

Geometric Objects

- **Scalars:** 1-d poin
- **Point:** location in d-dimensional space. d -tuple of scalars. $P=(x_1,x_2,x_3\dots,x_d)$
 - arrays: `double p[d];`
 - structures: `struct { double x, y, z; }`
 - good compromise:

```
struct Point {  
    const int DIM = 3;  
    double coord[DIM];  
};
```
- **Vectors:** direction and magnitude (length) in that direction.

Lines, Segments, Rays

- **Line:** infinite in both directions
 - $y = mx + b$ [slope m , intercept b]
 - $ax + by = c$
 - In higher dimensions, any two points define a line.
- **Ray:** infinite in one direction
- **Segment:** finite in both directions
- **Polygons:** cycle of joined line segments
 - simple if they don't cross
 - convex if any line segment connecting two points on its surface lies entirely within the shape.
 - convex hull of a set of points P : smallest convex set that contains P

What's a good representation for a polygon?

circularly linked list of points

Types of Queries

- Is the object in the set?
- What is the closest object to a given point?
- What objects does a query object intersect with?
- What is the first object hit by the given ray? [Ray shooting]
- What objects contain P?
- What objects are in a given range? [range queries]

Applications of Geometric / Spatial Data Structs.

- Computer graphics, games, movies
- computer vision, CAD, street maps (google maps / google Earth)
- Human-computer interface design (windowing systems)
- Virtual reality
- Visualization (graphing complex functions)

Why are geometric (spatial) data different?

No natural ordering...

- In 1-d:
 - we usually had a natural ordering on the keys (integers, alphabetical order, ...)
 - But how do you order a set of points?
- Take a step back:
 - In the 1-d case, how did we use this ordering?
 - Mostly, it gave us an implicit way to partition the data.
- So:
 - Instead of explicitly ordering and implicitly partitioning, we usually: explicitly partition.
 - Partitioning is very natural in geometric spaces.

Why are geometric (spatial) data different?

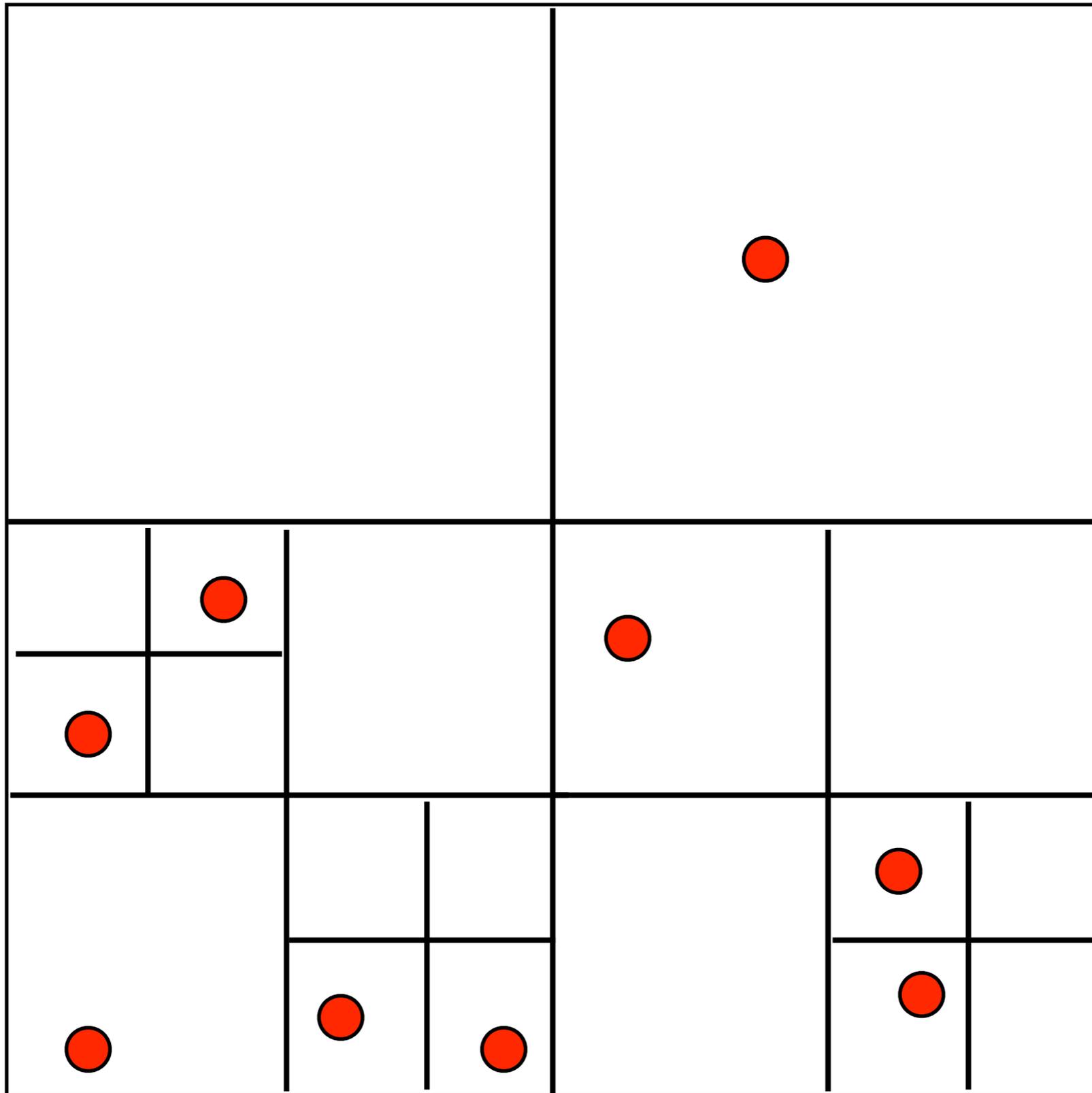
Static case also interesting...

- In 1-d:
 - usually the static case (all data known at start) is not very interesting
 - can be solved by sorting the data
(heaps => sorted lists, balanced trees => binary search)
- With geometric data,
 - it's sometimes hard to answer queries even if all data are known (what's the analog of binary search for a set of points?)
 - Therefore, emphasize updates less (though we'll still consider them)
 - Model: preprocess the data (may be "slow" like $O(n \log n)$) and then have efficient answers to queries.

Point Data Sets – Today

- Data we want to store is a collection of d -dimensional points.
 - We'll focus on 2-d for now (hard to draw anything else)
- Simplest query: “Is point P in the collection?”

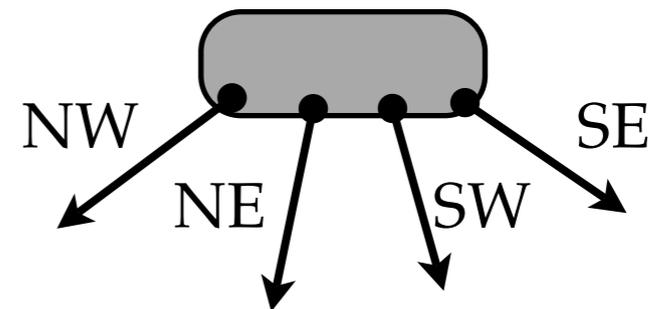
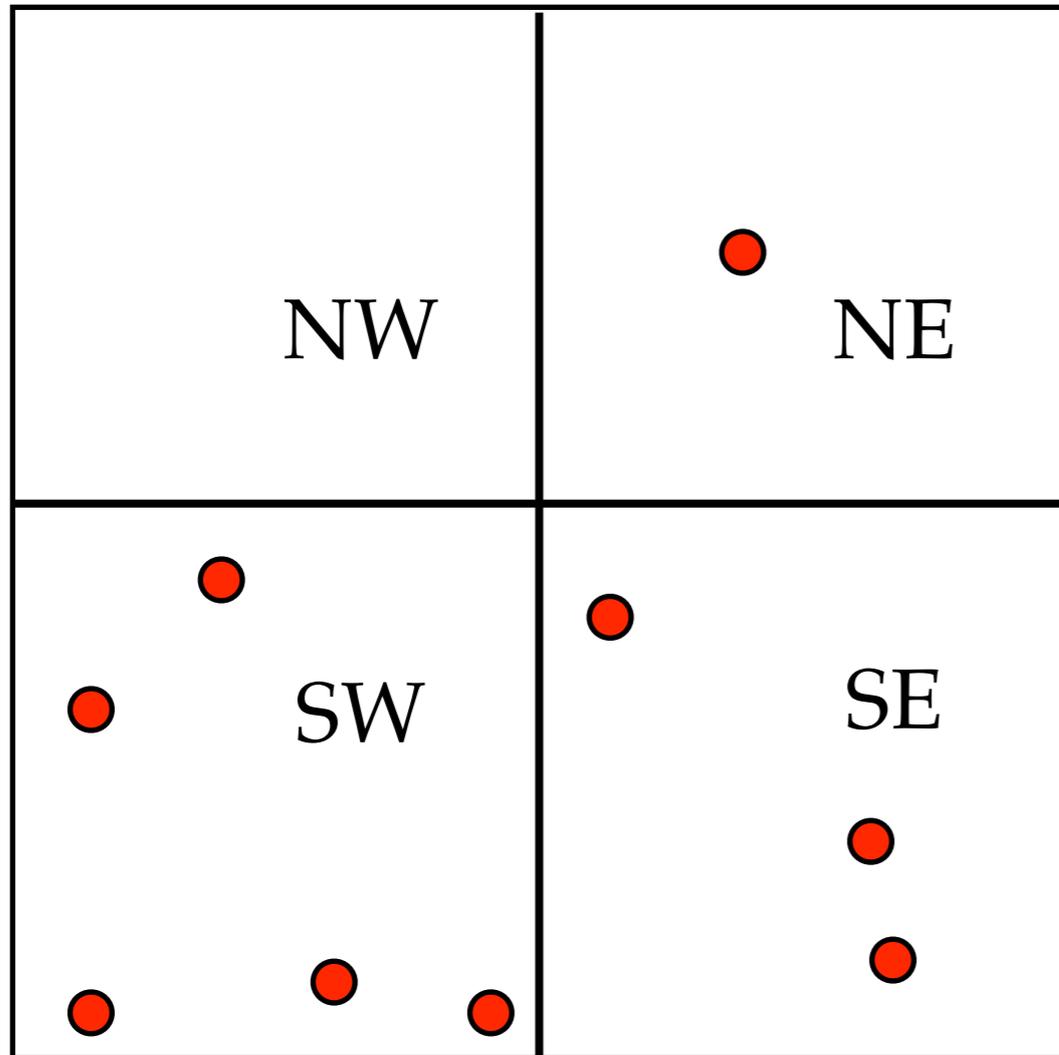
PR Quadtrees



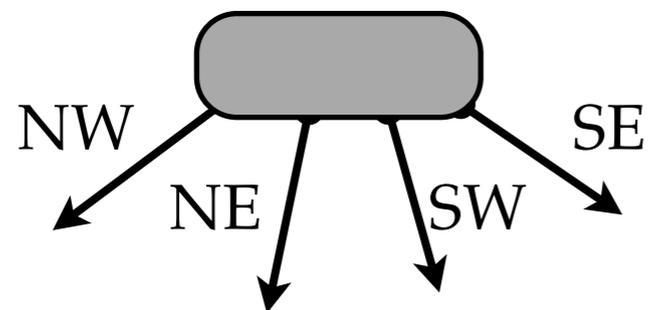
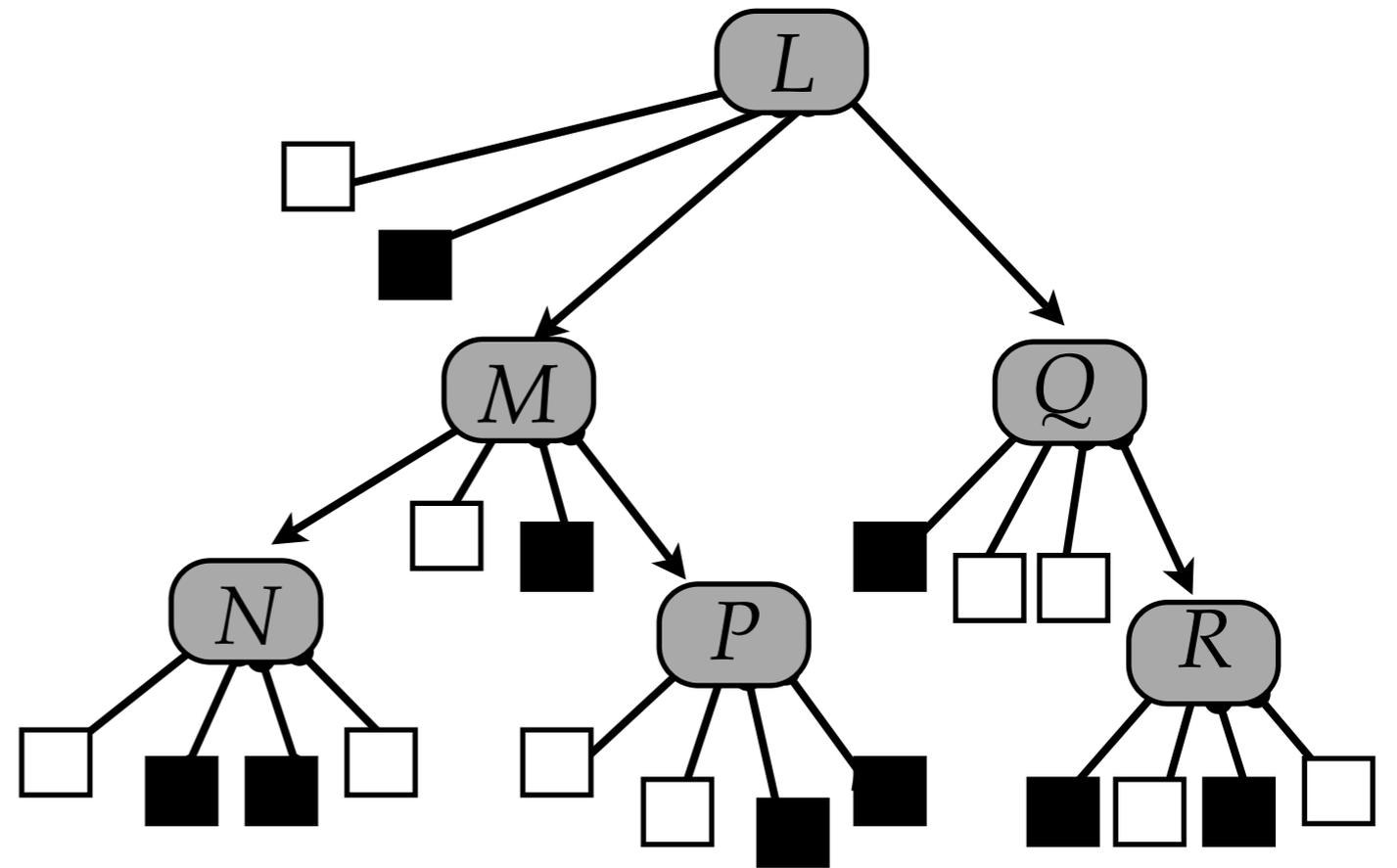
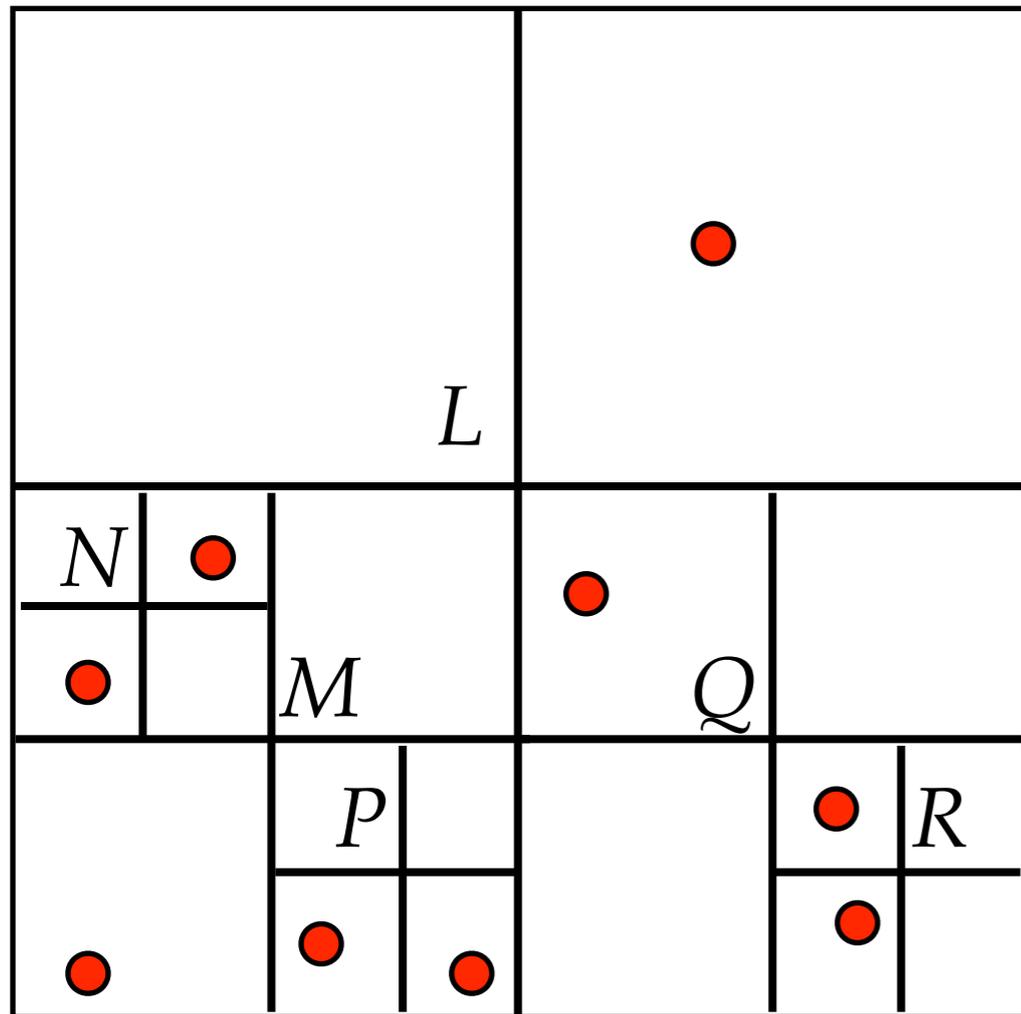
PR Quadtrees (Point-Region)

- Recursively subdivide cells into 4 equal-sized subcells until a cell has only one point in it.
- Each division results in a single node with 4 child pointers.
- When cell contains no points, add special “no-point” node.
- When cell contains 1 point, add node containing point + data associated with that point (perhaps a pointer out to a bigger data record).

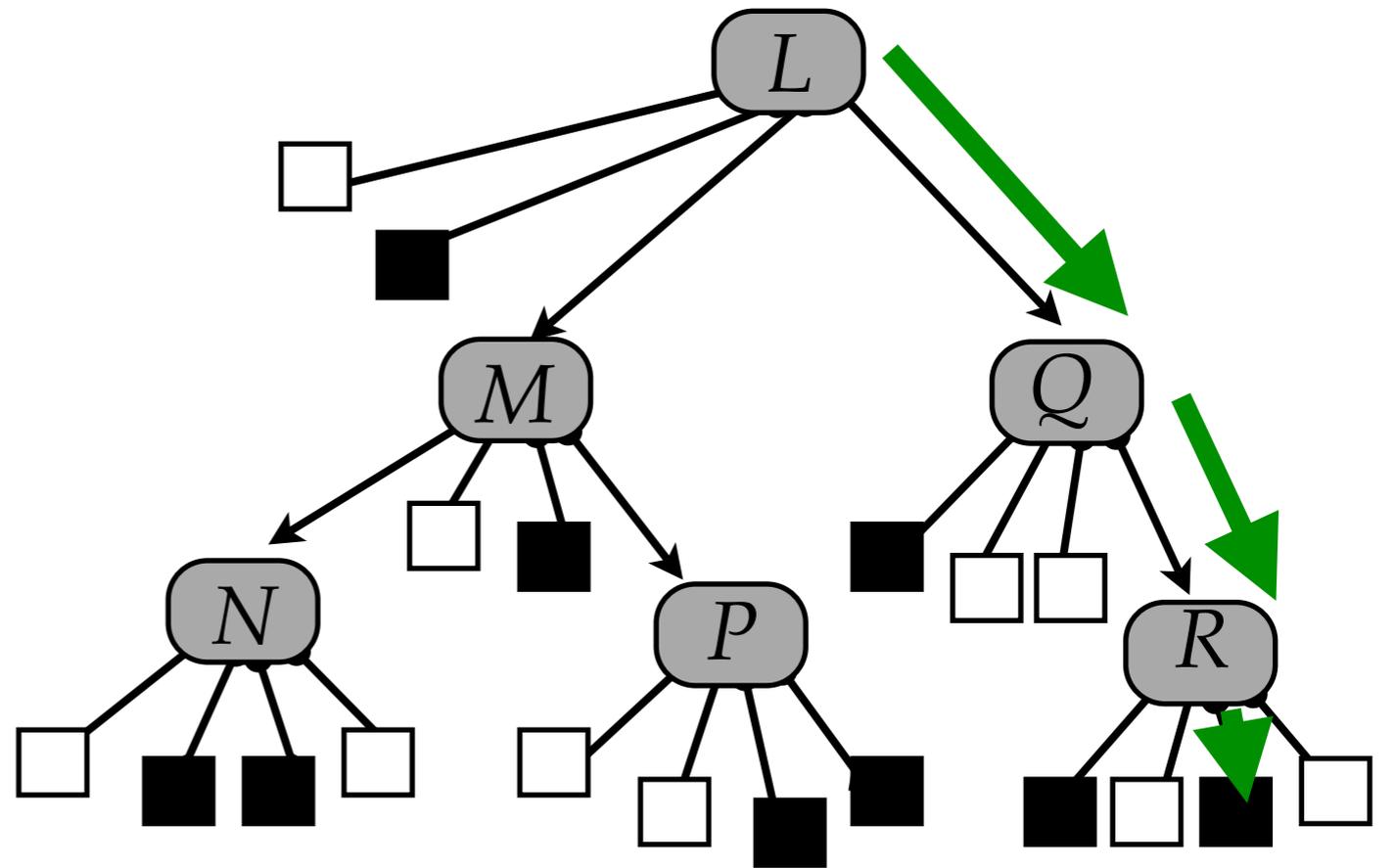
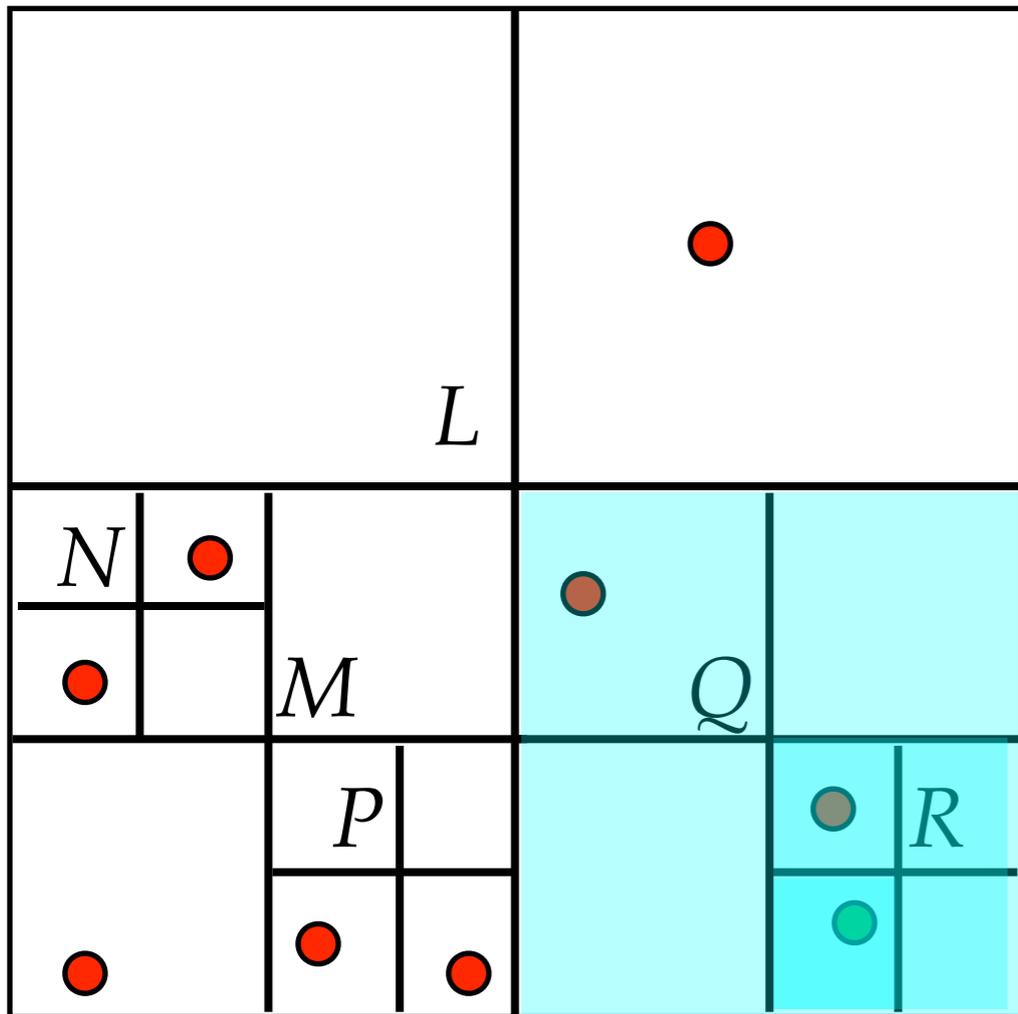
PR Quadtrees Internal Nodes



PR Quadrees



Find in PR Quadrees



Insert in PR Quadrees

- insert(P):
 - find(P)
 - if cell where P would go is empty, then add P to it (change from \square to \blacksquare)
 - If cell where P would go has a point Q in it, repeatedly split until P is separated from Q. Then add P to correct (empty) cell.
- How many times might you have to split?

unbounded in n

Delete in PR Quadrees

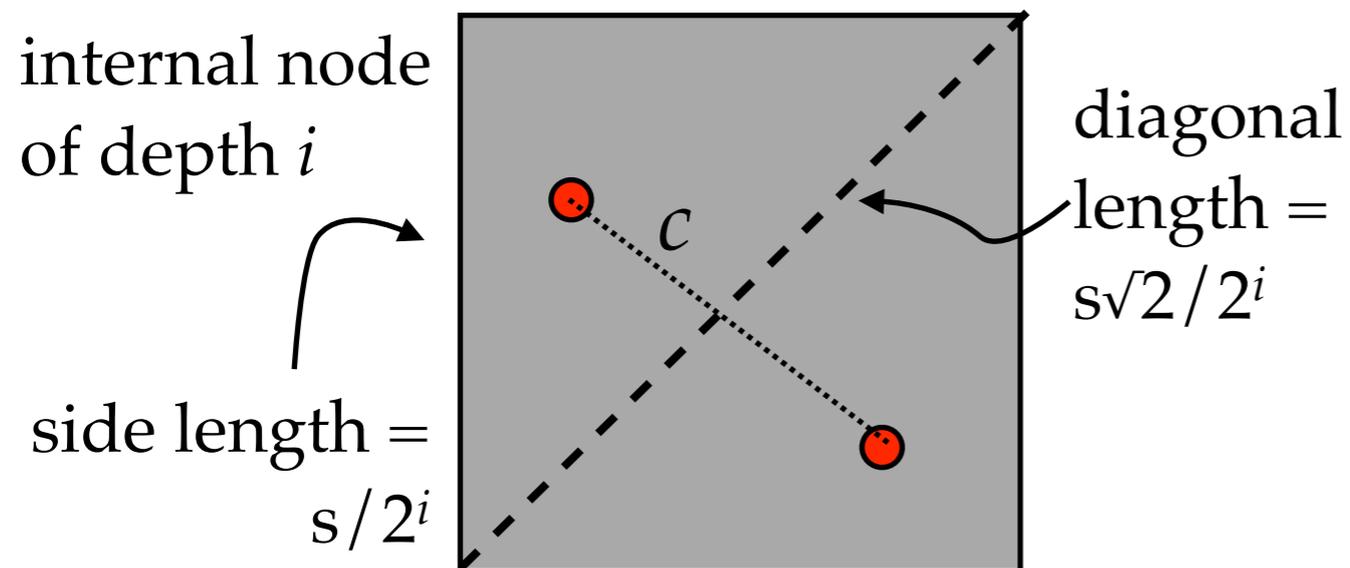
- delete(P):
 - find(P)
 - If cell that would contain P is empty, return **not found!**
 - Else, remove P (change  to ).
 - If at most 1 siblings of the cell has a point, merge siblings into a single cell. Repeat until at least two siblings contain a point.
- A cell “has a point” if it is  or  .

Features of PR Quadrees

- Locations of splits don't depend on exact point values (it is a partitioning of space, not of the set of keys)
- Leaves should be treated differently than internal nodes because:
 - Empty leaf nodes are common,
 - Only leaves contain data
- Bounding boxes constructed on the fly and passed into the recursive calls.
- Extension: allow a constant $b > 1$ points in a cell (*bucket quadtrees*)

Height Lemma

- if
 - c is the smallest distance between any two points
 - s is the side length of the initial square containing all the points
- Then
 - the depth of a quadtree is $\leq \log(s/c) + 3/2$



Therefore, $s\sqrt{2}/2^i \geq c$

Hence,

$$i \leq \log s\sqrt{2}/c = \log(s/c) + 1/2$$

Height of tree is max depth of internal node + 1, so height $\leq \log(s/c) + 3/2$

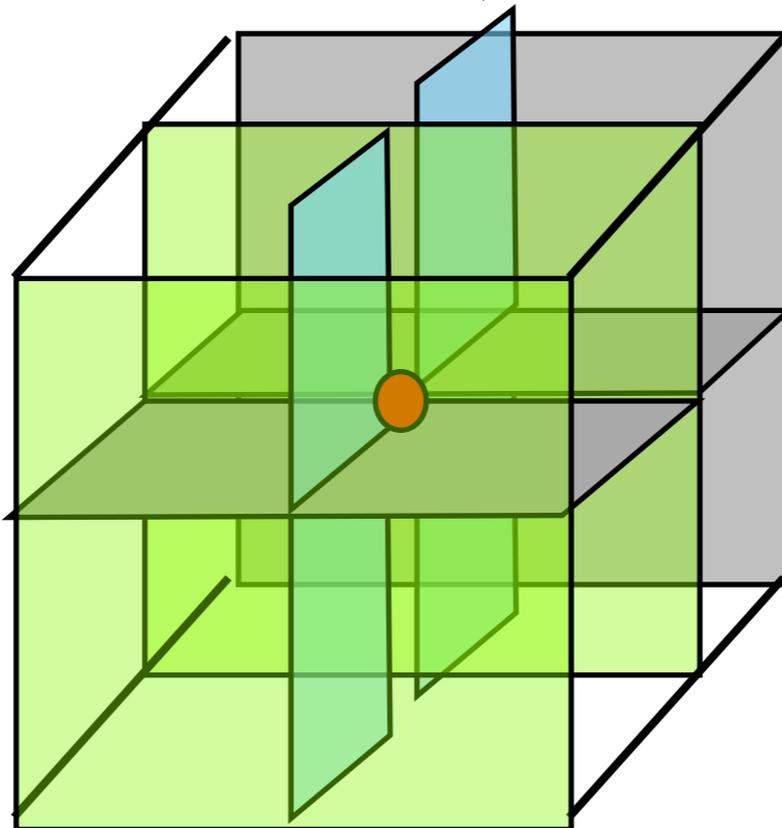
An Advantage of PR quadtrees

- Since partition locations don't depend on the data points, two *different* sets of data can be stored in two *separate* PR quadtrees
 - The partition locations will be “the same”
 - E.g. a quadrant Q_1 in T_1 is either the same as, a superset of, or a subset of any quadrant Q_2 in T_2
 - You cannot get partially overlapping quadrants
 - Recursive algorithms cleaner, e.g.

Issues with PR Quadtrees

- Can be inefficient:
 - two closely spaced points may require a lot of levels in the tree to split them
 - Have to divide up space finely enough so that they end up in different cells
- Generalizing to large dimensions uses a lot of space.
 - octtree = Quadtree in 3-D (each node has 8 pointers)

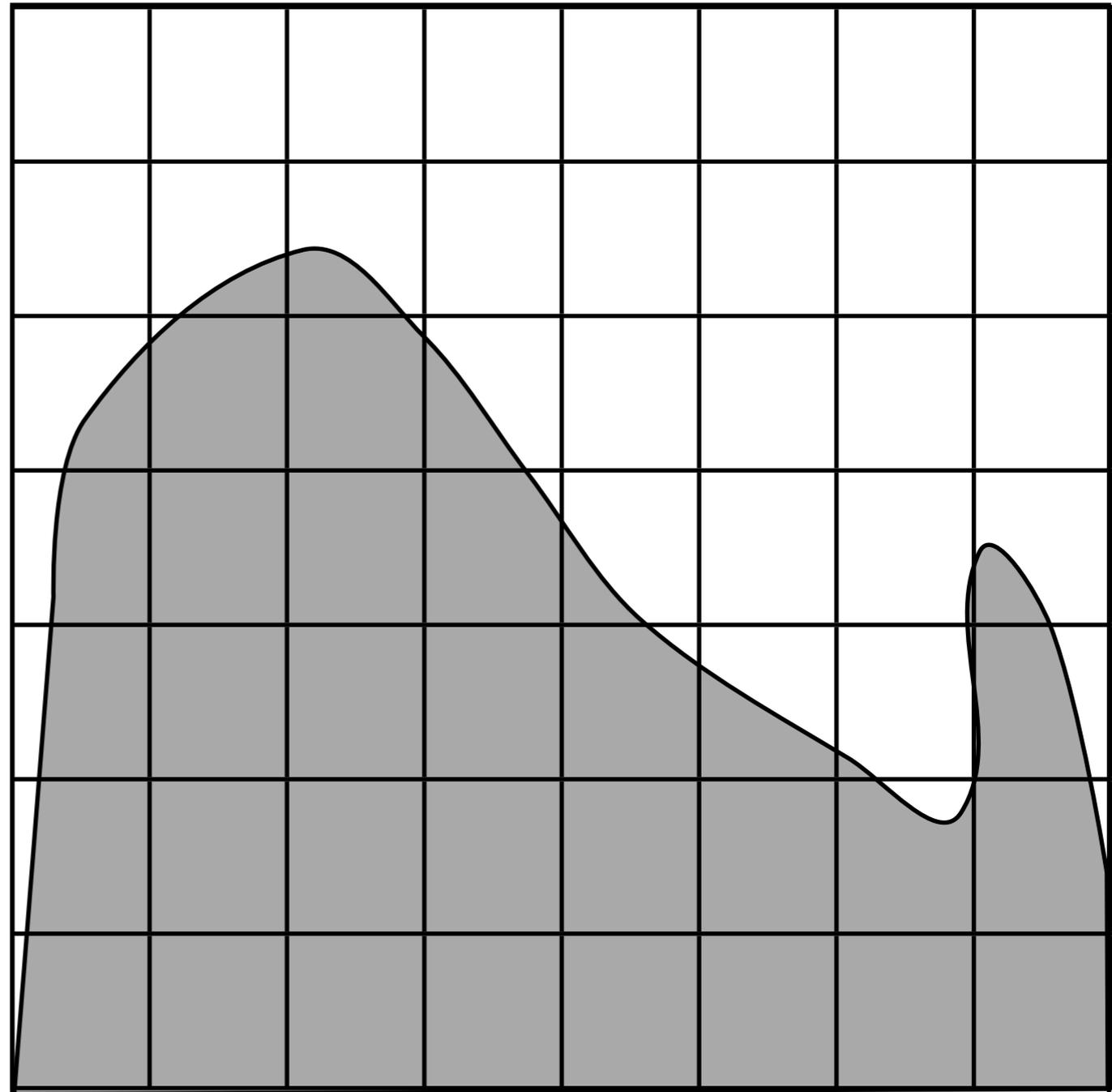
In d
dimensions,
each node
has 2^d
pointers!



$d = 20 \Rightarrow$
nodes will \sim
1 million
children

Split & Merge Decomposition

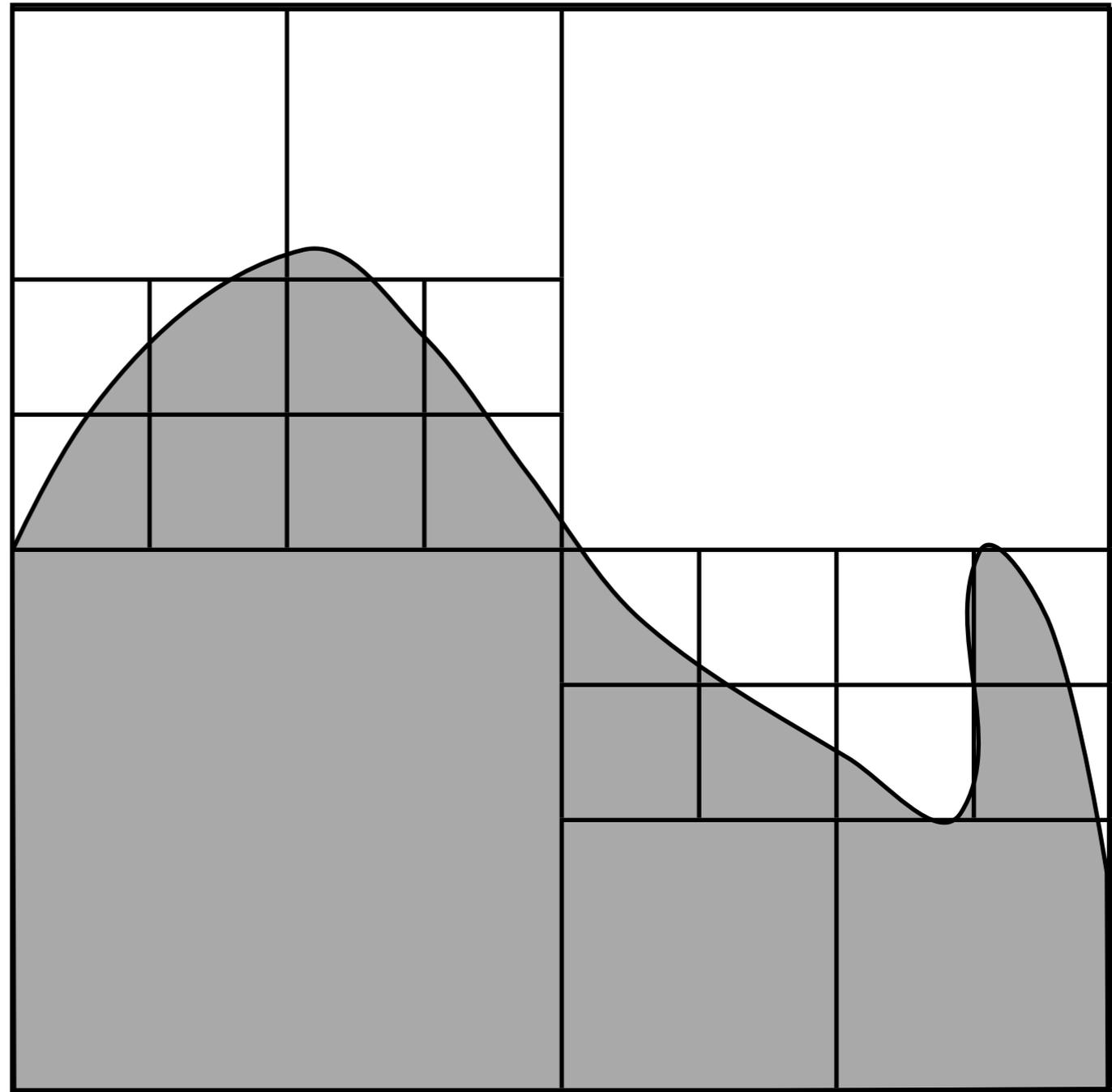
Subdivide into
uniform blocks



Split & Merge Decomposition

Subdivide into
uniform blocks

Merge similar
brothers

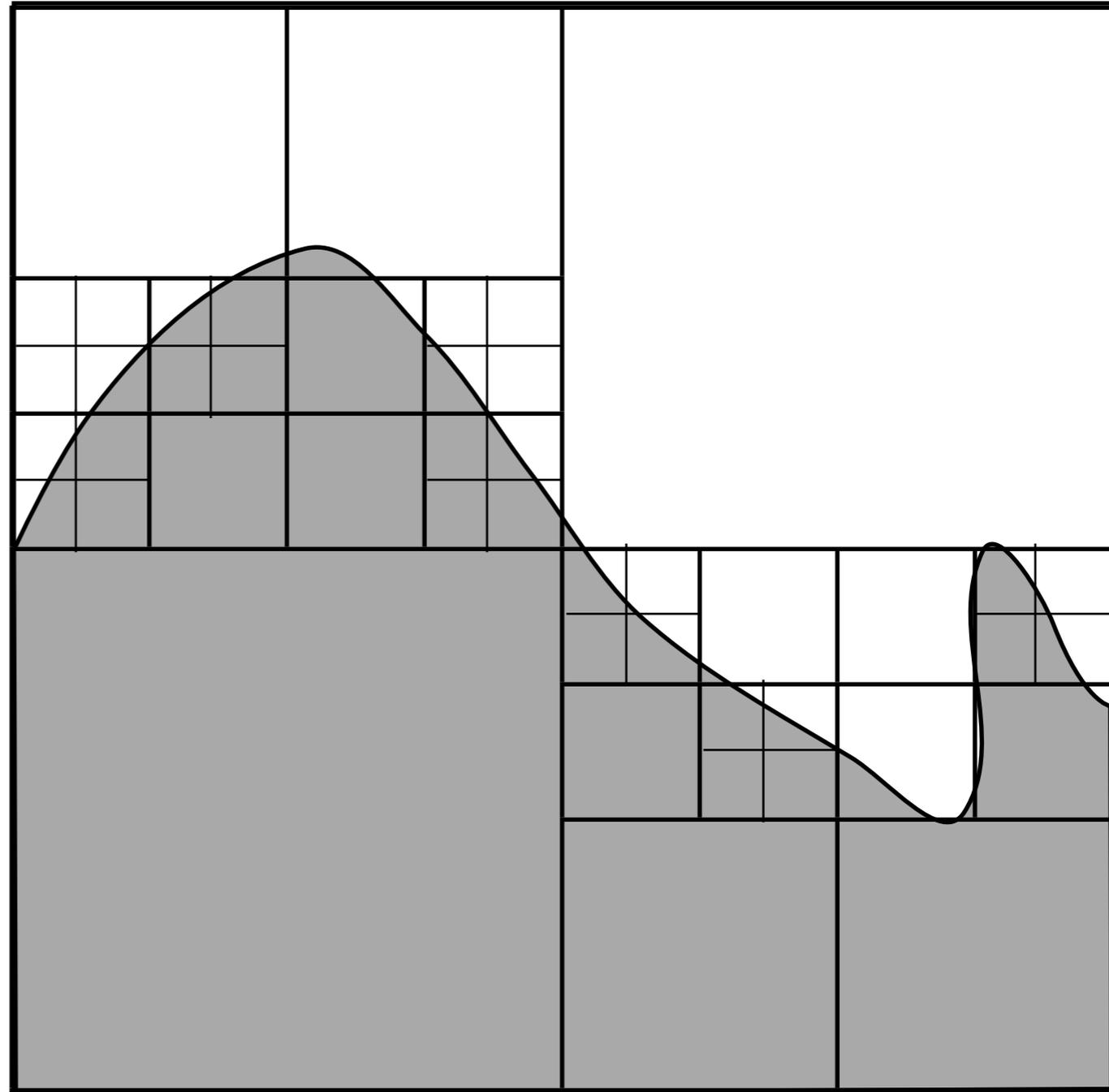


Split & Merge Decomposition

Subdivide into
uniform blocks

Merge similar
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Subdivide non-
homogenous cells



Split & Merge Decomposition

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Merge similar
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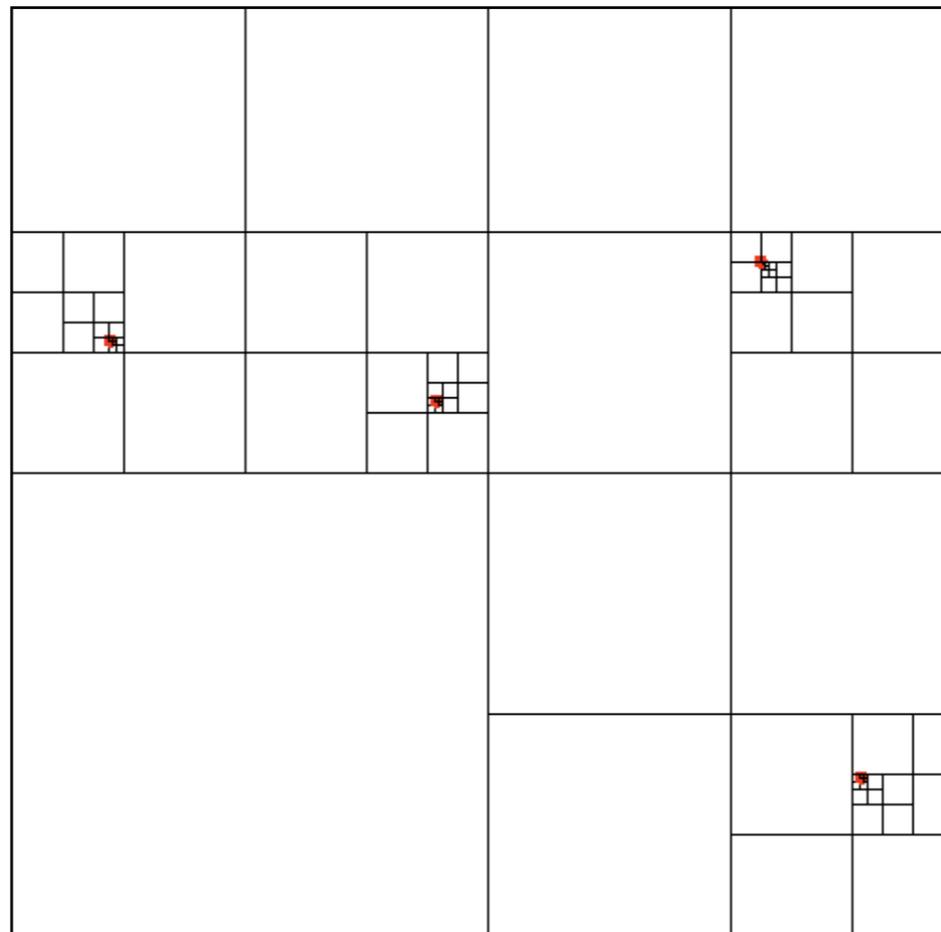
Subdivide non-
homogenous cells

Group identical
blocks to get regions



MX Quadrees

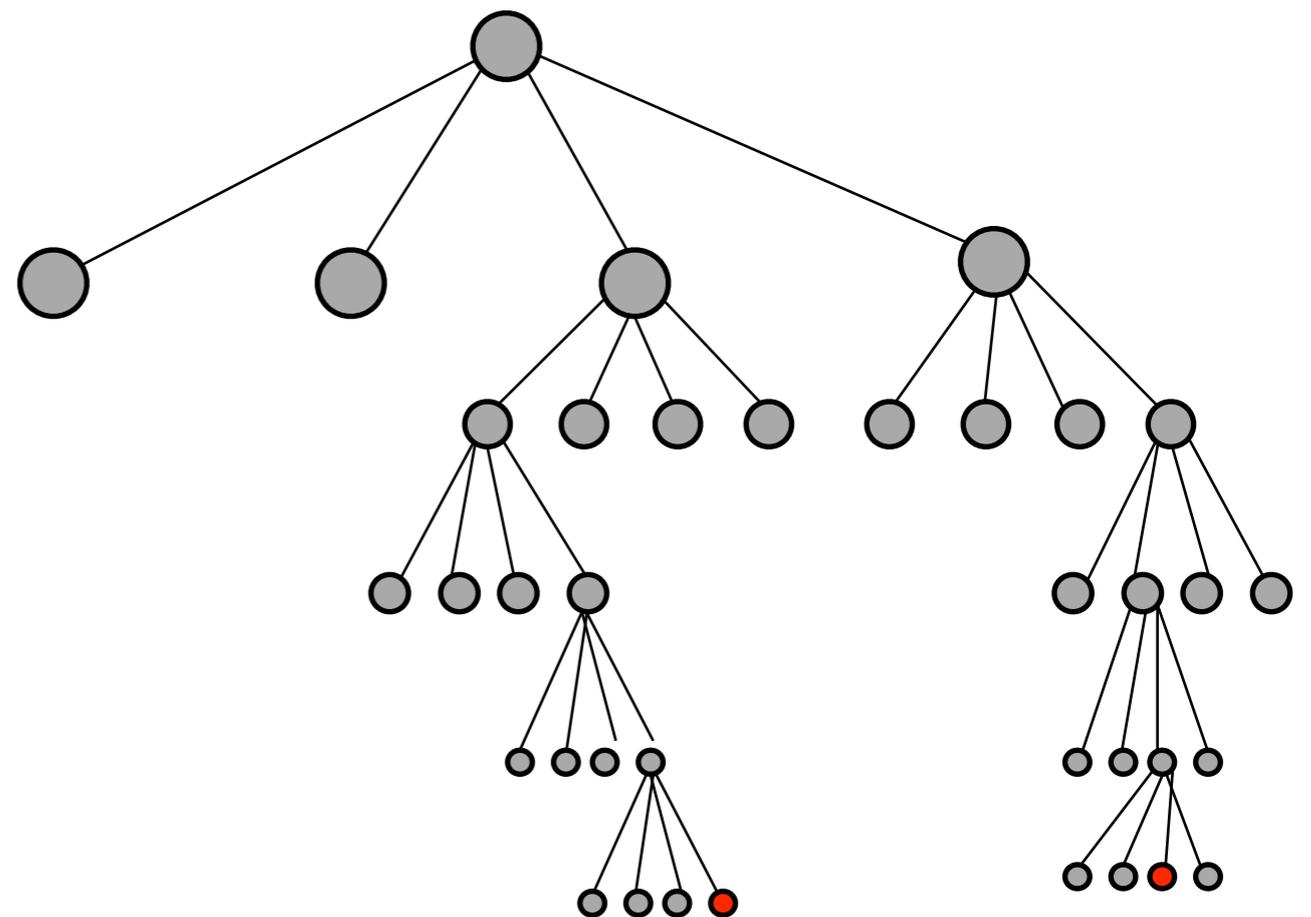
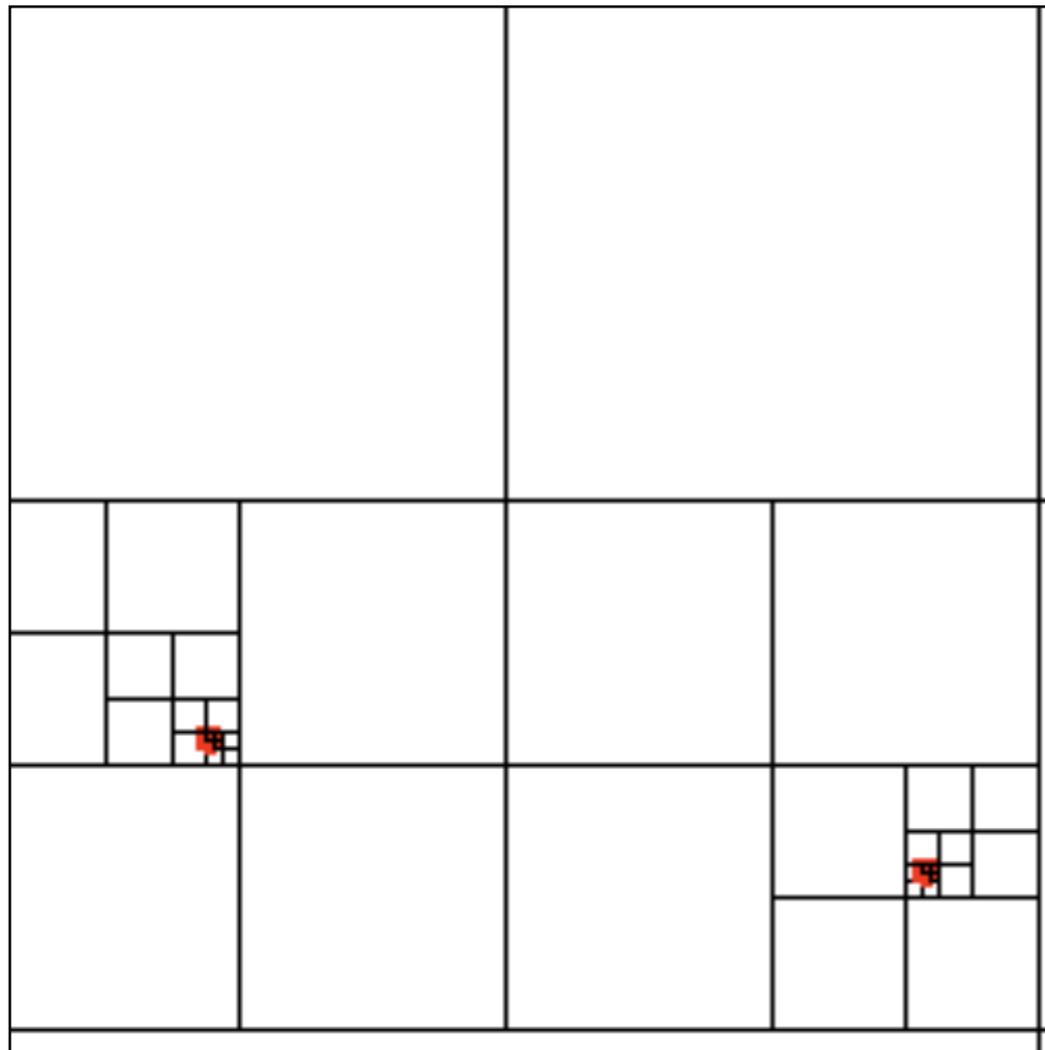
- Good for image data
 - smallest element is known, e.g. a pixel
 - Space is recursively subdivided until smallest unit is reached:
 - **Always subdivide to smallest unit:**



MX (MatriX) Quadtrees

Shape of final tree
independent of
insertion order

- Points are always at leaves
- All leaves *with points* are the same depth:



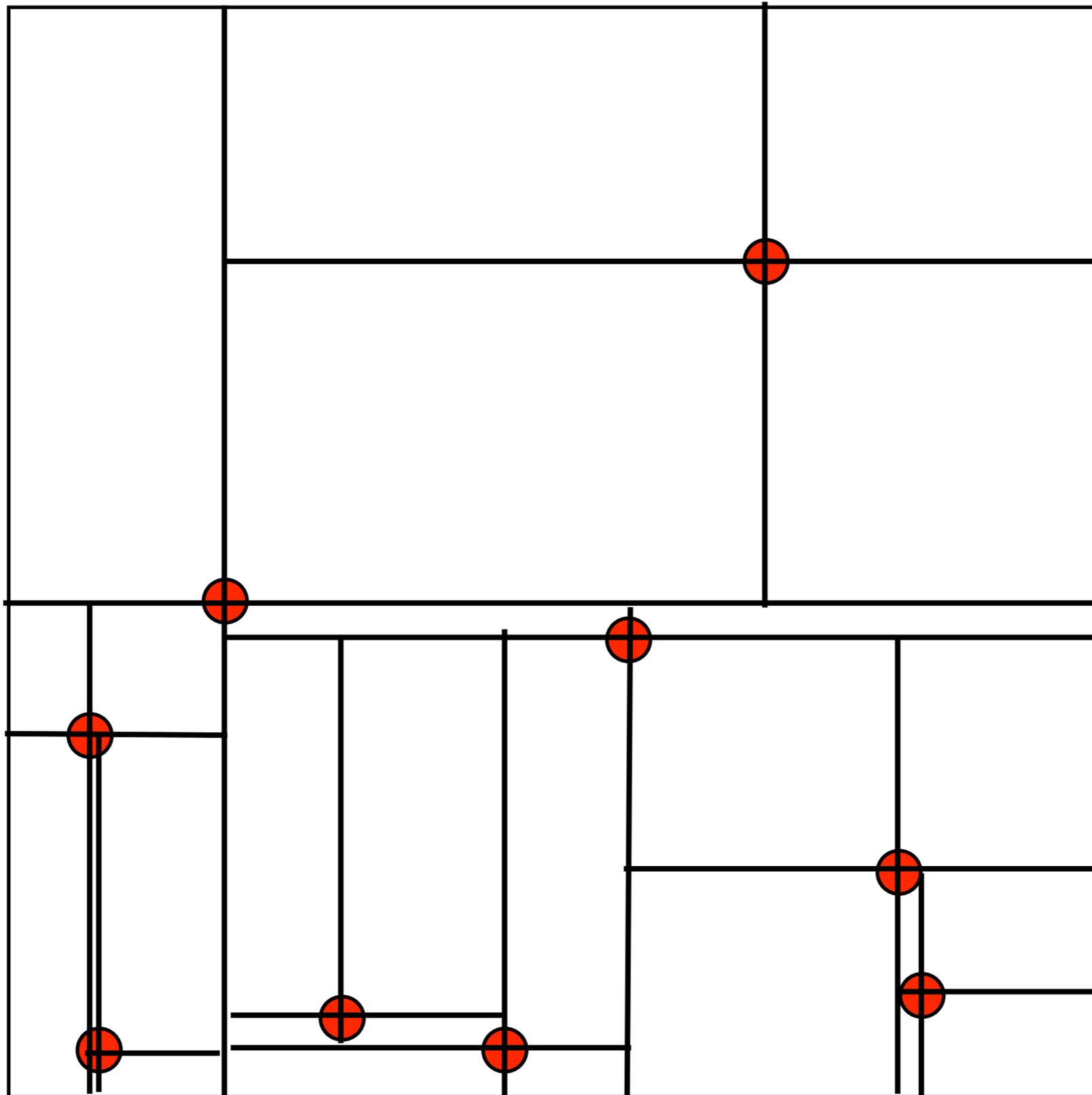
MX Quadtree Notes & Applications

- Shape of final tree independent of insertion order
- Can be used to represent a matrix (especially 0/1 matrix)
 - recursive decomposition of matrix (given by the MX tree) can be used for faster matrix transposition and multiplication
- Compression and transmission of images
 - Hierarchy => progressive transmission:
 - transmitting high levels of the tree gives you a rough image
 - lower levels gives you more detail
- Requires points come from a finite & discrete domain

Point Quadtrees

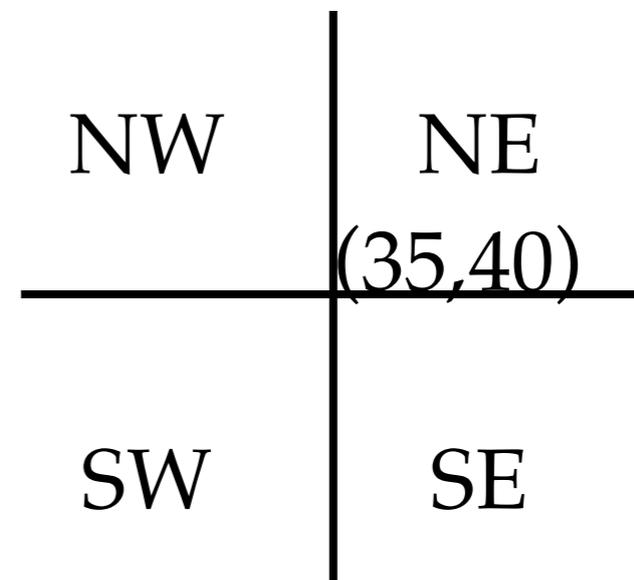
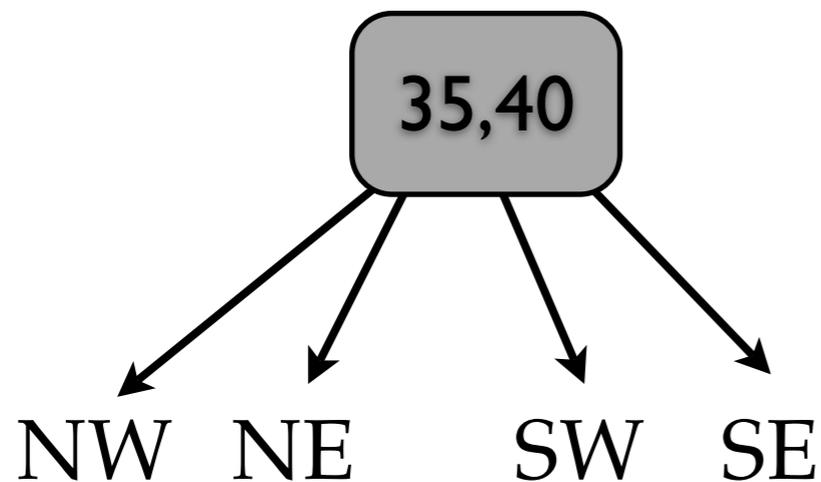
- Similar to PR Quadtrees, except we split on points in the data set, rather than evenly dividing space.
- Handling infinite space:
 - Special infinity value => allow rectangles to extend to infinity in some directions
 - Assume global bounding box

Point Quadtrees



Insertion into Point Quadtrees

- Insert(P):
 - Find the region that would contain the point P.
 - If P is encountered during the search, report **Duplicate!**
 - Add point where you fall off the tree.



Deletion from Point Quadtrees

- Reinsert all the points in the subtree rooted at the deleted node P .
- Can be expensive.
- There are some more clever ways to delete that work well under some assumptions about the data.

Some performance facts (random data):

- Cost of building a point quadtree empirically shown to be $O(n \log^4 n)$ [Finkel, Bentley] with random insertions
- Expected height is $O(\log n)$.
- Expected cost of inserting the i th node into a d -dimensional quad tree is $(2/d)\ln i + O(1)$.

More balanced Point Quadrees

- *Optimized Point Quadtree*: want no subtree rooted at node A to contain more than half the nodes (points) under A.
- Assume you know all the data at the start:
x1 y1
x2 y2
x3 y3
...
- Sort the points lexicographically: primary key is x-coordinate, secondary key is y-coordinate.
- Make root = the median of this list (middle element)
=> half the elements will be to the left of the root, half to the right.
- Recursively apply to top and bottom halves of the list.

Pseudo Point Quadtrees

- Like PR quadtrees: splits don't occur at data points.
- Like Point Quadtrees: actual key values determine splits
- Determine a point that splits up the dataset in the most balanced way.
 - Overmars & van Leeuwen: for any N points, there is a partitioning point so that each quadrant contains $\leq \text{ceil}(N / (d+1))$ points.

Comparison of Point-based & Trie-based Quadtrees

- “Trie-based” = MX and PR quadtrees
 - rely on regular space decomposition
 - data points associated only with leaf nodes
 - simple deletion
 - shape independent of insertion order
- Point-based quadtrees
 - data points in internal nodes
 - often have fewer nodes
 - harder deletion
 - shape depends on insertion order

Problems with Point Quadtrees

- May not be balanced...
 - But expected to be if points are randomly inserted.
- Size is bounded in n .
 - Partitioning key space rather than geometric space.
 - Because each node contains a point, you have at most n nodes.
- But may have lots of unused pointers if d is large!
- Solution is kd-trees.