# Approximate Matching of Polygonal Shapes ${ }^{\diamond}$ 

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#### Abstract

For two given simple polygons $P, Q$ the problem is to determine a rigid motion $I$ of $Q$ giving the best possible match between $P$ and $Q$, i.e. minimizing the Hausdorffdistance between $P$ and $I(Q)$. Faster algorithms as the one for the general problem are obtained for special cases, namely that $I$ is restricted to translations or even to translations only in one specified direction. It turns out that determining pseudooptimal solutions, i.e. ones that differ from the optimum by just a constant factor can be done much more efficiently than determining optimal solutions. In the most general case the algorithm for the pseudo-optimal solution is based on the surprising fact that for the optimal possible match between $P$ and an image $I(Q)$ of $Q$ the distance between the centroids of the edges of the convex hulls of $P$ and $I(Q)$ is a constant multiple of the Hausdorff-distance between $P$ and $I(Q)$. It is also shown that the Hausdorff-distance between two polygons can be determined in time $O(n \log n)$, where $n$ is the total number of vertices.


[^0]
## 1 Introduction

The aim of this paper is to present methods from Computational Geometry solving standard problems in pattern recognition which can be intuitively formulated as follows:
Given two objects (shapes) $P$ and $Q$, how much do they resemble each other? (or: Are they identical up to some tolerance $\delta>0$ ?)

In many applications (e.g. character recognition) $P$ will be the input and that $Q$ out of a set of samples has to be determined which is most similar to $P$. Here we will assume that $P$ and $Q$ are simple polygons in the plane. Geometrically the problem above can be formulated as follows:
Given $P, Q$, find an isometry $I$ such that the distance between $P$ and $I(Q)$ is minimized (and determine that minimal distance). Here an isometry is an affine mapping in the plane which preserves distances. As is well known (see [M]) any isometry $I$ can be represented as

$$
I=r \circ \rho \circ t \text { or } I=\rho \circ t \text {, }
$$

where $r$ is the reflexion at the $x$-axis, $\rho$ a rotation about the origin, and $t$ a translation. In this article we will wlog. mean by isometry only isometries without reflexions (also called rigid motions or even isometries). Reflexions can easily be included by first matching optimally $P$ and $Q$ and then $P$ and $r(Q)$ by rigid motions and taking the better of the two matches.
In this sense, any isometry $I$ is of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
I(x)=M \cdot x+t \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $M=\left(\begin{array}{rr}\cos \varphi & \sin \varphi \\ -\sin \varphi & \cos \varphi\end{array}\right)$ for some $\varphi \in\left[0,2 \pi\left[\right.\right.$ and $t \in \mathbf{R}^{2}$ is some fixed translation vector.

Throughout this article we will denote by $d(x, y), x, y \in \mathbf{R}^{2}$, the Euclideandistance between $x$ and $y$, by $\|x\|:=d(x, 0)$ the Euclidean norm of $x$. For a set $A \subset \mathbf{R}^{2}$ and $\epsilon>0$ we denote by $U_{\epsilon}(A)$ the $\epsilon$-neighborhood $\left\{x \in \mathbf{R}^{2} \mid \exists a \in\right.$ $A$ such that $d(x, a)<\epsilon\}$ and for $x \in \mathbf{R}^{2}$ we will write $U_{\epsilon}(x)$ instead of $U_{\epsilon}(\{x\})$.

Now, for our polygons $P$ and $Q$ as a distance measure between $P$ and $I(Q)$ we will use the so-called Hausdorff-metric $\delta_{H}$ that is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta_{H}(A, B)=\max \left(\widetilde{\delta}_{H}(A, B), \widetilde{\delta}_{H}(B, A)\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\widetilde{\delta}_{H}(X, Y)=\sup _{x \in X} \inf _{y \in Y} d(x, y)$, is the distance from $X$ to $Y$.
Notice that $\delta_{H}(A, B)$ is always defined if $A, B \subset \mathbf{R}^{2}$ are bounded and that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta_{H}(A, B)=\inf \left\{\epsilon>0 \mid A \subset U_{\epsilon}(B) \text { and } B \subset U_{\epsilon}(A)\right\} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Figure 1 shows two polygons $P, Q$ and an isometry $I$ such that $\delta_{H}(P, I(Q))$ is minimized. (Note that throughout this paper, when considering a polygon $P$ as a set, we always mean the set of points on the edges of $P$, not the ones in the interior.)


Figure 1:

There are some special cases of the general problem formulated above which are of independent interest. Let P3 denote the general problem then we define problems $\mathrm{P} 2, \mathrm{P} 1, \mathrm{P} 0$ by the following restrictions:

P2: Only translations are allowed, i.e. in (1) $M$ is the identity matrix $I d$
P1: Only translations along one fixed direction $t_{0}$ are allowed, i.e. $M=I d$ and $t \in\left\{\lambda \cdot t_{0} \mid \lambda \in \mathbf{R}\right\}$

P0: No isometries except for the identity are allowed $\left(M=I d, t=\binom{0}{0}\right.$ ), i.e. the problem is to measure the Hausdorff-distance between $P$ and $Q$.

A standard example for the application of P 2 (or even P 1 ) is again character recognition. P0 is, of course, a very fundamental problem. A linear time algorithm for it in the case of convex polygons has been given by Atallah [At1]. An algorithm for P2 using parametric search was given in [AST].

In Section 2 we will give an $O((p+q) \log (p+q))$ algorithm for P 0 , where $p$ and $q$ are the numbers of vertices of $P, Q$, respectively. Then for problem P1 an $O\left(\lambda_{18}(p q) \log (p q)\right)$ algorithm will be presented using techniques for computing upper envelopes of functions related to Davenport-Schinzel-sequences. Next for problems P2 and P3 algorithms will be briefly sketched whose approximate runtimes are polynomials of degree 7 and 9 . Since that is not very efficient any more, we present in Section 5 algorithms giving pseudo-optimal solutions as an alternative. This means that they do not necessarily compute the optimal isometry, but one where the resulting Hausdorff-distance differs from the optimum only by a constant factor. For problem P3 the algorithm is based on the fact that if the minimum distance between $P$ and an isometric image $I(Q)$ of $Q$ is $\epsilon$ then the distance between the
centroids of the edges of the convex hulls of $P$ and the copy of $Q$ giving the best possible match is at most $17 \epsilon$.

For point sets instead of polygons similar questions as the ones considered in this paper have been investigated in [AMWW] and [S], and more recently, [AKMSW] and [HK]. Problems related to the ones here with respect to an alternative distance measure have been considered in [G] and [AG]. Approximation algorithms in this context have been developed in [ABGW] and [G].

This paper is the complete version of some parts of $[A B B]$.

## 2 Determining the Hausdorff-distance of two polygons (Problem P0)

Let $P, Q$ be two polygons with $p, q$ vertices, respectively. In order to solve problem P0, i.e. determine the Hausdorff-distance between $P$ and $Q$, we consider the Voronoidiagram of $P$, $\operatorname{Vor}(P)$.
$\operatorname{Vor}(P)$ assigns to each edge and each vertex of $P$ its Voronoi-cell, i.e. the set of points in the plane which are closer to this element (i.e. edge or vertex) than to any other one (see Figure 2). The edges of $\operatorname{Vor}(P)$ are either line segments (if they separate the cells of two edges or two vertices of $P$ ) or parabolic segments (if they separate the cell of a vertex from the cell of an edge). $\operatorname{Vor}(P)$ has $O(p)$ edges and vertices and can be constructed in time $O(p \log p)$ (see [Y], [F]). In order to obtain


Figure 2: Voronoi Diagram of a Polygon $P$
a finite problem we observe the following:
First consider the intersection of a fixed Voronoi-cell $C$ with $Q$ (see Figure 3). Suppose that we move monotonically on an edge of $Q$ within this Voronoi-cell $C$. As easily can be seen the distance to the corresponding element of $P$ defining cell $C$ is a bitonic function, i.e. first decreases and than increases monotonically (or is
just monotone increasing or just monotone decreasing). It follows that the maximal distance of a point of $Q$ on this edge to $P$ must be assumed at the endpoints of the edge or at the intersection point with some Voronoi-edge bounding cell $C$.

It follows that the distance $\widetilde{\delta}_{H}(Q, P)$ must be assumed at a vertex of $Q$ or an intersection point of an edge of $Q$ with a Voronoi-edge of $P$. Furthermore if we move monotonically on a Voronoi-edge $e$ of $P$ the distance to the elements whose cells are separated by this edge is a bitonic function as described before. Summarizing we have

Lemma 1 The distance of $Q$ to $P, \widetilde{\delta}_{H}(Q, P)$ is assumed either at some vertex of $Q$ or at some intersection point of $Q$ with some Voronoi-edge e of $P$ having either the smallest or largest $x$-coordinate among the intersection points of $Q$ with $e$ (see Figure 3).
(In the lemma we assume that parabolic segments having a vertical tangent are cut into two pieces at the point where the vertical tangent occurs.) Notice that the number of points in Lemma 1 is $O(p+q)$. It remains to show how to find these points and their nearest neighbours on $P$, that is we have to determine the cells of $\operatorname{Vor}(P)$ containing the vertices of $Q$ and the elements of $P$ closest to the critical intersection points. We do this by a plane sweep across the arrangement obtained by the edges


Figure 3:

$$
\operatorname{Vor}(P) \text { and } Q \quad \square-\text { extreme intersection points. }
$$

of $\operatorname{Vor}(P)$ and $Q$. In order to obtain only the extreme intersection points of each edge $e$ of $\operatorname{Vor}(P)$, we delete $e$ from the data structure (e.g. 2-3-tree) as soon as the first intersection point with $Q$ has been found. Two such sweeps, one from left to right and one from right to left, are necessary. Since there are $O(p+q)$ event points
we obtain an $O((p+q) \log (p+q))$-algorithm for determining all candidates in the sense of Lemma 1. By determining their distance to $P$ and taking their maximum we get $\tilde{\delta}_{H}(Q, P)$. Analogously, $\tilde{\delta}_{H}(P, Q)$ and thus $\delta_{H}(P, Q)$ can be determined.

## 3 An algorithm for P1

For problem P1 we can assume wlog. that the direction of the allowed translations is parallel to the x -axis, i.e. translation vectors are of the form $(\lambda, 0), \lambda \in \mathbf{R}$. For $\lambda \in \mathbf{R}$ and an egde $e$ of $Q$ we denote by $I_{\lambda}(e)$ the image of $e$.

Suppose $e^{\prime}$ is an edge of $\operatorname{Vor}(P)$ bounding some cell $C$. For any fixed value of $\lambda I_{\lambda}(e)$ has at most two intersection points with $\epsilon^{\prime}$. We consider the square of the distance of such an intersection point to the object in $P$ defining cell $C$ as a function in $\lambda$. Since $e^{\prime}$ is a parabolic or a straight line segment this function is clearly algebraic and a detailed analysis shows that its order is at most 4. It is not hard to verify that each pair $e, e^{\prime}, e \in Q, e^{\prime}$ an edge of $\operatorname{Vor}(P)$, generates at most 3 such algebraic functions in $\lambda$, whose domains are intervals (see Figure 4). Likewise we


Figure 4:
define for each pair ( $a, C$ ), where $a$ is an endpoint of some edge $e$ of $Q$ and $C$ a cell of $\operatorname{Vor}(P)$, the function $f_{a, C}$, i.e. if the corresponding endpoint of $I_{\lambda}(e)$ is contained in $C f_{a, C}(\lambda)$ is defined as the square of the distance of this point to the site defining cell $C$.

Obviously, $f_{a, C}(\lambda)$ is a quadratic function. According to Lemma 1 the Hausdorff distance $h(\lambda):=\widetilde{\delta_{H}}\left(I_{\lambda}(Q), P\right)$ is the maximum of all functions described previously, i.e. $h$ is the upper envelope of all these functions (see Figure 5).


Figure 5:
Problem P1 can now be reduced to finding the minimum of the function $h(\lambda)$. Clearly $h(\lambda)$ is a piecewise algebraic function. Constructing upper envelopes of sets of functions is well studied in the theory of Davenport-Schinzel sequences (see [ASS], [At2]). There the number of pieces of the upper envelope of $n$ functions from which any pair can intersect at most $k$ times is denoted by $\lambda_{k}(n)$. The upper envelope can be constructed (see [At2]) in time $O\left(\lambda_{k}(n) \log n\right)$. No explicit expression is known for $\lambda_{k}(n)$ if $k>4$, but it is known that the growth rate is only slightly above linear for any constant $k$. In fact $\lambda_{k}(n)=o\left(n \log ^{*} n\right)$ (where $\log ^{*} n$ is the number of times $\log$ has to be applied to get down from $n$ to some value $\leq 1$ ). In our case $h(\lambda)$ is the upper envelope of $O(p q)$ algebraic functions of degree at most 4, consequently any two of them intersect in at most 16 points by Bezout's theorem (see [Fu]). Since the domain of these functions is not necessarily the whole of $\mathbf{R}$ but some interval we additionaly have to take into consideration the interval endpoints and get $O\left(\lambda_{18}(p q)\right)$ as the number of pieces $h(\lambda)$ consists of and

$$
O\left(\lambda_{18}(p q) \log p q\right)
$$

for the time to construct it (and, thus to find its minimum).
In the same way, we can determine the distance from $P$ to $I_{\lambda}(Q)$ as a function of $\lambda$. By merging the two functions we can determine the optimal $\lambda$ in time

$$
O\left(\lambda_{18}(p q) \log (p q)\right) .
$$

## 4 Pseudo-optimal solutions for P2 and P3

In $[\mathrm{ABB}]$ problems P 2 and P 3 were solved by observing that for the optimal placement of $Q$ the Hausdorff-distance must occur at at least 3 for P2 and 4 for P3 different places (except for degenerate cases). This observation led to brute force algorithms of runtimes $O\left((p q)^{3}(p+q) \log (p+q)\right)$ for P 2 and $O\left((p q)^{4}(p+q) \log (p+q)\right)$ for P3. Meanwhile in [AST] an algorithm for P2 of runtime $O\left((p q)^{2} \log ^{3}(p q)\right)$ has been found using the technique of parametric search.

In this section, we will present a different approach, which gives much more efficient and practical algorithms. However, it does not necessarily find the optimal solution but one which is not too bad in the following sense:

Definition 2 An algorithm is said to produce a pseudo-optimal solution for problem P2 (P3), iff there is a constant $c>0$ such that on input $P, Q$ the algorithm finds a translation (isometry) $I$ with $\delta_{H}(P, I(Q)) \leq c \delta$, where $\delta$ is the minimal Hausdorffdistance determined by the optimal solution.

A pseudo-optimal solution for P2 can be found very easily:
For a polygon $P$ let $r_{P}:=\left(x_{P}, y_{P}\right)$ where $x_{P}\left(y_{P}\right)$ is the smallest $x$-coordinate ( $y$ coordinate) of any point in $P$ (see Figure 6). Let $P, Q$ be two polygons and $I$ a


Figure 6:
solution to P2, i.e. $\delta:=\delta_{H}(P, I(Q))$ is minimal. Obviously $d\left(r_{P}, r_{I(Q)}\right) \leq \sqrt{2} \delta$. Therefore, if $\widetilde{I}$ is the translation mapping $r_{Q}$ onto $r_{P}$, its difference to the optimal one is a vector of length at most $\sqrt{2} \delta$. Hence,

$$
\delta_{H}(P, \widetilde{I}(Q)) \leq(1+\sqrt{2}) \delta
$$

i.e. $\tilde{I}$ is a pseudo-optimal solution. Since $r_{P}, r_{Q}$ can be determined in time $O(p+q)$, the same holds for $\widetilde{I}$; if we also want the value of $\delta_{H}(P, \widetilde{I}(Q))$ we have to apply the algorithm for P 0 and finally get a runtime of $O((p+q) \log (p+q))$.

Of course, the point $r_{P}$ is not a suitable choice for problem P3 since its position relative to $P$ is not invariant under rotations. Instead, we define for a polygon $P$
$S_{P}$ to be the centroid of the edges of the convex hull $\widetilde{P}$ of $P$. (In the following $\widetilde{P}$ will always denote the boundary of the convex hull of $P$ not its interior.) One way to compute $S_{P}$ (in time $O(p)$ ) is to assign for each edge $e$ of $\widetilde{P}$ the length of $e$ as a weight to the midpoint of $e$ and compute the weighted arithmetic mean of all these midpoints.

An alternative definition of $S_{P}$, which we will use here, is by parametrizations of $\widetilde{P}$, i.e. continuous mappings $\alpha:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}$, where $[a, b]$ is a real interval such that the image of $\alpha$ equals $\widetilde{P}$ (see [E]). In addition to the standard definition we will assume here that $\alpha$ is injective everywhere, except that, since we are considering closed curves, $\alpha(a)=\alpha(b)$. In particular, we will consider natural parametrizations, i.e. parametrizations $\alpha:\left[0, L_{\tilde{P}}\right] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}$, where $L_{\widetilde{P}}$ is the length of $\widetilde{P}$, i.e. the total length of its edges. Furthermore for any $t \in\left[0, L_{\tilde{P}}\right]$ the arc-length from point $\alpha(0)$ on $\widetilde{P}$ to $\alpha(t)$ on $\widetilde{P}$ equals $t$. Now elementary geometric considerations show that

$$
S_{P}=\frac{1}{L_{\widetilde{P}}} \int_{0}^{L_{\tilde{P}}} \alpha(t) d t
$$

if $\alpha$ is a natural parametrization of $\widetilde{P}$.
The following lemma states that $S_{P}$ is indeed a suitable choice for finding a pseudo-optimal solution:

Lemma 3 Let $P, Q$ be polygons and $I$ the isometry minimizing $\delta:=\delta_{H}(P, I(Q))$. Assume furthermore wlog. that $I(Q)$ contains the origin. Then

$$
d\left(S_{P}, S_{I(Q)}\right) \leq(4 \pi+3) \delta .
$$

For proving Lemma 3 we need a few facts about parametrized curves. First we consider an alternative distance measure for curves, the so-called Fréchet-distance (see also [E], [AG]):

Definition 4 Let $C_{1}, C_{2}$ be curves. Then the Fréchet-distance is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta_{F}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right):=\inf _{\alpha}\left(\max \left\{d\left(n_{C_{1}}(t), \alpha(t)\right) \mid t \in\left[0, L_{C_{1}}\right]\right\}\right), \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha$ ranges over all possible injective parametrizations

$$
\alpha:\left[0, L_{C_{1}}\right] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}
$$

of $C_{2}$ and $n_{C_{1}}$ is a natural parametrization of $C_{1}$.
$\delta_{F}$ can be visualized as follows:
Suppose there is a man walking his dog, the man walking on curve $C_{1}$, the dog on $C_{2} . \delta_{F}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$ is the minimal length of a leash that is possible.
It has been proven in [ABGW]:

Lemma 5 For any pair of convex closed curves $C_{1}, C_{2}: \delta_{F}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)=\delta_{H}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$, in fact to any natural parametrization $n_{C_{1}}$ of $C_{1}$ there exists a parametrization $\alpha$ : $\left[0, L_{C_{1}}\right] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}$ of $C_{2}$ with $d\left(n_{C_{1}}(t), \alpha(t)\right) \leq \delta_{H}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$ for all $t \in\left[0, L_{C_{1}}\right]$.

Lemma 6 [Ben, Thm. 14.12] Let $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ be convex closed curves, $L_{C_{1}}, L_{C_{2}}$ their lengths and $\delta=\delta_{H}\left(C_{1}, C_{2}\right)$. Then $\left|L_{C_{1}}-L_{C_{2}}\right| \leq 2 \pi \delta$.

Lemma 7 Let $A, B \subset \mathbf{R}^{2}$ compact, and $\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{B}$ their convex hulls. Then $\delta_{H}(\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{B}) \leq$ $\delta_{H}(A, B)$.

Proof: Let $\delta:=\delta_{H}(A, B) . A \subset U_{\delta}(B)$ implies $\widetilde{A} \subset \widehat{U_{\delta}(B)}$. Since $U_{\delta}(B) \subset U_{\delta}(\widetilde{B})$ and $U_{\delta}(\widetilde{B})$ is convex, it follows $\widehat{U_{\delta}(B)} \subset U_{\delta}(\widetilde{B})$, so $\widetilde{A} \subset U_{\delta}(\widetilde{B})$. Analogously, $\widetilde{B} \subset U_{\delta}(\widetilde{A})$, which proves the lemma.

Now we can give the proof of Lemma 3:
Let $R:=\widetilde{P}, T:=\widetilde{I(Q)}(=I(\widetilde{Q})), \alpha$ a natural parametrization of $R$, and $\widetilde{\beta}$ a parametrization of $T$ such that according to Lemma 5 :

$$
\begin{align*}
d(\alpha(t), \tilde{\beta}(t)) & \leq \delta_{H}(R, T) \text { for all } t \in\left[0, L_{R}\right]  \tag{5}\\
& \leq \delta \text { by Lemma } 7 \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

Let $\beta:\left[0, L_{T}\right] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}$ be the natural parametrization of $T$ with $\beta(0)=\widetilde{\beta}(0)$, and the orientation in which $\beta$ traverses $T$ is the same as the one of $\widetilde{\beta}$. Now,

$$
\begin{aligned}
d\left(S_{P}, S_{I(Q)}\right) & =\left\|\frac{1}{L_{R}} \int_{0}^{L_{R}} \alpha(t) d t-\frac{1}{L_{T}} \int_{0}^{L_{T}} \beta(t) d t\right\| \\
& \leq \frac{1}{L_{R}} \int_{0}^{L_{R}}\|\alpha(t)-\beta(t)\| d t \\
& +\left\|\left(\frac{1}{L_{R}}-\frac{1}{L_{T}}\right) \int_{0}^{L_{R}} \beta(t) d t\right\| \\
& +\frac{1}{L_{T}}\left\|\int_{L_{R}}^{L_{T}} \beta(t) d t\right\|
\end{aligned}
$$

assuming wlog. that $L_{T} \geq L_{R}$. Let us denote the three terms in the last expression by $J_{1}, J_{2}, J_{3}$, respectively.

In order to get an upper bound on $J_{2}$ and $J_{3}$ observe first that $T$ is a closed curve, hence its length $L_{T}$ is at most twice its diameter. Since $T$ also contains the origin it follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|\beta(t)\| \leq L_{T} / 2 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $t \in\left[0, L_{T}\right]$. Hence

$$
\begin{align*}
J_{2} & \leq\left(\frac{1}{L_{R}}-\frac{1}{L_{T}}\right) \int_{0}^{L_{R}}\|\beta(t)\| d t & & \\
& \leq \frac{L_{T}-L_{R}}{L_{T} L_{R}} L_{R} \frac{L_{T}}{2} & & \text { by }(7)  \tag{8}\\
& \leq \pi \delta & & \text { by Lemma } 6
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
J_{3} & \leq \frac{1}{L_{T}} \int_{L_{R}}^{L_{T}}\|\beta(\alpha)\| d t \\
& \leq \frac{1}{L_{T}}\left(L_{T}-L_{R}\right) \frac{L_{T}}{2} \\
& \leq \pi \delta
\end{aligned}
$$

again by (7) and Lemma 6 . In order to get an upper bound for $J_{1}$, we show
Claim: $\|\alpha(t)-\beta(t)\| \leq(2 \pi+3) \delta$ for all $t \in\left[0, L_{R}\right]$
Proof: For a fixed $t \in\left[0, L_{R}\right]$ consider the curve segments from $\alpha(0)$ to $\alpha(t)$ of $R$ and from $\widetilde{\beta}(0)$ to $\widetilde{\beta}(t)$ of $T$ and close them by line segments $\ell_{R}$ and $\ell_{T}$ (see Figure 7). The resulting curves $R^{\prime}, T^{\prime}$ have Hausdorff-distance $\leq \delta$. By definition (see (5)) this


Figure 7:
is correct for the curve segments themselves, for the line segments $\ell_{R}, \ell_{T}$ it holds because their respective endpoints have distance at most $\delta$. By Lemma 6 it follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|L_{R^{\prime}}-L_{T^{\prime}}\right| \leq 2 \pi \delta \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, if $b$ is the arc-length of $T$ from $\widetilde{\beta}(0)$ to $\widetilde{\beta}(t)$, and $l_{R}, l_{T}$ the lengths of $\ell_{R}, \ell_{T}$, respectively, then

$$
\begin{align*}
\left|L_{R^{\prime}}-L_{T^{\prime}}\right| & =\left|t+\ell_{R}-b-\ell_{T}\right|  \tag{10}\\
& \geq|t-b|-\left|\ell_{R}-\ell_{T}\right|
\end{align*}
$$

Since $\left|l_{R}-l_{T}\right| \leq 2 \delta$, we have by (9) and (10):

$$
|t-b| \leq(2 \pi+2) \delta
$$

On the other hand since $b$ is the arc-length of $T$ between $\widetilde{\beta}(0)$ and $\widetilde{\beta}(t)$ and $t$ the arc-length of $T$ between $\beta(0)(=\widetilde{\beta}(0))$ and $\beta(t)$, we get

$$
\text { So } \begin{aligned}
\|\widetilde{\beta}(t)-\beta(t)\| & \leq|t-b| \\
\|\beta(t)-\alpha(t)\| & \leq\|\beta(t)-\widetilde{\beta}(t)\|+\|\widetilde{\beta}(t)-\alpha(t)\| \\
& \leq(2 \pi+2) \delta+\delta
\end{aligned}
$$

and the claim follows.
Clearly, the claim implies that $J_{1} \leq(2 \pi+3) \delta$, hence

$$
d\left(S_{P}, S_{I(Q)}\right) \leq(4 \pi+3) \delta,
$$

which finishes the proof of Lemma 3.

From Lemma 3 we obtain with the same arguments as for problem P2:
Lemma 8 Let $\widetilde{I}$ be an isometry which gives a minimal Hausdorff-distance among the ones mapping $S_{Q}$ onto $S_{P}$. Then

$$
\delta_{H}(P, \widetilde{I}(Q)) \leq(4 \pi+4) \delta ;
$$

where $\delta$ is the optimal solution, i.e. $\tilde{I}$ is a pseudo-optimal solution.
$\tilde{I}$ can be found by translating $Q$ such that $S_{Q}$ is mapped onto $S_{P}$ and then rotating the image of $Q$ around $S_{P}$. The angle $\widetilde{\varphi}$ of rotation which gives the optimal solution $\widetilde{I}$ can be determined by a technique analogous to the one used for solving problem P1.

In fact, let us first assume that $\widetilde{\varphi} \in[0, \pi]$, the case $\widetilde{\varphi} \in[\pi, 2 \pi]$ can be solved analogously. Rather than using the angle $\varphi$ itself as a parameter for the rotation, we use $c:=\cos \varphi \in[-1,1]$ which is bijective on the interval considered. Also, by applying a simple translation, we may assume that the rotation is about the origin and, thus, is described by some rotation matrix

$$
I_{c}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
c & s \\
-s & c
\end{array}\right)
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
c^{2}+s^{2}=1 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Analogously to P 1 , we want to describe the one-sided Hausdorff-distance $\widetilde{\delta_{H}}\left(I_{c}(Q), P\right)$ as a function in $c$. As for P 1 this function is the upper envelope of $O(p q)$ functions
obtained from pairs $e, e^{\prime}$ where $e$ is an edge of $Q$ and $e^{\prime}$ one of $\operatorname{Vor}(P)$ and $O(p q)$ functions obtained from pairs $v, f$ where $v$ is a vertex of $Q$ and $f$ a vertex or edge of $P$.

Let us first consider the intersection points of edges $e, e^{\prime}$. If $e^{\prime}$ is a parabolic segment (see Figure 8) let

$$
\begin{equation*}
q(x, y)=0 \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

be a quadratic equation describing the corresponding parabola. Let $\ell(x, y)=0$ be


Figure 8:
a linear equation describing the straight line through $e$. Then $I_{c}(e)$ is described by $\ell\left(I_{c}^{-1}(x, y)\right)=0$ which is a (inhomogeneous) bilinear form in $x, y, c$ and $s$, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(x, y, c, s)=0 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (11), (12) and (13) with four unknowns we can eliminate $y$ and $s$ and obtain $x$ as (constantly) many branches of an algebraic function in $c$. Then from (12) we obtain $y$ as function in $c$. The function we are finally looking for is the distance $d(c)$ of $(x(c), y(c))$ to the edge of $P$ whose Voronoi cell is bounded by $\epsilon^{\prime}$. It has the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
d(c)=a_{1} x(c)+a_{2} y(c)+a_{3} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

for constansts $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}$ and therefore is also an algebraic function of constant degree (A detailed analysis shows that its degree is at most 32.).

In the case where $e^{\prime}$ is a straight line segment, equation (12) is linear instead of quadratic and equation (14) the square root of a quadratic function instead of linear
function. It can be shown that $d(c)$ is then an algebraic function of degree less than 32.

The functions resulting from the distances between $I_{c}(v)$ and $f, v$ a vertex of $Q$ and $f$ a vertex or edge of $P$ are, as a detailed analysis shows, algebraic functions in $c$ of degree at most 4. Altogether, we have $O(p q)$ algebraic functions of constant degree so they intersect pairwise in constantly many points (using Bezout's theorem, see [Fu]). Since in our case the functions are only defined on finite intervals, like in the analysis for P 1 we have to add the endpoints of these intervals as critical points. So the number of segments the upper envelope consists of is $\lambda_{k}(p q)$ for some constant $k$ and it can be constructed in time

$$
\begin{equation*}
O\left(\lambda_{k}(p q) \log (p q)\right) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

(see [At2]). Likewise, within the same runtime we can construct $\widetilde{\delta_{H}}\left(P, I_{c}(Q)\right)$ as a function in $c$, determine the maximum $f$ of both functions and the minimum of $f$ which is $\delta_{H}(P, \widetilde{I}(Q))$. Since $S_{P}$ and $S_{Q}$ can be found in linear time this bounds also the runtime of the whole algorithm.

A detailed analysis shows that $k=1026$ is sufficient in (15). As was mentioned before $\lambda_{k}(p q)=O\left(p q \log ^{*}(p q)\right)$ for any constant $k$, but the constant in the $O$ term may become quite large. But although the analysis is rather complicated the algorithm of [At2] is simple and it should behave reasonably in practice for our problem.

Also the constant of $4 \pi+4 \approx 17$ in Lemma 8 may seem large, but with the following idea (cf. [S]) it can be reduced to any fixed constant $c>1$ without increasing the asymptotic runtime:
We know by Lemma 3 that the optimal isometry $I$ maps $S_{Q}$ into the $(4 \pi+4) \delta$ neighborhood $U$ of $S_{P}$. We place onto $U$ a sufficiently small grid so that no point in $U$ has distance greater than $(c-1) \delta$ from a gridpoint. Since $c$ is fixed, there are constantly many gridpoints within $U$. We place $S_{Q}$ instead of onto $S_{P}$ only, onto each one of these gridpoints and proceed as described before. It follows from the previous discussion that for the solution $\widetilde{I}$ found this way it holds:

$$
\delta_{H}(P, \widetilde{I}(a)) \leq c \delta
$$

## 5 Conclusion

Let us summarize the results of this paper, using explicit upper bounds for $\lambda_{k}(p q), k$ constant:

Theorem 9 The different versions of the problem of measuring the resemblance between polygons $P, Q$ with $p, q$ vertices respectively, can be solved within the following time bounds:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
P 0: & O((p q) \log (p q)) \\
P 1: & O\left((p q) \log (p q) \log ^{*}(p q)\right) \\
P 2: & O((p q) \log (p q)) \\
P 3: & O\left((p q) \log (p q) \log ^{*}(p q)\right),
\end{array}
$$

where the algorithms for P 0 and P 1 give optimal, the ones for P 2 and P 3 pseudooptimal solutions.

Finally observe that we never really used in our algorithm that $P$ and $Q$ are polygons. In fact, we obtain:

Corollary 10 Theorem 9 not only holds for polygons, but also for more general structures like polygonal chains, in fact, for arbitrary sets of nonintersecting line segments.

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