



HAL
open science

Reverse Nearest Neighbors Search in High Dimensions using Locality-Sensitive Hashing

David Arthur, Steve Y. Oudot

► **To cite this version:**

David Arthur, Steve Y. Oudot. Reverse Nearest Neighbors Search in High Dimensions using Locality-Sensitive Hashing. [Research Report] RR-7084, 2009. inria-00429459v4

HAL Id: inria-00429459

<https://inria.hal.science/inria-00429459v4>

Submitted on 8 Nov 2010 (v4), last revised 22 Nov 2010 (v5)

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



INSTITUT NATIONAL DE RECHERCHE EN INFORMATIQUE ET EN AUTOMATIQUE

Approximate Reverse Nearest Neighbors Search in High Dimensions using Locality-Sensitive Hashing

David Arthur — Steve Y. Oudot

N° 7084 — version 3

initial version November 2009 — revised version November 2010

A large, light gray stylized 'R' logo is positioned to the left of the text. A horizontal gray brushstroke is located below the text.

*R*apport
de recherche

Approximate Reverse Nearest Neighbors Search in High Dimensions using Locality-Sensitive Hashing

David Arthur^{*}, Steve Y. Oudot[†]

Thème : SYM — Systèmes symboliques
Équipe-Projet Geometrica

Rapport de recherche n° 7084 — version 3 — initial version November 2009 — revised version
November 2010 — 29 pages

Abstract: We investigate the problem of finding approximate reverse nearest neighbors efficiently in high dimensions. Given a point cloud P and a parameter ε , our goal is to preprocess P in a way that enables us to quickly return the set of reverse nearest neighbors of any query point q among the points of P , plus possibly a small set of false positives that are ε -close to being true reverse nearest neighbors. Although provably good solutions exist for this problem in low or fixed dimensions, to this date the methods proposed in high dimensions are mostly heuristic. We introduce a method that is both provably correct and provably efficient in all dimensions, based on a reduction of the problem to a controlled number of instances of the now classical ε -nearest neighbor finding and r -neighbors reporting problems. Although the former has been extensively studied and elegantly solved in high dimensions using Locality-Sensitive Hashing techniques (LSH), the latter has a complexity that is still not fully understood. We propose a new analysis of the LSH scheme for r -neighbors reporting, which brings out a meaningful output-sensitive term in the complexity of the problem, and which, coupled with a non-isometric lifting of the data, enables us to solve the approximate reverse nearest problem efficiently via our reduction. Along the way, we obtain an algorithm for answering exact nearest neighbor queries, whose complexity is parametrized by some *condition number* measuring the inherent complexity of a given instance of the problem.

Key-words: nearest neighbor search, reverse nearest neighbor search, locality-sensitive hashing.

^{*} Department of Computer Science, Stanford University. Email: darthur@cs.stanford.edu

[†] Geometrica group, INRIA Saclay – Île-de-France. Email: steve.oudot@inria.fr

Recherche approchée de plus proches voisins inverses en grandes dimensions par hachage géométrique

Résumé : Nous étudions le problème de la recherche efficace de plus proches voisins inverses en grandes dimensions. Étant donné un nuage de points P et un paramètre ε , notre objectif est de pré-traiter le nuage P de telle sorte à pouvoir trouver rapidement l'ensemble des plus proches voisins inverses d'un point de requête q quelconque, plus éventuellement un petit nombre de faux positifs qui sont proches d'être des plus proches voisins inverses de q . Alors que des solutions efficaces et prouvées existent pour ce problème en dimensions petites ou fixées, à ce jour les méthodes proposées en grandes dimensions sont essentiellement heuristiques. Nous proposons une méthode à la fois efficace et prouvée en toutes dimensions, basée sur une réduction du problème à un petit nombre d'instances des problèmes classiques de recherche de plus proche voisin approché et de recherche exhaustive de voisins à distance r fixée. La complexité intrinsèque de ce dernier problème reste peu connue. Nous proposons une nouvelle analyse du comportement du hachage géométrique (LSH) sur ce problème, qui met en évidence une borne dépendant de la taille de la sortie, et qui, combinée à un relèvement non-isométrique des points en dimension plus grande, permet de résoudre le problème de la recherche de plus proches voisins inverses efficacement, via la réduction citée précédemment. Dans la foulée nous proposons également une méthode pour effectuer des recherches de plus proches voisins exacts, dont la complexité est paramétrée par un indice de *conditionnement* mesurant la difficulté intrinsèque d'une instance particulière du problème.

Mots-clés : recherche de plus proche voisin, recherche de plus proches voisins inverses, hachage sensible à la localisation

1 Introduction

Proximity queries are ubiquitous in science and engineering, and given their natural importance they have received a lot of attention from the computer science community [10, 12, 18, 29]. *Nearest Neighbor* (\mathcal{NN}) search is certainly the most popular among them, both from a theoretical and from a practical points of view. It is defined as follows: given a finite point cloud P lying in some metric space (X, d) , preprocess P in such a way that, for any query point $q \in X$, a nearest neighbor of q among the set $P \setminus \{q\}$ can be retrieved quickly. The \mathcal{NN} query can be easily answered in linear time by brute force search, so the algorithmic challenge is to pre-process the data points so as to be able to find the answer in sub-linear time. This emphasis on reducing the query time stems from the fact that typical applications require to answer many \mathcal{NN} queries on the same point set (see Shakhnarovich et al. [29] for a list of sample applications). Numerous methods have been proposed to solve the \mathcal{NN} problem, however their performances degrade as the dimensionality d of the data increases – a phenomenon known as the *curse of dimensionality*. Typically, they suffer from either space or query time that is exponential in d , and in fact their performances become no better than the ones of simple brute-force search when d becomes higher than a few dozens or a few hundreds, both in theory and in practice [34].

In light of the apparent hardness of \mathcal{NN} search, researchers have proposed an approximate version called ε - \mathcal{NN} search, whose answer can be any point of $P \setminus \{q\}$ whose distance to the query point is within a factor $(1 + \varepsilon)$ of the true nearest neighbor distance [4, 9, 19, 22, 26]. This version of the problem proved to be easier to solve efficiently, and, inspired from the random projection techniques developed by Kleinberg [22], two breakthrough results for ε - \mathcal{NN} search were obtained independently by Kushilevitz et al. [26] and by Indyk and Motwani [19]. Both papers gave data structures that can answer ε - \mathcal{NN} queries with truly sublinear (in n) runtime, using an amount of space that is polynomial in n , d , and $1/\varepsilon$. The currently known fastest algorithms for ε - \mathcal{NN} search in high dimensions (see Andoni and Indyk [3] for a survey treatment) are based on the idea of Locality-Sensitive Hashing (LSH), first introduced by Indyk and Motwani [19]. In their seminal paper, they reduce the ε - \mathcal{NN} problem to a decision version that asks to decide whether the distance from the query point q to the point set P is at most r or greater than $r(1 + \varepsilon)$. In other words, the decision problem asks to locate q with respect to the union of balls of radius r about the data points, within some admissible degree of uncertainty prescribed by parameter ε . This query is therefore known as (r, ε) - \mathcal{PLEB} (*Point Location among Equal Balls*). The space decomposition proposed by Indyk and Motwani [19] reduces the ε - \mathcal{NN} problem to a poly-logarithmic number of (r, ε) - \mathcal{PLEB} queries, for some suitable choices of r . Moreover, they show how to use LSH to answer every (r, ε) - \mathcal{PLEB} query with high probability in time $O(dn^\varrho \text{polylog } n)$ for some constant $\varrho < 1$, thus providing a fully sublinear-time procedure for solving ε - \mathcal{NN} . The LSH technique was originally designed for the Hamming cube, but later work by Datar et al. [13] and Andoni and Indyk [2] extended it to affine spaces \mathbb{R}^d equipped with ℓ_s -norms, $s \in (0, 2]$.

In this paper we focus mainly on the reverse problem, known as *Reverse Nearest Neighbors* (\mathcal{RNN}) search, whose goal is to compute the *influence set* of a given query point. More precisely, given a finite point cloud P lying in some metric space (X, d) , the problem asks to preprocess P in such a way that, for any query point $q \in X$, one can retrieve all those points $p \in P \setminus \{q\}$ that are closer to q than to $P \setminus \{p\}$. This set of *reverse nearest neighbors* is denoted by $\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)$. A relaxed version of \mathcal{RNN} search, called ε - \mathcal{RNN} , asks to return any set $S \subseteq P \setminus \{q\}$ containing $\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)$ and such that $d(p, q) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) \min\{d(p, p') \mid p' \in P \setminus \{p\}\}$ for all the points $p \in S$. In other words, all the true reverse nearest neighbors of q must be found, plus possibly a number of false positives that are close to being actual reverse nearest neighbors of q .

\mathcal{RNN} and $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}$ queries arise in many different contexts¹, and it is no surprise that these two problems have received a lot of attention since their formal introduction by Korn and Muthukrishnan [23]. A wealth of methods have been proposed [1, 5, 11, 14, 20, 23, 25, 30, 31, 32, 33], which behave well in practice on some classes of inputs. However, these methods are mostly heuristic, and to date very little is known about the theoretical complexity of the \mathcal{RNN} and $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}$ problems, except in low [7, 27] or fixed [8] dimensions, where the dimensionality of the data can be considered as a mere constant. The crux of the matter is that, in contrast to $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}$, the answer to an \mathcal{RNN} or $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}$ query is not a single point but a set of points, whose size can be up to exponential in the ambient dimension [28], so there is no way to achieve a systematic sub-linear query time. Ideally, one would like to achieve a query time of the form $\tilde{O}(n^\varrho + |\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)|)$, where ϱ is a constant less than 1 and $|\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)|$ is the size of the true reverse nearest neighbors set. The big- \tilde{O} notation may hide some additional factors that are polynomial in d and poly-logarithmic in n/ε . Intuitively, the first term in the bound would represent the incompressible time needed to locate the query point q with respect to the point cloud P , as in a standard \mathcal{NN} query, while the second term would represent the size of the sought-for answer.

Our contributions. Our main contribution (see Section 5) is a reduction of $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}$ search to one instance of $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}$ search plus a poly-logarithmic number of instances of *exhaustive $r\text{-}\mathcal{PLEB}$* . The latter query is a variant of $(r, 0)\text{-}\mathcal{PLEB}$ where not only one r -ball containing the query point q is sought for, but all such balls. Our reduction is based on a partitioning of the data points into buckets according to their nearest neighbor distances, combined with a pruning strategy that prevents the inspection of too many buckets at query time.

Turning our reduction into an effective algorithm for $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}$ search requires first to adapt the LSH scheme to exhaustive $r\text{-}\mathcal{PLEB}$ queries, which we do in Section 3. Although the adaptation itself is not novel (it was proposed e.g. in [29, Chapter 1]), our analysis introduces a somewhat finer concept of locality-sensitive hashing (see Definition 3.1) and aims at quantifying more precisely the amount of repetition that may occur among the collisions with the query point within the hash tables stored in the LSH data structure. Based on this refined analysis, we propose a simple extra preprocessing step that reduces the average retrieval cost of an output point from $n^{\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon}}$ down to a mere n^ε , where n is the total number of data points. The price to pay is a slight degradation of the exponent ϱ involved in the absolute term of the complexity bound, which increases from $\frac{1}{1+\Theta(\varepsilon)}$ to $\frac{1}{1+\Theta(\varepsilon^2)}$ (Theorem 3.7). At an intuitive level, our extra preprocessing step consists in lifting the data and query points one dimension higher through some highly non-isometric embedding, so that the induced metric distortion moves the sets of data and query points away from each other and further concentrates the distribution of distances to the query point around the parameter value r , thereby reducing the total number of collisions with the query point within the hash tables. This approach stands in contrast to the general trend of building low-distortion embeddings of the data to answer proximity queries efficiently.

Down the road, these advances lead to a randomized algorithm for solving $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}$ queries with high probability in expected $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}n^\varrho + n^\alpha|O(\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)|)$ time using fully polynomial space, where $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1+\Omega(\varepsilon^2)} < 1$ and $\alpha \leq \varepsilon\varrho < \varepsilon$, and where $O(\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)$ is a superset of $\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)$ whose points are close to being true reverse nearest neighbors of q (Theorems 5.4 and 5.5). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first algorithm for answering $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}$ queries that is both provably correct and provably efficient in all dimensions. Furthermore, the algorithm and its analysis extend naturally to the bichromatic setting where the data points are split into

¹Among these contexts, the multi-scale reconstruction of geometric structures from high-dimensional point cloud data using so-called *witness complexes* [6, 16] served as our initial motivation for this work.

two disjoint categories, e.g. clients and servers (Theorem 5.6), a scenario that is encountered in various applications [23].

Along the way, we propose a simple but pedagogical application of exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries to solving the exact $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ problem (Section 4). The obtained algorithm has expected running time $\tilde{O}(n^\varrho + n^\alpha |O(\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)|)$ and fully polynomial space complexity, where $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1+\Omega(\varepsilon^2)}$ and $\alpha < \varepsilon$, and where $O(\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$ is a set of approximate nearest neighbors of q (Theorem 4.3). The first term in the running time bound is sublinear in n and corresponds to a standard ε - $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ query, while the second term depends on the size of the approximate nearest neighbors set $O(\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$, which thereby plays the role of a *condition number* measuring the discrepancy in difficulty between the exact and approximate $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ queries on a given instance. Note that our algorithm is not expected to perform as well as state-of-the-art techniques in growth-restricted spaces [10, 21, 24], however its complexity bound holds in a general setting and its sublinear behavior on a particular instance relies on the weak hypothesis that the condition number of this instance lies below the threshold $n^{\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon}}$. In the same spirit, Datar et al. [13] designed a lightweight version of our algorithm that works only in Euclidean spaces but is more efficient (in particular it is competitive with [10, 21, 24]).

Throughout the paper the analysis is carried out either in full generality in metric spaces that admit locality-sensitive families of hash functions, or more precisely in \mathbb{R}^d equipped with some ℓ_s -norm whenever liftings of the data one dimension higher come into play. Let us mention for completeness that the aforementioned complexity bounds are derived in the particular cases $s = 1$ and $s = 2$, the former also encompassing the case where the ambient space is the d -dimensional Hamming cube equipped with the standard Hamming distance², since the latter space embeds itself isometrically into (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_1) .

2 Preliminaries

In Section 2.1 we introduce some useful notation and state the approximate nearest neighbor and reverse nearest neighbors problems formally. In Sections 2.2 through 2.4 we give an overview of LSH and its application to approximate nearest neighbor search, with a special emphasis on the case of affine spaces \mathbb{R}^d equipped with ℓ_s -norms in Section 2.4. The data structures and algorithms introduced in this section are used as black-boxes in the rest of the paper.

2.1 Problem statements and notations

Throughout the paper, (X, d) denotes a metric space and P a finite subset of X . Given a point $x \in X$, let $d(x, P)$ denote the distance of x to $P \setminus \{x\}$, that is: $d(x, P) = \min \{d(x, p) \mid p \in P \setminus \{x\}\}$. Given some parameter $r \geq 0$, let $\mathcal{B}(x, r)$ denote the metric ball of center x and radius r , and let $\mathcal{B}_P(x, r)$ be the set of points of $P \setminus \{x\}$ that lie within this ball. Then, $\mathcal{B}_P(x, d(x, P))$ is the set of *nearest neighbors* of x among $P \setminus \{x\}$, noted $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(x)$. By analogy, given a parameter $\varepsilon \geq 0$, $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(x)$ denotes the set $\mathcal{B}_P(x, (1+\varepsilon)d(x, P))$ of ε -*nearest neighbors* of x among $P \setminus \{x\}$. The usual convention is that point x itself is excluded from these sets, which is not mentioned explicitly in our notations but will be admitted implicitly throughout the paper.

Problem 1 ($\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$). *Given a query point $q \in X$, the nearest neighbor query asks to return any point of $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$.*

Problem 2 ($\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$). *Given a query point $q \in X$, the ε -nearest neighbor query asks to return any point of $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$.*

²The families of hash functions used in this case are the ones designed for (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_1) though, and not the standard projections along coordinate axes which are used traditionally in \mathbb{H}^d . Modulo a lifting into a much higher-dimensional space, our analysis can be adapted so as to use these projections.

Given now a point $x \in X$, let $\mathcal{RN}\mathcal{N}_P(x)$ denote the set of *reverse nearest neighbors* of x among $P \setminus \{x\}$, which by definition are the points $p \in P \setminus \{x\}$ such that $x \in \mathcal{NN}_{P \cup \{x\}}(p)$. By analogy, let $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RN}\mathcal{N}_P(x)$ denote the set of *reverse ε -nearest neighbors* of x among $P \setminus \{x\}$, which by definition are the points $p \in P \setminus \{x\}$ such that $x \in \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_{P \cup \{x\}}(p)$. Here again, point x itself is excluded from the various sets, a fact omitted in our notations for simplicity but admitted implicitly.

Problem 3 ($\mathcal{RN}\mathcal{N}$). *Given a query point $q \in X$, the reverse nearest neighbors query asks to retrieve the set $\mathcal{RN}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$.*

Problem 4 ($\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RN}\mathcal{N}$). *Given a query point $q \in X$, the reverse ε -nearest neighbors query asks to return any set S such that $\mathcal{RN}\mathcal{N}_P(q) \subseteq S \subseteq \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RN}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$.*

In other words, the goal of an approximate $\mathcal{RN}\mathcal{N}$ query is to find all the true reverse nearest neighbors of q , plus possibly some additional false positives that are *close to being* reverse nearest neighbors of q . Parameter ε controls both the number and the quality of the false positives. In particular, when $\varepsilon = 0$, the true reverse nearest neighbors set must be returned.

2.2 Reducing approximate nearest neighbor search to its decision version

Given a parameter r , the decision version of Problem 1 consists in deciding whether $d(q, P)$ is smaller or larger than r . This problem is also known as *Point Location among Equal r -Balls* ($r\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$) in the literature, because it is equivalent to deciding whether q lies inside the union of balls of same radius r about the points of P . It is formalized as follows:

Problem 5 ($r\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$). *Given a query point $q \in X$, the $r\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query asks the following:*

- if $d(q, P) \leq r$, then return YES and any point $p \in P$ such that $d(p, q) \leq r$;
- else ($d(q, P) > r$), return NO.

By analogy, the decision version of Problem 2 consists in deciding whether $d(q, P)$ is smaller than r or larger than $r(1 + \varepsilon)$. If it lies between these two bounds, then any answer is acceptable. The formal statement is the following:

Problem 6 ($(r, \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$). *Given a query point $q \in X$, the $(r, \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query asks the following:*

- if $d(q, P) \leq r$, then return YES and any point $p \in P$ such that $d(p, q) \leq r(1 + \varepsilon)$;
- if $d(q, P) > r(1 + \varepsilon)$, then return NO;
- else ($r < d(q, P) \leq r(1 + \varepsilon)$), return any of the above answers.

The original LSH paper [19] showed a construction that reduces the $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}$ problem to a logarithmic number of $(r, \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}$ queries. Other reductions have since been proposed, and in this paper we will make use of the following one, introduced by Har-Peled [17], which is simple and works in any metric space. It is based on a divide-and-conquer strategy, building a tree $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$ of height $O(\ln n)$, such that each node v is assigned a subset $P_v \subseteq P$ and an interval $[r_v, R_v]$ of possible values for parameter r . Each $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}$ query is performed by traversing down the search tree $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$, and by answering two $(r, \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries at each node v to decide (approximately) whether $d(q, P)$ belongs to the interval $[r_v, R_v]$ or not: in the former case, a simple dichotomy on a geometric progression of values of r within the interval makes it possible to determine within a relative error of $1 + \varepsilon$ where $d(q, P)$ lies in the interval, and for returning a point of $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$, with a total number of $(r, \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries bounded by $O(\log_2 \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{R_v}{r_v})$; in the latter case, the choice of the child of v in which to continue the search is determined from the output of the two $(r, \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries. In this construction, the ratio $\frac{R_v}{r_v}$ is guaranteed to be at most a polynomial in $\frac{n}{\varepsilon}$, with bounded degree, so we have $O(\log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{R_v}{r_v}) = O(\log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{n}{\varepsilon}) = O(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \ln \frac{n}{\varepsilon})$. Thus,

Theorem 2.1 (see Chapter 14 of [17]). *Given a finite set $P \subseteq X$ with n points, the tree $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$ stores $O(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \ln \frac{n}{\varepsilon})$ data structures for (r, ε) - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries per node, and it reduces every ε - $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ query to a set of $O(\ln n + \ln \frac{1}{\varepsilon} + \ln \ln \frac{n}{\varepsilon})$ queries of type (r, ε) - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$.*

2.3 Solving (r, ε) - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries by means of Locality-Sensitive Hashing

Definition 2.2. *Given a metric space (X, d) and two radii $r_1 < r_2$, a family $\mathcal{F} = \{f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}\}$ of hash functions is called (r_1, r_2, p_1, p_2) -sensitive if there exist quantities $1 > p_1 > p_2 > 0$ such that $\forall x, y \in X$,*

- $d(x, y) \leq r_1 \Rightarrow \text{Prob}[f(x) = f(y)] \geq p_1$,
- $d(x, y) \geq r_2 \Rightarrow \text{Prob}[f(x) = f(y)] \leq p_2$,

where probabilities are given for a random choice of hash function $f \in \mathcal{F}$ according to some probability distribution associated with the family.

Intuitively, a (r_1, r_2, p_1, p_2) -sensitive family of hash functions distinguishes points that are close together from points that are far apart.

Assuming that a $(r, r(1 + \varepsilon), p_1, p_2)$ -sensitive family \mathcal{F} of hash functions is given, it is possible to answer (r, ε) - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries in sub-linear time [15, 19]. The algorithm proceeds as follows:

- In the pre-processing phase, it *boosts* the sensitivity of the family \mathcal{F} by building k -dimensional vectors $g = (f_1, \dots, f_k) : X \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^k$ whose coordinate functions f_i are drawn independently at random from \mathcal{F} . The hash key of a point $x \in X$ is now a k -dimensional vector $g(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_k(x))$, and two keys $g(x)$ and $g(y)$ are equal if and only if $f_i(x) = f_i(y)$ for all $i = 1, \dots, k$. Call \mathcal{G} the family of such random hash vectors. The algorithm draws L elements g_1, \dots, g_L independently from \mathcal{G} , and it builds the L corresponding hash tables H_1, \dots, H_L . It then hashes every data point $p \in P$ into every hash table H_i using vector $g_i(p)$.
- In the online query phase, the algorithm hashes the query point q into each of the L hash tables, and it retrieves all the points colliding with q therein, until either some point $p \in \mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon))$ has been found or more than $3L$ points (including duplicates) have been retrieved in total. In the former case the algorithm answers YES and returns p , while in the latter case it answers NO. It also answers NO if no point of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon))$ has been found after visiting all the hash tables.

Letting $k = \lfloor \frac{\ln n}{\ln 1/p_2} \rfloor$ and $L = \lceil n^\varrho \rceil$, where $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$, one can prove that this procedure gives the correct answer with constant probability [15, 19]. By repeating it a logarithmic number of times, one can increase the probability of success to at least $1 - \frac{1}{n}$. Thus,

Theorem 2.3 (see [15, 19]). *Given a finite set P with n points in (X, d) , two parameters $r, \varepsilon \geq 0$, and a $(r, r(1 + \varepsilon), p_1, p_2)$ -sensitive family \mathcal{F} of hash functions for some constants $p_1 > p_2$, it is possible to construct a data structure of size $O(n^{1+\varrho} \ln n)$ that answers (r, ε) - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries correctly with high probability in $O(n^\varrho \frac{\ln n}{\ln 1/p_2} \ln n)$ time, where $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2} < 1$.*

Note that the running time bound ignores the time needed to compute distances and to evaluate hash functions. These typically depend on the metric space (X, d) and on the choice of hash family \mathcal{F} . The probabilities p_1, p_2 also depend on \mathcal{F} , therefore they may vary with r and ε .

2.4 The case of affine spaces

In most of the paper the ambient space X will be the affine space \mathbb{R}^d equipped with some ℓ_s -norm, $s \in (0, 2]$, and d will denote the induced distance: $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|_s = \left(\sum_{i=1}^d |x_i - y_i|^s \right)^{1/s}$, where x_i, y_i stand for the i -th coordinates of x, y .

In (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) we use the families of hash functions introduced by Datar et al. [13]³, which are derived from so-called *s-stable distributions*. A distribution D over the reals is called *s-stable* if any linear combination $\sum_i \alpha_i X_i$ of finitely many independent variables X_i with distribution D has the same distribution as $(\sum_i |\alpha_i|^s)^{1/s} X$, where X is a random variable with distribution D . Given such a distribution D , one can build $(r, r(1+\varepsilon), p_1, p_2)$ -sensitive families of hash functions in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) for any radius $r \geq 0$ and any approximation parameter $\varepsilon > 0$ as follows. First, rescale the data and query points so that $r = 1$. Then, choose a real value $w > 0$ and define a two-parameters family of hash functions $\mathcal{F} = \{f_{a,b} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}\}_{a \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in [0,w]}$ by $f_{a,b}(x) = \lfloor \frac{x \cdot a + b}{w} \rfloor$, where \cdot stands for the inner product in \mathbb{R}^d . The probability distribution put on the parameter space is not uniform: the coordinates of vector a are chosen independently according to D , while b is drawn uniformly at random from the interval $[0, w)$. The local sensitivity of this family depends on the choice of parameter w . More precisely, according to Datar et al. [13], given two points at distance l of each other, the probability (over a random choice of hash function) that these points collide is

$$P(l) = \int_0^w \frac{1}{l} f_D\left(\frac{t}{l}\right) \left(1 - \frac{t}{w}\right) dt, \quad (1)$$

where f_D denotes the probability density function of the absolute value of D . The probabilities p_1, p_2 in Theorem 2.3 are then obtained as $P(1)$ and $P(1+\varepsilon)$ respectively. They do not depend on r , thanks to the rescaling. Note that they do not depend on the dimension d either.

Focusing back on Har-Peled's construction, recall from Theorem 2.1 that each node v of the tree $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$ stores $O(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \ln \frac{n}{\varepsilon})$ data structures for answering (r, ε) - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries, each of size $O(|P_v|^{1+\varepsilon} \ln |P_v|)$. Let us point out that by construction the subsets of P assigned to the sons of v form a partition of P_v . Then, an easy recursion gives the following bounds on the size of $T(P, \varepsilon)$ and on the query time:

Corollary 2.4. *Given a finite set P with n points in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) , $s \in (0, 2]$, and a parameter $\varepsilon > 0$, the tree structure $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$ and its associated (r, ε) - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ data structures can answer ε - \mathcal{NN} queries correctly with high probability in $O\left(n^\varrho \frac{\ln n}{\ln^{1/p_2}} \ln n (\ln n + \ln \frac{1}{\varepsilon} + \ln \ln \frac{n}{\varepsilon})\right)$ time using $O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{1+\varepsilon} \ln n \ln \frac{n}{\varepsilon}\right)$ space, where $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2} < 1$, the quantities $p_1 = P(1)$ and $p_2 = P(1+\varepsilon)$ being derived from some *s-stable distribution* D according to Eq. (1).*

Here again the running time bound ignores the time needed to compute distances and to evaluate hash functions, which is $O(d)$ per operation (distance computation or hash function evaluation) in \mathbb{R}^d . From now on we will also ignore poly-logarithmic factors in $\frac{n}{\varepsilon}$ and hide them within big- \tilde{O} notations for the sake of simplicity. Thus, the time and space complexities given in Theorem 2.3 become respectively $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\varrho}{\ln^{1/p_2}})$ and $\tilde{O}(n^{1+\varepsilon})$, while those given in Corollary 2.4 become respectively $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\varrho}{\ln^{1/p_2}})$ and $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{1+\varepsilon})$.

The main challenge is to choose a value for parameter w that makes ϱ and $\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}}$ as small as possible. The *best* value for w heavily depends on s and ε , and it may be difficult to find for some values of s, ε , especially when no closed form solution to Eq. (1) is known. Two special cases of practical interest ($s = 1$ and $s = 2$) are analyzed in [13]:

- In the case $s = 1$, one can use the Cauchy distribution (which is 1-stable) to derive a family of hash functions, and the probability of collision becomes $P(l) = 2 \frac{\arctan(w/l)}{\pi} - \frac{1}{\pi(w/l)} \ln(1 + (w/l)^2)$. The ratio $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$ lies then strictly above $\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon}$, yet larger and larger choices for parameter w make it closer and closer to $\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon}$.

³A possible improvement would be to use the hash functions defined by Andoni and Indyk [2] instead, which are known to give better complexity bounds. For now we leave this as future work.

- In the case $s = 2$, one can use the normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ (which is 2-stable), and the probability of collision becomes $P(l) = 1 - 2F_{\mathcal{N}}(-w/l) - \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi w/l}}(1 - e^{-w^2/2l^2})$, where $F_{\mathcal{N}}$ stands for the cumulative distribution function of $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. The ration $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$ lies then below $\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon}$ for reasonable choices of parameter w .

In the rest of the paper we will follow [13] and use respectively the Cauchy distribution and the normal distribution in the cases $s = 1$ and $s = 2$. A detailed analysis of the influence of the choice of parameter w on the quantities ϱ and \ln^{1/p_2} will be provided in Section 3.

3 Exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$

Let (X, d) be a metric space and P a finite subset of X . The following variant of r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$, where all the r -balls containing the query point are asked to be retrieved, will play a central part in the rest of the paper:

Problem 7 (Exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$). *Given a query point $q \in X$, the exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query asks to return the set $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$.*

This problem is introduced under the name *near-neighbors reporting* in previous literature [29, Chapter 1], where a variant of the LSH scheme of Section 2.3 is proposed for solving it. The difference with the original LSH scheme is that the query procedure does not stop when $3L$ collisions with the query point q have been found, but instead it continues until all the points colliding with q in the L hash tables have been retrieved. The output is then the subset of these points that lie within $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$. The details of the pre-processing and query phases are given in Algorithms 1 and 2 respectively. Note that parameter ε no longer controls the quality of the output, which is shown to coincide with the set $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$ with high probability, but instead it influences the average complexity of the procedure, as we will see later on.

Input : metric space (X, d) , finite set P with n points in X , parameters $r, \varepsilon \geq 0$

Output: $\mathcal{A}(P, r, \varepsilon)$ data structure

Take an $(r, r(1 + \varepsilon), p_1, p_2)$ -sensitive LSH family \mathcal{F}

Let $k = \lfloor \frac{\ln n}{\ln^{1/p_2}} \rfloor$ and $L = \lceil n^\varrho \rceil$, where $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$

Create the k -dimensional hash family \mathcal{G} as described in Section 2.3

for $i = 1$ **to** $\lceil c \ln n \rceil$ // c is a constant to be explicated later

do

 pick L functions $\{g_1, \dots, g_L\}$ independently at random from \mathcal{G}

 Create the corresponding hash tables $\{H_1, \dots, H_L\}$

forall $p \in P$ **do**

for $j = 1$ **to** L **do**

 | Insert p into H_j using the key $g_j(p)$

end

end

 Store the data structure $\mathcal{A}_i(P, r, \varepsilon) := \{g_1, \dots, g_L\} \sqcup \{H_1, \dots, H_L\}$

end

Output $\mathcal{A}(P, r, \varepsilon) := \bigcup_i \mathcal{A}_i(P, r, \varepsilon)$

Algorithm 1: Pre-processing phase for exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$

In Section 3.1 we provide a new analysis of this modified LSH scheme, which refines the analysis given in [29, Chapters 1 and 3] and emphasizes the influence of the layout of the point cloud on the average query time. We also answer a question raised at the end of [29, §3.3] by

<pre> Input : metric space (X, d), $\mathcal{A}(P, r, \varepsilon)$ data structure, query point $q \in X$ 1 Let k, L, ϱ and c be defined as in Algorithm 1 2 Initialize the output set: $S := \emptyset$ 3 for $i = 1$ to $\lceil c \ln n \rceil$ do 4 Let $\{g_1, \dots, g_L\}$ be the functions and $\{H_1, \dots, H_L\}$ the tables contained in $\mathcal{A}_i(P, r, \varepsilon)$ 5 for $j = 1$ to L do 6 Compute $g_j(q)$ and retrieve the set C_j of the points colliding with q in H_j 7 forall $p \in C_j$ do 8 if $d(q, p) \leq r$ then 9 Update the output set: $S := S \cup \{p\}$ 10 end 11 end 12 end 13 end 14 Return S </pre>
--

Algorithm 2: *Online query phase for exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$*

showing that the same choice of parameters k, L as in Section 2.3 is sufficient to guarantee our bound on the average query time for any query point. Our analysis relies on the following refined concept of locality-sensitive family of hash functions⁴:

Definition 3.1. *Given a metric space (X, d) and positive radii $r_0 \leq r_1 < r_2$, a family $\mathcal{F} = \{f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}\}$ of hash functions is called $(r_0, r_1, r_2, p_0, p_1, p_2)$ -sensitive if there exist quantities $1 > p_0 \geq p_1 > p_2 > 0$ such that $\forall x, y \in X$,*

- (i) $d(x, y) \leq r_1 \Rightarrow \text{Prob}[f(x) = f(y)] \geq p_1$,
- (ii) $d(x, y) \geq r_2 \Rightarrow \text{Prob}[f(x) = f(y)] \leq p_2$,
- (iii) $d(x, y) \geq r_0 \Rightarrow \text{Prob}[f(x) = f(y)] \leq p_0$,

where probabilities are given for a random choice of hash function $f \in \mathcal{F}$ according to some probability distribution associated with the family.

Axioms (i) and (ii) correspond to the classical notion of locality-sensitive family of hash functions (Definition 2.2). They do not make it possible to limit the number of collisions between the query point q and the points of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r_1)$ in the analysis of exhaustive r_1 - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries. Specifically, every point of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r_1)$ might collide with q in every hash table in theory, thus raising the cost of an exhaustive r_1 - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query to $\Omega(n^\varrho)$ per point of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r_1)$. This is in fact all theoretical, since in practice the hash functions are likely to make a difference between those points of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r_1)$ that are really close to q and those that are farther away. This is the reason for introducing the third axiom (iii), which will show its usefulness in Section 3.2, where we concentrate on the case where the ambient space is (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) , $s \in (0, 2]$, and show that a non-isometric embedding of the data into $(\mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \ell_s)$ enables us to move the sets of data and query points away from each other.

3.1 Analysis in the general case

Theorem 3.2. *Given a finite set $P \subseteq X$ with n points and two parameters $r, \varepsilon \geq 0$, if (X, d) admits a (r_1, r_2, p_1, p_2) -sensitive family \mathcal{F} of hash functions with $r_1 = r$ and $r_2 \leq r(1 + \varepsilon)$, then Algorithm 2 answers exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries correctly with high probability in expected*

⁴An even finer concept, proposed in [29, § 3.3], makes the probability of having $f(x) = f(y)$ a function of the distance between x and y . However, for our purpose it is not necessary to go to this level of refinement.

$\tilde{O}(n^\varrho(\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}} + \frac{1}{p_2} + |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon))|))$ time, involving $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\varrho}{p_2} + |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon))|)$ distance computations and $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\varrho}{\ln^{1/p_2}})$ hash function evaluations only, and using $\tilde{O}(n^{1+\varrho})$ space, where $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$. If moreover the family \mathcal{F} is $(r_0, r_1, r_2, p_0, p_1, p_2)$ -sensitive for some $r_0 \leq r_1$, then on any input point $q \in X$ the algorithm answers exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries in expected $\tilde{O}(n^\varrho(\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}} + \frac{1}{p_2} + |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r_0)|) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0} |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon)) \setminus \mathcal{B}(q, r_0)|)$ time, where $\alpha = \varrho(1 - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_1}) \leq \varrho$.

The first term $(\frac{n^\varrho}{\ln^{1/p_2}})$ in the running time bound corresponds to the complexity of a standard (r, ε) - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query and can be viewed as the incompressible time needed to locate the query point q in the data structure. The second term $(\frac{n^\varrho}{p_2})$ bounds the total number of collisions of q with data points lying outside $\mathcal{B}(q, r(1+\varepsilon))$. The third term $(n^\varrho |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r_0)|)$ arises from the fact that points closer to q than r_0 may collide up to n^ϱ times with q each. Finally, the last term $(\frac{n^\alpha}{p_0} |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon)) \setminus \mathcal{B}(q, r_0)|)$ arises from the fact that the points of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon))$ that lie farther than r_0 can only collide up to $\frac{n^\alpha}{p_0}$ times with q each, for some $\alpha \leq \varrho$. Note that the less sensitive the family \mathcal{F} between radii r_0 and r_1 , the closer to 1 the ratio $\frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_1}$, and therefore the smaller α compared to ϱ . By contrast, the more sensitive the family between radii r_1 and r_2 , the smaller the ratio $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$ compared to 1.

Our proof of Theorem 3.2 is divided into three parts: (1) proving the correctness of the output of Algorithm 2 with high probability, (2) bounding the expected query time, and (3) bounding the size of the data structure.

Correctness of the output. Note that the test on line 8 of Algorithm 2 ensures that the output set S is always a subset of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$. Thus, we only need to show that S contains all the points of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$ with high probability at the end of the query.

Lemma 3.3. $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r) \subseteq S$ with probability at least $1 - n^{1-c \ln \frac{5}{2}}$.

This result means that the probability of success of the query is high, even for small values of c . For instance, it is at least $1 - \frac{1}{n}$ for $c \geq \frac{2}{\ln \frac{5}{2}}$, and more generally it is at least $1 - \frac{1}{n^\omega}$ for $c \geq \frac{1+\omega}{\ln \frac{5}{2}}$.

Proof of the lemma. Let p be a point of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$. Consider a single iteration i of the main loop of Algorithm 2, and let us show that p is inserted in the output set S during this iteration with constant probability. This is equivalent to showing that, with constant probability, there exists some function $g_j(\cdot)$ that hashes q and p to the same location ($g_j(q) = g_j(p)$). Since $d(q, p) \leq r$, the probability of a collision for a fixed j is at least $p_1^k = p_1^{\lfloor \frac{\ln n}{\ln^{1/p_2}} \rfloor} = e^{-\ln 1/p_1 \lfloor \frac{\ln n}{\ln^{1/p_2}} \rfloor} \geq e^{-\ln 1/p_1 \frac{\ln n}{\ln^{1/p_2}}} = n^{-\frac{\ln 1/p_1}{\ln^{1/p_2}}} = n^{-\varrho}$. Therefore, the probability that no hash function g_j generates a collision is at most $(1 - n^{-\varrho})^{n^\varrho}$ since $L = \lceil n^\varrho \rceil$ functions are picked from \mathcal{G} at iteration i . Thus, the probability that this iteration inserts p into the output set S is at least $1 - (1 - n^{-\varrho})^{n^\varrho} \geq 1 - \frac{1}{e} > \frac{3}{5}$.

Now, there are $\lceil c \ln n \rceil$ iterations in total, with independent hash functions, so the probability that $p \notin S$ at the end of the query is at most $(\frac{2}{5})^{\lceil c \ln n \rceil} = e^{\ln \frac{2}{5} \lceil c \ln n \rceil} \leq n^{c \ln \frac{2}{5}}$. Applying the union bound on the set $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$, we obtain that the probability that all points of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$ belong to S at the end of the query is at least $1 - |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)| n^{c \ln \frac{2}{5}} \geq 1 - n^{1+c \ln \frac{2}{5}} = 1 - n^{1-c \ln \frac{5}{2}}$. \square

Remark 3.4. It is easily seen from the final paragraph of the proof of Lemma 3.3 that the correctness of the output can be guaranteed with probability $1 - m^{1-c \ln \frac{5}{2}}$ for any given $m \geq n$. Indeed, by running $\lceil c \ln m \rceil$ iterations of the main loops of Algorithms 1 and 2 instead of $\lceil c \ln n \rceil$ iterations, we obtain that each point of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$ belongs to S at the end of the query with probability at least $1 - m^{-c \ln \frac{5}{2}}$, and thus that $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r) \subseteq S$ with probability at least $1 - m^{1-c \ln \frac{5}{2}}$. This remark will be useful when dealing with $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ queries in Section 5.

Expected query time. First of all, the query point q is hashed into $\lceil n^\varepsilon \rceil \lceil c \ln n \rceil = \tilde{O}(n^\varepsilon)$ hash tables in total, and each hashing operation involves $k = \lfloor \frac{\ln n}{\ln 1/p_2} \rfloor = O(\frac{\ln n}{\ln 1/p_2})$ hash function evaluations, c being a constant here. Thus, the total number of hash function evaluations is $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\varepsilon}{\ln 1/p_2})$, and so is the total time spent hashing q (modulo the time needed to do a hash function evaluation, which is ignored here as in the previous sections). There remains to bound the expected number of collisions of q with points of P in the hash tables.

Lemma 3.5. *The expected total number of collisions of q with points of $P \setminus \mathcal{B}(q, r(1 + \varepsilon))$ is $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\varepsilon}{p_2})$.*

Proof. Take an arbitrary iteration i of the main loop of Algorithm 2, and an arbitrary hash table H_j considered during that iteration. Recall that the hash family \mathcal{G} is constructed in Algorithm 1 by concatenating $k = \lfloor \frac{\ln n}{\ln 1/p_2} \rfloor$ functions drawn from a $(r, (1 + \varepsilon)r, p_1, p_2)$ -sensitive family \mathcal{F} . Therefore, the probability that a given point of $P \setminus \mathcal{B}(q, r(1 + \varepsilon))$ collides with q in H_j is at most $p_2^k = p_2^{\lfloor \frac{\ln n}{\ln 1/p_2} \rfloor} = e^{\ln(p_2) \lfloor \frac{\ln n}{\ln 1/p_2} \rfloor} \leq e^{\ln(p_2)(\frac{\ln n}{\ln 1/p_2} - 1)} = \frac{1}{p_2 n}$. It follows that the expected number of points of $P \setminus \mathcal{B}(q, r(1 + \varepsilon))$ that collide with q in H_j is at most $\frac{1}{p_2}$, from which we conclude that the expected total number of such collisions in all the hash tables at all iterations is at most $\frac{1}{p_2} \lceil n^\varepsilon \rceil \lceil c \ln n \rceil = \tilde{O}(\frac{n^\varepsilon}{p_2})$. \square

Without any further assumptions on the family \mathcal{F} of hash functions, each point of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon))$ might collide with q in every hash table. The number of collisions of q with points of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon))$ is therefore $O(n^\varepsilon c \ln n |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon))|) = \tilde{O}(n^\varepsilon |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon))|)$. Combined with Lemma 3.5, this bound implies that the expected running time of the algorithm is $\tilde{O}(n^\varepsilon (\frac{1}{\ln 1/p_2} + \frac{1}{p_2} + |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon))|))$, as claimed in the theorem. For every collision considered, a test is made on the distance between q and the colliding point of P (see line 8 of Algorithm 2). With a simple book-keeping, e.g. by marking the points of P that have already been considered during the query, we can afford to do the test at most once per point of P , thus yielding a total number of distance computations of the order of $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\varepsilon}{p_2} + |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon))|)$.

Consider now the stronger hypothesis that the family \mathcal{F} of hash functions is $(r_0, r, r(1 + \varepsilon), p_0, p_1, p_2)$ -sensitive for some $r_0 \leq r$.

Lemma 3.6. *Assuming that \mathcal{F} is $(r_0, r, r(1 + \varepsilon), p_0, p_1, p_2)$ -sensitive, the expected total number of collisions of q with points of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon)) \setminus \mathcal{B}(q, r_0)$ is $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\alpha}{p_0} |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon)) \setminus \mathcal{B}(q, r_0)|)$, where $\alpha = \varrho(1 - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_1}) \leq \varrho$.*

Proof. Take an arbitrary iteration i of the main loop of Algorithm 2, and an arbitrary hash table H_j considered during that iteration. The probability that a given point $p \in \mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon)) \setminus \mathcal{B}(q, r_0)$ collides with q in H_j is at most $p_0^k = p_0^{\lfloor \frac{\ln n}{\ln 1/p_2} \rfloor} = e^{\ln p_0 \lfloor \frac{\ln n}{\ln 1/p_2} \rfloor} \leq e^{\ln p_0 (\frac{\ln n}{\ln 1/p_2} - 1)} = \frac{1}{p_0} n^{-\frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_2}}$. It follows that the expected total number of collisions between p and q during the execution of the algorithm is at most $\frac{1}{p_0} n^{-\frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_2}} \lceil n^\varepsilon \rceil \lceil c \ln n \rceil = \tilde{O}(\frac{n^\alpha}{p_0})$, where $\alpha = \varrho - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_2} = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2} - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_2} = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2} (1 - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_1})$. We conclude that the expected total number of collisions of q with points of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon)) \setminus \mathcal{B}(q, r_0)$ during the course of the algorithm is $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\alpha}{p_0} |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon)) \setminus \mathcal{B}(q, r_0)|)$. \square

It follows from Lemma 3.6 that the expected query time becomes $\tilde{O}(n^\varepsilon (\frac{1}{\ln 1/p_2} + \frac{1}{p_2} + |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r_0)|) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0} |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1 + \varepsilon)) \setminus \mathcal{B}(q, r_0)|)$ when the family \mathcal{F} of hash functions is $(r_0, r, r(1 + \varepsilon), p_0, p_1, p_2)$ -sensitive, as claimed in the theorem.

Size of the data structure. Each hash table contains one pointer per point of P , and there are $\lceil n^\ell \rceil \lceil c \ln n \rceil$ such hash tables in total, so we need to store $\tilde{O}(n^{1+\ell})$ pointers in total. In addition, we need to store the $\lceil n^\ell \rceil \lceil c \ln n \rceil$ vectors of hash functions corresponding to the hash tables, but this term is dominated by the previous one. Thus, in total our data structure has a space complexity of $\tilde{O}(n^{1+\ell})$. This bound ignores the costs of storing the input point cloud and the selected hash functions, which depend on the type of data representation.

3.2 Affine case: the non-isometric embedding trick

Assume from now on that the ambient space is (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) , where $s \in (0, 2]$. In order to make sure that the data points do not lie too close to the query points, our strategy is to apply a non-isometric embedding into $(\mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \ell_s)$ that moves the sets of data and query points away from each other, before actually building the data structure and answering the queries.

At preprocessing time, given a finite point cloud $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ and two parameters $r, \varepsilon \geq 0$, we embed the points of P into $(\mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \ell_s)$ by adding one coordinate equal to 0 to every point. We then build an $\mathcal{A}(P', r', \varepsilon')$ data structure using Algorithm 1, where P' denotes the image of P through the embedding, $r' = r(1 + \frac{1}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1})^{1/s}$, and $\varepsilon' = ((1+\varepsilon)^s + (1+\varepsilon)^{-s} - 1)^{1/s} - 1$. In effect, right before building the data structure we apply the trick of Section 2.4 and rescale P' by a factor of $1/r'$, so as to get a normalized point cloud P'' on top of which we build an $\mathcal{A}(P'', 1, \varepsilon')$ data structure using Algorithm 1. At query time, we embed the query point q into \mathbb{R}^{d+1} by adding one coordinate equal to $\frac{r}{((1+\varepsilon)^s - 1)^{1/s}}$, then we answer an exhaustive r' - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} by applying Algorithm 2 on the $\mathcal{A}(P', r', \varepsilon')$ data structure, and then we return the pre-image of the output set through the embedding. Once again, in effect we rescale q' by a factor of $1/r'$ right before answering the query, so Algorithm 2 is actually applied on the $\mathcal{A}(P'', 1, \varepsilon')$ data structure.

Observe that the embedding into \mathbb{R}^{d+1} is not isometric, since it does not preserve the distances of q to the data points. However, it does preserve their order. Indeed, for each point $p \in P$, the distance $d(p, q)$ becomes $(d(p, q)^s + \frac{r^s}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1})^{1/s}$ after the embedding (and before the rescaling), and since the map $t \mapsto (t^s + \frac{r^s}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1})^{1/s}$ is monotonically increasing with t , the embedding preserves the order of distances. We then have the following easy properties, where $x' \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ denotes the image of any point $x \in P \cup \{q\}$ through the embedding:

- (i) $\forall p \in P, d(p, q) \leq r \Leftrightarrow d(p', q') \leq \left(r^s + \frac{r^s}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1}\right)^{1/s} = r \left(1 + \frac{1}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1}\right)^{1/s} = r'$;
- (ii) $\forall p \in P, d(p', q') \geq \left(\frac{r^s}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1}\right)^{1/s} = \frac{r}{1+\varepsilon} \left(\frac{(1+\varepsilon)^s}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1}\right)^{1/s} = \frac{r}{1+\varepsilon} \left(1 + \frac{1}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1}\right)^{1/s} = \frac{r'}{1+\varepsilon}$;
- (iii) $\forall p \in P, d(p', q') \leq r'(1 + \varepsilon') \Rightarrow d(p, q) \leq \left(r'^s(1 + \varepsilon')^s - \frac{r^s}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1}\right)^{1/s} =$
 $\left(r^s \left(1 + \frac{1}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1}\right) \left((1+\varepsilon)^s + (1+\varepsilon)^{-s} - 1\right) - \frac{r^s}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1}\right)^{1/s} =$
 $r \left(\frac{(1+\varepsilon)^s}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1} \left((1+\varepsilon)^s + (1+\varepsilon)^{-s} - 1\right) - \frac{1}{(1+\varepsilon)^s - 1}\right)^{1/s} =$
 $r(1 + \varepsilon)$.

It follows from (i) that $\mathcal{B}_{P'}(q', r')$ is the image of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$ through the embedding. Hence, by Lemma 3.3, with high probability the output set of the exhaustive r' - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} is the image of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$ through the embedding. Thus, our output is correct with high probability. In the meantime, the embedding has the following impact on the average complexity of the query:

- On the negative side, the approximation parameter is now $\varepsilon' = ((1+\varepsilon)^s + (1+\varepsilon)^{-s} - 1)^{1/s} - 1 \leq \varepsilon$, which increases p_2 from $P(1+\varepsilon)$ to $P(1+\varepsilon')$. This means that the ratio

$\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$ involved in the complexity bound of Theorem 3.2 becomes $\frac{\ln P(1)}{\ln P(1+\varepsilon')} \geq \frac{\ln P(1)}{\ln P(1+\varepsilon)}$ and thus gets closer to 1, even though it still remains strictly below 1. Furthermore, the terms $\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}}$ and $\frac{1}{p_2}$ in the complexity bound grow respectively from $\frac{1}{\ln^{1/P(1+\varepsilon)}}$ to $\frac{1}{\ln^{1/P(1+\varepsilon')}}$, and from $\frac{1}{P(1+\varepsilon)}$ to $\frac{1}{P(1+\varepsilon')}$.

- On the positive side, we know from (ii) that the points of P' lie at least $\frac{r'}{1+\varepsilon}$ away from the query point q , so by Lemma 3.6 they cannot collide with q more than $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\alpha}{p_0})$ times each in expectation, where $p_0 = P(\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon})$ and $\alpha = \varrho(1 - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_1})$.

For the rest, the embedding is a neutral operation. Indeed, even though the complexity now depends on the size of $\mathcal{B}_{P'}(q', r'(1+\varepsilon'))$ instead of the size of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon))$, we know from (iii) that the preimage of the former set through the embedding is contained within the latter set, so we have $|\mathcal{B}_{P'}(q', r'(1+\varepsilon'))| \leq |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon))|$. In addition, the fact that the query now takes place in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} instead of \mathbb{R}^d , with a radius parameter that grew from r to r' , does not affect the probabilities p_1, p_2 , which depend neither on the ambient dimension as pointed out after Eq. (1), nor on the radius thanks to the rescaling of the data. It also does not affect the asymptotic complexities of distance computations and hash function evaluations, which remain $O(d)$.

All in all, we obtain the following complexity bounds for the exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) , where $\mathcal{A}'(P, r, \varepsilon)$ denotes the full data structure built at preprocessing time, which contains the embedding and rescaling informations together with the $\mathcal{A}(P'', 1, \varepsilon')$ data structure:

Theorem 3.7. *Given a finite set P with n points in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) , $s \in (0, 2]$, and two parameters $r, \varepsilon \geq 0$, the $\mathcal{A}'(P, r, \varepsilon)$ data structure answers exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries correctly with high probability in expected $\tilde{O}(n^\varrho(\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}} + \frac{1}{p_2}) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0} |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon))|)$ time using $\tilde{O}(n^{1+\varrho})$ space, where $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$ and $\alpha = \varrho(1 - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_1}) \leq \varrho$, the quantities $p_0 = P(\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon})$, $p_1 = P(1)$ and $p_2 = P(((1+\varepsilon)^s + (1+\varepsilon)^{-s} - 1)^{1/s})$ being derived from some s -stable distribution D according to Eq. (1).*

Quantifying precisely the amounts by which the quantities ϱ , α , $\frac{1}{p_2}$ and $\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}}$ change due to the embedding, and evaluating the impact of these changes on the resulting complexity, are the two main questions at this point. Because Eq (1) may not always have a closed form solution, it is difficult to provide an answer to the previous questions in full generality for all values $s \in (0, 2]$. We will nevertheless investigate two special cases that are of practical interest: $s = 1$ and $s = 2$.

Case $s = 1$. The definition of ε' gives $\varepsilon' = \frac{\varepsilon^2}{1+\varepsilon}$ in this case. The formula for ϱ is then the same as in \mathbb{R}^d , with ε replaced by $\frac{\varepsilon^2}{1+\varepsilon}$. As reported in [13] and illustrated in Figure 1 (left), ϱ stays above $\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon^2/(1+\varepsilon)}$, even though it seems to converge to this quantity as w tends to infinity. Letting $w = \max\{1, \varepsilon\}$, we found experimentally that ϱ is dominated by $\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon^2/4}$ when $\varepsilon \leq 1$ and by $\frac{1}{1+\sqrt{\varepsilon}/4}$ when $\varepsilon \geq 1$, as shown in Figures 1 (right) and 2 (left). In the meantime, α stays less than $\varepsilon\varrho$, as shown in Figure 2 (right), while the terms $\frac{1}{P(1+\varepsilon')}$ and $\frac{1}{\ln^{1/P(1+\varepsilon')}}$ remain bounded by small constants (Figure 3) and are therefore not badly affected by the embedding. Finally, the new term $\frac{1}{P(1/(1+\varepsilon))}$ is less than 4, as shown in Figure 3 (left). All in all, Theorem 3.7 can be re-written as follows:

Theorem 3.7 (case $s = 1$). *Given a finite set P with n points in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_1) , and two parameters $r, \varepsilon \geq 0$, the $\mathcal{A}'(P, r, \varepsilon)$ data structure answers exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries correctly with high probability in expected $\tilde{O}(n^\varrho + n^\alpha |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon))|)$ time using $\tilde{O}(n^{1+\varrho})$ space, where $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1+\min\{\varepsilon^2, \sqrt{\varepsilon}\}/4} < 1$ and $\alpha \leq \varepsilon\varrho < \varepsilon$.*

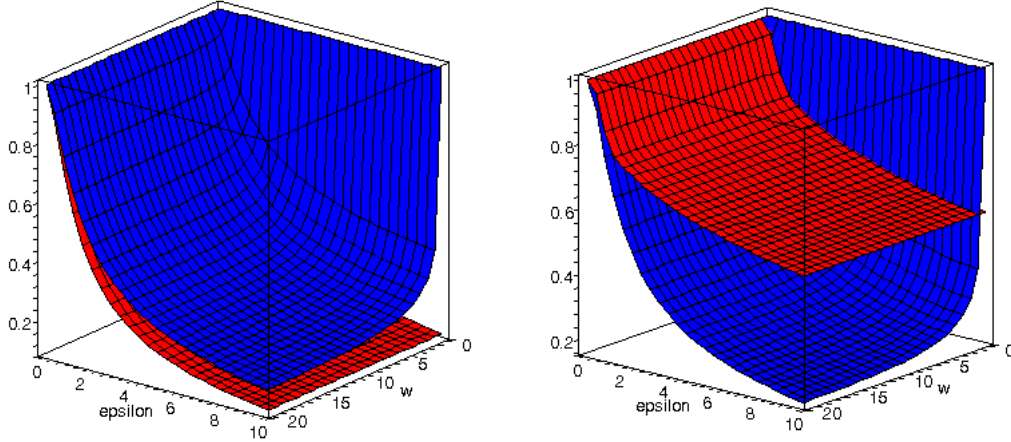


Figure 1: Behavior of ϱ in $(\mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \ell_1)$. Left: plots of ϱ (blue) and $\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon'} = \frac{1}{1+\varepsilon^2/(1+\varepsilon)}$ (red) versus ε and w . Right: plots of ϱ (blue) and $\frac{1}{1+\min\{\varepsilon^2, \sqrt{\varepsilon}\}/4}$ (red) versus ε and w .

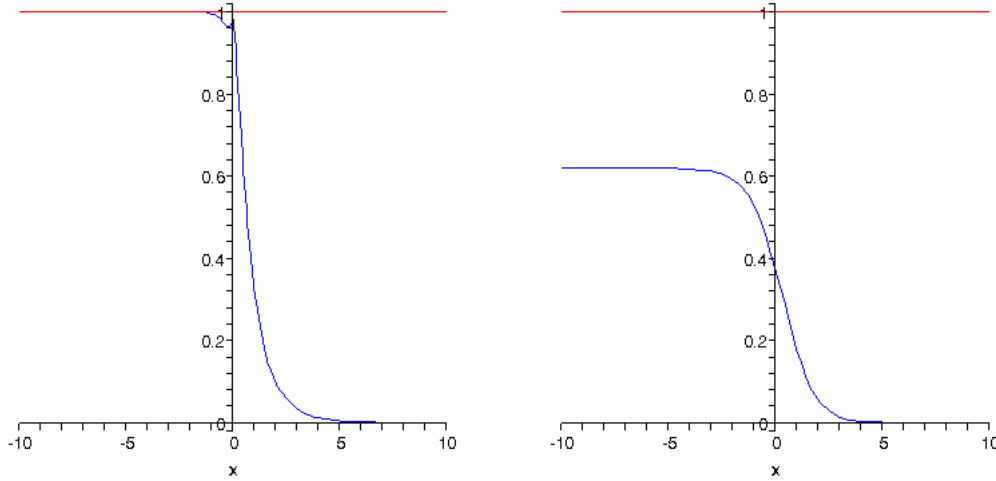


Figure 2: Behaviors of ϱ and α in $(\mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \ell_1)$ after letting $w = \max\{1, \varepsilon\}$. From left to right, in blue: plots of $\varrho(1 + \min\{\varepsilon^2, \sqrt{\varepsilon}\}/4)$ and $\frac{\alpha}{\varepsilon}$. Both plots are versus ε on a logarithmic scale ($x = \log_{10} \varepsilon$). The red lines have equation $y = 1$.

Case $s = 2$. The definition of ε' gives $\varepsilon' = \frac{\sqrt{(1+\varepsilon)^4-1}}{1+\varepsilon} - 1$ in this case. The formula for ϱ is then the same as in \mathbb{R}^d , with ε replaced by $\frac{\sqrt{(1+\varepsilon)^4-1}}{1+\varepsilon} - 1$. As pointed out in [13] and illustrated in Figure 4 (left), ϱ goes below $\frac{1+\varepsilon}{\sqrt{(1+\varepsilon)^4-1}}$ at reasonably small values of parameter w . Since this bound is not quite evocative, we used a slightly different bound, namely $\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon^2/(1+\varepsilon)}$, and

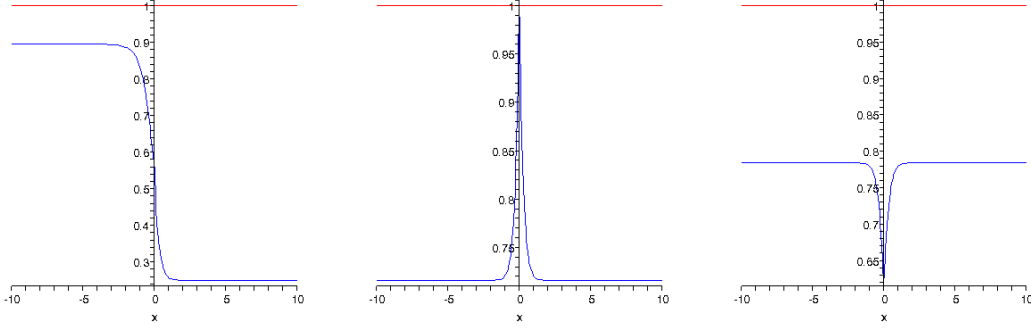


Figure 3: Behaviors of $\frac{1}{P(1/(1+\varepsilon))}$, $\frac{1}{P(1+\varepsilon')}$ and $\frac{1}{\ln^{1/P(1+\varepsilon')}} in $(\mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \ell_1)$ after letting $w = \max\{1, \varepsilon\}$. From left to right, in blue: plots of $\frac{1}{4P(1/(1+\varepsilon))}$, $\frac{1}{5P(1+\varepsilon')}$ and $\frac{1}{\ln^{1/P(1+\varepsilon')}}. All three plots are versus ε on a logarithmic scale ($x = \log_{10} \varepsilon$). The red lines have equation $y = 1$.$$

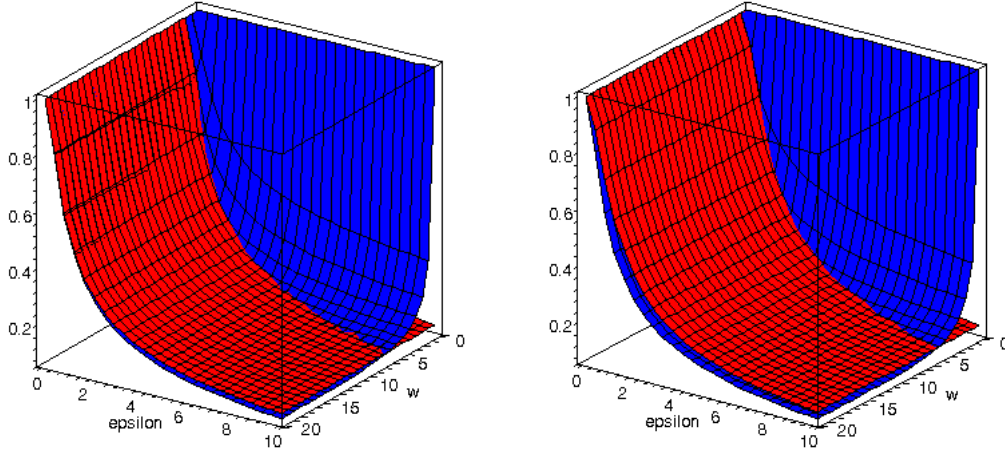


Figure 4: Behavior of ϱ in $(\mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \ell_2)$. Left: plots of ϱ (blue) and $\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon'} = \frac{1+\varepsilon}{\sqrt{(1+\varepsilon)^4-1}}$ (red) versus ε and w . Right: plots of ϱ (blue) and $\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon^2/(1+\varepsilon)}$ (red) versus ε and w .

we found experimentally that $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1+\varepsilon^2/(1+\varepsilon)}$ whenever $w = \max\{1, \varepsilon\}$, as shown in Figures 4 (right) and 5 (left). In the meantime, α stays less than $\varepsilon\varrho$, as shown in Figure 5 (right), while the terms $\frac{1}{P(1+\varepsilon')}$ and $\frac{1}{\ln^{1/P(1+\varepsilon')}} remain bounded by small constants (Figure 6) and are therefore not badly affected by the embedding. Finally, the new term $\frac{1}{P(1/(1+\varepsilon))}$ is less than 3, as shown in Figure 6 (left). All in all, Theorem 3.7 can be re-written as follows:$

Theorem 3.7 (case $s = 2$). *Given a finite set P with n points in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_2) , and two parameters $r, \varepsilon \geq 0$, the $\mathcal{A}(P, r, \varepsilon)$ data structure answers exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries correctly with high probability in expected $\tilde{O}(n^e + n^\alpha |\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon))|)$ time using $\tilde{O}(n^{1+e})$ space, where $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1+\varepsilon^2/(1+\varepsilon)} < 1$ and $\alpha \leq \varepsilon\varrho < \varepsilon$.*

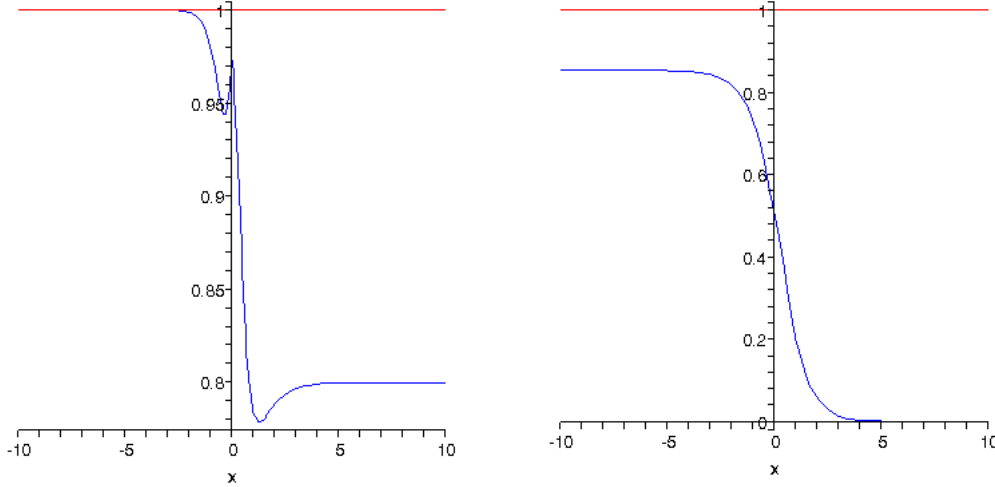


Figure 5: Behaviors of ϱ and α in $(\mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \ell_2)$ after letting $w = \max\{1, \varepsilon\}$. From left to right, in blue: plots of $\varrho(1+\varepsilon^2/(1+\varepsilon))$ and $\frac{\alpha}{\varepsilon\varrho}$. Both plots are versus ε on a logarithmic scale ($x = \log_{10} \varepsilon$). The red lines have equation $y = 1$.

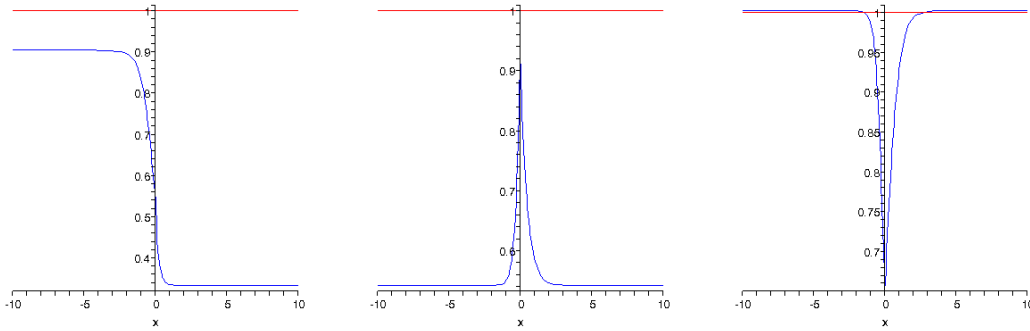


Figure 6: Behaviors of $\frac{1}{P(1/(1+\varepsilon))}$, $\frac{1}{P(1+\varepsilon')}$ and $\frac{1}{\ln^{1/P(1+\varepsilon')}}$ in $(\mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \ell_2)$ after letting $w = \max\{1, \varepsilon\}$. From left to right, in blue: plots of $\frac{1}{3P(1/(1+\varepsilon))}$, $\frac{1}{5P(1+\varepsilon')}$ and $\frac{1}{\ln^{1/P(1+\varepsilon')}}$. All three plots are versus ε on a logarithmic scale ($x = \log_{10} \varepsilon$). The red lines have equation $y = 1$.

4 Interlude: from exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ to exact $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$

Before dealing with ε - $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ queries (the main topic of the paper), let us show a simple but pedagogical application of exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries to exact $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ search. Given a set P with n points and a user-defined parameter $\varepsilon > 0$, we will show that $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ queries can be solved exactly with high probability on any query point q in expected $\tilde{O}(n^\varrho + n^\alpha |O(\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)|)$ time using $\tilde{O}(n^{1+\varrho})$ space, for some quantities $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1+\Omega(\varepsilon^2)} < 1$ and $\alpha \leq \varepsilon\varrho < \varepsilon$ (Theorem 4.3). The running time bound is composed of two terms: the first one is sublinear in n and corresponds to a standard approximate ε - $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ query using locality-sensitive hashing; the second one depends on the size of the approximate nearest neighbors set $O(\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$ and indicates that the solution to the exact query is sought for among this set. Whether the bound will be sublinear in n or

not in the end depends on the size of this set compared to the quantity $n^{1-\alpha}$. This follows the intuition that finding the exact nearest neighbor of q is easy when q does not have too many approximate nearest neighbors, and in this respect the quantity $|O(\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)|$ plays the role of a *condition number* measuring the inherent difficulty of a given instance of the exact \mathcal{NN} problem. The interesting point to raise here is that the limit on this number for our algorithm to be sublinear is at least of the order of $n^{\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon}}$ since we have $\alpha < \varepsilon$.

Let us point out that the above bounds are for the ambient space \mathbb{R}^d equipped with the ℓ_1 - or ℓ_2 -norm. Our analysis will be carried out in the more general setting of an ℓ_s -norm, with $s \in (0, 2]$, where we will derive more general complexity bounds. The choice of (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) is mainly for ease of exposition, since the algorithm can actually be applied in arbitrary metric spaces that admit locality-sensitive families of hash functions, where its analysis extends in a straightforward manner (see Remark 4.4 at the end of the section).

The algorithm. Let P be a finite set of n points in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) , $s \in (0, 2]$, and let $\varepsilon > 0$ be a parameter. The preprocessing phase consists of the following steps:

- i. Build the tree structure $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$ of Section 2.2 and its associated (r, ε) - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ data structures.
- ii. For every (r, ε) - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ data structure built on some subset of P at step i, build an $\mathcal{A}'(P, r, \varepsilon)$ data structure using the procedure of Section 3.2.

Then, given a query point q , we proceed as follows:

1. Answer an ε - \mathcal{NN} query using the tree structure $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$, and let $r \geq 0$ be the output value.
2. Answer an exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query using the $\mathcal{A}'(P, r, \varepsilon)$ data structure, and let S be the output set.
3. Iterate over the points of S and return the one that is closest to q . If S is empty, then return any arbitrary point of P .

Note that the execution of step 2 is made possible by the fact that the algorithm solving the ε - \mathcal{NN} query at step 1 returns a radius r that is stored in one of the $\mathcal{A}'(P, r, \varepsilon)$ data structures built during the preprocessing phase. For any other value r we would not be able to perform step 2 because we would not have the corresponding $\mathcal{A}'(P, r, \varepsilon)$ data structure at hand.

Analysis. We begin by showing the correctness of the query procedure:

Lemma 4.1. *The query procedure returns a point of $\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$ with high probability.*

Proof. Corollary 2.4 guarantees that the radius r computed at step 1 satisfies $d(q, P) \leq r \leq d(q, P)(1 + \varepsilon)$ with high probability. Under this condition, we have $\mathcal{NN}_P(q) \subseteq \mathcal{B}_P(q, r)$, and so Theorem 3.7 guarantees that the set S computed at step 2 contains $\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$ with high probability. It follows that the point returned at step 3 belongs to $\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$ with high probability. \square

We will now analyze the expected running time of the query. Let D be the s -stable distribution used by the algorithm, and let $p_0 = P(\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon})$, $p_1 = P(1)$, $p_2 = P(1 + \varepsilon)$ and $p'_2 = P(((1 + \varepsilon)^s + (1 + \varepsilon)^{-s} - 1)^{1/s})$ be derived from D according to Eq. (1). By Corollary 2.4, the running time of step 1 is $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\varrho}{\ln^{1/p_2}})$, where $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$. The running time of step 3 is $O(|S|)$, so it is dominated by the running time of step 2.

Lemma 4.2. *The expected running time of step 2 is $\tilde{O}(n^{\varrho'} (\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}} + \frac{1}{p_2}) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0} |\varepsilon(2 + \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)|)$, where $\varrho' = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$ and $\alpha = \varrho'(1 - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_1})$.*

Proof. Let r be the radius computed at step 1. By Theorem 3.7, the expected running time of step 2 is $\tilde{O}(n^{\varrho'}(\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2'} + \frac{1}{p_2'}}) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0}|\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon))|)$. If $r \leq d(q, P)(1+\varepsilon)$, then we have $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon)) \subseteq \varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$ and so the expected running time becomes $\tilde{O}(n^{\varrho'}(\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2'} + \frac{1}{p_2'}}) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0}|\varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)|)$. By contrast, if $r > d(q, P)(1+\varepsilon)$, then we have no bound on the size of $\mathcal{B}_P(q, r(1+\varepsilon))$ other than n , so the expected running time of step 2 becomes $\tilde{O}(n^{\varrho'}(\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2'} + \frac{1}{p_2'}}) + \frac{n^{\alpha+1}}{p_0})$. Now, recall from Section 2 that the event that $r > d(q, P)(1+\varepsilon)$ only occurs with very low probability, more precisely with probability at most $\frac{1}{n}$. Therefore, in total the expected running time of step 2 is bounded by $\tilde{O}(n^{\varrho'}(\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2'} + \frac{1}{p_2'}}) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0}|\varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)| + \frac{1}{n}\frac{n^{\alpha+1}}{p_0})$, which is $\tilde{O}(n^{\varrho'}(\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2'} + \frac{1}{p_2'}}) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0}|\varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)|)$ since the set $\varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$ contains at least one point, namely the nearest neighbor of q . \square

Let us now focus on the size of the data structure. By Corollary 2.4, the total size of the tree $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$ and associated $(r, \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ data structures is $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}n^{1+\varrho})$. In addition, since $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$ has $\tilde{O}(n)$ nodes in total, each one storing $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon})$ data structures for $(r, \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$, the total number of $\mathcal{A}'(P, r, \varepsilon)$ data structures built at step ii of the preprocessing phase is $\tilde{O}(\frac{n}{\varepsilon})$. Therefore, by Theorem 3.7, the total memory usage of the $\mathcal{A}'(P, r, \varepsilon)$ data structures is $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}n^{2+\varrho'})$.

Observing now that we have $p_2' \geq p_2$ and $\varrho' \geq \varrho$ since $((1+\varepsilon)^s + (1+\varepsilon)^{-s} - 1)^{1/s} \leq \varepsilon$, we conclude that our procedure has the following space and time complexities (where p_2' and ϱ' have been renamed respectively p_2 and ϱ for convenience):

Theorem 4.3. *Given a finite set P with n points in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) , $s \in (0, 2]$, and a user-defined parameter $\varepsilon \geq 0$, our procedure answers exact \mathcal{NN} queries with high probability in expected $\tilde{O}(n^\varrho(\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2} + \frac{1}{p_2}}) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0}|\varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)|)$ time using $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}n^{2+\varrho})$ space, where $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$ and $\alpha = \varrho(1 - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_1})$, the quantities $p_0 = P(\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon})$, $p_1 = P(1)$ and $p_2 = P(((1+\varepsilon)^s + (1+\varepsilon)^{-s} - 1)^{1/s})$ being derived from some s -stable distribution D according to Eq. (1).*

Replacing Theorem 3.7 by its specialized versions for $s = 1$ and $s = 2$ in the analysis immediately gives the following complexity bounds:

Theorem 4.3 (case $s = 1$). *Given a finite set P with n points in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_1) , and a user-defined parameter $\varepsilon \geq 0$, our procedure answers exact \mathcal{NN} queries with high probability in expected $\tilde{O}(n^\varrho + n^\alpha|\varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)|)$ time using $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}n^{2+\varrho})$ space, where $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1+\min\{\varepsilon^2, \sqrt{\varepsilon}\}/4} < 1$ and $\alpha \leq \varepsilon\varrho < \varepsilon$.*

Theorem 4.3 (case $s = 2$). *Given a finite set P with n points in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_2) , and a user-defined parameter $\varepsilon \geq 0$, our procedure answers exact \mathcal{NN} queries with high probability in expected $\tilde{O}(n^\varrho + n^\alpha|\varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)|)$ time using $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}n^{2+\varrho})$ space, where $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1+\varepsilon^2/(1+\varepsilon)} < 1$ and $\alpha \leq \varepsilon\varrho < \varepsilon$.*

Note that in practice a trade-off must be made by the user when choosing parameter ε . Indeed, the smaller ε , the smaller the set $\varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$ and the smaller α compared to ϱ , but on the other hand the higher ϱ itself.

Remark 4.4. *In our analysis we traded optimality for simplicity since we applied the results from Section 3.2 verbatim. In fact, a closer look at the problem reveals that the data points lie at least $d(q, P) \geq \frac{r}{1+\varepsilon}$ away from the query point q with high probability at step 2 of the query phase. This means that no lifting of the data into \mathbb{R}^{d+1} is actually needed. We then have $p_2' = p_2$, $\varrho' = \varrho$, and a careful analysis shows that relevant choices of parameter w reduce ϱ down to (are*

at least close to) $\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon}$. In addition and more importantly, not having to re-embed the data means that the algorithm can be applied in arbitrary metric spaces (X, d) that admit locality-sensitive families of hash functions, where the analysis extends in a straightforward manner.

5 From exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ to ε - $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$

In this section we focus on our main problem (ε - $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$) and show how it can be reduced to a single instance of ε - $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ search plus a controlled number of instances of exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$. Although the reduction is applicable in any metric space, we will restrict our study to the case of \mathbb{R}^d equipped with an ℓ_s -norm, $s \in (0, 2]$, where the non-isometric embedding trick of Section 3.2 can be used to speed-up the process. The details of the reduction are given in Section 5.2, its output proven correct in Section 5.3, and its complexity analyzed in Section 5.4. The reduction and analysis are then extended to a bichromatic setting in Section 5.5. For now we begin with an overview of the reduction and of its key ingredients in Section 5.1.

5.1 Overview of the reduction

Let P be a finite set with n points in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) , $s \in (0, 2]$. Suppose the distance of every point $p \in P$ to its nearest neighbor in $P \setminus \{p\}$ has been pre-computed. Then, given a query point q , computing a solution to the exact $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ query amounts to checking, for every point $p \in P$, whether $d(q, p) \leq d(p, P)$ or $d(q, p) > d(p, P)$: in the first case, p must be included in the solution, whereas in the second case it must not. This check for point p can be done by computing the solution S of the exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query on input (P, q) , with $r = d(p, P)$, and by including p in the answer if and only if it belongs to S . Indeed, we have

$$p \in \mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q) \Leftrightarrow d(p, q) \leq d(p, P) = r \Leftrightarrow p \in \mathcal{B}_P(q, r) \Leftrightarrow p \in S.$$

Thus, computing the set $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$ boils down to locating q among the set of balls $\{\mathcal{B}(p, d(p, P)) \mid p \in P\}$. This observation was exploited in previous work [23] and serves as the starting point of our approach. The main problem is that the ball radius r changes with each data point $p \in P$ considered, so the total number of exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries to be solved can be up to linear in n . To reduce this number, we turn our focus to the ε -approximate $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ problem and use a bucketing strategy. In a pre-processing phase, we compute $d(p, P)$ for every point $p \in P$ and then we hash the data points into buckets according to their nearest neighbor distances, so that bucket P_i contains the points $p \in P$ such that $d(p, P) \in [(1 + \varepsilon)^{i-1}, (1 + \varepsilon)^i)$. At query time, we solve an exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query with $r = (1 + \varepsilon)^i$ on each bucket P_i separately, and then we take the union of the solutions as our output. Since the points $p \in P_i$ satisfy $(1 + \varepsilon)^{i-1} \leq d(p, P) < (1 + \varepsilon)^i$, it is easily seen that our output is an admissible solution to the ε - $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}$ query on q .

A remaining issue is that we do not impose any constraints on parameter i , so at query time we need to inspect every single non-empty bucket P_i . As a result, in pathological cases such as when all non-empty buckets are singletons, we will end up considering a linear number of buckets, even though the set ε - $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$ itself might be small or even empty. To avoid this pitfall, we limit the range of values of i to be considered thanks to the following observations, where y is an arbitrary point of ε - $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$:

Observation 1. *Every point $p \in \mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$ satisfies $d(p, P) \geq \frac{d(q, y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)}$.*

Proof. Let $p \in P$ be such that $d(p, P) < \frac{d(q, y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)}$, and let $p' \in P \setminus \{p\}$ be closest to p . Then, $d(p, p') = d(p, P) < \frac{d(q, y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)}$, which is at most $\frac{1}{2}d(q, p')$ since $y \in \varepsilon$ - $\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$. It follows that $d(p, p') < d(p, q)$, which means that $p \notin \mathcal{R}\mathcal{N}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$. \square

Observation 2. Every point $p \in \mathcal{RNN}_P(q)$ such that $d(p, P) \geq \frac{2d(q, y)}{\varepsilon}$ belongs to $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(y)$.

Proof. Since $p \in \mathcal{RNN}_P(q)$, we have $d(p, q) \leq d(p, P)$. In addition, we have $d(q, y) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}d(p, P)$ by hypothesis. It follows that $d(p, y) \leq d(p, q) + d(q, y) \leq (1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{2})d(p, P)$, which means that p belongs to $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(y)$. \square

Assuming that we have precomputed a data structure that enables us to find some $y \in \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$, Observation 1 guarantees that we can safely ignore those buckets P_i with $i \leq \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{d(q, y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)}$. Furthermore, assuming that the set $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(y)$ has been precomputed, Observation 2 guarantees that the reverse nearest neighbors of q that belong to those buckets P_i with $i \geq 1 + \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{2d(q, y)}{\varepsilon}$ can simply be looked for among the points of $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(y)$. Thus, the total number of buckets to be inspected is reduced to $\lceil \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{2d(q, y)}{\varepsilon} \rceil - \lfloor \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{d(q, y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)} \rfloor \leq 2 + \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{4(1+\varepsilon)}{\varepsilon} = O(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon})$.

5.2 Details of the reduction

Given a finite set P with n points in (\mathbb{R}^d, ℓ_s) , $s \in (0, 2]$, and a parameter $\varepsilon \geq 0$, our pre-computation phase builds a data structure $\mathcal{RNNDS}(P, \varepsilon)$ that stores the following pieces of information (please refer to Algorithm 3):

- A collection of buckets $\{P_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}}$ that partition P . Specifically, each bucket P_i contains those points $p \in P$ such that $(1 + \varepsilon)^{i-1} \leq d(p, P) < (1 + \varepsilon)^i$. To compute the buckets, we iterate over the points $p \in P$, we compute $d(p, P)$ exactly either by brute-force or by using the algorithms of Section 4, and we assign p to its corresponding bucket (lines 2-5). Once this is done, the empty buckets are discarded and the non-empty buckets are stored in a hash table to ensure constant look-up time. On each non-empty bucket P_i we build an $\mathcal{A}(P_i, (1 + \varepsilon)^i, \varepsilon)$ data structure using the procedure of Section 3.2 (lines 6-8). Note that when applying Algorithm 1 we follow Remark 3.4 and increase the number of iterations of the main loop from $\lceil c \ln |P_i| \rceil$ to $\lceil c \ln n \rceil$, where $c = \frac{3}{\ln \frac{3}{2}}$.
- For each point $y \in P$, the set $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(y)$ is computed and stored in a variable P_y . These sets are easily computed in time $O(n^2)$ once $d(p, P)$ has been computed for every point $p \in P$ at the first step of the construction (lines 9-12).
- The tree structure $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$ of Section 2.2 and its associated $(r, \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ data structures (line 13).

Now, given the $\mathcal{RNNDS}(P, \varepsilon)$ data structure and a query point $q \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we answer the $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}$ query as follows (please refer to Algorithm 4):

- We use the tree structure $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$ and its associated $(r, \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ data structures to answer an $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}$ query, and we let y be the output point (line 1).
- We use the $\mathcal{A}(P_i, (1 + \varepsilon)^i, \varepsilon)$ data structure to answer an exhaustive $(1 + \varepsilon)^i\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query on each bucket P_i separately, for i lying in the range prescribed by Observations 1 and 2 (lines 2-6), and then we merge the output sets into a single set S (line 7). Note that we apply Algorithm 2 on P_i with an increased number of iterations of the main loop, specifically from $\lceil c \ln |P_i| \rceil$ to $\lceil c \ln n \rceil$, where $c = \frac{3}{\ln \frac{3}{2}}$, which raises the probability of success of the query from $1 - \frac{1}{|P_i|^2}$ (which could be as small as 0 if P_i turned out to be a singleton) to $1 - \frac{1}{n^2}$, as per Remark 3.4.
- We iterate over the points $p \in P_y$ that satisfy $d(p, P) \geq \frac{2d(q, y)}{\varepsilon}$, and we add to S the ones that are closer to q than to y (lines 8-12).

Upon termination, we return the set S (line 13).

<p>Input : point cloud $P \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, parameter $\varepsilon \geq 0$ Output: $\mathcal{RNDS}(P, \varepsilon)$ data structure</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Initialize $P_i := \emptyset$ for $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ 2 foreach $p \in P$ do 3 Compute $d(p, P)$ exactly and store it 4 Find i s.t. $(1 + \varepsilon)^{i-1} \leq d(p, P) < (1 + \varepsilon)^i$ and update $P_i := P_i \cup \{p\}$ 5 end 6 foreach $P_i \neq \emptyset$ do 7 Build an $\mathcal{A}'(P_i, (1 + \varepsilon)^i, \varepsilon)$ data structure 8 end 9 foreach $y \in P$ do 10 Build the set $P_y := \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \mathcal{RN}_P(y)$ 11 Sort the points $p \in P_y$ by increasing distances $d(p, P)$ 12 end 13 Build the tree structure $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$ of Section 2.2 and its associated (r, ε)-$\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ data structures

Algorithm 3: Pre-processing phase for ε - \mathcal{RN} .

<p>Input : $\mathcal{RNDS}(P, \varepsilon)$ data structure, query point $q \in \mathbb{R}^d$</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Answer an ε-\mathcal{N} query on input (P, q), and let y be the output 2 for $i = \lfloor \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{d(q, y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)} \rfloor + 1$ to $\lceil \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{2d(q, y)}{\varepsilon} \rceil$ do 3 if $P_i \neq \emptyset$ then 4 Answer an exhaustive $(1 + \varepsilon)^i$-$\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query on input (P_i, q), and let S_i be the output 5 end 6 end 7 Let $S := \bigcup_i S_i$ 8 foreach $p \in P_y$ such that $d(p, P) \geq \frac{2d(q, y)}{\varepsilon}$ do 9 if $d(p, q) \leq d(p, y)$ then 10 $S := S \cup \{p\}$ 11 end 12 end 13 Return S

Algorithm 4: Online query phase for ε - \mathcal{RN} .

5.3 Correctness of the output

Corollary 2.4 guarantees that Line 1 of Algorithm 4 will retrieve a point $y \in \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$ with high probability. Let us show that, given that $y \in \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{N}_P(q)$, the set S output by the algorithm satisfies $\mathcal{RN}_P(q) \subseteq S \subseteq \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RN}_P(q)$ with high probability. For clarity, we let S_1 be the set of points inserted in S on lines 2-7 of Algorithm 4, and S_2 be the set of points inserted in S on lines 8-12. The output of the algorithm is $S_1 \cup S_2$. Our plan is to show that S_1 is correct with high probability (Lemma 5.1), then that S_2 is also correct with high probability (Lemma 5.2), from which we will deduce that the output $S_1 \cup S_2$ itself is correct with high probability (Theorem 5.3). Let $P_{S_1} = \bigcup_i P_i$ for $i = \lfloor \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{d(q, y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)} \rfloor + 1$ to $\lceil \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{2d(q, y)}{\varepsilon} \rceil$.

Lemma 5.1. *Given that $y \in \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$, we have $\mathcal{NN}_P(q) \cap P_{S_1} \subseteq S_1 \subseteq \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$ with high probability.*

Proof. Line 7 of Algorithm 4 builds S_1 by taking the union of the sets S_i generated by answering exhaustive $(1 + \varepsilon)^i\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries on the point sets P_i with query point q . Recall from line 4 of Algorithm 3 that every point $p \in P_i$ satisfies $(1 + \varepsilon)^{i-1} \leq d(p, P) < (1 + \varepsilon)^i$. Recall also that the test on line 8 of Algorithm 2 ensures that every point $p \in S_i$ belongs to $\mathcal{B}_{P_i}(q, (1 + \varepsilon)^i)$, which implies that $d(p, q) \leq (1 + \varepsilon)d(p, P)$. Thus, $S_i \subseteq \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$. In addition, the points $p \in \mathcal{NN}_P(q) \cap P_i$ satisfy $d(p, q) \leq d(p, P) \leq (1 + \varepsilon)^i$ and therefore belong to $\mathcal{B}_{P_i}(q, (1 + \varepsilon)^i)$. Since $\lceil c \ln n \rceil$ iterations of the main loops of Algorithms 1 and 2 are run, with $c = \frac{3}{\ln \frac{3}{2}}$, Lemma 3.3 and Remark 3.4 guarantee that $\mathcal{B}_{P_i}(q, (1 + \varepsilon)^i)$ is included in S_i with probability at least $1 - \frac{1}{n^2}$. Hence, with the same probability we have $\mathcal{NN}_P(q) \cap P_i \subseteq S_i$.

Since the above inclusions hold with probability $\geq 1 - \frac{1}{n^2}$ for each non-empty set P_i taken separately, and since the total number of non-empty sets P_i is at most n , we conclude by the union bound that $\mathcal{NN}_P(q) \cap P_{S_1} \subseteq S_1 \subseteq \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$ with probability at least $1 - \frac{1}{n}$, where P_{S_1} is the union of the P_i and S_1 is the union of the S_i for i ranging from $\lfloor \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{d(q,y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)} \rfloor + 1$ to $\lceil \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{2d(q,y)}{\varepsilon} \rceil$. \square

Lemma 5.2. *Given that $y \in \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$, we have $\mathcal{NN}_P(q) \setminus P_{S_1} \subseteq S_2 \subseteq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$ with high probability.*

Proof. The first inclusion follows from Observations 1 and 2. Indeed, recall from line 4 of Algorithm 3 that every point $p \in P_i$ with $i < \lfloor \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{d(q,y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)} \rfloor + 1$ satisfies $d(p, P) < (1 + \varepsilon)^i \leq \frac{d(q,y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)}$ and therefore cannot belong to $\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$, by Observation 1. In addition, the points $p \in \mathcal{NN}_P(q) \cap P_i$ with $i > \lceil \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{2d(q,y)}{\varepsilon} \rceil$ satisfy $d(p, P) \geq (1 + \varepsilon)^{i-1} \geq \frac{2d(q,y)}{\varepsilon}$ and therefore belong to $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(y)$, by Observation 2. Hence, all such points p are considered in the loop of lines 8-12 of Algorithm 4 and are therefore inserted in S . It follows that $\mathcal{NN}_P(q) \setminus P_{S_1} \subseteq S_2$.

The second inclusion is straightforward: since by construction we have $S_2 \subseteq P_y = \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(y)$, every point $p \in S_2$ satisfies $d(p, q) \leq d(p, y) \leq (1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{2})d(p, P)$, which means that $p \in \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$. \square

Our correctness guarantee follows directly from Lemmas 5.1 and 5.2, using the union bound:

Theorem 5.3. *Given a query point $q \in \mathbb{R}^d$, Algorithm 4 outputs a set $S = S_1 \cup S_2$ such that $\mathcal{NN}_P(q) \subseteq S \subseteq \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$ with high probability.*

5.4 Complexity

Let D be the s -stable distribution used by the algorithm, and let $p_0 = P(\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon})$, $p_1 = P(1)$, $p_2 = P(1 + \varepsilon)$ and $p'_2 = P(((1 + \varepsilon)^s + (1 + \varepsilon)^{-s} - 1)^{1/s})$ be derived from D according to Eq. (1). By Corollary 2.4, the running time of the $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}$ query on line 1 of Algorithm 4 is $\tilde{O}(\frac{n^\varrho}{\ln^{1/p_2}})$, where $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$. Then, for i ranging from $\lfloor \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{d(q,y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)} \rfloor + 1$ to $\lceil \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{2d(q,y)}{\varepsilon} \rceil$, the exhaustive $(1 + \varepsilon)^i\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query on the set P_i takes $\tilde{O}(|P_i|^{\varrho'} (\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}} + \frac{1}{p_2}) + \frac{|P_i|^\alpha}{p_0} |\mathcal{B}_{P_i}(q, (1 + \varepsilon)^{i+1})|) = \tilde{O}(n^{\varrho'} (\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}} + \frac{1}{p_2}) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0} |\mathcal{B}_{P_i}(q, (1 + \varepsilon)^{i+1})|)$ time in expectation, where $\varrho' = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$ and $\alpha = \varrho' (1 - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_1})$, by Theorem 3.7. Observe that the points $p \in \mathcal{B}_{P_i}(q, (1 + \varepsilon)^{i+1})$ satisfy $d(p, q) \leq (1 + \varepsilon)^{i+1} \leq (1 + \varepsilon)^2 d(p, P)$, so we have $\mathcal{B}_{P_i}(q, (1 + \varepsilon)^{i+1}) \subseteq \varepsilon(2 + \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_P(q)$. Furthermore, since the buckets P_i are pairwise disjoint, so are the sets $\mathcal{B}_{P_i}(q, (1 + \varepsilon)^{i+1})$. It follows that the total expected time spent in the loop of lines 2-7 of Algorithm 4 is $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{\varrho'} (\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}} +$

$\frac{1}{p'_2}) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0} |\varepsilon(2 + \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)|$, the factor $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ in the first term coming from the fact that there are $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon})$ iterations of the loop. In addition, since the points $p \in P_y$ have been sorted by increasing distances $d(p, P)$ (line 11 of Algorithm 3), locating the subset of those points that satisfy $d(p, P) \geq \frac{2d(q, y)}{\varepsilon}$ takes $O(\log_2 |P_y|) = O(\log_2 n)$ time. Now, for every such point p we have $d(p, y) \geq d(p, P) \geq \frac{2d(q, y)}{\varepsilon}$, so $d(p, q) \leq d(p, y) + d(y, q) \leq (1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{2})d(p, y) \leq (1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{2})^2 d(p, P)$ since $p \in P_y = \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(y)$. It follows that $p \in \varepsilon(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{4})\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)$. Hence, the total time spent in the loop of lines 8-12 of Algorithm 4 is $\tilde{O}(|\varepsilon(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{4})\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)|)$, a term that is dominated by the previous one since $\varepsilon(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{4}) \leq \varepsilon(2 + \varepsilon)$.

Combining these bounds and using the fact that $p'_2 \geq p_2$ and $\varrho' \geq \varrho$ since $((1 + \varepsilon)^s + (1 + \varepsilon)^{-s} - 1)^{1/s} \leq \varepsilon$, we obtain the following bound on the total expected query time (where p'_2 and ϱ' have been renamed respectively p_2 and ϱ for convenience):

Theorem 5.4. *Given a query point $q \in (\mathbb{R}^d, \ell_s)$, the expected running time of Algorithm 4 is $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^\varrho (\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}} + \frac{1}{p_2}) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0} |\varepsilon(2 + \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)|)$, where $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$ and $\alpha = \varrho(1 - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_1})$, the quantities $p_0 = P(\frac{1}{1 + \varepsilon})$, $p_1 = P(1)$ and $p_2 = P(((1 + \varepsilon)^s + (1 + \varepsilon)^{-s} - 1)^{1/s})$ being derived from some s -stable distribution D according to Eq. (1).*

Replacing Theorem 3.7 by its specialized versions for $s = 1$ and $s = 2$ in the analysis immediately gives the following running time bounds:

Theorem 5.4 (case $s = 1$). *Given a query point $q \in (\mathbb{R}^d, \ell_1)$, the expected running time of Algorithm 4 is $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^\varrho + n^\alpha |\varepsilon(2 + \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)|)$, where $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1 + \min\{\varepsilon^2, \sqrt{\varepsilon}\}/4} < 1$ and $\alpha \leq \varepsilon\varrho < \varepsilon$.*

Theorem 5.4 (case $s = 2$). *Given a query point $q \in (\mathbb{R}^d, \ell_2)$, the expected running time of Algorithm 4 is $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^\varrho + n^\alpha |\varepsilon(2 + \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_P(q)|)$, where $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1 + \varepsilon^2/(1 + \varepsilon)} < 1$ and $\alpha \leq \varepsilon\varrho < \varepsilon$.*

As mentioned in Section 5.2, the $\mathcal{RNNDS}(P, \varepsilon)$ data structure consists mainly of a collection of pairwise-disjoint non-empty buckets, of total cardinality n , and for each bucket P_i an $\mathcal{A}'(P_i, (1 + \varepsilon)^i, \varepsilon)$ data structure of size $\tilde{O}(n_i^{1 + \varrho'})$ where $n_i = |P_i|$, by Theorem 3.7. This gives a total size of $\tilde{O}(\sum_i n_i^{1 + \varrho'}) = \tilde{O}(n^{1 + \varrho'})$. In addition, $\mathcal{RNNDS}(P, \varepsilon)$ stores the tree structure $\mathcal{T}(P, \varepsilon)$ and its associated $(r, \varepsilon)\text{-}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ data structures, whose total size is $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{1 + \varrho})$, by Corollary 2.4. Finally, $\mathcal{RNNDS}(P, \varepsilon)$ stores the set P_y for each point $y \in P$, which requires a total space of $\tilde{O}(\sum_{y \in P} |P_y|)$. Combining these bounds and using the fact that $\varrho' \geq \varrho$, we obtain the following bound on the size of the data structure (where p'_2 and ϱ' have been renamed respectively p_2 and ϱ for convenience):

Theorem 5.5. *The size of the data structure $\mathcal{RNNDS}(P, \varepsilon)$ built by Algorithm 3 is $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{1 + \varrho} + \sum_{y \in P} |P_y|) = \tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{1 + \varrho} + n^2)$, where $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2} < 1$, the quantities $p_1 = P(1)$ and $p_2 = P(((1 + \varepsilon)^s + (1 + \varepsilon)^{-s} - 1)^{1/s})$ being derived from some s -stable distribution D according to Eq. (1).*

5.5 Bichromatic $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}$

Let (X, d) be a metric space, and let B, Y be two finite subsets of X , respectively referred to as the blue and yellow sets in the following. Given a point $x \in X$, a *reverse nearest neighbor* of x in this bichromatic setting is a point $b \in B \setminus \{x\}$ such that $x \in \mathcal{NN}_{Y \cup \{x\}}(b)$. Let $\mathcal{RNN}_{B, Y}(x)$ denote the set of all such points. By analogy, given a parameter $\varepsilon \geq 0$, a *reverse ε -nearest neighbor* of x is a point $b \in B \setminus \{x\}$ such that $x \in \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{NN}_{Y \cup \{x\}}(b)$, and let $\varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_{B, Y}(x)$ denote the set of all such points. The bichromatic versions of Problems 3 and 4 are stated as follows:

Problem 8 (Bichromatic \mathcal{RNN}). *Given a query point $q \in X$, the bichromatic reverse nearest neighbors query asks to retrieve the set $\mathcal{RNN}_{B, Y}(q)$.*

Problem 9 (Bichromatic ε - \mathcal{RNN}). Given a query point $q \in X$, the bichromatic reverse ε -nearest neighbors query asks to return any set S such that $\mathcal{RNN}_{B,Y}(q) \subseteq S \subseteq \varepsilon\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_{B,Y}(q)$.

<p>Input : point clouds $B, Y \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, parameter $\varepsilon \geq 0$ Output: $\mathcal{RNNDS}(B, Y, \varepsilon)$ data structure</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Initialize $P_i := \emptyset$ for $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ 2 foreach $b \in B$ do 3 Compute $d(b, Y)$ exactly and store it 4 Find i s.t. $(1 + \varepsilon)^{i-1} \leq d(b, Y) < (1 + \varepsilon)^i$ and update $P_i := P_i \cup \{b\}$ 5 end 6 foreach $P_i \neq \emptyset$ do 7 Build an $\mathcal{A}'(P_i, (1 + \varepsilon)^i, \varepsilon)$ data structure 8 end 9 foreach $y \in Y$ do 10 Build the set $P_y := \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\text{-}\mathcal{RNN}_{B,Y}(y)$ 11 Sort the points $b \in P_y$ by increasing distances $d(b, Y)$ 12 end 13 Build the tree structure $\mathcal{T}(Y, \varepsilon)$ of Section 2.2 and its associated (r, ε)-$\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ data structures

Algorithm 5: Pre-processing phase for bichromatic ε - \mathcal{RNN} .

<p>Input : $\mathcal{RNNDS}(B, Y, \varepsilon)$ data structure, query point $q \in \mathbb{R}^d$</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Answer an ε-\mathcal{NN} query on input (Y, q), and let y be the output 2 for $i = \left\lceil \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{d(q,y)}{2(1+\varepsilon)} \right\rceil + 1$ to $\left\lceil \log_{1+\varepsilon} \frac{2d(q,y)}{\varepsilon} \right\rceil$ do 3 if $P_i \neq \emptyset$ then 4 Answer an exhaustive $(1 + \varepsilon)^i$-$\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ query on input (P_i, q), and let S_i be the output 5 end 6 end 7 Let $S := \bigcup_i S_i$ 8 foreach $b \in P_y$ such that $d(b, Y) \geq \frac{2d(q,y)}{\varepsilon}$ do 9 if $d(b, q) \leq d(b, y)$ then 10 $S := S \cup \{b\}$ 11 end 12 end 13 Return S

Algorithm 6: Online query phase for bichromatic ε - \mathcal{RNN} .

Our strategy for answering reverse nearest neighbors queries extends quite naturally to the bichromatic setting when the ambient space is \mathbb{R}^d equipped with an ℓ_s -norm, $s \in (0, 2]$. Given two finite subsets B, Y of \mathbb{R}^d , and a parameter $\varepsilon \geq 0$, the data structure and algorithms are the same as in Section 5.2, modulo the following minor changes:

- the buckets P_i now partition the blue point set B , and each bucket P_i gathers the points $b \in B$ such that $(1 + \varepsilon)^{i-1} \leq d(b, Y) < (1 + \varepsilon)^i$,

- the tree structure of Section 2.2 is now built on top of the yellow set Y , so we can find approximate nearest neighbors among the yellow points efficiently,
- for each point $y \in Y$, we now store the set $P_y := \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \mathcal{RNN}_{B,Y}(q)$, and we sort its elements by increasing distances to Y .

The details of the preprocessing and query procedures are given in Algorithms 5 and 6 for completeness. The proof of correctness with high probability and the complexity analysis extend verbatim to the bichromatic setting, modulo the systematic replacement of point set P by either B or Y . We thus obtain the following guarantees:

Theorem 5.6. *Given a query point $q \in (\mathbb{R}^d, \ell_s)$, Algorithm 6 answers bichromatic ε - \mathcal{RNN} queries correctly with high probability in $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^\varrho (\frac{1}{\ln^{1/p_2}} + \frac{1}{p_2}) + \frac{n^\alpha}{p_0} |\varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\mathcal{RNN}_{B,Y}(q)|)$ time using $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{1+\varrho} + \sum_{y \in Y} |P_y|) = \tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{1+\varrho} + n^2)$ space, where $n = \max\{|B|, |Y|\}$, $\varrho = \frac{\ln p_1}{\ln p_2}$ and $\alpha = \varrho(1 - \frac{\ln p_0}{\ln p_1})$, the quantities $p_0 = P(\frac{1}{1+\varepsilon})$, $p_1 = P(1)$ and $p_2 = P(((1+\varepsilon)^s + (1+\varepsilon)^{-s} - 1)^{1/s})$ being derived from some s -stable distribution D according to Eq. (1).*

Theorem 5.6 (case $s = 1$). *Given a query point $q \in (\mathbb{R}^d, \ell_1)$, Algorithm 6 answers bichromatic ε - \mathcal{RNN} queries correctly with high probability in $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^\varrho + n^\alpha |\varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\mathcal{RNN}_{B,Y}(q)|)$ time using $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{1+\varrho} + \sum_{y \in Y} |P_y|) = \tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{1+\varrho} + n^2)$ space, where $n = \max\{|B|, |Y|\}$, $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1 + \min\{\varepsilon^2, \sqrt{\varepsilon}\}/4} < 1$ and $\alpha \leq \varepsilon \varrho < \varepsilon$.*

Theorem 5.6 (case $s = 2$). *Given a query point $q \in (\mathbb{R}^d, \ell_2)$, Algorithm 6 answers bichromatic ε - \mathcal{RNN} queries correctly with high probability in $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^\varrho + n^\alpha |\varepsilon(2+\varepsilon)\mathcal{RNN}_{B,Y}(q)|)$ time using $\tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{1+\varrho} + \sum_{y \in Y} |P_y|) = \tilde{O}(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} n^{1+\varrho} + n^2)$ space, where $n = \max\{|B|, |Y|\}$, $\varrho \leq \frac{1}{1 + \varepsilon^2/(1+\varepsilon)} < 1$ and $\alpha \leq \varepsilon \varrho < \varepsilon$.*

6 Conclusion

We have introduced a novel algorithm for answering (monochromatic or bichromatic) approximate \mathcal{RNN} queries that is both provably correct and provably efficient in all dimensions. Our approach is based on a reduction of the problem to standard ε - \mathcal{NN} search, plus a controlled number of exhaustive r - $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{L}\mathcal{E}\mathcal{B}$ queries, for which we propose a speed-up of the original LSH scheme based on an lifting of the data one dimension higher. Along the way, we obtain a new method for answering exact \mathcal{NN} queries, whose complexity bounds reflect the gap in difficulty that exists between exact and approximate queries on a given instance.

Let us point out that our non-isometric embedding trick could be used in a more aggressive way by applying embeddings with ever more distortion, so as to reduce the exponent α in the complexity bounds to arbitrarily small positive constants. However, this would come at the price of a steady degradation of the exponent ϱ , which would get closer and closer to 1. The question is how far up in distortion one can go before the increase of ϱ starts compensating for the reduction of α . Another question in the same vein is whether α can be made dependent on n , and in particular monotonically decreasing with n . For instance, can α be reduced to $\frac{\ln \ln n}{\ln n}$, so the cost of the query becomes of the order of $\ln n$ per output point? More generally, how far from the optimal do our complexity bounds lie?

Acknowledgements

A preliminary version of the paper was written in collaboration with Aneesh Sharma, and some exploratory experiments were undertaken by Maxime Br n n. The authors wish to acknowledge their substantial contributions to this work.

References

- [1] Elke Aichtert, Christian Böhm, Peer Kröger, Peter Kunath, Alexey Pryakhin, and Matthias Renz. Efficient Reverse k -Nearest Neighbor Search in Arbitrary Metric Spaces. *Proceedings of the 2006 ACM SIGMOD International Conference on Management of Data*, pages 515–526, 2006. 4
- [2] A. Andoni and P. Indyk. Near-optimal hashing algorithms for approximate nearest neighbor in high dimensions. *Proceedings of the 47th Annual IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science*, pages 459–468, 2006. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/FOCS.2006.49>. 3, 8
- [3] Alexandr Andoni and Piotr Indyk. Near-Optimal Hashing Algorithms for Approximate Nearest Neighbor in High Dimensions. *Communications of the ACM*, 51(1):117, 2008. 3
- [4] Sunil Arya, David M. Mount, Nathan S. Netanyahu, Ruth Silverman, and Angela Y. Wu. An Optimal Algorithm for Approximate Nearest Neighbor Searching in Fixed Dimensions. *Journal of the ACM (JACM)*, 45(6):891–923, 1998. 3
- [5] Rimantas Benetis, Christian Jensen, Gytis Karčiauskas, and Simonas Šaltenis. Nearest and Reverse Nearest Neighbor Queries for Moving Objects. *The International Journal on Very Large Data Bases*, 15(3):229–249, 2006. 4
- [6] Jean-Daniel Boissonnat, Leonidas J. Guibas, and Steve Y. Oudot. Manifold Reconstruction in Arbitrary Dimensions using Witness Complexes. *Discrete and Computational Geometry*, 42(1):37–70, 2009. 4
- [7] Sergio Cabello, José Miguel Díaz-Báñez, Stefan Langerman, Carlos Seara, and Inma Ventura. Facility Location Problems in the Plane Based on Reverse Nearest Neighbor Queries. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 2009. 4
- [8] Otfried Cheong, Antoine Vigneron, and Juyoung Yon. Reverse nearest neighbor queries in fixed dimension. *International Journal of Computational Geometry and Applications*. URL <http://arxiv.org/abs/0905.4441v2>. 4
- [9] Kenneth L. Clarkson. An Algorithm for Approximate Closest-point Queries. *Proceedings of the Tenth Annual Symposium on Computational Geometry*, pages 160–164, 1994. 3
- [10] Kenneth L. Clarkson. Nearest neighbor queries in metric spaces. *Discrete and Computational Geometry*, 22:63–93, 1999. 3, 5
- [11] Kenneth L. Clarkson. Nearest neighbor searching in metric spaces: Experimental results for $sb(s)$. Preliminary version presented at ALENEX99, 2003. URL <http://www.almaden.ibm.com/u/kclarkson/Msb/readme.html>. 4
- [12] Kenneth L. Clarkson. Nearest-neighbor searching and metric space dimensions. In Gregory Shakhnarovich, Trevor Darrell, and Piotr Indyk, editors, *Nearest-Neighbor Methods for Learning and Vision: Theory and Practice*, pages 15–59. MIT Press, 2006. ISBN 0-262-19547-X. 3
- [13] M. Datar, N. Immorlica, P. Indyk, and V. S. Mirrokni. Locality-sensitive hashing scheme based on p -stable distributions. *SCG '04: Proceedings of the Twentieth Annual Symposium on Computational Geometry*, pages 253–262, 2004. doi: <http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/997817.997857>. 3, 5, 8, 9, 14, 15

- [14] Karina Figueroa and Rodrigo Paredes. Approximate direct and reverse nearest neighbor queries, and the k -nearest neighbor graph. *Proceedings of the 2nd International Workshop on Similarity Search and Applications (SISAP 2009)*, 2009. 4
- [15] Aristides Gionis, Piotr Indyk, and Rajeev Motwani. Similarity Search in High Dimensions via Hashing. *Proceedings of the 25th International Conference on Very Large Data Bases*, pages 518–529, 1999. 7
- [16] Leonidas J. Guibas and Steve Y. Oudot. Reconstruction using Witness Complexes. *Discrete and Computational Geometry*, 40(3):325–356, 2009. 4
- [17] Sariel Har-Peled. A Replacement for Voronoi Diagrams of Near Linear Size. *Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science*, 42:94–105, 2001. URL <http://valis.cs.uiuc.edu/~sariel/research/papers/01/avoronoi/avoronoi.pdf>. 6, 7
- [18] Piotr Indyk. Nearest Neighbors in High-dimensional Spaces. In Jacob E. Goodman and Joseph O’Rourke, editors, *Handbook of Discrete and Computational Geometry*, pages 877–892. CRC Press, 2004. 3
- [19] Piotr Indyk and Rajeev Motwani. Approximate Nearest Neighbors: Towards Removing the Curse of Dimensionality. *Proceedings of the Thirtieth Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing*, pages 604–613, 1998. 3, 6, 7
- [20] James M. Kang, Mohamed F. Mokbel, Shashi Shekhar, Tian Xia, and Donghui Zhang. Continuous Evaluation of Monochromatic and Bichromatic Reverse Nearest Neighbors. *Proceedings of the IEEE 23rd International Conference on Data Engineering*, 2007. 4
- [21] David R. Karger and Matthias Ruhl. Finding nearest neighbors in growth-restricted metrics. In *Proceedings of the thirty-fourth annual ACM symposium on Theory of computing*, STOC ’02, pages 741–750, 2002. 5
- [22] Jon M. Kleinberg. Two Algorithms for Nearest-Neighbor Search in High Dimensions. *Proceedings of the Twenty-Ninth Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing*, pages 599–608, 1997. 3
- [23] Flip Korn and S. Muthukrishnan. Influence Sets Based on Reverse Nearest Neighbor Queries. *ACM SIGMOD Record*, 29(2):201–212, 2000. 4, 5, 20
- [24] Robert Krauthgamer and James R. Lee. Navigating nets: simple algorithms for proximity search. In *Proceedings of the fifteenth annual ACM-SIAM symposium on Discrete algorithms*, SODA ’04, pages 798–807, 2004. 5
- [25] Yokesh Kumar, Ravi Janardan, and Prosenjit Gupta. Efficient Algorithms for Reverse Proximity Query Problems. *Proceedings of the 16th ACM SIGSPATIAL International Conference on Advances in Geographic Information Systems*, 2008. 4
- [26] Eyal Kushilevitz, Rafail Ostrovsky, and Yuval Rabani. Efficient Search for Approximate Nearest Neighbor in High Dimensional Spaces. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 30(2):457–474, 2000. 3
- [27] Anil Maheshwari, Jan Vahrenhold, and Norbert Zeh. On Reverse Nearest Neighbor Queries. *Proceedings of Canadian Conference on Computational Geometry*, pages 128–132, 2002. 4
- [28] Florian Pfender and Günter M. Ziegler. Kissing Numbers, Sphere Packings, and Some Unexpected Proofs. *Notices-American Mathematical Society*, 51:873–883, 2004. 4

-
- [29] G. Shakhnarovich, T. Darrell, and P. Indyk. *Nearest-neighbor Methods in Learning and Vision: Theory and Practice*. MIT Press, 2005. 3, 4, 9, 10
 - [30] Amit Singh, Hakan Ferhatosmanoglu, and Ali Şaman Tosun. High Dimensional Reverse Nearest Neighbor Queries. *Proceedings of the Twelfth International Conference on Information and Knowledge Management*, pages 91–98, 2003. 4
 - [31] Ioana Stanoi, Divyakant Agrawal, and Amr El Abbadi. Reverse Nearest Neighbor Queries for Dynamic Databases. *ACM SIGMOD Workshop on Research Issues in Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery*, pages 44–53, 2000. 4
 - [32] Yufei Tao, Dimitris Papadias, and Xiang Lian. Reverse k -NN Search in Arbitrary Dimensionality. *Proceedings of the Thirtieth international Conference on Very Large Databases*, 30:744–755, 2004. 4
 - [33] Yufei Tao, Man Lung Yiu, and Nikos Mamoulis. Reverse Nearest Neighbor Search in Metric Spaces. *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering*, pages 1239–1252, 2006. 4
 - [34] Roger Weber, Hans-Jörg Schek, and Stephen Blott. A quantitative analysis and performance study for similarity-search methods in high-dimensional spaces. In *VLDB '98: Proceedings of the 24rd International Conference on Very Large Data Bases*, pages 194–205, San Francisco, CA, USA, 1998. Morgan Kaufmann Publishers Inc. ISBN 1-55860-566-5. 3



Centre de recherche INRIA Saclay – Île-de-France
Parc Orsay Université - ZAC des Vignes
4, rue Jacques Monod - 91893 Orsay Cedex (France)

Centre de recherche INRIA Bordeaux – Sud Ouest : Domaine Universitaire - 351, cours de la Libération - 33405 Talence Cedex
Centre de recherche INRIA Grenoble – Rhône-Alpes : 655, avenue de l'Europe - 38334 Montbonnot Saint-Ismier
Centre de recherche INRIA Lille – Nord Europe : Parc Scientifique de la Haute Borne - 40, avenue Halley - 59650 Villeneuve d'Ascq
Centre de recherche INRIA Nancy – Grand Est : LORIA, Technopôle de Nancy-Brabois - Campus scientifique
615, rue du Jardin Botanique - BP 101 - 54602 Villers-lès-Nancy Cedex
Centre de recherche INRIA Paris – Rocquencourt : Domaine de Voluceau - Rocquencourt - BP 105 - 78153 Le Chesnay Cedex
Centre de recherche INRIA Rennes – Bretagne Atlantique : IRISA, Campus universitaire de Beaulieu - 35042 Rennes Cedex
Centre de recherche INRIA Sophia Antipolis – Méditerranée : 2004, route des Lucioles - BP 93 - 06902 Sophia Antipolis Cedex

Éditeur
INRIA - Domaine de Voluceau - Rocquencourt, BP 105 - 78153 Le Chesnay Cedex (France)
<http://www.inria.fr>
ISSN 0249-6399