

CONVEXITY

Visually, a "round-shape" geometric object is more amenable than a "squiggly" one:

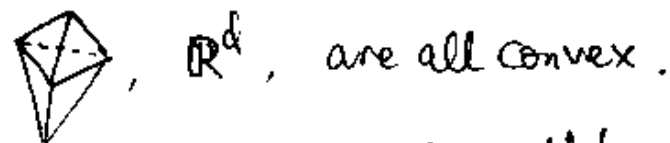
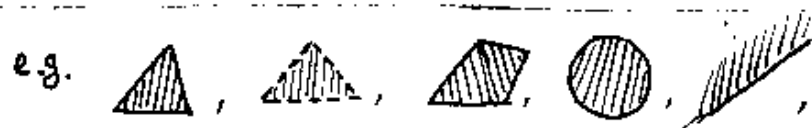


Also in the art-gallery setting, a round shape gallery is very easy to guard: we could put a single guard ~~at~~ wherever we want, and he sees everything. On the contrary, a squiggly gallery causes much headache.

The concept of convexity captures exactly these "nicer" geometric shapes.

def. Convexity

A set $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ is called convex if $\forall x, y \in C, \overline{xy} \in C$. That is, every two points in C see each other.



Note that convex sets could be open or unbounded.

Since we will apply algebraic methods extensively, it's good to encode the definition of convexity algebraically:

def! Convexity (algebraic version)

A set $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ is called convex if $\forall x, y \in C, \forall \lambda \in [0, 1]$, we have $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in C$.

$$\frac{x-y}{\lambda(x-y)} \quad x \quad \frac{y + \lambda(x-y)}{=} \lambda x + (1-\lambda)y$$

Usually, it's more convenient to ~~state~~ ^{gain} ~~extra freedom~~ by considering multiple, instead of 2, ~~points~~ points in the definition:

def'' Convexity (algebraic & convenient)

A set $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ is called convex if any ~~convex~~ "convex combination" of points in C still results in a point in C . That is:

$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in C$, we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i \in C$$

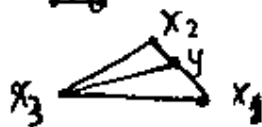
whenever $\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = 1$ and $\lambda_i \geq 0$ for all i .

Proposition 5.

Definitions def' and def'' are equivalent.

Proof. (\Leftarrow) is trivial since def' is a special case of def''.

(\Rightarrow) We will ^{later} do an algebraic proof, but it is based on a clear geometry intuition: Suppose we want to extend the assertion from 2 points to 3 points, ~~we~~ x_1, x_2, x_3 . By def', every y on $\overline{x_1 x_2}$ is also in C . Then



we again apply def' for x_2 and y to conclude that the segment $\overline{x_3 y}$ lies in C . So if we move y along $\overline{x_1 x_2}$, the segment $\overline{x_3 y}$ shall "scan" through the triangle region $x_1 x_2 x_3$, proving that the triangle is contained in C . Similarly, we could lift 3 points to 4 points and so on.

Now we do a pure algebraic proof. By induction on n . The base case $n=2$ is guaranteed by def'. For induction step $n \rightarrow n+1$:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \lambda_i x_i &= \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i + \lambda_{n+1} x_{n+1} \\ &\stackrel{\text{rescaling}}{=} (1 - \lambda_{n+1}) \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\lambda_i}{1 - \lambda_{n+1}} x_i + \lambda_{n+1} x_{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

Note that $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\lambda_i}{1 - \lambda_{n+1}} = 1$, so by IH. we

see $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\lambda_i}{1 - \lambda_{n+1}} x_i =: y \in C$. And the equation continues as

$$\begin{aligned} \dots &= (1 - \lambda_{n+1}) y + \lambda_{n+1} x_{n+1} \\ &\in C \quad (\text{by def'}) \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

While aesthetic value of convexity is impossible to argue about rigorously, there are so many examples showing that "Convex = nice" in ~~practical~~ ^{mathematical} contexts. In the following we give several such examples.

Proposition 6

The intersection of arbitrarily many convex sets is still convex. ■

Theorem 7 (Separation theorem)

For any two disjoint compact convex sets $C, D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$, there exists a hyperplane separating them, i.e. C lies on one side while D lies on the other.

Proof. Define a distance function $\delta(x, y)$: $C \times D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ by $\delta(x, y) := \|x - y\|^2$. Since $C \cap D = \emptyset$, $\delta(x, y) > 0$ everywhere. Note that δ is a continuous function defined on a compact set $C \times D$, hence it attains some minimum value > 0 at some $(x^*, y^*) \in C \times D$.

Consider the hyperplane \mathcal{H} that goes through some $z \in \overline{x^* y^*} \setminus \{x^*, y^*\}$ and that is perpendicular to $x^* y^*$. We claim that \mathcal{H} separates C and D .



Suppose it fails to separate C and D , for the sake of contradiction.

W.l.o.g. we may assume $\exists c \in C$ that lies on the other side to x^* .

Then $\overline{x^* c}$ intersects \mathcal{H} at, say, p . By convexity of C , we know $p \in C$ as well.

Now observe the triangle $x^* z p$. By orthogonality $\angle x^* z p = \pi/2$, so the projection of z onto $x^* p$ lies exactly on $\overline{x^* p}$, which belongs to C by convexity.

~~Denoting~~ Denoting the projection point \hat{z} , clearly $\delta(z, \hat{z}) < \delta(x^*, z)$, hence

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(y^*, \hat{z}) &\leq \delta(y^*, z) + \delta(z, \hat{z}) \\ &< \delta(y^*, z) + \delta(x^*, z) \\ &= \delta(x^*, y^*) \end{aligned}$$

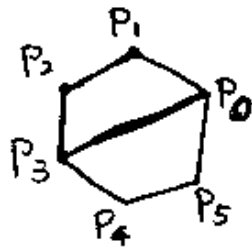
a contradiction to minimality. ■

Proposition 8

with n vertices

Given a convex polygon P and a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$, one could test in $O(\log n)$ time if $x \in P$.

Proof. This is achieved by a "geometric binary search". Suppose P has vertices P_0, P_1, \dots, P_{n-1} in ~~clockwise~~ counterclockwise order. We



cut the polygon into two smaller polygons by an edge $\overline{P_0 P_{n/2}}$, and test which side the point x

lies. Then we recursively check if x lies in the smaller polygon on that side.

Algorithm InConvexPolygon(x, P)

let (P_0, \dots, P_{n-1}) be the counterclockwise order of vertices of P .
if P is a triangle then

 | test directly if $x \in P$ (in constant time)

else

 | let P_L be the ~~sub~~ ^{sub} polygon on the left to $\overline{P_0 P_{n/2}}$

 | let P_R be the subpolygon on the right to $\overline{P_0 P_{n/2}}$

| | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| { | if x is on the right left of $\overline{P_0 P_{n/2}}$ then |
| | InConvexPolygon(x, P_L) |
| | else |
| InConvexPolygon(x, P_R) | |

Convexity is crucial here because otherwise we could not guarantee the segment $\overline{P_0 P_{n/2}}$ lies in P . ■

Proposition 9

Given a convex polygon P with n vertices and a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus P$, we could find in $O(\log n)$ time the right-tangent point of P with respect to x .

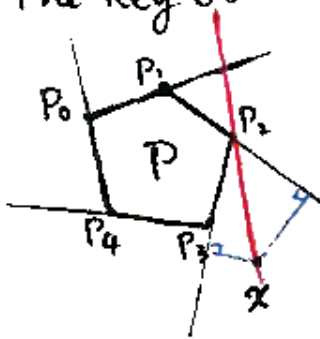


the right-tangent point: all part of P on its left.

Proof. First, a right-tangent point always exists: Theorem 6 ensures that we could separate x and P by a line, so, as we rotate the line gradually

We will at some point ~~obtain the~~ right
tangent. encounter a

The key observation is the following:



Let (P_0, \dots, P_{n-1}) be the vertices of P in clockwise order, and consider the rays $P_i \rightarrow P_{i+1}$ ($\forall i$).

The rays separate the plane region $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus P$ into disjoint regions.

\bullet P_i is a right-tangent ~~point~~

$\Leftrightarrow x$ lies inside the region bounded by $P_{i-1} \rightarrow P_i$ and $P_i \rightarrow P_{i+1}$.

$\Leftrightarrow x$ can be projected onto both $P_{i-1} \rightarrow P_i$ and $P_i \rightarrow P_{i+1}$, and the sum of projection length is minimised.

With this observation and monotonicity ~~of~~ of the property, one could design again a binary search algorithm.

Details are left as an exercise. \blacksquare