

Lecture 1: Introduction — July 22, 2013

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1 Overview

Classic computational geometry:

- Convex hulls
- Voronoi diagrams
- Point location
- Range searching
- Triangulations

2 or 3 dimensions. Why?

- easier to visualize & understand
- planarity constraints input & bounds complexity

Why do we need higher dimensions?

- Machine learning & computer vision produce high dimensional data to process.
- LP/SUP-solvers produce high dimensional vectors to be processed.

What do we do?

- Some solutions just generalize to higher dimensions?
- But: Dependence on dimensions often is exponential. (Curse of dimensionality)
- Some problems become NP-hard.
- Solution: Approximation & randomization

More specifically:

1. High-dimensional polytopes: basics & complexity, volume
2. Nearest-neighbor searching: approximation
3. Metric embeddings & dimension reduction

2 Polytopes in high dimensions

Definition 1. (*V-polytope*) Let $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$, $|P| = n$. Then $\mathcal{P} := \text{conv}(P)$ is called *V-polytope*.

Definition 2. (*H-polytope*) Let H be a set of n hyperplanes in \mathbb{R}^d . Write $\{h_1, \dots, h_n\}$ and h^- for the closed half-space to the left of h . If $\bigcap_{h \in H} h$ is bounded, then it is called *H-polytope*.

Examples:

1. Simplex

Suppose $|P| = d + 1$ in \mathbb{R}^d in general position. Then $\text{conv}(P)$ is called simplex. (The simplex is the smallest possible d -dimensional polytope.)

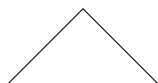


Figure 1: Simplex for $d = 2$.

2. Cross-polytope

The d -dimensional cross-polytope is defined as $\text{conv}\{e_1, -e_1, e_2, -e_2, \dots, e_d, -e_d\}$ where e_i is the i -th unit vector.

3. Hypercube

Intersection of halfspaces

$$x_i \geq -1 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, d$$

$$x_i \leq 1 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, d$$

Fact: Every H-polytope is a V-polytope and every V-polytope is an H-polytope.

3 Duality

Definition 3. (*Dual hyperplane / dual point*) Let $a \in \mathbb{R}^d \setminus \{0\}$ be a point. The dual hyperplane of a is defined as $a^* = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid \langle a, x \rangle = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_dx_d = 1\}$ Let h be a hyperplane with $0 \notin h$. Write $h := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid \langle a, x \rangle = 1\}$. The dual point h^* is defined as $h^* = a$

Fact: Duality preserves incidence and containment.

- $a \in h \leftrightarrow h^* \in a^*$

- $a \in h^- \leftrightarrow h^* \in (a^*)^-$

Definition 4. (*Dual polytope*) Let $\mathcal{P} = \text{conv}\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$ a V-polytope such that 0 is in the interior of \mathcal{P} . The dual polytope \mathcal{P}^* is defined as

$$\mathcal{P}^* = \bigcap_{i=1}^n \underbrace{(p_i^*)^-}_{\substack{\text{half-space} \\ \text{contains} \\ \text{the origin}}}$$

Similarly for H-polytope.

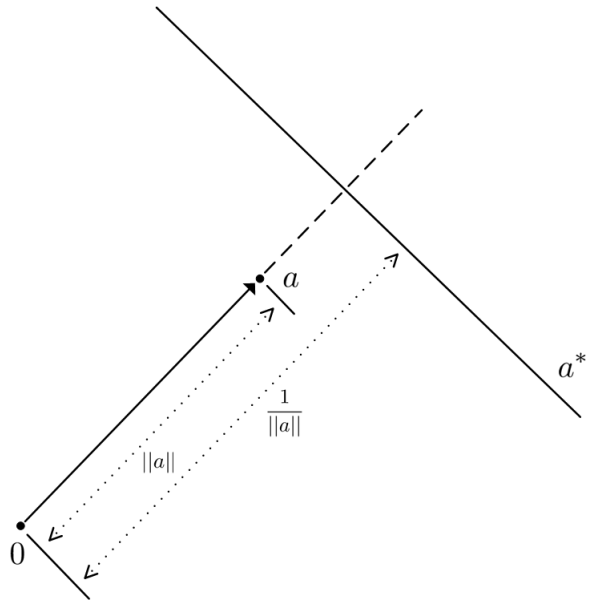


Figure 2: Dual hyperplane a^*

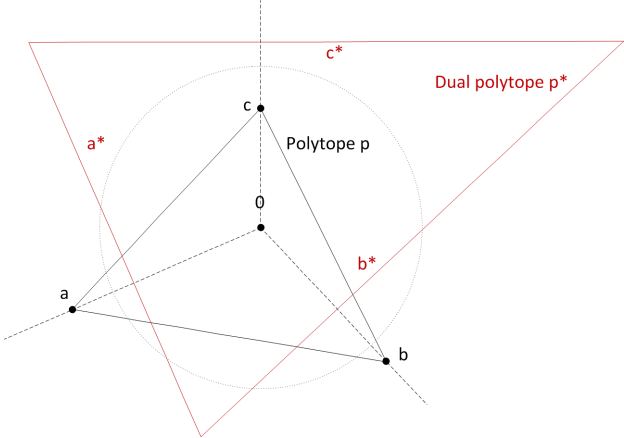


Figure 3: Dual polytope p^* w.r.t unit circle

Examples:

- The dual of a simplex: a simplex.
- The dual of the cross-polytope is a hypercube and vice-versa.

Fact: $(\mathcal{P}^*)^* = \mathcal{P}$

4 Faces

Definition 5. Let \mathcal{P} be a polytope. A face of \mathcal{P} is either

- i) \mathcal{P} itself

ii) a set of the form $\mathcal{P} \cap h$, where h is a hyperplan with $\mathcal{P} \subseteq h^+$ or $\mathcal{P} \subseteq h^-$.

A j -face is a face of dimension j .

Remark 6.

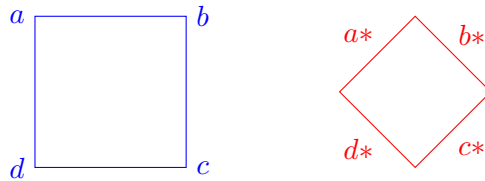
- There is exactly one -1 -face: \emptyset
- There is exactly one d -face: \mathcal{P}
- The 0 -faces are the vertices
- The 1 -faces are the edges
- The $(d - 2)$ -faces are the ridges
- The $(d - 1)$ -faces are the facets.

Examples

- Simplex : Every subset of j vertices defines a $(j - 1)$ -face. We get $\binom{d + 1}{j}$ $(j - 1)$ -faces for $0 \leq j \leq d - 1$.
- Cross Polytope: for $0 \leq j \leq d$, a j -subset $A = \{e_1, -e_2, e_3, \dots\}$ spans a $(j - 1)$ -face if A does not contain e_i and $-e_i$ for some i . We get $\binom{d}{j} 2^j$ $(j - 1)$ -faces.
- Hypercube: Similar to Cross Polytope.

Properties 7.

1. For V -polytopes, vertices are extremal points in defining set.
For H -polytopes, facets are contained in non-redundant defining hyperplanes.
2. Let f be a j -face of \mathcal{P} . Then, f is a j -dimensional polytope. The vertices and faces of f are exactly the vertices and faces of \mathcal{P} that are contained in f .
3. There is a bijection between j -faces of \mathcal{P} and $(d - j - 1)$ -faces of \mathcal{P}^* and the incidences are reversed.



Definition 8 (Simplicial Polytope). A simplicial polytope is a polytope where all the facets are simplices. It holds for V -polytopes with general position defining set.

Definition 9 (Simple Polytope). *A Simple polytope is a polytope where every vertex is incident to d edges. It holds for general position H -polytopes.*

So we have

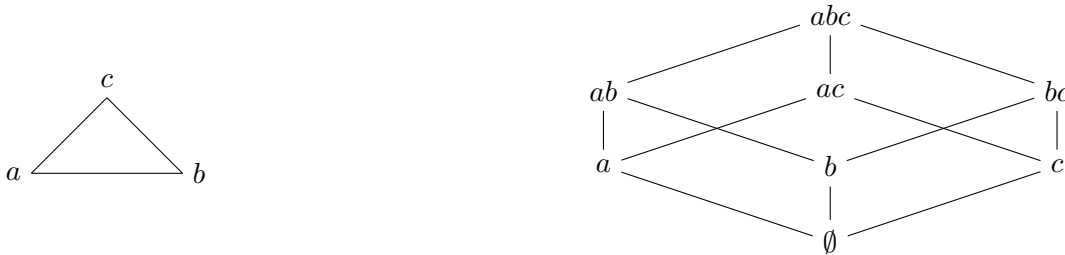
$$\text{Simplicial} \underset{\text{dual}}{\longleftrightarrow} \text{Simple}$$

The dual of a simplicial polytope is a simple polytope and the dual of a simple polytope is a simplicial polytope.

For $d > 2$, the only polytope that is simple and simplicial is the simplex.

Definition 10 (Face Lattice). *The face lattice of a polytope is a graph with one node for each face, and there is an edge between a $(j - 1)$ -face f and a j -face g if and only if $f \subseteq g$.*

Example:



Fact 11 (for lattice experts). *A face lattice is atomic, co-atomic and graduated.*

To compute a polytope means to compute its face lattice. Polytopes are represented in a computer by their face lattices.

4.1 How bad can polytopes become?

Given $\langle p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n \rangle =: P$, find $\text{CONV}(P)$.

How large can a face lattice become? A trivial upper bound is $\mathcal{O}(n^d)$.

A bad example: The cyclic polytope

Definition 12 (Moment Curve). *The function $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ with $\gamma(t) = (t, t^2, t^3, \dots, t^d)$ is called the Moment Curve.*

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, define $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$ with $p_i = \gamma(i)$ and $C_n^d := \text{CONV}(P)$. C_n^d is called cyclic polytope with n vertices.

Lemma 13.

i) C_n^d is simplicial.

ii) Let $f = \{p_{i_1}, p_{i_2}, \dots, p_{i_d}\}$ be d points defining C_n^d . Then, $\text{CONV}(f)$ is a facet of C_n^d if and only if for every $p_k, p_l \in P \setminus f$, the number of indices with $k < i_j < l$ is even

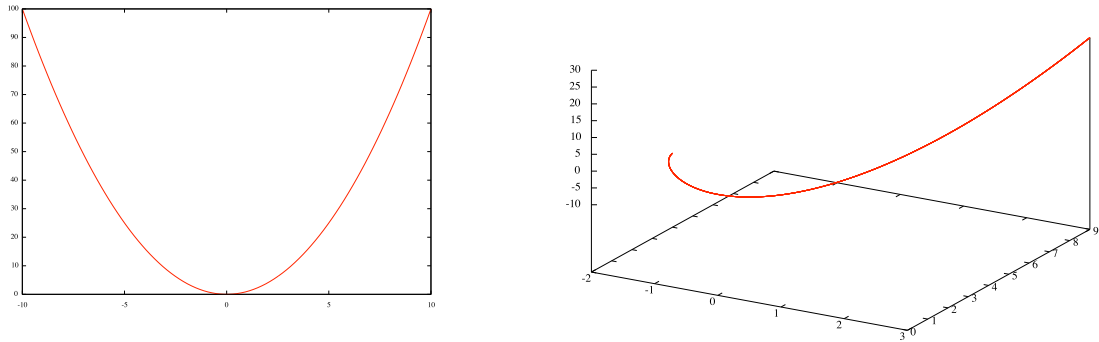


Figure 4: The moment curve for $d = 2$ and $d = 3$.

Proof. i) We want to show that each facet contains exactly d vertices.

Let f be a facet with vertices $p_{i_1}, p_{i_2}, \dots, p_{i_k}$. All vertices lie in a hyperplane

$$h : a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 = \dots + a_dx_d = 1$$

This means:

$$\begin{aligned} a_1i_1 + a_2i_1^2 + \dots + a_di_1^d - 1 &= 0 \\ a_1i_2 + a_2i_2^2 + \dots + a_di_2^d - 1 &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ a_1i_k + a_2i_k^2 + \dots + a_di_k^d - 1 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

i.e i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k are zeros at polynomial

$$\sum_{i=1}^d a_i X^i - 1$$

This means $k \leq d$.

ii) Gale's evenness criterion:

□

Corollary 14. C_n^d has $\Theta(n^{\lfloor \frac{d}{2} \rfloor})$ facets.

