


## Running time

- Divide: O(n)
- Combine: O(n $\log \mathrm{n})$ because we sort by y
- However, we can:
- Sort all points by y at the beginning
- Divide preserves the y-order of points

Then combine takes only $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$

- We get $T(n)=2 T(n / 2)+O(n)$, so $\mathrm{T}(\mathrm{n})=\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n} \log \mathrm{n})$


## Close pair

- Given: $\mathrm{P}=\left\{\mathrm{p}_{1} \ldots \mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{n}}\right\}$
- Goal: check if there is any pair $\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{i}} \neq \mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{j}}$ within distance 1 from each other
- Will give an $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$ time randomized algorithm, using...
... hashing!


## Algorithm

1. Impose a square grid onto the plane, where each cell is a 1 $\times 1$ square
2. Put each point into a bucket corresponding to the cell it belongs to (see last slide)
3. If there is a bucket with > 4 points in it, answer YES (by

4. Otherwise, for each $\mathrm{p} \in \mathrm{P}$, check all points in the cell containing p , as well as the cells adjacent to it

- Running time:
- Putting points into the buckets: $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$ time using hashing
- Checking if there is a heavy bucket: $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$
- Checking the cells: $9 \times 4 \times \mathrm{n}=\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$
- Overall: linear time


## To hash or not to hash

- In step 2 of the algorithm, we need to partition the points into "buckets", i.e., sets $\mathrm{B}_{1} \ldots \mathrm{~B}_{\mathrm{k}}, \mathrm{k} \leq \mathrm{n}$. Each bucket contains all points that belong to some non-empty cell.
- This can be solved using any data structure for the "symbol table" problem, as in Lecture 7. The key of a point $\mathrm{p}=(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$ is the identifier of the cell that p belongs to. Note that now the keys are not unique, i.e., many points can have the same key.
- We could solve the symbol table problem using direct access table. However, the space used by the algorithm would be proportional to the total number of cells in the grid, which could be much larger than n. In particular, we would not be able to initialize that much space in $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$ time.
- Hashing allows us to reduce the space (and initialization time) to $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$, since the space depends only on the number of nonempty cells. Since hashing uses randomness, the resulting algorithm is randomized.

