

Parma University, Math. Department

Algorithms and Data Structures

Intersection of segments Convex Hull

Marco Pellegrini

Spring 2002, Lecture 23

Summary of lecture 23

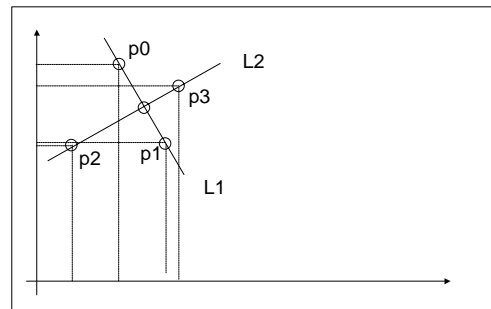
- Segment intersection test.
- Convex Hull,
- Jarvis march
- Graham's scan

Intersection of Segments

(method number 1)

- We are given segments (p_0, p_1) and (p_2, p_3) on the plane and we have to determine whether they intersect or not.
- The first method would be:
 - (1) determine the line through p_0 and p_1 ,
 - (2) determine the line through p_2 and p_3 ,
 - (3) find the intersection point of the lines,
 - (4) check that the intersection is in the segments.

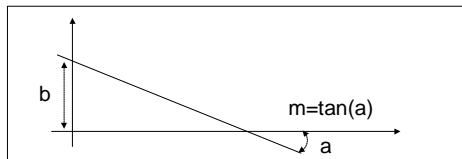
Intersection of segments



Equation of the lines.

(slope/intercept form)

- The slope/intercept equation of the line is $y = mx + b$, for non-vertical lines.
- m is the slope (i.e. the tangent of the angle of the line with the positive x -axis).
 b is the intercept on the y -axis.



Line through 2 points

- The line through 2 points $p_0=(x_0, y_0)$ and $p_1=(x_1, y_1)$ is:
- $(y-y_0)/(y_1-y_0) = (x-x_0)/(x_1-x_0)$.
- If we put such line in slope/intercept form we get:
 $m = (y_1-y_0)/(x_1-x_0)$,
 $b = (1-m)x_0$
- So, m is defined only if $x_0 \neq x_1$. The case $x_0=x_1$ must be treated separately.
- Using the above formula we find the equations of lines L_1 through (p_0, p_1) and L_2 through (p_2, p_3) .

Finding the intersection point

- To find the intersection point we solve the following system of equations:
 $(L1) y = m1x + b1$
 $(L2) y = m2x + b2$
- The solution is:
 $y_i = (b1m2 - b2m1) / (m2 - m1)$
 $x_i = (b1 - b2) / (m2 - m1)$
- Finally we have to check that:
 $\min(x0, x1) \leq x_i \leq \max(x0, x1)$ AND
 $\min(x2, x3) \leq x_i \leq \max(x2, x3)$.
- I do not check anything on y_i . Why?
- The case $m1 = m2$ needs a special treatment.

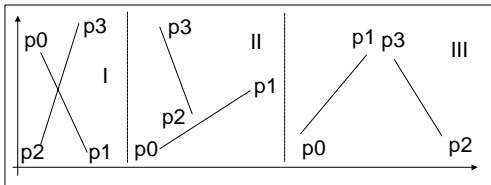
Detecting is easier than Finding.

Method number 2

- We have found the intersection (x_i, y_i) of the two segments $(p0, p1)$, and $(p2, p3)$.
- We have to handle several special cases and we have used division in several places.
- Division generates truncation errors that can produce the wrong final result.
- But, we do not have to FIND the intersection point in order to DETECT its existence.
- Moreover we can DETECT the existence of an intersection using only left-turn tests.

Proper Intersections.

- First we deal with the case of proper intersections. We suppose that no 3 points among $p0, p1, p2, p3$ are collinear.
- Exercise: test left turn for: $(p0, p1, p2)$, $(p0, p1, p3)$, $(p2, p3, p0)$, $(p2, p3, p1)$ in 3 cases:



Observations

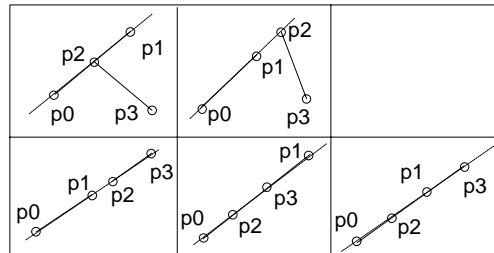
- The 3 points to test have been chosen in the following way: take two end-points of one segment and one of end-point of the other segment. The two points from the same segment are chosen in both cases in the same order.
- In cases II and III at least one pair of turns based on the same segment are equal.
- In case I the two turns based on each segment are different.
- Hypothesis: $(p0, p1)$ meet $(p2, p3)$ if and only if:
 $(\text{left-turn}(p0, p1, p2) \text{ xor } \text{left-turn}(p0, p1, p3)) \text{ AND}$
 $(\text{left-turn}(p2, p3, p0) \text{ xor } \text{left-turn}(p2, p3, p1))$.

A formal proof.

- Consider the segments $(p0, p1)$ and $(p2, p3)$ and the lines $L1$ and $L2$.
- If $(p0, p1)$ meets $(p2, p3)$ then also $L1$ meets $(p2, p3)$ and $L2$ meets $(p0, p1)$.
- But the converse is also true: if $L1$ meets $(p2, p3)$ and $L2$ meets $(p0, p1)$, then they meet in the same point, and this point belongs to the two segments.
- The segment $(p0, p1)$ meets $L2$ if $p0$ and $p1$ are on opposite sides of $L2$, which is the same as to require that $(p2, p3, p0)$ and $(p2, p3, p1)$ make different turns (one left and one right).
- A similar argument holds for $L1$ and $(p2, p3)$.

Improper intersections.

- Here we have that 3 points among $p0, p1, p2, p3$ are collinear, so at least one of the tests cannot return a true/false value.



Improper intersections, 2.

We define a procedure Between that given 3 co-linear points (a,b,c) determines whether c is between a and b.

```
BETWEEN(a,b,c: points)
  IF NOT CO-LINEAR(a,b,c)
    THEN RETURN false
  IF x(a) ≠ x(b)
    THEN RETURN ( min(x(a),x(b)) ≤ x(c) AND
                  max(x(a),x(b)) ≤ x(c) )
  ELSE RETURN ( min(y(a),y(b)) ≤ y(c) AND
               max(y(a),y(b)) ≤ y(c) )
END IF
```

Segment intersection Test

Intersect((a,b),(c,d): Segments)

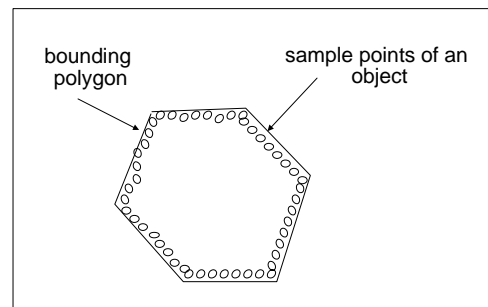
```
IF [Collinear(a,b,c) OR
    Collinear(a,b,d) OR
    Collinear(c,d,a) OR
    Collinear(c,d,b)]
  THEN
    RETURN [ Between(a,b,c) OR
            Between(a,b,d) OR
            Between(c,d,a) OR
            Between(c,d,b) ]
ELSE
  RETURN [ [ left(a,b,c) xor left(a,b,d) ] AND
          [ left(c,d,a) xor left(c,d,b) ] ]
END IF
```

Conclusions 1

- Finding an intersection requires divisions, BUT detecting an intersection requires only left-turn and collinearity tests.
- We have now the whole method to test simplicity of polygons.
- The INTERSECT procedure is robust against truncation errors.
- More uses of these tests are to come.

Making shapes out of points

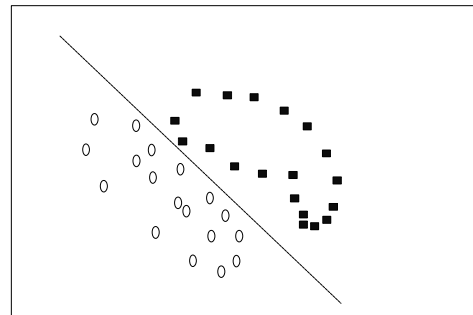
(shape = polygons)



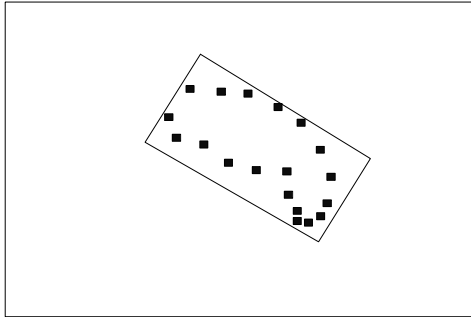
Convex polygon approximating points

- We can compute easily the Area of the polygon and consequently estimate the area spanned by the points.
- We can test efficiently whether an additional point falls "among" the given initial points.
- We can test whether two sets of points overlap or are separable (by a line).
- We can compute easily other bounding polygons (i.e. boxes of arbitrary orientation).

Example: separability of points.



Example: Finding bounding rectangles



Convex Hull: definition and properties

Let S be a set of points and $CH(S)$ the convex hull of S .

$CH(S)$ is the *convex polygon of smallest area* containing all the points in S .

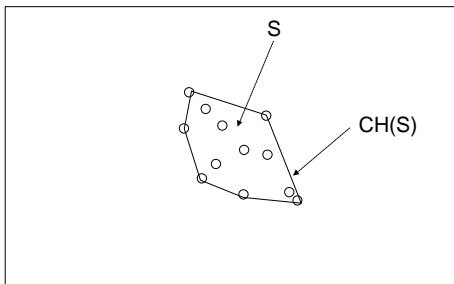
$CH(S)$ is the *smallest convex polygon* containing S .

If P is convex and contains S , then $CH(S)$ is completely contained in P .

$CH(S)$ is the union of all triangles whose vertices are points in S .

$CH(S)$ is the *convex polygon of smallest perimeter* containing all points in S .

Sketch of properties of $CH(S)$

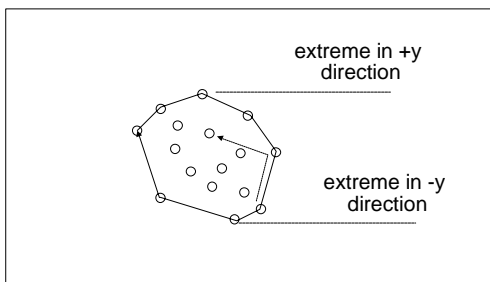


Other properties of $CH(S)$

- The vertices of $CH(S)$ are points from S .
- If $E=(p_1,p_2)$ is an edge of $CH(S)$, then all points p_j in S are on the same side of the line through p_1 and p_2 . Consequently $\text{left}(p_1,p_2,p_j)$ has the same value for all points p_j (not collinear with p_1 and p_2).
- Given S , $CH(S)$ is unique.
- $CH(S)$ is a convex polygon, so in particular all triples of consecutive vertices of $CH(S)$ in counterclockwise order make a left turn.

Other properties of $CH(S)$ 2

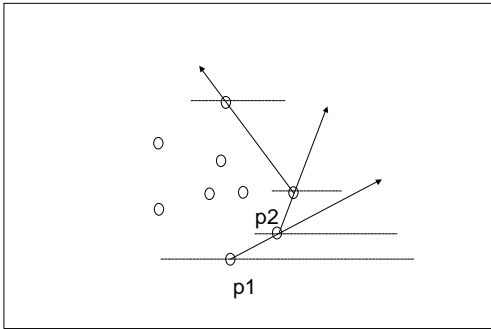
- A vertex of $CH(S)$ is an "extreme" point for some direction.



Jarvis's march

- Jarvis's march is based on the idea of finding one by one all extreme points following the circle of directions.
- The first point we find is the point with smallest y coordinate, which is extremal in the $-y$ direction: p_1 .
- The second extremal point we find is the point with smallest angle AROUND p_1 : p_2 .
- The third extremal point is the point with smallest angle AROUND p_2 :... etc.
- Jarvis's march is also called gift-wrapping.

Example of Jarvis's march

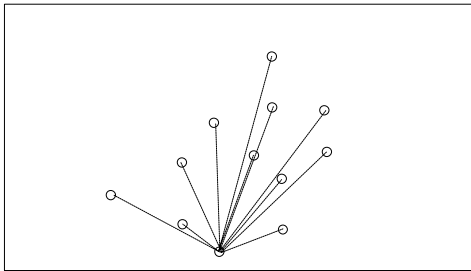


Observations on Jarvis's march

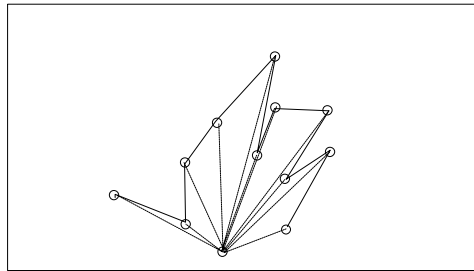
- We can easily find the point p_1 with smallest y-coordinate.
- We can also easily find the point p_2 with smallest angle around p_1 by using only left-turn tests.
- Finding each extreme point takes time $O(n)$.
- If the CH(S) has h vertices, the total time is $O(nh)$.
- Thus Jarvis's march is fast when the CH has few vertices. In the worst case it is $O(n^2)$.

Graham's scan

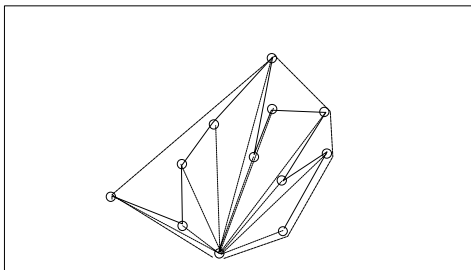
- Sort the points around the lowest point p_0 .



- Connect the sorted sequence of points to make a simple polygon



- Draw the convex hull.



Observations

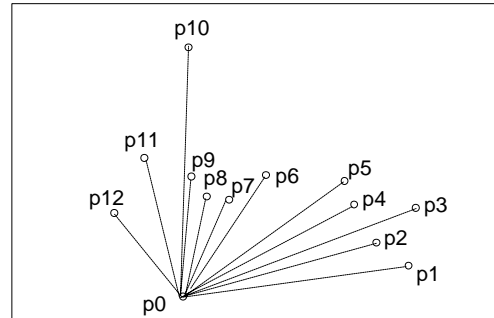
- The vertices of the CH(S) are a sub-sequence of the points in sorted angular order around p_0 .
- Triple of consecutive vertices of the CH(S) make left turns.
- Graham's scan is based on building CH(S) by adding points in sorted angular order, and deleting those point that violate the left-turn rule.
- In order to keep track of the points we have added to the CH we use a STACK.

Graham's scan

- Find lowest point p_0 .
Sort all points by angle around p_0 ,
getting sequence $[p_0, p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n]$
Set up an empty stack S
- GRAHAM-SCAN()
 Push(p_0, S), Push(p_1, S), Push(p_2, S)
 FOR $i=3$ TO n
 DO WHILE RIGHT(NEXT-TO-TOP(S), TOP(S), p_i)
 DO POP(S)
 END WHILE
 PUSH(p_i, S)
 END FOR
- The stack S at the end contains the vertices of the CH

Exercise:

Show changes of the stack for these points:



Observations on Graham's scan

- At the end on the stack there are only triple of consecutive points making a left turn.
- Every point popped from the stack cannot be a CH vertex, since it makes a right turn with points chosen in order of increasing angle.
- Since we never pop a vertex that is in the CH, in the stack are left exactly the vertices of the CH.
- Running time of Graham's scan. Each point is pushed at most once and it is popped at most once from the stack. So the main loop takes
- linear time. The initial sorting take time $O(n \log n)$.

Conclusions 2

- One basic operation in many situations is to make a polygon (convex, rectangle, etc) out of a set of points.
- Then, we can do tests on the polygon instead of the original points. Usually the polygon is much smaller than the original set.
- We have seen 2 algorithms: Jarvis's march and Graham's scan. Both use only left-turn/ right-turn tests.
- Graham's scan uses an auxiliary data structure: a Stack.