We describe a new numerical procedure for generating dense packings of disks and spheres inside various geometric shapes. We believe that in some of the smaller cases, these packings are in fact optimal. When applied to the previously studied cases of packing $n$ equal disks in a square, the procedure confirms all the previous record packings [NO1] [NO2] [GL], except for $n = 32, 37, 48, \text{and } 50$ disks, where better packings than those previously recorded are found. For $n = 32$ and 48, the new packings are minor variations of the previous record packings. However, for $n = 37 \text{ and } 50$, the new patterns differ substantially. For example, they are mirror-symmetric, while the previous record packings are not.

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1. Introduction

We consider the task of arranging without overlaps a given number $n$ of congruent circular disks entirely inside a given square on the plane so that the disks have the largest possible diameter. This disk packing problem has an equivalent formulation where one seeks to spread $n$ points (the centers of the disks) inside a unit square so that the minimum point-to-point distance, usually denoted by $m = m_n$, is as large as possible.

In this paper, we describe a new experimental approach and apply it to generate new packings which are better than any previously known [GL] [NO1] [NO2] [NO3] for several values of $n$. However, we do not prove the optimality of these new packings, although we suspect that some of them may indeed be optimal. Clearly, a future goal would be to prove their optimality (which becomes increasingly difficult as $n$ gets larger) as is done in [NO3].

2. New packings

Figures 2.1 and 2.2 display the improved packings we found and the corresponding old records for comparison. For each number $n$ of disks presented, the improvement in packing quality is small, the first three digits of the displayed value of $m$ being identical. Visually, the change in the packing pattern is also small for $n = 32$ and 48. However, for $n = 37 \text{ and } 50$, the difference in the corresponding packing patterns is substantial. In particular, the new packings are mirror-symmetric, while the old records are not.
Figure 2.1: \textit{Left.} Improved packings of 32 and 37 disks in a square. \textit{Right.} Previous record packings of 32 and 37 disks in a square.
Figure 2.2: *Left.* Improved packings of 48 and 50 disks in a square. *Right.* Previous record packings of 48 and 50 disks in a square.
Each disk in an n-disk packing diagram is provided with a unique label from 1 to n. The labeling is arbitrary, although when possible we assign the same label to the two disks occupying similar positions in both the improved and the previous record packings.

Black dots on the packing diagrams indicate contacts, the so-called “bonds.” The total bond count is also provided with each packing. A presence of a bond implies that the corresponding disk-disk or disk-boundary distance is exactly zero, while the absence of a bond in the spot of an apparent contact indicates a strictly positive distance. As an example, here is a list of such “almost” contacts in the improved packing of 37 disks shown at the bottom left in Fig. 2.1. The distances are measured as fractions of the disk diameter.

- 21-5,7: 0.663349E-05
- 20-35: 0.132670E-04
- 22-31, 2-18: 0.110690E-03
- bottom-11, 23: 0.255689E-03
- 2-30, 12-31: 0.132600E-01
- 30-36, 12-14: 0.130805E-01

Another example is the pair of disks 30 and 38 in the improved packing of 50 disks shown at the bottom left in Fig. 2.2. The distance between these disks is positive (equal to 0.272038E-02 of the disk diameter), and as a result disk 27 is a “rattler”, i.e., it is free to move within the “cage” formed by its seven immobile neighbors, disks 38, 20, 46, 5, 14, 30, and 26.

All disks which are fixed in their positions are shaded, the “rattlers” are unshaded. We emphasize a packing structure by shading more heavily the disks that are “more immobile” than the others. A disk a belongs to such a more heavily shaded set, if it is a member of a 3-clique (a, b, c), with each of b and c being either a disk or the bounding square side, so that any two elements in the clique are in contact. Thus, corner disk 45 in the improved 50-disk packing (Fig. 2.2, bottom left) is shaded more heavily because it has bonds with two sides of the square which are incident to each other. In other words, disk 45 belongs to 3-clique (disk 45, bottom side, right side). In the same packing, disk 15 belongs to 3-clique (disk 12, disk 15, right side), and disk 44 belongs to 3-clique (disk 8, disk 12, disk 44). Notice that each improved packing increases the number of such “more immobile” disks compared to the number in the previous record, a phenomenon which is intuitively reasonable, but must not necessarily hold in general.

3. How does one know a packing exists?

We hope that the improved packings we present are optimal, i.e., the densest possible for their value of n. However, the only evidence we have for this is that no one has been able (so far) to find better packings. The only values of n for which optimality has been proved are n ≤ 27, and these proofs involve substantial computation as the value of n increases, and the examination of an exponentially increasing number of cases.

Before proving a displayed packing is optimal, it is first necessary to prove that it actually exists! That is, that there is a geometrical configuration corresponding to the points and edges of a given diagram in which all inter-center distances are at least one disk diameter and center-boundary distances are at least a disk radius. For example, existence of the packings
in Figures 2.1 and 2.2, is not obvious (to us!) from just looking at the diagrams. (For simplicity of discussion, we will assume for now that all disk diameters are 1, and we are trying to minimize the side-length of the smallest square into which \( n \) nonoverlapping disks can be packed.)

While we do not offer such a proof of existence for our four new packings, the following procedure could (in principle) be used to generate one. With \( z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n \) denoting the centers of the disks in a given a packing diagram (with \( z_i = (x_i, y_i) \)), we can generate a (usually overdetermined) set of equations in the \( x_i \) and \( y_i \) expressing the various bonds (or edges) in the diagram. We can then eliminate all the variables except one (say \( x_1 \)) from the equations (using resultants), to obtain a single polynomial equation \( P(x_1) = 0 \) which must be satisfied by any solution \((x_1, y_1, \ldots, x_n, y_n)\) of the original set of equations. We can then express each \( z_i \) in terms of \( x_1 \), and finally bound the distances between every pair \( z_i \) and \( z_j \) and between every \( z_i \) and the boundary. Those which have bonds correspond to edges which have exactly 1 or where the distance of a disk to the boundary is exactly 0. Those which do not must have inter-center distance strictly greater than 1 or the disk-boundary distance must be strictly positive, and this will be confirmed by using sufficient accuracy in approximating the appropriate root of \( P(x_1) = 0 \). As is typical in this type of variable elimination, care must be taken in deciding just how it is to be performed, since there is a strong tendency for the size and number of terms to grow beyond control if one is not careful!

A more practical, but, perhaps, less convincing variant of the above procedure starts as above with the set of equations with respect to \( z_i \). Instead of eliminating all the variables, but one, the set is transformed into a quadratic minimization problem and a gradient iterative procedure is employed to find the minimum. The packing diagram itself may be used to input an initial approximation for the solution. The iterative calculations can be implemented with arbitrary precision. If the procedure numerically converges with high precision, say using 100 decimal digits, yielding the minimum in which for each disk-disk bond the inter-center distance is 1 and for each disk-boundary bond the distance is 1/2, say using 100 decimal digits, it would be an evidence of the packing’s existence.

Note that if we just had a diagram in which only the disks (or disks centers) were shown, without the proposed bonds (edges), then a large (potentially exponential with \( n \)) number of guesses would have to be made as to where bonds might be, before applying either of the aforementioned procedures to each guess.

Another method (also not a proof!) of convincing oneself of a packing’s existence, its rigidity, and of the correctness of the presented parameters is to apply the procedure described in detail in the next section. The procedure consists of two Phases. The novel part is Phase 1. It delivers an approximate configuration. In difficult packing cases, like those in Figures 2.1 and 2.2 the degree of approximation does not suffice to identify bonds and to determine a sufficient number of decimal digits of packing parameters, e.g., the value of \( m \). Phase 2 takes the configuration generated in Phase 1 as a starting point and runs the “billiards” simulation procedure described previously (see, e.g, [L]). The latter usually provides a clear-cut bond
identification, e.g., all pairs of disks with pairwise distances less than $10^{-11}$ of the disk diameter form bonds, while the other pairwise distances are larger than $10^{-5}$ of the disk diameter.

For the sake of convincing ourselves of the packing’s existence and its rigidity, we perturbed the path to the final configuration. For example, we may turn the intermediate configuration after Phase 1 by $90^\circ$. After applying Phase 2, the resulted configuration should be (and was) the $90^\circ$ rotation of the packing produced in the unperturbed path. The identified bonds as well as the resulting packing parameters (with high precision) were independent of the perturbation.

4. Why a new procedure?

Note that the “billiards” algorithm alone is also able to converge to the record packing after many attempts with different randomly chosen starting points. It seems that, at least for packing disks in a square, the combination of the two procedures performs substantially better. For example, more than 1000 attempts were needed by the “billiards” algorithm to generate a single record packing of 32 disks in Fig. 2.1. For 37 disks more than 5000 attempts were needed. The new algorithm converged in under 30 attempts for 32 disks and under 100 attempts for 37 disks.

We observed that each next digit of precision takes roughly several times more computing time than the previous digit. Thus, computing $k$ digits takes time increasing roughly exponentially with $k$. This observation holds, of course, only as long as the procedure is able to deliver new digits. When all computations are performed with double precision (i.e., with error less than $10^{-14}$), the “billiards” algorithm usually delivers more than 13 digits, while the new Phase 1 algorithm becomes stuck and terminates at about the 10th digit. Thus, one run of Phase 1 terminates much sooner (yielding an approximate packing) than one run of the “billiards” algorithm (which yields an exact packing). Because of that, the difference between the two procedures goes from months of computing to just a few hours. A substantial share of the latter’s time is spent in the single finalizing run of Phase 2 (the “billiards” algorithm), where the starting point is the record packing obtained by multiple runs of Phase 1.

Conjectured optimal packings of $n$ disks in a square for various $n \neq 32, 37, 48$ or 50 (see [GL]) have also been found by the new combination algorithm, which also ran more quickly in these cases than the “billiards” algorithm alone.

5. The new packing algorithm

We describe the algorithm of Phase 1 in a form applicable for packing equal spheres in variously-shaped bounded regions of euclidean $n$-space. Our computer realization of this procedure packs equal disks in rectangles, equilateral triangles, or circles. We have used it primarily for packing disks in squares.
1. Arbitrarily initialize the center position of each sphere so that the spheres do not intersect while each has a unit radius. Arbitrarily initialize a direction of motion for each sphere. (In our packing-disks-in-a-square experiments, we usually randomly scatter the disks in a sufficiently large square and for a disk centered at \(a\), we set its initial motion direction to be \(-a\).)

2. Determine the smallest size bounding shape that contains all spheres. (Specifically, we determine the smallest bounding square for all disks. Without losing packing performance, the square size minimization is done more easily if restricted to the squares centered at the point \((0,0)\) with sides parallel to the x and y-axes.)

3. Set the move step \(s\) to its initial predefined value, \(s = s_0 > 0\). (We usually take \(s_0 = 0.25\).)

4. Initialize the counter \(impatience = 0\).

5. Execute the following Steps 6 - 8 repeatedly while the move step \(s\) remains larger than a predetermined small threshold \(\epsilon\). Once \(s \leq \epsilon\), terminate the run. (We usually take \(\epsilon = 10^{-10}\).)

6. Select the spheres sequentially without repetition in some order and attempt to move each sphere a distance \(s\) from its current position using procedure \(move\_attempt\) detailed below. Each \(move\_attempt\) for a sphere returns either \(success\) or \(failure\). (In our experiments, the order of sphere selection appears non-essential. We set the selection order randomly at the start of the procedure and randomly reset it each time when resetting \(s\) in Step 8 below.)

7. Determine the smallest size bounding shape that contains all spheres. If the new size of the shape is not smaller than the previous size, then increment \(impatience\) by 1.

8. If \(impatience\) exceeds a predefined threshold \(tolerance\) or if all recent \(move\_attempts\) made in Step 6 (their number is equal to the number of spheres) fail, then reset the move step to a smaller value, \(s \leftarrow s * q\), where \(q < 1\) is a predefined constant. If \(s\) is thus changed, then reset \(impatience \leftarrow 0\). (While packing disks in a square, we usually take \(tolerance = 1000\) and \(q = 0.43\).)

Procedure \(move\_attempt\).

- Attempt to move the sphere a distance \(s\) along its previously chosen direction. (The initial direction has been chosen in Step 1 of the main procedure.)

- If in the new position the sphere does not intersect other spheres and does not extend beyond the region boundary, then \(move\_attempt\) terminates after accepting the new sphere position and reporting \(success\) to the calling procedure.
• Otherwise start with the old sphere position again and reset the direction of motion using the procedure \( \text{reset\_direction} \) detailed below and attempt to move the sphere a distance \( s \) in the new chosen direction.

• If in the new position the sphere does not intersect other spheres and does not extend beyond the region boundary, then \( \text{move\_attempt} \) terminates after accepting the new sphere position and reporting \( \text{success} \) to the calling procedure.

• Otherwise \( \text{move\_attempt} \) terminates after reporting \( \text{failure} \) to the calling procedure. The old sphere position does not change.

Procedure \( \text{reset\_direction} \).

• The directional vector is formed as the sum of the “repelling” vectors, summed over all the obstacles that can be reached by the given sphere in a single straight motion of length \( s \).

• Another sphere yields a repelling obstacle for the given sphere if the center of the former sphere is located at a distance \( d_1 \leq 2(1 + s) \) from the given sphere center. The obstacle is the point on the former sphere closest to the given sphere.

• A point on the region boundary qualifies as a repelling obstacle if it yields a local minimum of the distance from the center of the given sphere to the boundary and if the distance from the point to the given sphere center is \( d_2 \leq 1 + s \). (Thus, the region boundary may yield multiple repelling obstacles. For example, the two sides that form a square corner yield two boundary obstacles for a disk located nearby the corner.)

• The direction for a repelling vector is formed by connecting the obstacle point with the center of the given sphere toward the center. (Thus, another sphere \( b \) repels the given sphere \( a \) in the direction from the center of \( b \) to the center of \( a \). A boundary obstacle repels in the direction from the point of local minimum of the distance to the center of \( a \).)

• The length of a repelling vector is \( d^\alpha \), where \( \alpha \) is a preselected parameter, and \( d = d_1 \) if the repelling obstacle is given by a sphere, and \( d = 2d_2 \) if the repelling obstacle is given by the boundary. (Most of our disk packing experiments were done with \( \alpha = 1 \).)

• \( \text{reset\_direction} \) returns this computed directional vector if it is non-zero. Otherwise, it returns a default directional vector. (The choice of the default directional vector is not critical for the packing performance as long as the vector does not usually degenerate to 0. When packing disks in a square, we choose \( -a \) as the default directional vector for the given circle centered at \( a \).)
6. Concluding remarks

We have found that combining two heuristic procedures for producing packings gives a substantial improvement over the use of either one alone, a phenomenon which often occurs in approximation algorithms. It may well be that additional heuristics can improve the performance even further (and we are currently experimenting with such algorithms). The next challenge of course will be to prove that the packings produced are in fact optimal (and also unique, which we also believe, up to the position of the so-called “rattlers”). A good start in this direction has been made in [NO3]. Even more ambitious would then be to prove optimality for infinite families of packings, as can be done when packing \( n(n + 1)/2 \) equal disks in an equilateral triangle.

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