

# Self-improving Algorithms for Delaunay Triangulations

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## Abstract

We study the problem of two-dimensional Delaunay triangulation in the self-improving algorithms model [1]. We assume that the  $n$  points of the input each come from an independent, unknown, and arbitrary distribution. The first phase of our algorithm builds data structures that store relevant information about the input distribution. The second phase uses these data structures to efficiently compute the Delaunay triangulation of the input. The running time of our algorithm matches the information-theoretic lower bound for the given input distribution, implying that if the input distribution has low entropy, then our algorithm beats the standard  $\Omega(n \log n)$  bound for computing Delaunay triangulations.

Our algorithm and analysis use a variety of techniques:  $\varepsilon$ -nets for disks, entropy-optimal point-location data structures, linear-time splitting of Delaunay triangulations, and information-theoretic arguments.

## 1 Introduction

Data in the real world often has some structure. Suppose the inputs to an algorithm are generated by a probability distribution. Even if the distribution cannot be represented by a closed form expression, it may have some structural properties which can be exploited to speed up the algorithm. A standard algorithm will not be able to exploit this extra structure.

The model of *self-improving algorithms* was defined by Ailon *et al.* [1] to capture these scenarios. Suppose we wish to compute a function  $f$  on a sequence of inputs  $I_1, I_2, \dots$  which are being generated from an unknown and arbitrary time-invariant distribution  $\mathcal{D}$ . A self-improving algorithm for computing  $f$  initially only gives standard worst-case guarantees. As it handles more and more inputs, it learns about the distribution. Eventually, it tunes itself to be more efficient for  $\mathcal{D}$ , and may beat the worst-case running time. Self-improving algorithms have two phases: the initial *learning phase*, where the algorithm learns about  $\mathcal{D}$  and builds data structures storing this information, and the *limiting phase*, where the algorithm uses the information obtained to speed up the running time. The main parameters of a self-improving algorithm are the number of rounds (number of problem instances) in the learning phase, the space used to store information about the distribution, and the running time in the limiting phase.

The basic intuition is that if  $\mathcal{D}$  has low entropy, then the self-improving algorithm should be able to make a significant improvement. Of course, it may take too long to learn  $\mathcal{D}$  as a whole, or even to learn a reasonable approximation of it. The challenge is to learn as little as possible about  $\mathcal{D}$  and still glean enough to improve the running time. If the entropy of the input distribution for a sorting problem is low, for example, then a self-improving algorithm for sorting the resulting input will do better than the standard  $\Omega(n \log n)$  lower bound.

We take the concept of self-improving algorithms to the geometric realm, and the problem of computing Delaunay triangulations. The most relevant result is that of [1], where a self-improving sorter was constructed. We borrow some ideas from there, and use geometric techniques to design a self-improving algorithm for Delaunay triangulations. In this new mode of algorithmic analysis, our algorithm is optimal, as its running time in the limiting phase matches the information-theoretic lower bound for computing the output over inputs from a fixed distribution.

We now formally define the problem. Let

$$I := (x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

denote an input instance, where each  $x_i$  is a point in the plane, generated by a point distribution  $\mathcal{D}_i$ . The distributions  $\mathcal{D}_i$  are arbitrary, and may be continuous, although we never explicitly use such a condition. Each  $x_i$  is independent of the others, and so the input  $I$  is drawn from the product distribution  $\mathcal{D} := \prod_i \mathcal{D}_i$ . In each round, a new input  $I$  is drawn from  $\mathcal{D}$ , and we wish to compute the Delaunay triangulation  $T(I)$  of  $I$ . We use the comparison model, so any operation consists of evaluating a polynomial at some point (more details about this are given in Section 3). Although it is not critical, for the sake of simplicity, we will assume that the points of  $I$  are in general position, which is true with probability one when all the  $\mathcal{D}_i$ 's are continuous.

The distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  also induces a (discrete) distribution on the set of Delaunay triangulations, viewed as labeled graphs on the vertex set  $[1, n]$ . Consider the entropy of this distribution: for each graph  $G$  on  $[1, n]$ , let  $p_G$  be the probability that it represents the Delaunay triangulation of  $I \in_R \mathcal{D}$ . Let the output entropy  $H(T(I)) := -\sum_G p_G \log p_G$ . By information-theoretic arguments, this quantity is a lower bound on the expected time required by any comparison-based algorithm to compute the Delaunay triangulation of  $I \in_R \mathcal{D}$ . An *optimal* algorithm will be one that has an expected running time of  $O(H(T(I)) + n)$ .

Our main result is the following.

**Theorem 1.1** *For inputs  $I_1, I_2, \dots$  drawn from the product distribution  $\mathcal{D} = \prod_i \mathcal{D}_i$ , and for any constant  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a self-improving algorithm for finding the Delaunay triangulations of the  $I_j$  that has a learning phase of  $O(n^\varepsilon)$  rounds and uses  $O(n^{1+\varepsilon})$  space<sup>1</sup>. The limiting-phase running time is  $O(\varepsilon^{-1}(H(T(I)) + n))$ , and therefore optimal.*

Why is the independence of the  $\mathcal{D}_i$ 's important? A lower bound from [1] shows that any optimal self-improving sorter that handles *all* possible distributions requires exponential space. From the reduction of sorting to Delaunay triangulations, the following is an immediate corollary of Lemma 2.1 in [1].

**Corollary 1.2** *There is an input distribution  $\mathcal{D}$  such that any self-improving algorithm computing the Delaunay triangulation of inputs from  $\mathcal{D}$  in  $O(H(D) + n)$  limiting running time requires  $\Omega(2^n)$  space.*

Furthermore, by Lemma 2.5 of [1], the time-space tradeoff we provide is essentially optimal.

## 2 The algorithm

We describe the algorithm in two parts. The first part explains the learning phase and the data structures that are constructed. The second part explains how these data structures are used to speed up the computation in the limiting phase. The expected running time will be expressed in terms of certain parameters of the data structures obtained in the learning phase. In the next section, we will prove that these parameters are comparable to the output entropy  $H(\mathcal{D})$ . We will assume in this section that the distributions  $\mathcal{D}_i$  are known to us. Furthermore, the data structures described here will use  $O(n^2)$  space. Section 4 shows how to remove this assumption and give the space-time tradeoff bounds of Theorem 1.1.

### 2.1 Learning Phase

For each round in the learning phase, we use a standard algorithm to compute the output Delaunay triangulation. We also perform some extra computation to build some data structures that will allow speedup in the limiting phase. These data structures are easily described.

The learning phase is as follows. Take the first  $k := c \log n$  input lists  $I_1, I_2, \dots, I_k$ , where  $c$  is a sufficiently large constant. Merge them into one list  $S$  of  $kn = cn \log n$  points. Setting  $\varepsilon := 1/n$ , find an  $\varepsilon$ -net  $V$  for the set of all open disks. In other words, find a set  $V \subseteq S$  such that for any open disk  $C$  that contains more than  $\varepsilon kn = c \log n$  points of  $S$ ,  $C$  contains at least one point of  $V$ . Matousek, *et al.* show that [7] there exist  $\varepsilon$ -nets of size  $O(1/\varepsilon)$  for disks, where here  $O(1/\varepsilon) = O(n)$ . Furthermore, a construction

<sup>1</sup>The total time required for the learning phase is also  $O(n^{1+\varepsilon})$ .

and analysis similar to that of Clarkson and Varadarajan [6] yields a randomized construction that takes  $n(\log n)^{O(1)}$  expected time.

We construct the Delaunay triangulation of  $V$ , which we denote by  $T(V)$ . We build an optimal planar point location structure (called  $\Gamma$ ) for  $T(V)$ : given a point, we can find the triangle of  $T(V)$  that it lies in  $O(\log n)$  time. Define the random variable  $t_i$  to be the triangle of  $T(V)$  that  $x_i$  falls into. Now let the entropy of  $t_i$  be  $H_i^V$ . If the probability that  $x_i$  falls in triangle  $t$  of  $T(V)$  is  $p_i^t$ , then  $H_i^V = -\sum_t p_i^t \log p_i^t$ . For each  $i$ , we construct a search structure  $\Gamma_i$  of size  $O(n)$  that finds  $t_i$  in expected  $O(H_i^V)$  time. These  $\Gamma_i$ 's can be constructed using the results of Arya *et al.* [3], for which the number of primitive comparisons is  $H_i^V + o(H_i^V)$ .

We will show that the triangles of  $T(V)$  do not contain many points of a new input  $I \in_R \mathcal{D}$  on the average. Consider a triangle  $t$  of  $T(V)$  and let  $C_t$  be its circumscribed Delaunay disk. Let  $X_t := |I \cap C_t|$ , the random variable that is the number of points of  $I \in_R \mathcal{D}$  that fall inside  $C_t$ . Note that the randomness comes from the random distribution of  $S$ , and so  $V$  and  $T(V)$ , as well as the randomness of  $I$ . We are interested in the expectation  $\mathbf{E}_I[X_t]$  over  $I$  of  $X_t$ .

**Claim 2.1** *With probability at least  $1 - 1/n^3$  over the construction of  $T(V)$ , for every triangle  $t$  of  $T(V)$ ,  $\mathbf{E}_I[X_t] = O(1)$ .*

**Proof:** Let the list of points  $S$  be  $s_1, \dots, s_{kn}$ , the concatenation of  $I_1$  through  $I_k$ . Consider the triangle  $t$  with vertices  $s_1, s_2, s_3$ . Note that all the remaining  $kn - 3$  points are chosen independently of these three, from some distribution  $\mathcal{D}_\ell$ . For each  $j \in [4, kn]$ , let  $Y_j^{(t)}$  be the indicator variable for the event that  $s_j$  is inside  $C_t$ . Let  $Y^{(t)} = \sum_j Y_j^{(t)}$ . By the Chernoff bound, for any  $\beta \in (0, 1]$ ,

$$\Pr[Y^{(t)} \leq (1 - \beta)\mathbf{E}[Y^{(t)}]] \leq e^{-\beta^2 \mathbf{E}[Y^{(t)}]/2}$$

Setting  $\beta = 1/2$ , if  $\mathbf{E}[Y^{(t)}] > 48 \log n$ , then  $Y^{(t)} > 24 \log n$  with probability at least  $1 - n^{-6}$ . We can now consider any triangle generated by some triple of points  $s_i, s_j, s_m$ , for  $i, j, m \in [4, kn]$ , and apply the same argument as above. Taking a union bound over all triples of the points in  $S$ , we obtain that with probability at least  $1 - n^{-3}$ , for any triangle  $t$  generated by the points of  $S$ , if  $\mathbf{E}[Y^{(t)}] > 48 \log n$ , then  $Y^{(t)} > 24 \log n$ . We henceforth assume that this event happens.

Consider a triangle  $t$  of  $T(V)$  and its circumscribed disk  $C_t$ . Since  $T(V)$  is Delaunay,  $C_t$  contains no point of  $V$  in its interior. Since  $V$  is a  $(1/n)$ -net for all disks with respect to  $S$ ,  $C_t$  contains at most  $c \log n$  points of  $S$ , that is,  $Y^{(t)} \leq c \log n$ . This implies that  $\mathbf{E}[Y^{(t)}] = O(\log n)$ , as in the previous paragraph. Since  $\mathbf{E}[Y^{(t)}] > (\log n - 3)\mathbf{E}_I[X_t]$ , we obtain  $\mathbf{E}_I[X_t] = O(1)$ , as claimed.  $\square$

## 2.2 Limiting Phase

Suppose that we are done with the learning phase, and have  $T(V)$  with the property given in Claim 2.1: for every triangle  $t \in T(V)$ ,  $\mathbf{E}_I[X_t] = O(1)$ . We have reached the limiting phase where the algorithm is expected to compute the Delaunay triangulation with the optimal running time. We will prove the following lemma in this section.

**Lemma 2.2** *Using the data structures from the learning phase, and the properties of them that hold with probability  $1 - O(1/n)$ , in the limiting phase the Delaunay triangulation of input  $I$  can be generated in expected  $O(n + \sum_{i=1}^n H_i^V)$  time.*

The algorithm, and the proof of this lemma, has two steps. In the first step,  $T(V)$  is used to quickly compute  $T(V \cup I)$ , with the time bounds of the lemma. In the second step,  $T(I)$  is computed from  $T(V \cup I)$ , using a randomized splitting algorithm proposed by Chazelle *et al* [5], whose Theorem 3 is as follows.

**Theorem 2.3** *Given a set of  $n$  points  $P$  and its Delaunay triangulation, for any partition of  $P$  into two disjoint subsets  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , the Delaunay triangulations  $T(P_1)$  and  $T(P_2)$  can be computed in  $O(n)$  expected time, using a randomized algorithm.*

The remainder of the proof of the lemma, and of this subsection, is devoted to showing that  $T(V \cup I)$  can be computed in the time bound of the lemma. The algorithm is as follows. For each  $x_i$ , we use  $\Gamma_i$  to find the triangle  $t_i$  of  $T(V)$  that contains it. By the arguments given in the previous section, this takes time  $O(\sum_{i=1}^n H_i^V)$ . We now need to argue that given the  $t_i$ 's, the Delaunay triangulation  $T(V \cup I)$  can be computed in expected linear time. For each  $x_i$ , we walk through  $T(V)$  and find all the Delaunay disks of  $T(V)$  that contain  $x_i$ , as in incremental constructions of Delaunay triangulations. This is done by breadth-first search of the dual graph of  $T(V)$ , starting from  $t_i$ . Let  $S_i$  denote the set of circumcircles containing  $x_i$ . The following claim implies that this procedure will work.

**Claim 2.4** *The set of  $t \in T(V)$  with  $C_t \in S_i$  is a connected set in the dual graph of  $T(V)$ .*

**Proof:** Omitted.

**Claim 2.5** *Given all  $t_i$ 's, all  $S_i$  sets can be found in expected  $O(n)$  time.*

**Proof:** To find all circles containing  $x_i$ , do a breadth-first search from  $t_i$ . For any triangle  $t$  encountered, check if  $C_t$  contains  $x_i$ . If it does not, then we do not look at the neighbors of  $t$ . By Claim 2.4, we will visit all  $C_t$ 's that contain  $x_i$ . The time taken to find  $S_i$  is  $O(|S_i|)$ . The total time taken to find all  $S_t$ 's (once all the  $t_i$ 's are found) is  $O(\sum_{i=1}^n |S_i|)$ . Define the indicator function  $\chi(t, x_i)$  that takes value 1 if  $x_i \in t$  and zero otherwise. We have

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |S_i| = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{t \in T(V)} \chi(t, x_i) = \sum_{t \in T(V)} \sum_{i=1}^n \chi(t, x_i) = \sum_t X_t.$$

Therefore, by Claim 2.1,

$$\mathbf{E}[\sum_{i=1}^n |S_i|] = \mathbf{E}[\sum_t X_t] = \sum_t \mathbf{E}[X_t] = O(n).$$

This implies that all  $S_i$ 's can be found in expected linear time. □

Our aim is to build the Delaunay triangulation of  $V \cup I$  in linear time using the  $S_i$  sets. This is done by a standard incremental construction where the  $x_i$ 's are added in order  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ . We will show how we can get the set of edges that each  $x_i$  will “kill” using the  $S_i$  sets. We will assume that given any triangle  $t$ , we can get all the  $S_i$  sets that  $t$  belongs to.

Let  $V_i := V \cup \{x_1, \dots, x_i\}$ . When we add  $x_1$ , the edges of  $T(V)$  that will be affected are the edges of triangles in  $S_1$ . Therefore,  $T(V_1)$  can be obtained in  $O(|S_1|)$  time. Now suppose we have  $T(V_{i-1})$  and we add  $x_i$ . Again, we can show that if some edge from  $T(V)$  is affected, it must be an edge of  $S_i$ .

**Claim 2.6** *When  $x_i$  is added to  $T(V_{i-1})$ , suppose that edge  $e$  is removed. If the endpoints of  $e$  are both in  $V$ , then  $e$  is an edge of some triangle in  $S_i$ .*

This is proved in the appendix.

The claim above shows that only  $O(|S_i|)$  time is required to find edges from  $T(V)$  that are removed. But now, we have the additional problem of finding affected edges which may not have an endpoint in  $V$ , and therefore are not present in  $T(V)$ .

**Claim 2.7** *Suppose  $e$  has an endpoint in  $I$ . There is an edge  $f \in T(V)$  such that, for the two triangles  $t, t'$  incident on  $f$ , the point  $x_i$  and the endpoints of  $e$  lie in either  $C_t$  or  $C_{t'}$ .*

The proof is given in the appendix.

This now gives us a method of finding edges of  $T(V_{i-1})$  affected by the addition of  $x_i$ . Take a triangle  $t \in S_i$  and choose an edge  $e$  of  $t$  (for ease of notation, we will say  $e \in t$ ). Let the neighbor of  $t$  incident to  $e$  be  $t'$ . Look at the points in  $\{x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}\}$  that are in  $C_t$  and  $C_{t'}$ , and take the edges of  $T(V_{i-1})$  between them. These are the edges that need to be checked.

**Claim 2.8** *Given all  $S_i$  sets and  $T(V)$ ,  $T(V_n)$  can be generated in expected linear time.*

**Proof:** The total time taken to handle all edges of  $T(V)$  that get killed is  $\mathbf{E}[\sum_{i=1}^n |S_i|] = O(n)$ . Consider some  $t \in T(V)$  and edge  $e$  of  $t$ . Let  $t^e \in T(V)$  be incident to  $e$ . The random variable  $Z_{t,e}$  is set to be  $X_t X_{t^e}$ . By Claim 2.7, the total time to find all (other) affected edges is bounded above by

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{t \in S_i} \sum_{e \in t} Z_{t,e}.$$

For a triangle  $t$ , we define the indicator random variable  $\chi(t, i)$ , as before, for the event that  $x_i$  falls in  $C_t$ . Thus,  $X_t = \sum_{i=1}^n \chi(t, i)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{t \in S_i} \sum_{e \in t} Z_{t,e} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_t \chi(t, i) \sum_{e \in t} X_t X_{t^e} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_t \sum_{e \in t} \chi(t, i) X_t X_{t^e}, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i) X_t X_{t^e}] &= \mathbf{E}\left[\chi(t, i) \sum_{j=1}^n \chi(t, j) \sum_{k=1}^n \chi(t^e, k)\right] \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i) \chi(t, j) \chi(t^e, j)] \\ &\quad + \sum_{j \neq k} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i) \chi(t, j) \chi(t^e, k)] \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\chi(t, i)$  is an indicator,  $\chi(t, j)\chi(t^e, j) \leq \chi(t, j)$ . For  $j \neq k$ ,  $\chi(t, j)$  and  $\chi(t^e, k)$  are independent. For the second summation in the equation above, we can separate out the case  $i = j$  and  $i = k$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)X_t X_{t^e}] \\
&= \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)\chi(t, j)\chi(t^e, j)] + \sum_{k \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)^2\chi(t^e, k)] \\
&\quad + \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)\chi(t^e, i)\chi(t, j)] \\
&\quad + \sum_{i \neq j \neq k} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)\chi(t, j)\chi(t^e, k)] \\
&\leq \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)\chi(t, j)] + \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] \sum_{k \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t^e, k)] \\
&\quad + \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)\chi(t, j)] \\
&\quad + \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] \sum_{i \neq j \neq k} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, j)]\mathbf{E}[\chi(t^e, k)] \\
&= \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] + \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, j)] \\
&\quad + \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] \sum_{k \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t^e, k)] \\
&\quad + \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, j)] \\
&\quad + \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] \sum_{i \neq j \neq k} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, j)]\mathbf{E}[\chi(t^e, k)] \\
&\leq \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] + 2\mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, j)] \\
&\quad + \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbf{E}[\chi(t^e, k)] \\
&\quad + \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] \left( \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, j)] \right) \left( \sum_{k=1}^n \mathbf{E}[\chi(t^e, k)] \right) \\
&= \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] (1 + 2\mathbf{E}[X_t] + \mathbf{E}[X_{t^e}] + \mathbf{E}[X_t]\mathbf{E}[X_{t^e}])
\end{aligned}$$

By Claim 2.1, we get that  $\mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)X_t X_{t^e}] \leq \alpha \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)]$ , for some fixed constant  $\alpha$ . The expected running time is bounded by

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{t \in S_i} \sum_{e \in t} Z_{t,e}\right] &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_t \sum_{e \in t} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)X_t X_{t^e}] \\
&\leq \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_t \sum_{e \in t} \mathbf{E}[\chi(t, i)] \\
&= 3\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}\left[\sum_t \chi(t, i)\right] \\
&= 3\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}[|S_i|] = O(n)
\end{aligned}$$

□

With this claim, it follows that  $T(V_n)$  can be computed in expected  $O(n + \sum_{i=1}^n H_i^V)$  time, and hence, as discussed at the beginning of this subsection, Lemma 2.2 follows.

### 3 Limiting Phase Optimality

In this section, we prove that the running time bound in Lemma 2.2 is indeed optimal. Before we get into the analysis of the various entropies that represent the running time, it is important to clarify the model of computation. We are using comparison based algorithms, where a single step (or “comparison”) involves evaluating a point  $(z_1, z_2, \dots, z_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d$  (for constant  $d$ ) at some polynomial  $f(z_1, z_2, \dots, z_d) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and checking if the result is positive or negative. Based on this result, the algorithm chooses the next comparison to make. An algorithm can be completely represented by a decision tree, with each node representing some comparison. In this model, we get an information-theoretic lower bound of  $H(T(I))$  for computing the Delaunay triangulation of input  $I \in_R \mathcal{D}$ .

Recall that by Lemma 2.2, the running time of the our algorithm is expected  $O(n + \sum_i H_i^V)$ . The aim of this section is to prove the optimality of the algorithm by the following theorem.

**Theorem 3.1** *For  $H_i^V$  the entropy of the triangle  $t_i$  of  $T(V)$  containing  $x_i$ , and  $H(T(I))$  the entropy of the Delaunay triangulation of  $I$ , considered as labeled graph,*

$$\sum_i H_i^V = O(H(T(I)) + n).$$

This theorem will be proven through a chain of lemmas, which will eventually connect  $\sum_{i=1}^n H_i^V$  to  $H(T(I))$ . Note that  $V$  is a fixed set and there is no randomness in  $T(V)$ . As a result, for the sake of information theory bounds, we can assume that  $T(V)$  is known in advance: indeed, any computation whatsoever can be done in advance on the points in  $V$  and is not charged as a comparison.

The chain of lemmas begins with  $H(T(V_n))$ , which is bounded above by  $O(H(T(I)) + n)$  in the next lemma. The entropy  $H(T(V_n))$  is used to bound  $\sum_i \mathbf{E}[H_i]$  in the following lemma, where  $H_i$  is the entropy of  $w_i$ , the triangle of  $T(V_{i-1})$  that contains  $x_i$ . After some preliminary lemmas, the final lemma in the chain uses  $\sum_i \mathbf{E}[H_i]$  to bound  $\sum_i H_i^V$ , as needed for the theorem.

By analogy to  $H(T(I))$ , let  $H(T(V_n))$  be the entropy of  $T(V_n)$  as a labeled graph, under the distribution induced by that of  $I$ . (Recall that  $V_n := V \cup I$ .) The entropy  $H(T(V_n))$  is a lower bound for the expected running time of any comparison-based algorithm that computes  $T(V_n)$ .

The first lemma in the chain is the following.

**Lemma 3.2**

$$H(T(V_n)) = O(H(T(I)) + n).$$

**Proof:** Using Chazelle’s linear-time algorithm to compute the intersection of two three-dimensional convex polyhedra [4], we can compute  $T(V_n)$  in  $O(n)$  time, given  $T(V)$  and  $T(I)$ . Suppose we represent every graph induced by a Delaunay triangulation on  $n$  points by some string, denoted by  $s(T)$ . By information theory, there exists some string encoding such that  $\mathbf{E}[|s(T(I))|] = O(H(T(I)))$ . Suppose, for input  $I$ , we are given the string  $s(T(I))$ , so we can uniquely identify  $T(I)$ . Now, we use the linear-time algorithm to compute  $T(V_n)$ . Obviously, this algorithm only performs  $O(n)$  comparisons. Therefore, the output  $T(V \cup I)$  can be uniquely identified by  $s(T(I))$  and  $cn$  more bits, for some constant  $c$ . By definition,  $\mathbf{E}[|s(T(I))| + cn] \geq H(T(V_n))$ . This completes the proof.  $\square$

Let us consider an incremental construction of  $T(V_n)$ . At the  $i$ th step,  $x_i$  is added to  $T(V_{i-1})$ . We can consider a random process associated with this step. The points  $x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}$  are already fixed, thereby fixing  $T(V_{i-1})$ . We can consider the entropy of the random variable  $w_i$  that is the triangle of  $T(V_{i-1})$  in which  $x_i$  falls. More precisely, we define

$$H_i^{T(V_{i-1})} := H(w_i) = - \sum_{t \in T(V_{i-1})} p(i, t) \log p(i, t)$$

$p(i, t)$  is the probability that  $x_i$  lies in  $t$ . Note that this entropy itself is a random variable, since  $T(V_{i-1})$  depends on  $x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}$  which are randomly chosen. But  $w_i$  is independent of this randomness (since the

distributions  $\mathcal{D}_i$  are all independent). Therefore, we can take the expectation over the random choices  $\{x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}\}$ ,  $\mathbf{E}_{x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}}[H_i^{T(V_{i-1})}]$ . Again, let us explain what this means. Given any set of points  $x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}$ , we can define the entropy  $H_i^{T(V_{i-1})}$ . Now, because the randomness of  $w_i$  only depends on the randomness of  $x_i$ ,  $w_i$  is independent of  $x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}$ . Obviously,  $H_i^{T(V_{i-1})}$  is a function of  $x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}$ . We take the expectation over the random choices of  $x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}$  to get  $\mathbf{E}[H_i^{T(V_{i-1})}]$ . For clarity, we drop the subscripts and denote this by  $\mathbf{E}[H_i]$ .

In the next lemma, we relate the entropy of this incremental procedure of constructing  $T(V_n)$  to the actual entropy of the  $T(V_n)$ .

**Lemma 3.3**

$$\sum_i \mathbf{E}[H_i] = O(H(T(V_n)) + n)$$

To prove the lemma, we need a claim and a lemma. The claim follows from the proof of Claim 2.8, and the lemma is proven in the appendix.

**Claim 3.4** For all  $j \leq i$ , the expected degree of  $x_j$  in  $T(V_i)$  is  $O(\mathbf{E}[|S_j|])$ .

**Lemma 3.5**

$$H(w_1, \dots, w_n) \geq \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}[H_i]$$

Here  $H(w_1, \dots, w_n)$  is the joint entropy of all  $w_1, \dots, w_n$ , and a lower bound on the expected length of any string representation of  $w_1, \dots, w_n$ .

**Proof:** (of Lemma 3.3) Before giving the details of the proof, let us first sketch out the main idea. Suppose all the random choices  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  have been made. We would like to argue that if we know  $T(V_n)$ , then in linear time we can determine the  $w_i$ 's for all  $i$ . This will be done by a procedure that goes backwards: it first removes  $x_n$ , and then computes the Delaunay triangulation  $T(V_{n-1})$ . This can be done in time linear in the degree of  $x_n$  [2]. The triangle  $w_n$  can be determined in time linear in the degree of  $x_n$ . Now, we remove  $x_{n-1}$  and so on, thereby finding all  $w_i$ 's. It seems that by a standard backwards analysis argument, we should remove the  $x_i$ 's in random order. By a planarity argument, we should get that the expected degree (over the random order) is constant at every step. But because we remove only the points in  $I$ , which is a strict subset of  $V_n$ , this argument will not hold.

However, using the properties of  $V$  and the randomness of  $I$ , we can still argue that these degrees will be expected constant. From Claim 3.4, it is easy to see that we can get the  $w_i$ 's in  $O(\sum_i \mathbf{E}[|S_i|])$  time. Let us now apply an argument similar to that in Lemma 3.2. Let there be a string representation  $s(T(V_n))$  for each possible  $T(V_n)$ . By definition of entropy, we can assume that  $\mathbf{E}[|s(T(V_n))|] = O(H(T(V_n)))$ . Using the procedure described above, we can uniquely identify  $w_1, \dots, w_n$  by a string of expected length  $\mathbf{E}[|s(T(V_n))|] + O(\mathbf{E}[\sum_i |S_i|]) = O(H(T(V_n)) + n)$ .

The proof now follows by Lemma 3.5, since  $H(w_1, \dots, w_n)$  is no more than  $\mathbf{E}_I[|s(T(V_n))|]$ . □

We now come to the final lemma in our chain of entropy inequalities.

**Lemma 3.6**

$$\sum_i H_i^V = O(\sum_i \mathbf{E}[H_i] + n)$$

**Proof:** Consider  $x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}$  to be chosen, fixing the triangulation  $T(V_{i-1})$ . The entropy  $H_i$  is now well defined. As before,  $w_i \in T(V_{i-1})$  and  $t_i \in T(V)$  are the triangles that  $x_i$  falls into. We will describe a procedure that given  $w_i$  finds  $t_i$  using  $O(|S_i|)$  comparisons. First, we look at the Delaunay triangulations as 3-dimensional polytopes. By projecting onto the paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$ , each point of the Delaunay triangulation is represented by a halfspace in 3-dimensions. Every vertex of the polytope corresponds to a Delaunay triangle (or disk). Abusing notation,  $T(V)$  and  $T(V_{i-1})$  are going to be the respective polytopes. We start by tetrahedralizing  $T(V)$ . Since  $T(V_{i-1})$  is completely contained in  $T(V)$ , for every vertex of  $T(V_{i-1})$ , we can determine a tetrahedron of  $T(V)$  that contains it (maybe on the boundary). Note that all of this can be done *before* we look at point  $x_k$ . Given  $w_i$ , we can determine the tetrahedron



that it lies in without any comparisons. Since the triangle  $w_i$  will certainly be destroyed on the addition of  $x_i$ , the vertex corresponding to  $w_i$  (in the polytope) will be removed by the addition of the plane  $x_i$ . Obviously, there is some vertex of the tetrahedron would also be removed by the addition of  $x_i$  to  $T(V)$ . In a constant number of queries, this vertex can be determined. Now, let us go back to the Delaunay triangulations. This vertex corresponds to some Delaunay disk of  $T(V)$  killed by  $x_i$ . By doing a walk through  $T(V)$ , we can find  $t_i$  in  $O(|S_i|)$  time. This implies that

$$H_i^V \leq H_i + O(|S_i| + 1).$$

Taking expectations over  $I$  and summing,

$$\sum_i H_i^V \leq \sum_i \mathbf{E}[H_i] + O(\mathbf{E}[\sum_i |S_i|] + n) \leq \sum_i \mathbf{E}[H_i] + O(n).$$

□

As discussed above, Theorem 3.1 now follows by combining Lemmas 3.2, 3.3, and 3.6.

## 4 The time-space tradeoff

We show how to remove the assumption that we have prior knowledge of the  $\mathcal{D}_i$ 's (to build the search trees  $\Gamma_i$ ) and prove the time-space tradeoff given in Theorem 1.1. These techniques are identical to those used in [1] for their self-improving sorter. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be any constant. The first  $O(\log n)$  rounds of the learning phase are used as before to construct the Delaunay triangulation  $T(V)$ . To construct the tree  $\Gamma_i$ , we would need to know the exact probability with which  $x_i$  falls in every triangle of  $T(V)$ . Since these probabilities cannot be determined in a sublinear number of learning rounds, we build some suitable approximations for these search structures. We first build a standard search structure  $\Gamma$  over the triangles of  $T(V)$ . Given a point  $x$ , we can find the triangle of  $T(V)$  that contains  $x$  in  $O(\log n)$  time.

The learning phase goes on for  $O(n^\varepsilon \log n)$  rounds. The main trick is to observe that (up to constant factors), the only probabilities that are relevant are those that are  $> n^{-\varepsilon}$ . In each round, for each  $x_i$ , we record the triangle of  $T(V)$  that  $x_i$  falls into. At the end of  $O(n^\varepsilon \log n)$  rounds, we take the set  $R_i$  of triangles such that for  $t \in R_i$ ,  $x_i$  was in  $t$  for at least  $\Omega(\log n)$  rounds. We remind the reader that  $p_i^t$  is the probability that  $x_i$  lies in triangle  $t$ . For every triangle in  $R_i$ , we have an estimate of the probability  $\hat{p}_i^t$  (obtained by simply taking the total number of times that  $x_i$  lay in  $t$ , divided by the total number of rounds). By a standard Chernoff bound argument, for all  $t \in R_i$ ,  $\hat{p}_i^t = \Theta(p_i^t)$ . Furthermore, for any triangle  $t$ , if  $p_i^t = \Omega(n^{-\varepsilon})$ , then  $t \in R_i$ .

For each  $x_i$ , we build the approximate search structure  $\Gamma_i$ . Consider the following probability distribution  $\bar{p}_i$  over the triangles of  $T(V)$ : if  $t \in R_i$ , set  $\bar{p}_i^t := \hat{p}_i^t / N_i$ , where  $N_i := \sum_{t \in R_i} \hat{p}_i^t$ , and otherwise  $\bar{p}_i^t := 0$ . Using the construction of [3], we can build the optimal planar point location structure  $\Gamma_i$  according to the distribution  $\bar{p}_i$ . The limiting phase uses these structures to find  $t_i$  for every  $x_i$ : given  $x_i$ , we use  $\Gamma_i$  to search for it. If the search does not terminate in  $\log n$  steps or  $\Gamma_i$  fails to find  $t_i$  (since  $t_i \notin R_i$ ), then we use the standard search structure,  $\Gamma$ , to find  $t_i$ . Therefore, we are guaranteed to find  $t_i$  in  $O(\log n)$  time. Without loss of generality, we can assume that each  $\Gamma_i$  deals with only  $n^\varepsilon$  triangles (and therefore, a planar subdivision of size  $n^\varepsilon$ ). By the bounds given in [3], each  $\Gamma_i$  can be constructed with size  $n^\varepsilon$  in  $n^\varepsilon \log n$  time. The total space is bounded by  $n^{1+\varepsilon}$  and the time required to build them is at most  $n^{1+\varepsilon} \log n$ .

Let  $s_i^t$  denote the time to search for  $x_i$  given that  $x_i \in t$ . By the properties of  $\Gamma_i$ , and noting that

$N_i \leq 1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{t \in R_i} \bar{p}_i^t s_i^t &= \sum_{t \in R_i} \bar{p}_i^t \log(1/\bar{p}_i^t) \\
&= N_i^{-1} \sum_{t \in R_i} \hat{p}_i^t \log(N_i/\hat{p}_i^t) \\
&= N_i^{-1} \left[ \sum_{t \in R_i} \hat{p}_i^t \log N_i - \sum_{t \in R_i} \hat{p}_i^t \log \hat{p}_i^t \right] \\
&\leq -N_i^{-1} \sum_{t \in R_i} \hat{p}_i^t \log \hat{p}_i^t \\
&= O(N_i^{-1} (-\sum_{t \in R_i} p_i^t \log p_i^t + 1))
\end{aligned}$$

We now bound the expected search time for  $x_i$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_t p_i^t s_i^t &= \sum_{t \in R_i} p_i^t s_i^t + \sum_{t \notin R_i} p_i^t s_i^t \\
&= O\left(\sum_{t \in R_i} \hat{p}_i^t s_i^t + \sum_{t \notin R_i} p_i^t \log n\right) \\
&= O\left(N_i \sum_{t \in R_i} \bar{p}_i^t s_i^t + \sum_{t \notin R_i} p_i^t \log n\right)
\end{aligned}$$

Noting that for  $t \notin R_i$ ,  $p_i^t = O(n^{-\varepsilon})$  and therefore  $\log p_i^t \leq -\varepsilon \log n + O(1)$ , and so

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_t p_i^t s_i^t &= O\left(-\sum_{t \in R_i} p_i^t \log p_i^t + 1\right) + \sum_{t \notin R_i} p_i^t \varepsilon^{-1} (-\log p_i^t + 1) \\
&= O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} \left(-\sum_t p_i^t \log p_i^t + 1\right)\right) \\
&= O\left(\varepsilon^{-1} (H_i^V + 1)\right)
\end{aligned}$$

The total expected search time is  $O(\varepsilon^{-1}(\sum_i H_i^V + n))$ . By the analysis of Section 2 and Theorem 3.1, we have that the expected running time in the limiting phase is  $O(\varepsilon^{-1}(H(\mathcal{D}) + n))$ . This completes the proof of Theorem 1.1.

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## A Proofs for Section 2.2

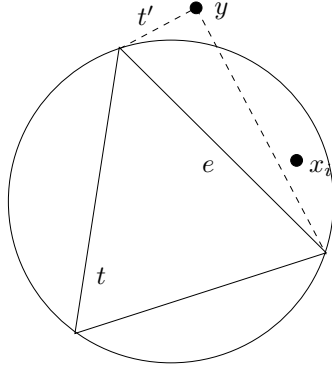


Figure 1:

**Proof:** (Claim 2.6) The edge  $e$  must be an edge in  $T(V)$ . Also,  $e$  is an edge of triangle  $t$  in  $T(V_{i-1})$ . Refer to Figure 1. The point  $x_i$  is in the sector bounded by  $C_t$  and  $e$ . Since  $e \in T(V)$ , there must be a point  $y \in V$  such that  $e$  and  $y$  form a triangle  $t'$  of  $T(V)$  and  $x_i$  and  $y$  are on the same side of  $e$ . The point  $y$  cannot be inside  $C_t$ , since  $t$  is a Delaunay triangle of  $T(V_{i-1})$ . Therefore, the angle subtended by  $y$  at  $e$  is smaller than that of  $x_i$ . The circle  $C_{t'}$  must contain  $x_i$  and  $t' \in S_i$ .  $\square$

**Proof:** (Claim 2.7) Suppose some edge  $e$  in triangle  $t \in T(V_{i-1})$  is killed by  $x_i$ . We will denote the vertices of  $t$  by  $u_1, u_2$ , and  $u_3$ , and for ease of notation, we will denote  $x_i$  by  $u_4$ . The point  $x_i$  is inside  $C_t$ . Consider the set of edges of  $T(V)$  that intersect  $C_t$ . We can impose a natural linear ordering on these edges. If none of these edges separate the set points  $U = \{u_1, \dots, u_4\}$ , then they all lie in a triangle  $t$  of  $T(V)$ .

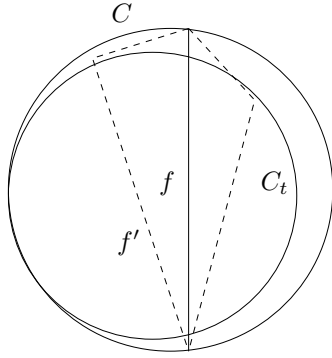


Figure 2:

Consider the first edge  $f$  that separates  $U$  into  $U_\ell$  and  $U_r$ . Refer to Figure 2. Assume that the next edge after  $f$  to the right (in the ordering) that intersects  $C_t$  does not separate  $U$ . Let the two triangles of  $T(V)$  that share  $f$  as an edge be  $t_\ell, t_r$  (the left and right triangles). The triangle  $t_r$  contains  $U_r$ . Let  $C$  be the circle tangential to  $C$  at the left of  $f$  and having  $f$  as a chord. (Note that if  $f$  is actually an edge of  $t$ , then  $C_t$  and  $C$  are just the same, and we will end up with Claim 2.6.) If the vertex of  $t_\ell$  not on  $f$  lies outside  $C$ , then  $C_{t_\ell}$  will contain all of  $C_t$  which lies to the left of  $f$ . This implies that  $C_{t_\ell}$  contains  $U_\ell$ . The situation is as follows: triangles  $t_\ell$  and  $t_r$  in  $T(V)$  share edge  $f$ . Edge  $f$  divides  $U$  into  $U_\ell$  and  $U_r$  and they are contained in  $C_{t_\ell}$  and  $C_{t_r}$ , respectively, proving the claim (for this case).

Suppose the third vertex of  $t_\ell$  is inside  $C$ . The triangle  $t_\ell$  is shown by the dashed triangle in Figure 2 to the left of  $f$ . Let the angle to  $f$  be  $\theta_\ell$ . Let the angle subtended by any point in the right part of  $C_t$  be  $\theta_r$ . Note that  $\theta_\ell + \theta_r > \pi$ . Therefore, the circle  $C_{t_\ell}$  will contain the right part of  $C_t$  (and, as a result,  $U_r$ ).

The edge  $f'$  is in  $T(V)$  and intersects  $C_t$ . Also,  $f'$  is larger than  $f$  in the ordering of edges. If  $f'$  does not separate  $U$ , then  $C_{t_\ell}$  must contain  $U_\ell$  and we are done. If not, then suppose  $f'$  divides  $U$  into  $U'_\ell$  and  $U'_r$ . The triangle  $t_\ell$  is actually to the right of  $f'$  and  $C_{t_\ell}$  contains  $U'_r$ . This leaves us in a situation analogous to  $f$ : the circumcircle of triangle to the right of  $f'$  contains all points in  $U$  to the right of  $f'$ . Therefore, we can apply the same argument as above: either we will stop, getting our desired triangles, or we will move to the edge to the right of  $f'$ .  $\square$

## B Proof for Lemma 3.5

**Proof:** (Lemma 3.5) We will prove by induction on  $k$  that  $H(w_1, \dots, w_k) \geq \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{E}[H_i]$ . Recall that  $w_k$  is the triangle of  $T(V_{k-1})$  that contains  $x_k$ . The claim is a consequence of the independence of the  $x_i$ 's. The reason why we cannot immediately use independence is that the random variable  $w_i$  *does* depend on the choices of  $x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}$ , because  $w_k$  depends on  $T(V_{k-1})$ , which depends on  $x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}$ . In some sense, we are just stating a well known fact about conditional entropies, but this small technical problem forces us to reprove it for our setting. We proceed with a proof by induction.

*base case:* For  $k = 1$ ,  $H(w_1) = H_1$  (note that  $H_1$  is not a random variable).

*induction step:* Assume the claim is true up to  $k - 1$ . For any triangle  $t$  (which is specified by a triple of vertex labels), let  $p(i, t)$  be the probability that  $x_i$  falls in  $t$ . Suppose that  $x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}$  are fixed. We have

$$H_{k+1} = - \sum_{t \in T(V_{k-1})} p(k, t) \log p(k, t).$$

Let  $\gamma(k-1, t)$  be the indicator variable of the event that  $T(V_{k-1})$  has triangle  $t$ . This is a random variable, depending on  $x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}$ . Removing the assumption that  $x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}$  are fixed, we take the expectation of  $H_k$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}[H_k] &= -\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_t \gamma(k-1, t) p(k, t) \log p(k, t)\right] \\ &= -\sum_t \mathbf{E}[\gamma(k-1, t)] p(k, t) \log p(k, t) \end{aligned}$$

Consider some sequence of triangles  $\Delta_k = \langle t_1, \dots, t_k \rangle$ . For  $i \leq k$ , let  $\mathcal{E}_i(\Delta)$  denote the event that  $w_1 = t_1, w_2 = t_2, \dots, w_{i-1} = t_{i-1}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\mathcal{E}_k(\Delta_k)] &= \Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)] \times \Pr[w_k = t_k | \mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)] \\ &= \Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)] \\ &\quad \times p(k, t_k) \Pr[\gamma(k-1, t_k) = 1 | \mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)]. \end{aligned}$$

This is just a consequence of the independence of  $x_k$  from  $x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}$ . As a result, the probability  $p(k, t_k)$  is not affected by the values of  $w_1, \dots, w_{k-1}$ . Note also that  $\Pr[w_k = t_k | \mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)] = \Pr[w_k = t_k | \mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})]$ . Taking the convention that  $0 \log 0 = 0$ , we can now express as a sum the entropy  $H(w_1, \dots, w_k)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} H(w_1, \dots, w_k) &= - \sum_{\Delta_k} \Pr[\mathcal{E}_k(\Delta_k)] \log \Pr[\mathcal{E}_k(\Delta_k)] \\ &= - \sum_{\Delta_k} \Pr[\mathcal{E}_k(\Delta_k)] \log(\Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)] \\ &\quad \times p(k, t_k) \Pr[\gamma(k-1, t_k) = 1 | \mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta)]) \\ &= - \sum_{\Delta_k} \Pr[\mathcal{E}_k(\Delta_k)] ( \\ &\quad \log(\Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)]) \\ &\quad + \log p(k, t_k) \\ &\quad + \log(\Pr[\gamma(k-1, t_k) = 1 | \mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta)]) ) \end{aligned}$$

We now open the parentheses and consider each sum separately.

$$\begin{aligned}
& - \sum_{\Delta_k} \Pr[\mathcal{E}_k(\Delta_k)] \log(\Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)]) \\
& = - \sum_{\Delta_k} \log(\Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)]) \Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)] \\
& \quad \times \Pr[w_k = t_k | \mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})] \\
& = - \sum_{\Delta_{k-1}, t_k} \log(\Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})]) \Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})] \\
& \quad \times \Pr[w_k = t_k | \mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})] \\
& = - \sum_{\Delta_{k-1}} \Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})] \log(\Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})]) \\
& \quad \times \sum_{t_k} \Pr[w_k = t_k | \mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})] \\
& = - \sum_{\Delta_{k-1}} \Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})] \log(\Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})]) \times 1 \\
& = H(w_1, \dots, w_{k-1}).
\end{aligned}$$

Now consider the next sum in a similar manner:

$$\begin{aligned}
& - \sum_{\Delta_k} \log p(k, t_k) \Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)] \\
& \quad \times p(k, t_k) \Pr[\gamma(k-1, t_k) = 1 | \mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_k)] \\
& = - \sum_{t_k} p(k, t_k) \log p(k, t_k) \sum_{\Delta_{k-1}} \Pr[\mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})] \\
& \quad \times \Pr[\gamma(k-1, t_k) = 1 | \mathcal{E}_{k-1}(\Delta_{k-1})] \\
& = - \sum_{t_k} p(k, t_k) \log p(k, t_k) \sum_{\Delta_{k-1}} \Pr[\gamma(k-1, t_k) = 1] \\
& = - \sum_{t_k} \mathbf{E}[\gamma(k-1, t_k)] p(k, t_k) \log p(k, t_k) = \mathbf{E}[H_k]
\end{aligned}$$

The third sum is always positive. This implies that

$$H(w_1, \dots, w_k) \geq H(w_1, \dots, w_{k-1}) + \mathbf{E}[H_k] \geq \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{E}[H_i].$$

□