

Approximate Shortest Routes for Frontier Visibility under Limited Visibility

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Abstract. Consider a simple polygon P and a point s on the frontier ∂P of P . For any real $\delta > 0$ there exists a shortest path ρ inside of P such that s is on the path ρ , and for each point p in ∂P , there exists a point q in ρ at Euclidean distance less than or equal δ to p such that the line segment pq is in P . Such an optimum path ρ is called a *shortest route for ∂P visibility under δ -visibility* that starts at point s on ∂P . We provide an approximation algorithm (which belongs to the class of rubberband algorithms) for finding such a path ρ in $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ run time, where n is the number of vertices of a given simple polygon P . The run time does not depend on δ or on the start point s .

1 Introduction

In 1973, Victor Klee proposed the following *Art Gallery Problem*: How many (non-moving) guards are needed in a polygon such that each point in the polygon can be seen by at least one of those guards [5]? In 1988, Wei-Pang Chin and Simeon Ntafos proposed the *Watchman Route Problem* (WRP): Find a shortest route inside of a simple polygon such that each point in the polygon can be seen from at least one point on the route [2]. Since then, the WRP and its variants have attracted much interest in computational geometry; for example, see [1, 3, 9, 10, 12, 16].

The proposed algorithms are typically under the assumption that the guard or watchman has infinite visibility. In the real world, it is more reasonable to assume finite visibility for a person or a robot. That is, viewing of a guard/watchman is limited by Euclidean distance $\delta > 0$. Such a constrained visibility is called δ -visibility, and it was first proposed by Shin [15]. Later, Ntafos proposed the WRP under limited visibility [11]. References [6, 7] presented linear-time algorithms for computing a δ -kernel or an edge visibility polygon. References [1, 3, 14] considered static point distribution under δ -visibility.

In this paper, we present an approximate rubberband algorithm for computing a shortest route ρ for frontier δ -visibility for a given simple polygon P and a start point s such that for each point p in ∂P , there exists at least a point q

in ρ such that the line segment pq is in P , with $d_e(p, q) \leq \delta$ (where d_e is the Euclidean metric), and ρ passes through s .

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, we present definitions and lemmas used in this paper. We describe our algorithm in Section 3 and analyse the time complexity and approximation factor in Section 4. Some experimental results will be presented in Section 5. Section 6 concludes the paper.

2 Preliminaries

In this paper, P denotes a simple polygon (i.e. a 2-dimensional region bounded by a simple polyline). Let S_1 and S_2 be two subsets of P . Let v be a vertex of P , and e an edge of P . By $d_e(v, e)$ we denote the Euclidean distance between v and e , that is, $d_e(v, e) = \min\{d_e(v, u) : u \in e\}$.

Definition 1. S_2 is S_1 -visible if, for each point $p \in S_2$, there exists at least a point $q \in S_1$ such that the line segment pq is in P . If S_2 is S_1 -visible and S_1 is S_2 -visible, then we say that S_1 and S_2 are visible from each other. If there do not exist non-empty subsets $S'_1 \subseteq S_1$ and $S'_2 \subseteq S_2$ such that S'_1 and S'_2 are visible from each other, then we say that S_1 and S_2 are not visible from each other. Otherwise, we say that S_1 and S_2 are partially visible from each other.

If S_1 and S_2 are visible from each other then they are also partially visible from each other.

Definition 2. Let $\delta > 0$. If for each point $p \in S_2$, there exists at least a point $q \in S_1$ such that $d_e(p, q) \leq \delta$ and pq is in P , then we say that S_2 is δ -visible from S_1 .

The main algorithm in this paper is for computing an approximate shortest route ρ such that the frontier ∂P of P is δ -visible from ρ

In Definition 2, if S_1 is a singleton that contains a vertex v_i of polygon P , then the set of points which are δ -visible from v_i is also called the δ -visible region of v_i , denoted by V_i^δ :

$$V_i^\delta = \{p : pv_i \subseteq P \wedge d_e(p, v_i) \leq \delta\}$$

Let $\langle v_0, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{n-1} \rangle$ be the sequence of all vertices of the simple polygon P describing ∂P in counterclockwise order.

Lemma 1. If $p_i \in V_i^\delta$ then the edge $v_i v_{i+1}$ is δ -visible from $p_i p_{i+1}$.

Proof. Let line segment $v_i x$ (or $v_{i+1} x'$) be perpendicular to $p_i p_{i+1}$ at x (or x') (see Figure 1). It is clear that $d_e(v_i, x) \leq d_e(v_i, p_i) \leq \delta$ and $d_e(v_{i+1}, x') \leq d_e(v_{i+1}, p_{i+1}) \leq \delta$. If both x and x' are in between p_i and p_{i+1} , then for each q on the edge $v_i v_{i+1}$, the Euclidean distance between q and $p_i p_{i+1}$ must be less than δ . If x or x' is not in between p_i and p_{i+1} , then it is still true that for each q on the edge $v_i v_{i+1}$, the Euclidean distance between q and $p_i p_{i+1}$ must be less than δ .

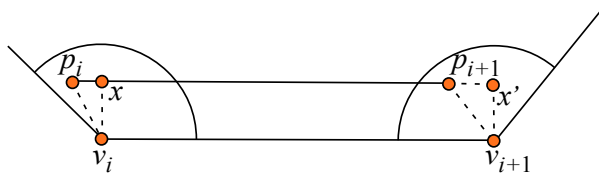


Fig. 1. Illustration for Lemma 1

For each vertex v_i of the simple polygon P , we compute its δ -visible region V_i^δ . We also call each visible region a *cage*. By Lemma 1, a shortest route ρ for δ -visibility from ∂P is a shortest route that passes through (that is, visits) the start point s and each δ -cage V_i^δ in order $\langle V_0^\delta, V_1^\delta, V_2^\delta, \dots, V_{n-1}^\delta \rangle$.

If v_i is a reflex vertex (i.e., its internal angle is greater than 180°), let v_j and v_k be two non-reflex vertices such that v_j, v_i and v_k are located around ∂P counterclockwise, and there are no other non-reflex vertices between v_j (or v_i) and v_i (or v_k). Let $p_j \in V_j^\delta$ and $p_k \in V_k^\delta$, $\rho(p_j, p_k)$ the Euclidean shortest path between p_j and p_k inside of P , and $\partial P(v_j, v_k)$ the section of ∂P from v_j to v_k counterclockwise.

Lemma 2. $\partial P(v_j, v_k)$ is δ -visible from $\rho(p_j, p_k)$.

Proof. If $j = i - 1 \pmod n$ and $k = i + 1 \pmod n$, then there may be the following two cases:

Case 1. V_j^δ and V_k^δ are non-visible. In this case, $\rho(p_j, p_k)$ is a polyline consisting of three points p_{i-1}, v_i and p_{i+1} (see Figure 2). It is clear that $v_{i-1}v_i$ (or $v_i v_{i+1}$) is $p_{i-1}v_i$ (or $v_i p_{i+1}$) δ -visible.

Case 2. V_j^δ and V_k^δ are partially visible (see Figure 3). By Lemma 1, $v_{i-1}v_{i+1}$ is δ -visible from $p_{i-1}p_{i+1}$. Note that $\partial P(v_j, v_k)$ is inside the polygon $v_{i-1}v_{i+1}p_{i+1}p_{i-1}$, thus, $\partial P(v_j, v_k)$ is δ -visible from $\rho(p_j, p_k)$.

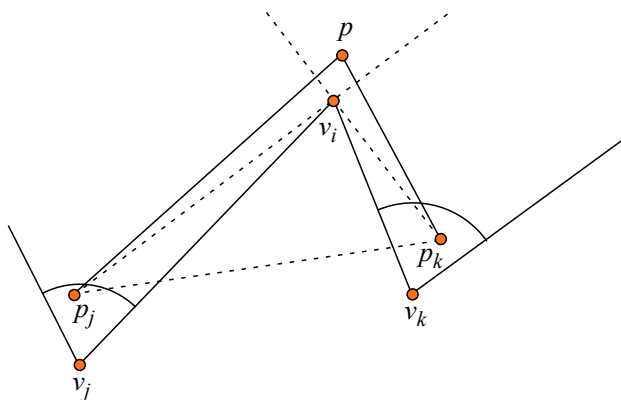


Fig. 2. Illustration for Case 1 of Lemma 2.

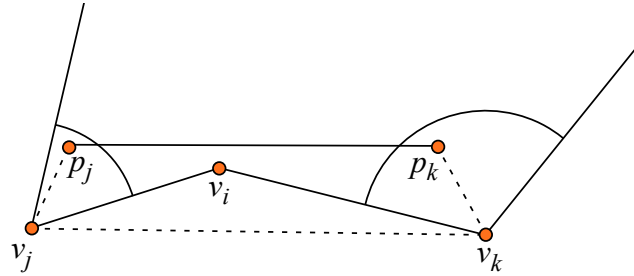


Fig. 3. Illustration for Case 2 of Lemma 2.

Analogously, if $j \neq i - 1 \pmod n$ or $j \neq i + 1 \pmod n$, then the lemma is still correct.

By Lemmas 1 and 2, a shortest route ρ for δ -visibility from ∂P is a shortest route that passes through the start point s and each δ -cage V_i^δ in order, and ρ must pass through each reflex vertex. Thus, we do not need to compute the δ -cage V_i^δ for each reflex vertex v_i .

Let v_i be a non-reflex vertex of the simple polygon P . If $P \setminus V_i^\delta$ is a simply connected region, then V_i^δ is called a *Type 1* δ -visible region. v_i is called *Type 1* non-reflex vertex. Otherwise, V_i^δ is called a *Type 2* δ -visible region. v_i is called *Type 2* non-reflex vertex.

For example, in Figure 4, V_j^δ is a Type 1 δ -visible; both V_i^δ and V_k^δ are Type 2 δ -visible regions. It is clear that for each Type 2 δ -visible region V_i^δ , there exists a maximal $0 < \delta_i \leq \delta$ such that the δ_i -visible region of v_i is a Type 1 δ_i -visible region, denoted by $V_i^{\delta_i}$. In Figure 4, $V_i^{\delta_i}$ and $V_k^{\delta_k}$ are Type 1 δ_i -visible regions. It is clear that $V_i^{\delta_i} \subset V_i^\delta$ and $V_k^{\delta_k} \subset V_k^\delta$ in Figure 4 while in Figure 5, $V_i^{\delta_i} = V_i^\delta$.

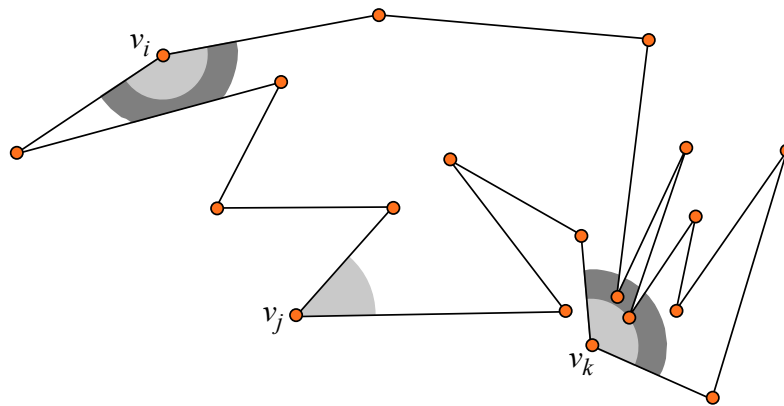


Fig. 4. Examples of δ -visible regions of Type 1 or 2.

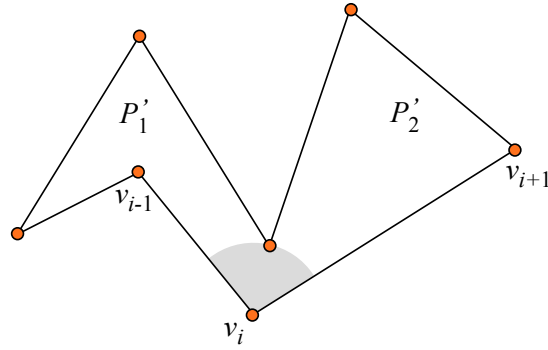


Fig. 5. Illustration for Lemma 3.

Lemma 3. For each vertex v_i , if its δ -visible region V_i^δ is a Type 2 δ -visible region, then each shortest route ρ for ∂P visibility under δ -visibility passes through V_i^δ .

Proof. By the definition of Type 2 δ -visible region, $P \setminus V_i^\delta$ is not a simply connected region. Thus, ρ must pass through V_i^δ . Otherwise, ρ must not enter a simply connected subregion P' of P (See Figure 5). Thus, each edge of P' is not δ -visible from ρ . This is a contradiction to ρ being a shortest route for δ -visibility from ∂P .

For each reflex vertex v , if there does not exist a δ -visible region V_i^δ of vertex $v_i \neq v$ such that $v \in V_i^\delta$, then v is called a Type 1 reflex vertex. Otherwise, v is called a Type 2 reflex vertex.

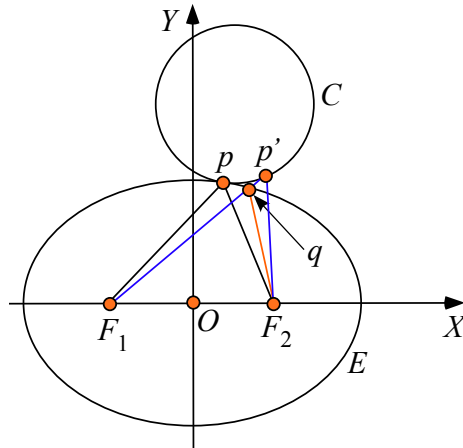


Fig. 6. Illustration for Lemma 4.

Lemma 4. *Let F_1 and F_2 be the foci of an ellipse E . If E intersects a cycle C with a single point p , then for each point p' in C , $d_e(F_1, p') + d_e(F_2, p') \geq d_e(F_1, p) + d_e(F_2, p)$ (See Figure 6).*

Proof. In Figure 6, let line segment F_1p' intersects the ellipse E at point q , then we have that $d_e(F_1, p') + d_e(F_2, p') \geq d_e(F_1, q) + d_e(F_2, q) = d_e(F_1, p) + d_e(F_2, p)$.

3 Algorithm

At first we describe a preprocessing step; see Fig. 7. Let $G = [V, E, w]$ be an undirected weighted graph, where V is the set of vertices of the simple polygon P ; for every two vertices $u, v \in V$, u and v is connected by an edge $uv \in E$ iff u and v are visible; the weight of uv is defined as $w(uv) = d_e(u, v)$.

The main algorithm in Fig. 8 is now for computing a shortest route ρ such that ρ starts at s , then passes through a sequence of δ -cages in order.

Our algorithm follows general rubberband algorithm (RBA) design principles; see [8, 9, 13] for RBAs.

First we create an initial route $\rho_0 = \langle p_0, p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{m-1} \rangle$. Then we enter a loop as follows: for every three consecutive vertices p_{i-1}, p_i, p_{i+1} of the route, we update p_i by replacing it by an optimal point q_i such that

$$d_e(p_{i-1}, q_i) + d_e(p_{i+1}, q_i) = \min\{d_e(p_{i-1}, q) + d_e(p_{i+1}, q)\}$$

where q is in a line segment or a section of a circle, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$, and indices $\text{mod } m$. We terminate the loop when the difference in length between the current route and the previous route is sufficiently small (that is, it is less than or equals an accuracy parameter $\varepsilon > 0$).

The algorithm consists of two major steps. In the initial step, we create an initial route. We start at s , scan the sequence $\langle v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{n-1} \rangle$ of vertices of P

Procedure 1 (Compute type of a non-reflex vertex)

Input: $\delta > 0$, G and a non-reflex vertex v_i of P .

Output: the type of v_i .

- 1: Let $N(v_i)$ be the set of neighbours of v_i in G .
- 2: **for** each $v_j \in N(v_i) \setminus \{v_{i-1}, v_{i+1}\} = N'(v_i)$ **do**
- 3: **if** $d_e(v_j, v_i) < \delta$ **then**
- 4: Report “ v_i is Type 2”.
- 5: **else**
- 6: **if** $v_j, v_{j+1} \in N'(v_i)$ and $d_e(v_i, v_j v_{j+1}) < \delta$ **then**
- 7: Report “ v_i is Type 2”.
- 8: **end if**
- 9: **end if**
- 10: **end for**
- 11: Report “ v_i is Type 1”.

Fig. 7. Computation of the type of a non-reflex vertex.

Algorithm 1 (Label vertices and compute δ -cages)

Input: $\delta > 0$, the start point s , the simple polygon P .

Output: For each vertex v_i of P , label it as Rv_1 (i.e., reflex, Type 1), Rv_2 (i.e., reflex, Type 2), NRv_1 (i.e., non-reflex, Type 1), or NRv_2 (i.e., non-reflex, Type 2). Compute δ -cage V_i^δ if v_i is labelled as NRv_1 .

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1: Label the start point  $s$  as  $Rv_0$ .
2: Start from  $s$ , let the sequence of vertices of  $P$  counterclockwise as  $V = \{v_0, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{n-1}\}$ .
3: for each  $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  do
4:   if  $v_i$  is a reflex vertex then
5:     Label  $v_i$  as  $Rv_1$  (This label will be updated if it is Type 2, see Line 13).
6:   else
7:     if  $v_i$  is a Type 2 non-reflex vertex then
8:       Label  $v_i$  as  $NRv_2$ .
9:     else
10:      Label  $v_i$  as  $NRv_1$ .
11:      Compute  $\delta$ -cage  $V_i^\delta$ .
12:      if  $V_i^\delta$  contains a reflex vertex  $v_j$  then
13:        Label (or update the label of)  $v_j$  as  $Rv_2$ .
14:      end if
15:    end if
16:  end if
17: end for

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Fig. 8. Labelling of vertices and computation of δ -cages.

counterclockwise. If the current vertex v_i is labelled as Rv_1 (i.e., Type 1 reflex vertex) or NRv_2 (i.e., Type 2 non-reflex vertex), then add v_i into a queue $Q\rho_0$ of current vertices of ρ_0 (the first element of $Q\rho_0$ is s); else if it is labelled as Rv_2 (i.e., Type 2 reflex vertex), then ignore it; else it must be labelled as NRv_1 (i.e., Type 1 non-reflex vertex), then compute a point v'_i in the arc portion of the frontier of δ -visible region V^δ (see the explanation after Lemma 4). Then let v'_i be a vertex of ρ_0 (i.e., add v'_i into a queue $Q\rho_0$). By Lemma 4, v'_i can be computed by the latest vertex added in the queue $Q\rho_0$ of current vertices of ρ_0 , the arc portion and another point u that can be defined as follows: if next scanned vertex v_{i+1} is labelled as Rv_1 or NRv_2 , then let u be v_{i+1} ; else if next scanned vertex v_{i+1} is labelled as Rv_2 , then ignore it and scan next vertex of P ; else next scanned vertex v_{i+1} must be labelled as Rv_1 , then let u be a point in the perpendicular bisector of the edge $v_i v_{i+1}$ (see Figure 9).

For each point v in the queue $Q\rho_0$ of vertices of ρ_0 , put the second label of it as follows: If $v = v_i$ is labelled as Rv_1 or NRv_2 , then put its second label as $r1_i$; else if v is taken in a perpendicular bisector, then put its second label as $r2$; else if $v = v_i$ is taken in an arc portion of the frontier of δ -visible region V_i^δ , then put its second label as $r3_i$ (or $r3_{i_1}$ and $r3_{i_2}$ if there are two such vertices).

According to Section 2, the route ρ_0 must pass through each δ -cage in order. Thus, each vertex with second label $r3$ maps to a cage. It is possible that an edge

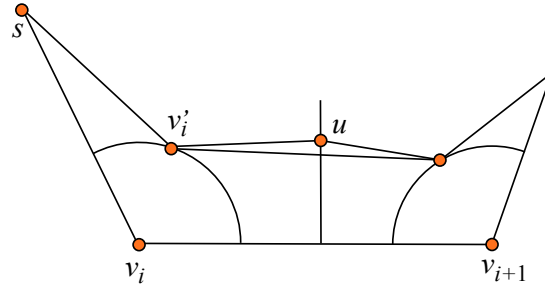


Fig. 9. Illustration for taking a point u in a perpendicular bisector of the edge $v_i v_{i+1}$.

of the route may intersect two vertices with a cage. The vertices with second labels $r1$ or $r2$ must be inside of P and the total number and coordinates (i.e., the location) of them may be changed in the iteration step that is described below.

In the iteration step, we update the current route by decreasing its length in each iteration. For every three continuous vertices of the route, we fix the first and third vertices, update the second one so as to obtain a shorter portion of the route. We start at the initial route $\rho_0 = \langle p_0, p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{m-1} \rangle$. For every three continuous vertices p_i, p_{i+1} and p_{i+2} , *Case 1*, p_{i+1} 's second label is $r3_k$ (or $r3_{k1}$, or $r3_{k2}$). If line segment $p_i p_{i+2}$ intersects δ -cage V_k^δ with one point or two points, then update p_{i+1} by replacing it by the single intersection point or any one of the two intersection points and keep its second label as $r3_k$ (or $r3_{k1}$, or $r3_{k2}$). Otherwise, line segment $p_i p_{i+2}$ does not intersect δ -cage V_k^δ at all. Then we compute an optimal point in the arc portion of the frontier of δ -cage V_k^δ . We update p_{i+1} by replacing it by this optimal point and keep its second label as $r3_k$. *Case 2*, p_{i+1} 's second label is $r1$ or $r2$. If p_i and p_{i+2} are visible, then delete p_{i+1} from the set of vertices of current route ρ . Otherwise, compute an optimal point p in the ∂P such that $d_e(p_{i-1}, p) + d_e(p_{i+1}, p)$ is minimal and update p_{i+1} by replacing it by p and keep its second label the same as p_{i+1} 's second label. Repeat the iteration step until the difference of the length of current route and the length of the previous route is sufficiently small (i.e., less than or equals an accuracy parameter $\varepsilon_0 > 0$).

The initial route may not be completely contained in P , but the output route is completely in P .

4 Analysis

This section analyses the time complexity of our algorithm. The visibility graph $G = [V, E, w]$ can be computed in $\mathcal{O}(|V| \log |V| + |E|)$ time [4]. It is clear that Procedure 1 can be computed in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time. Thus, the types of all vertices of the simple polygon P can be computed in $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ time, where n is the number

of P . Algorithm 1 can be computed in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time. Thus, the total preprocessing time is $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$.

The main algorithm is an example of a rubberband algorithm that runs in $\kappa(\varepsilon)\mathcal{O}(n)$ (see, for example, [9, 13]), where $\kappa(\varepsilon) = \frac{L_0 - L}{\varepsilon}$, and L_0 or L are the length of the initial or the output route, respectively. Our approximation algorithm obtains an upper bound L_u of the length of the true route. We may employ a convex polygon with $m - 1$ vertices to approximate each cage and apply the algorithm for solving the Safari Route Problem to obtain a lower bound L_l of the length of the true route (the time complexity is $\mathcal{O}((n + m)^2 \log(n + m))$; see [3]). Thus, our algorithm has an approximation factor of L_u/L_l . Experimental results in the next section show that the route obtained by our algorithm is very close to the true route after 200 iterations for the given example.

5 Experimental Results

Table 1 shows the results obtained by the main algorithm when the input simple polygon P is a regular n -gon. Results indicate that the route is very close to the true route after only 200 iterations.

n	L_0	<i>iterations</i>	δ_0	δ_{50}	δ_{100}	δ_{200}
1000	14969·9626681692	554	1·0000633331	1·0000008158	1·0000001081	1·0000000031
2000	29969·9438111304	945	1·0000352022	1·0000011979	1·0000003088	1·0000000370
5000	74969·9324651109	1980	1·0000154133	1·0000010049	1·0000004172	1·0000001248
10000	149969·92867794	3364	1·0000080563	1·0000007009	1·0000003510	1·0000001456

Table 1. The n s are the numbers of vertices of a regular polygon P . The L_0 s are the lengths of initial routes. By *iterations* we list the numbers of iterations to obtain true routes. By $\delta_i = L_i/L$ we characterize the i -th iteration, where L_i and L are the length of the route obtained in the i -th iteration or of the true route, respectively. We only show values for $i = 0, 50, 100, 200$.

Table 2 shows results obtained for different values of δ . The input is the simple polygon shown in Figure 10.

δ	L_0	<i>iterations</i>	L_0/L
1	98·7989122759	17	1·0000279637
1·5	92·7823178547	21	1·0000933844
2	86·9251557575	25	1·0002145610
2·5	81·2466385573	29	1·0003975345
3	75·7705619909	34	1·0006375863

Table 2. Column *iterations* are the minimum numbers of iterations sufficient to obtain the true routes. L_0 or L are the lengths of initial or true routes, respectively.

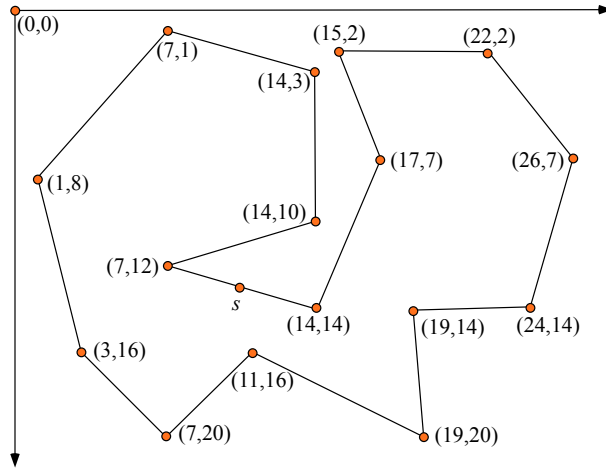


Fig. 10. An example of a non-convex simple polygon as used in our experiments.

6 Conclusion

In this paper we presented an approximate (rubberband-type) algorithm for computing a shortest route ρ for δ -visibility of the frontier ∂P of a given simple polygon P , a start point s , and $\delta > 0$. The algorithm has a run time in $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$, where n is the number of vertices of polygon P . Experiments indicate that an approximate route is very close to the true after a relatively small number of iterations.

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