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Self-Approaching Paths in Simple Polygons*

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Abstract
We study self-approaching paths that are contained in a simple polygon. A self-approaching path is a directed curve connecting two points such that the Euclidean distance between a point moving along the path and any future position does not increase, that is, for all points \(a\), \(b\), and \(c\) that appear in that order along the curve, \(|ac| \geq |bc|\). We analyze the properties, and present a characterization of shortest self-approaching paths. In particular, we show that a shortest self-approaching path connecting two points inside a polygon can be forced to follow a general class of non-algebraic curves. While this makes it difficult to design an exact algorithm, we show how to find a self-approaching path inside a polygon connecting two points under a model of computation which assumes that we can calculate involute curves of high order.

Lastly, we provide an algorithm to test if a given simple polygon is self-approaching, that is, if there exists a self-approaching path for any two points inside the polygon.

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1 Introduction

The problem of finding an optimal obstacle-avoiding path in a polygonal domain is one of the fundamental problems of computational geometry. Often a desired path has to conform to certain constraints. For example, a path may be required to be monotone [3], curvature-constrained [9], have no more than \(k\) links [15], etc. A natural requirement to consider is that a point moving along a desired path must be always getting closer to its destination. Such radially monotone paths appear, for example, in greedy geographic routing in a network setting [10], and beacon routing in a geometric setting [5]. A strengthening of a radially monotone path is a self-approaching path [12, 13, 1]: a point moving along a self-approaching path is always getting closer not only to its destination, but also to all the points on the path ahead of it. There are several reasons to prefer self-approaching paths over radially monotone paths. First, unlike for a radially monotone path, any subpath of a self-approaching path is self-approaching. Thus, if the destination is not known in advance and the desired path is required to be radially monotone, one would have to resort to using...
self-approaching paths. Second, the length of a radially monotone path can be arbitrarily large in comparison with the Euclidean distance between the source and the destination points, whereas self-approaching paths have a bounded detour [13]. These properties make self-approaching paths of interest to various applications, including network routing, graph drawing, and others.

In this paper we study self-approaching paths that are contained in a simple polygon. We consider the following questions:

- Given two points $s$ and $t$ inside a simple polygon $P$, does there exist a self-approaching $s$-$t$ path inside $P$?
- Find the shortest self-approaching $s$-$t$ path.
- Given a point $s$ in a simple polygon $P$, what is the set of all points reachable from $s$ with self-approaching paths?
- Given a point $t$, what is the set of all points from which $t$ is reachable with a self-approaching path?
- Given a polygon $P$, test if it is self-approaching, i.e., if there exists a self-approaching path between any two points in $P$.

**Related work.** Self-approaching curves were first introduced in the context of online searching for the kernel of a polygon [12]. They were further studied in [13] where, among other results, the authors prove that the length of any self-approaching curve connecting two points is not greater than 5.3331 times the Euclidean distance between the points. An equivalent definition of a self-approaching path is that for every point on the path there has to be a $90^\circ$ angle containing the rest of the path. Aichholzer et al. [1] developed a generalization of self-approaching paths for an arbitrarily fixed angle $\alpha$. A relevant class of paths is increasing-chords paths [17], which are self-approaching in both directions. The nice properties of self-approaching and increasing-chords paths, and their potential to be applied in network routing, were recognized by the graph drawing community. As a result, a number of papers have appeared in recent years on self-approaching and increasing-chords graphs [2, 8, 16].

This paper is organized in the following way. We introduce a few definitions and concepts in Section 2. In Section 3, we characterize a shortest self-approaching path between two points in a simple polygon. In Section 4 we present an algorithm to construct the shortest self-approaching path between two points if it exists, or to report that it does not exist, by assuming a model of computation in which we can solve certain transcendental equations. Finally, in Section 5 we present a linear-time algorithm to decide if a polygon is self-approaching, that is, if there is a self-approaching path between any two point of the polygon. Due to space limitations, some proofs are omitted. For the details refer to the full version of this paper [6].

## 2 Preliminaries

For two points $p_1$ and $p_2$ on a directed path $\pi$ that starts at point $s$, we shall say that $p_1 \prec_\pi p_2$ if $p_1$ lies between $s$ and $p_2$ along $\pi$. For a directed path $\pi$ and two points $p_1 \prec_\pi p_2$ on it, denote the subpath from $p_1$ to $p_2$ by $\pi(p_1,p_2)$. 
Definition 1. A self-approaching path \( \pi \) in a continuous domain is a piece-wise smooth\(^1\) oriented curve such that for any three points \( a, b, \) and \( c \) on it, such that \( a <_\pi b <_\pi c \): \( |ac| \geq |bc| \), where \( |ac| \) and \( |bc| \) are Euclidean distances.

Icking et al. [13] showed the following normal property of a self-approaching path, that we will be using extensively in this paper,

Lemma 2 (the normal property [13]). An \( s-t \) path \( \pi \) is self-approaching if and only if any normal to \( \pi \) at any point \( a \in \pi \) does not cross \( \pi(a,t) \).

Definition 3. A normal \( h \) to a directed curve \( \pi \) at some point \( a \in \pi \) defines two half-planes. Let the positive half-plane \( h^+ \) be the open half-plane which is congruent with the direction of \( \pi \) at point \( a \).

We can rephrase the normal property in the following way.

Lemma 4 (the half-plane property). An \( s-t \) path \( \pi \) is self-approaching if and only if, for any normal \( h \) to \( \pi \) at any point \( a \in \pi \), the subpath \( \pi(a,t) \) lies completely in the positive half-plane \( h^+ \).

Definition 5. A bend of a self-approaching path \( \pi \) is a point of discontinuity of the first derivative of \( \pi \).

Definition 6. A reachable region \( R(s) \subseteq P \), for a given point \( s \) in a polygon \( P \), is the set of all points \( t \in P \) for which there exists a self-approaching \( s-t \) path \( \pi \in P \).

Definition 7. A reverse-reachable region \( R^{-1}(t) \subseteq P \), for a given point \( t \) in a polygon \( P \), is a set of all points \( s \in P \) for which there exists a self-approaching \( s-t \) path \( \pi \in P \).

2.1 Involutes

Next we introduce involute curves of \( k \)th order that will appear later as parts of shortest self-approaching paths.

An involute of a convex curve \( c \) is a curve traced by the end point of an unwinding pull-taut string rolled on \( c \). Consider a parameterization \( \vec{c}(\theta) \) of the curve, and let \( c \) be oriented in the direction of growth of the parameter \( \theta \). The involute of \( c \) can be computed by the following formula:

\[
\vec{I}(\theta) = \vec{c}(\theta) - s(\theta) \frac{\vec{c}'(\theta)}{|\vec{c}'(\theta)|},
\]

\(1\) Some previous works do not require the curve to be smooth. However in this paper we will be mostly considering shortest self-approaching paths, and thus the requirement on smoothness is justified.
Figure 2 Circular arc \( I_0(\theta) \), and three involutes \( I_1(\theta) \), \( I_2(\theta) \), and \( I_3(\theta) \); for each \( i \), \( I_i(\theta) \) is an involute about \( I_{i-1}(\theta) \) that passes through point \( p_i \). The arrows designate the direction of growth of the parameter \( \theta \) (they are not necessarily consistent with the direction of a self-approaching path).

where \( s(\theta) \) is the length of the tangent segment \( |\vec{c}(\theta)I(\theta)| \),

\[
s(\theta) = \int_{\alpha}^{\theta} |\vec{c}'(t)| \, dt.
\]

The constant \( \alpha \) defines the point at which the involute \( I \) will start unwinding around \( c \) (see Fig. 1). The involute has two branches: the positive branch unwinds starting at point \( \alpha \) in the direction of growth of \( \theta \), and the negative branch unwinds in the opposite direction. If the curve \( c \) is defined on the interval \([\theta_{\text{min}}, \theta_{\text{max}}]\), then the positive branch of its involute is defined on the interval \([\alpha, \theta_{\text{max}}]\), and the negative – on the interval \([\theta_{\text{min}}, \alpha]\).

We define an involute of order \( k \) of a curve \( c(\theta) \) to be an involute of one branch (that contains the point corresponding to a parameter \( \alpha_k \)) of an involute of order \( k-1 \) of \( c(\theta) \), with an involute of order 0 being the curve \( c(\theta) \) itself,

\[
\tilde{I}_k(\theta) = \tilde{I}_{k-1}(\theta) - s_k(\theta) \frac{\tilde{P}_{k-1}(\theta)}{|\tilde{P}_{k-1}(\theta)|}, \quad \text{where} \quad s_k(\theta) = \int_{\alpha_k}^{\theta} |\tilde{P}_{k-1}(t)| \, dt,
\]

\[
\tilde{I}_0(\theta) = \tilde{c}(\theta).
\]

In the following sections we will show that shortest self-approaching paths consist of straight-line segments, circular arcs, and involutes of circular arcs of some order. In the full version of this paper [6] we provide the details of the derivation of the following formula for an involute of a circle of order \( k \):

\[
I_k(\theta) = \sum_{0}^{\left\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \right\rfloor} (-1)^i a_{2i}(\theta) \left( \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta} \right) - \sum_{0}^{\left\lfloor \frac{k-1}{2} \right\rfloor} (-1)^i a_{2i+1}(\theta) \left( -\frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta} \right),
\]

where each involute \( I_i \) passes through a point \( p_i(r_i, \varphi_i) \) for all \( 1 \leq i \leq k \),

\[
a_i(\theta) = r_i \frac{\theta^i}{i!} + c_1 \frac{\theta^{i-1}}{(i-1)!} + \cdots + c_i,
\]
Figure 3 If a self-approaching path has an inflection point (or a segment) interior to $P$, then there exists a shortcut.

and the constants $c_i$ can be found from the following equations:

$$r_i \cos(\theta_i - \varphi_i) = \sum_{0}^{\lfloor \frac{i}{2} \rfloor} (-1)^j a_{2j}(\theta_i), \quad r_i \sin(\theta_i - \varphi_i) = \sum_{0}^{\lceil \frac{i}{2} \rceil - 1} (-1)^j a_{2j+1}(\theta_i). \quad (1)$$

The length $|p_k t_k|$ of the tangent segment equals $|a_k(\theta_k)|$.

3 Properties of a shortest self-approaching path

In this section we will prove the following properties of a shortest self-approaching path from $s$ to $t$ inside a simple polygon $P$:

- A shortest self-approaching path is unique.
- The shortest self-approaching path consists of straight segments, circular arcs and involutes to the latter pieces of the path.

We begin by proving several lemmas:

- **Lemma 8.** For any two points $p_1 <_x p_2$ on a self-approaching $s$-$t$ path $\pi$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$, the perpendicular bisector of the straight-line segment $\overline{p_1 p_2}$ does not intersect the subpath $\pi(p_2, t)$.

  **Proof.** Let $h^-$ be the half-plane defined by the perpendicular bisector of segment $\overline{p_1 p_2}$ that contains $p_1$. Assume there is a point $q$ on the subpath $\pi(p_2, t)$ that is interior to $h^-$. Then $|p_1 q| < |p_2 q|$, which contradicts the definition of a self-approaching path. ◀

- **Lemma 9.** Bends of a shortest self-approaching path in a simple polygon $P$ form a subset of vertices of $P$.

  Thus, any point of a shortest self-approaching $s$-$t$ path which is interior to $P$ has a well-defined tangent. This point is an inflection point, if its tangent separates the self-approaching path in a small enough $\varepsilon$-neighborhood. We can also introduce a notion of an inflection segment for a path that contains a straight-line segment as a subpath. A straight-line segment of a path is an inflection segment if its supporting line separates the path in a small enough $\varepsilon$-neighborhood around the segment (refer to Fig. 3).

- **Lemma 10.** A shortest self-approaching $s$-$t$ path in a simple polygon $P$ cannot have an inflection point (or an inflection segment) that is interior to $P$.

  **Proof.** Suppose a shortest self-approaching $s$-$t$ path $\pi$ has an inflection point $p$ (or an inflection segment $\overline{pq}$) interior to $P$. Consider an $\varepsilon$-neighborhood of $p$ (or $\overline{pq}$) for some small $\varepsilon$ such that it is also interior to $P$, and it does not contain other inflection points. Choose a
point $p_1$ on subpath $\pi(s,p)$ close to $p$ and draw a tangent through it to a subpath of $\pi(p,t)$ contained in the $\varepsilon$-neighborhood (refer to Fig. 3). Let $p_2$ be the tangent point. We can always choose $p_1$ such that the segment $p_1 p_2$ lies inside the $\varepsilon$-neighborhood. Let $h_2$ be the normal line to $\pi$ drawn through $p_2$. Because $\pi$ is self-approaching, the subpath $\pi(p_2,t)$ lies in the positive half-plane $h_2^+$. Therefore, none of the normal lines to $p_1 p_2$ intersects the subpath $\pi(p_2,t)$. Thus, $\pi(s,p_1) \oplus p_1 p_2 \oplus \pi(p_2,t)$ is self-approaching and is shorter than $\pi$. $\blacksquare$

Define the inflection points of a directed geodesic path $\gamma$ from $s$ to $t$ as the first points of the inflection segments of $\gamma$, i.e., the set of last points in the maximal subchains of $\gamma$ with the same direction of turn.

\textbf{Lemma 11.} A shortest self-approaching path from $s$ to $t$ in a simple polygon $P$ contains all the inflection points of the geodesic path from $s$ to $t$.

\textbf{Proof.} Consider an inflection segment $p_ip_j$ of the geodesic path $\gamma$ from $s$ to $t$, $p_i$ is one of its inflection points. Any shortest self-approaching path $\pi$ intersects $p_ip_j$. If the intersection point were not $p_i$, then $\pi$ would contain an inflection point that is interior to $P$, but this would contradict Lemma 10. $\blacksquare$

Consider two self-approaching paths $\pi_1$ and $\pi_2$ in a simple polygon $P$ from $s$ to $t$ that do not have other points in common. Let $\gamma$ be a geodesic path from $s$ to $t$ inside the area bounded by $\pi_1$ and $\pi_2$. Then, the following lemma holds.

\textbf{Lemma 12.} A geodesic path $\gamma$ between two self-approaching paths $\pi_1$ and $\pi_2$ is also self-approaching.

\textbf{Proof.} We use the fact that the geodesic lies inside of the convex hull of each side of the boundaries between which it is constrained, i.e., $\gamma \subset CH(\pi_1)$ and $\gamma \subset CH(\pi_2)$.

Any point $p \in \gamma$ either lies on one of the paths $\pi_1$ and $\pi_2$ or on a straight line segment that is bitangent to the boundary (refer to Fig. 4).

Consider the case when $p$ lies on $\pi_1$ or $\pi_2$, and is not a bend point (as point $p_1$ in the figure). Let, w.l.o.g., $p \in \pi_1$. The positive half-plane $h^+$ of the normal to $\pi_1$ at $p$ contains the rest of the path $\pi_1(p,t)$. Therefore it contains the convex hull of $\pi_1(p,t)$, and the subpath $\gamma(p,t)$ of the geodesic.

When $p$ lies on a path $\pi_1$ and is a bend point, the two normals to the path at $p$ define two positive half-planes whose intersection contains the rest of the path from $p$ to $t$. The two normals to the geodesic path at this point will lie in between the two normals to the boundary path (as in the figure for point $p_3$). Thus, the intersection of the two positive half-planes of the normals to the geodesic contains the convex hull of the subpath from $s$ to $t$, and, therefore, the rest of the geodesic path $\gamma(p,t)$.
Figure 5 Shortest self-approaching path from $s$ to $t$ consists of straight-line segments, circular arcs, and involutes of a circle of some order. Straight segments are shown in green, circular arcs in purple, involutes of a circle of first order in orange, involutes of a circle of a second order in blue, and involutes of a circle of third order in brown.

In the case when $p$ lies on a bitangent, consider its end point $p_2$. The normal to $\gamma$ at $p$ is parallel to the normal to $\gamma$ at $p_2$. By one of the cases considered above, the positive half-plane at $p_2$ (or the intersection of two positive half-planes) will contain $\gamma(p_2, t)$, and, therefore, the positive half-plane of the normal to $\gamma$ at $p$ will contain the subpath $\gamma(p, t)$.

Thus, by the half-plane property, $\gamma$ is self-approaching. ▶

As a corollary to this lemma, for two self-approaching paths from $s$ to $t$, a path, composed of geodesics in the areas bounded by subpaths of the two paths between each pair of consecutive intersection points, is also self-approaching. In other words, let $s = p_0, p_1, \ldots, p_k, p_{k+1} = t$ be all the intersection points of $\pi_1$ and $\pi_2$ in the order they appear on $\pi_1$ and $\pi_2$. Observe that the intersection points must appear in the same order along the both paths, otherwise there would exist three points on one of these paths which would violate the definition of a self-approaching path. Let $\gamma_i$ be the geodesic from $p_i$ to $p_{i+1}$ in the area between the two subpaths $\pi_1(p_i, p_{i+1})$ and $\pi_2(p_i, p_{i+1})$. Then,

▶ Lemma 13. The concatenation of the geodesics $\gamma = \gamma_0 \oplus \gamma_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \gamma_k$ is self-approaching.

Proof. By a similar argument as in Lemma 12, for any normal to $\gamma_i$ at point $p$, its positive half-plane either contains the convex hull of $\pi_1(p, t)$, or it contains the convex hull of $\pi_2(p, t)$. In both cases, that implies that the subpath $\gamma(p, t)$ lies in the positive half-plane of the normal. Therefore, $\gamma$ is self-approching. ◀

The next theorem is a direct corollary of Lemma 13.

▶ Theorem 14. A shortest self-approaching $s$-$t$ path is unique.

Figure 5 shows an example of a shortest self-approaching path inside a polygon. In the following theorem we give its characterization.

▶ Theorem 15. A shortest self-approaching $s$-$t$ path in a simple polygon consists of straight-line segments, circular arcs, and circle involutes of some order.
**Figure 6** Illustration to Theorem 15.

**Proof.** Let \( p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k \) be the points of the shortest self-approaching \( s-t \) path \( \pi^* \) in the order from \( s \) to \( t \), in which the path touches the boundary of \( P \). Consider the last segment \( \pi^*(p_k, t) \). It is a straight-line segment. Otherwise it could be shortened in the following way.

Consider the last segment \( \overline{pq} \) of a geodesic path from \( s \) to \( t \), and extend it in the direction from \( t \) to \( q \) until intersecting path \( \pi^* \); denote the intersection point as \( q' \). (Note, that it exists, as the extension of \( \overline{qt} \) beyond \( q \) until intersecting the boundary of \( P \) separates \( s \) from \( t \).) Then, \( \pi^* \) can be shortened by replacing \( \pi^*(q, t) \) by the segment \( \overline{qt} \).

Now, suppose that all the segments \( \pi^*(p_i, p_{i+1}) \) consist of straight-line segments, circular arcs, or involutes of some order, that is not higher than the number of bends on the path.

Denote \( CH_t = CH(\pi^*(p_t, t)) \). Let, w.l.o.g., \( \pi^* \) touch the boundary of the polygon at point \( p_t \) on its left side (refer to Fig. 6). Then construct an involute \( I_{CH_t} \) of the convex hull \( CH_t \) starting at point \( p_t \) with the tangent point moving in clockwise direction around \( CH_t \) until the first intersection point of the involute with the boundary of \( P \). The area \( D_t \) on the concave side of the involute that it cuts off of the polygon \( P \) is a “dead” region for any self-approaching path that ends with the subpath \( \pi^*(p_{t-1}, p_t) \) (red area in the Fig. 6). In other words, for any point \( u \in D_t \), any path connecting \( u \) to \( p_t \) will have a normal that intersects \( CH_t \), and therefore the subpath \( \pi^*(p_t, t) \). To show that, consider any piecewise-smooth path \( \pi_u \) from \( u \) to \( p_t \). Parameterize \( \pi_u \) for some parameter \( \tau \in [0, 1] \), where \( \pi_u(0) = u \) and \( \pi_u(1) = p_t \). Consider the distance function \( d_u(\tau) \) from a point moving along \( \pi_u \) to the involute \( I_{CH_t} \). This function will be piecewise smooth as both of the paths are piecewise-smooth. As a point, moving along \( \pi_u \), has to eventually coincide with \( p_t \), there exists parameter \( \tau' \) at which the distance function is decreasing, and therefore, the angle between a tangent vector to \( \pi_u \) at the point \( u' = \pi_u(\tau') \) and a tangent from \( u' \) to the convex hull \( CH_t \) is greater than \( 90^\circ \). Therefore, a positive half-plane of the normal to \( \pi_u \) at point \( u' \) does not fully contain the convex hull \( CH_t \), and therefore, the path \( \pi_u \circ \pi^*(p_t, t) \) is not self-approaching.

Now, consider a geodesic path from \( s \) to \( p_t \) in the region \( P \setminus D_t \), and consider its last segment \( qp_t \), where \( q \) is the last point before \( p_t \) that belongs to the boundary of \( P \). This segment can be a straight-line segment, or a straight-line segment \( \overline{qt} \) followed by a piece of the involute \( I_{CH_t} \), where \( \overline{qt} \) is tangent to \( I_{CH_t} \). If segment \( qp_t \) is not on \( \pi^* \), then, by a similar argument as above, we can show that \( \pi^* \) can be shortened. Extend the segment \( \overline{qt} \) beyond the point \( q \) until the intersection \( q' \) with \( \pi^* \). Then, \( \pi^* \) can be shortened if the subpath \( \pi^*(q', p_t) \) is replaced by the segment \( qp_t \) of the geodesic.

The boundary of the convex hull \( CH_t \) consists of straight-line segments and pieces of the subpath \( \pi^*(p_t, t) \), which we assumed were straight segments, arcs, and circle involutes. Therefore, the segment \( qp_t \) of the geodesic path also consists of straight segments, circular arcs, and circle involutes, possibly, of one order higher than the following subpath. Therefore, the shortest self-approaching path consists of straight-line segments, circular arcs, and circle involutes of some order, that is not higher than the number of bends on the path. 

\[\square\]
In the last proof, the point $q$ of the last segment $q\ell_p$ of the geodesic path from $s$ to $p_\ell$ in $P\setminus D_t$ does not necessarily belong to the geodesic path from $s$ to $t$. Consider an example in Fig. 7. In it, several vertices of the geodesic path $\gamma$ are in the dead region (on the concave side of the involute). The tangent line from the last vertex ($p_i$ in the left example, and $p_j$ in the right example) of $\gamma$ before $p_\ell$ that is not in the dead region intersects the boundary of the polygon. Angle $\angle p_i gt_\ell$, where $g$ is the intersection point of $\gamma$ with the involute, is an obtuse angle. This follows from the fact that the intersection angle between the straight-line segment $\overline{p_i p_\ell}$ and the tangent to the involute at the intersection point must not be greater than $90^\circ$, otherwise the point $p_\ell$ would not lie in the positive half-plane of the normal to the involute at the intersection point. Then, the total turn angle of the self-approaching path $\pi^*$ from $p_i$ to $t_\ell$ is less than $90^\circ$, and thus, the subpath $\pi^*(p_i, t_\ell)$ consists of straight-line segments. Let the previous inflection point of $\gamma$ before $p_\ell$ be $p_j$, and the next inflection point of $\gamma$ on or after $p_\ell$ be $p_k$. It follows then that the subpath $\pi^*(p_j, p_k)$ is geodesically convex, that is, the shortest path between any two points on $\pi^*(p_j, p_k)$ lies completely on one (and the same side) of the path. We obtain the following lemma.

**Lemma 16.** A shortest self-approaching $s$-$t$ path in a simple polygon $P$ consists of geodesically convex paths between inflection points of the geodesic from $s$ to $t$.

**Theorem 17.** A shortest self-approaching $s$-$t$ path in a simple polygon $P$ with $n$ vertices consists of $O(n^2)$ segments. There exists a simple polygon $P$ and two points $s$ and $t$ in it, such that the shortest self-approaching from $s$ to $t$ has $\Omega(n^2)$ segments.

### 4 Existence of a self-approaching path

In this section we consider the question of testing whether, for given points $s$ and $t$ in a polygon $P$, they can be connected with a self-approaching path. In Theorem 15 we proved that a shortest self-approaching path can consist of involutes of a circle of high order, and in Section 2 we showed that such an involute is defined by a system of transcendental equations. In [14] Laczkovich proved a strengthening of Richardson’s theorem, which states that in general the statement $\exists x : f(x) = 0$ is undecidable, where $f(x)$ is an expression generated by the rational numbers, the variable $x$, the operations of addition, multiplication, composition, and the sine function. Equations (1) describing the involutes are a special case of the class of expressions in Laczkovich’s theorem. Nevertheless, it strongly suggests that an involute of a circle of order higher than one cannot be computed.

Next, we show an algorithm to test whether there exists a self-approaching path connecting two points $s$ and $t$, and if so, to compute the shortest path, under the assumption that we can solve Equations (1). Subsequently, it is possible to release this assumption, and modify the algorithm to build an approximate solution, given that the shortest self-approaching path from $s$-to-$t$ exists and there is a small leeway around it free of the polygon boundary points.
4.1 Shortest path algorithm

The proof of Theorem 15 is constructive. Assume that we can solve equations of the form as Equations (1) for an involute of order $k$ in time $O(f(k))$, and evaluate the formula of the involute of order $k$ for a given parameter $\theta$ in time $O(g(k))$. Then, we can decide if two points $s$ and $t$ can be connected by a self-approaching path, and we can construct the shortest path between the points. The outline of the algorithm is:

- Starting at $t$, move backwards along a geodesic $s$-$t$ path $\gamma$. Maintain the convex hull $CH$ of the final part of the shortest self-approaching path $\pi^*$ to the destination $t$ built so far.
- At every bend point $p_t$:
  - Calculate the appropriate branch of an involute $I_{CH}$ of the convex hull $CH$. If $I_{CH}$ intersects the opposite boundary of the polygon, thus separating $s$ from $t$, report that a self-approaching path from $s$ to $t$ does not exist and terminate the algorithm.
  - Otherwise, find a geodesic path $\gamma_t$ from the preceding inflection point of $\gamma$ to $p_t$ in $P \setminus I_{CH}$, and add its last segment $qp_t$ as a prefix to $\pi^*$.
  - Update the convex hull $CH$. Repeat for the new bend point $q$, until $s$ is reached.
  - Report the found path $\pi^*$.

To obtain an algorithm with an optimal running time, there are a few considerations to take into account when constructing the shortest path. First, instead of unnecessarily constructing the whole involute $I_{CH}$ until the intersection point with the boundary of $P$, and then discarding the part of it under the tangent line from $q$, its segments can be built one by one as needed up to the tangent point. Second, to optimally test if $I_{CH}$ intersects the opposite boundary of the polygon, we can maintain a shortest path tree that will allow us to build funnels from the opposite sides of the polygon boundary. Third, it is not necessary to construct the whole geodesic $\gamma_t$ to be able to compute its last segment $qp_t$. Instead, we can move backwards along $\gamma$, vertex by vertex, until we reach a point from which the tangent to $I_{CH}$ can be constructed (possibly with adding new points along it).

Let the edges of $P$ be oriented in counter-clockwise order. We shall call the two ends of an edge $e$, the front-point, and the end-point.

Next, we present the details of the algorithm.

Initialization step. Compute the shortest path tree $SPT_s$ with root $s$ [11], and preprocess it to answer the lowest common ancestor query [4]. Compute the geodesic $\gamma$ from $s$ to $t$, and store $\gamma$ as a stack of vertices. Let the first and the last segments of $\gamma$ be $s\overrightarrow{p_1}$ and $p_f\overrightarrow{t}$ respectively. Extend $s\overrightarrow{p_1}$ beyond $s$ until intersection with $\partial P$ at some point $a$, and extend $p_f\overrightarrow{t}$ beyond $t$ until intersection with $\partial P$ at some point $b$. This can be done in $O(\log n)$ time with a ray-shooting query after linear-time preprocessing of the polygon [7]. Let $L$ be the chain of the boundary of $P$ from $b$ to $a$ in counter-clockwise order, we shall call it the left chain. Similarly, let the right chain $R$ be the chain of the boundary of $P$ from $a$ to $b$ in counter-clockwise order. Initialize $\pi^*$ and $CH$ with the last segment $p_f\overrightarrow{t}$ of $\gamma$, and pop the point $t$ from $\gamma$.

The main loop. Let $p_t$ be the point on top of the stack $\gamma$, before the beginning of the current iteration of the loop. Let $\pi^*$ touch $\partial P$ in point $p_t$ on its left side (the case when $\pi^*$ touches $\partial P$ on its right side is equivalent). Let $CH$ be the convex hull of the already built subpath $\pi^*(p_t, t)$.

Pop $p_t$ from the top of the stack $\gamma$. Consider the previous segment $p_{i-1}\overrightarrow{p_t}$ of $\gamma$ (point $p_i$ is currently on top of the stack $\gamma$).
Case 1. If the angle between $\overrightarrow{p_i p_i'}$ and the tangent in the clockwise direction to $CH$ at point $p_i$ form an angle that is not less than 90°, then $\overrightarrow{p_i p_i'}$ lies on the shortest self-approaching path from $s$ to $t$; append $\pi^∗(p_i, t)$ with $\overrightarrow{p_i p_i'}$ in the front, and update the convex hull.

Case 2. If the angle between $\overrightarrow{p_i p_i'}$ and the tangent in the clockwise direction to $CH$ form an angle that is less than 90°, we need to calculate the involute $I_{CH}$ of the curve $\gamma$ for the tangent point moving clockwise around the boundary of $CH$ starting at $p_i$. We first will determine until which point to calculate $I_{CH}$.

First, we check whether the points on the geodesic path $\gamma$ before $p_i$ lie in the dead region defined by $I_{CH}$. To do that without explicitly constructing $I_{CH}$ first, for each point $g$ on top of the stack $\gamma$, we construct a tangent line to $CH$ which is leaving it on its right side (refer to Fig. 8 (left)). Let $t_g$ be the tangent point on $CH$, and let $I_g$ be the boundary of the convex hull for some involute segment $\gamma$ before $t_g$ to $p_i$. Run a ray shooting query from $g$ to $t_g$, to see whether the points on the geodesic path $\gamma$ from $t_g$ to $p_i$ form an angle that is not less than 90°; append $\pi^∗(p_i, t)$ with $\overrightarrow{p_i p_i'}$ in the front, and update the convex hull.

Now, let $p_i$ be the first point on $\gamma$ before $p_i$ that does not lie in the dead region of $I_{CH}$. As in Fig. 7, the tangent segment from $p_i$ to the involute may intersect the right chain of the boundary of $P$. Moreover, the right chain of the boundary of $P$ may intersect $I_{CH}$. To test and account for that case, we do the following. Let $\mathbf{\vec{t}_g}$ be the tangent vector to $I_{CH}$ at point $p_i$. Run a ray shooting query from $p_i$ in the direction $-\mathbf{\vec{t}_g}$. Let it intersect an edge $e'$ of $R$, and denote its front-point as $p_r$ (refer to Fig. 8 (right)). Then, find a vertex $p_j$ in the shortest path tree $SPT_v$ that is the lowest common ancestor of $p_i$ and $p_r$. Let $\gamma_\ell$ and $\gamma_r$ be the two shortest paths from $p_j$ to $p_i$ to $p_r$, respectively. Paths $\gamma_\ell$ and $\gamma_r$ form two convex chains. If $\gamma_r$ does not intersect $I_{CH}$, then either a common tangent to $\gamma_\ell$ and $I_{CH}$, or a common tangent to $\gamma_r$ and $I_{CH}$, will belong to $\pi^∗$. To be able to compute the common tangents, we now explicitly construct $I_{CH}$ segment by segment until a certain point. Let $p_i' p_i''$ be the last segment of $I_{CH}$ constructed so far (with the curve orientation from $p_i'$ to $p_i''$). We stop the construction of $I_{CH}$ when the segment $p_i' p_i''$ makes a left turn with respect to the tangent vector $-\mathbf{\vec{t}_g}$, where $\mathbf{\vec{t}_g} = \frac{p_i' p_i''}{\overrightarrow{p_i' p_i''}}$.

Whether $\gamma_r$ intersects $I_{CH}$ can be found during the computation of the common tangent. If it does, report that $s$ and $t$ cannot be connected with a self-approaching path and terminate the algorithm.

Let $q_\ell$ and $q_r$, be the two tangent points on $\gamma_\ell$ and $\gamma_r$ respectively of the common tangent lines with $I_{CH}$. One of the points $q_\ell$ and $q_r$, or both, will be equal to $p_j$.
If \( p_j = q_f = q_r \), then append \( \pi^* \) with \( p_j t_f \oplus I_{CH}(t_f, p_r) \), where \( t_f \) is the tangent point on \( I_{CH} \).

If \( p_j = q_r \neq q_f \), then append \( \pi^* \) with \( \gamma(p_j, q_f) \oplus q_f t_r \oplus I_{CH}(t_r, p_r) \), where \( t_r \) is the tangent point on \( I_{CH} \) of the common tangent with \( \gamma_r \).

If \( p_j = q_f \neq q_r \), then append \( \pi^* \) with \( \gamma(p_j, q_r) \oplus q_r t_f \oplus I_{CH}(t_f, p_f) \), where \( t_f \) is the tangent point on \( I_{CH} \) of the common tangent with \( \gamma_f \).

Remove the points from \( \gamma \) until \( p_j \) is on top of the stack, and update \( CH \). Iterate over the main loop until \( \gamma \) is empty, and return \( \pi^* \).

In the full version of this paper [6] we discuss how to compute common tangents between a chain of involute segments of order \( \leq k \) of size \( n \) and a polygonal chain of size \( m \) in \( O(\log(m + n) + g(k) \log m + f(k)) \) time, and between two chains of involutes of sizes \( n \) and \( m \) in \( O(\log(m + n) + g(k) \log m + f(k)) \) time. We also show how to test if two chains intersect in \( O((m + n) + (g(k) + f(k)) \log m) \) time.

**Maintaining \( CH \).** At the end of each iteration of the main algorithm, we need to update the convex hull of the subpath of the shortest self-approaching path built so far. This can involve finding a tangent from a point to a chain of involutes, or finding a common tangent of two chains of involutes.

Moreover, we want to be able to optimally calculate the length of a boundary from the current point \( p_t \) to some point \( t_q \). For that, associate two values \( \text{dist}_{\text{cw}}(u) \) and \( \text{dist}_{\text{cw}}(u) \) to each end point of a segment on \( CH \) that will contain the distance to \( p_t \) (up to some constant that will be equal for all the points) along the boundary in clockwise and counter-clockwise direction, respectively. Moreover, for two points \( u \) and \( v \) on \( CH \), the length of the boundary between them can be calculated by \( \text{dist}_{\text{cw}}(v) - \text{dist}_{\text{cw}}(u) \), if the chain of \( CH \) between \( u \) and \( v \) in counter-clockwise order does not contain \( p_t \). This fact will allow us to maintain the values in the points unchanged when updating the convex hull.

At every iteration of the algorithm, the distance from some tangent point \( t_g \) on an involute segment \( p'p'' \) to \( p_t \) in the clockwise direction can be computed by formula \( s(t_g) = \text{length}_f(t_g, p'') + \text{dist}_{\text{cw}}(p'') - \text{dist}_{\text{cw}}(p_t) \), where \( \text{length}_f(t_g, p'') \) is the arc length of the involute from point \( t_g \) to \( p'' \). Analogously, the distance from \( t_g \) to \( p_t \) in the counter-clockwise direction can be computed by taking \( s(t_g) = \text{length}_f(t_g, p') + \text{dist}_{\text{cw}}(p') - \text{dist}_{\text{cw}}(p_t) \).

When updating the convex hull after extending the path \( \pi^* \), we calculate the lengths of the tangent segments and the new involute arcs, and set the values \( \text{dist}_{\text{cw}}(u) \) and \( \text{dist}_{\text{cw}}(u) \) to the new points of \( CH \) relative to the values of the points remaining on \( CH \). This will take \( f(k) \) time to compute the arc length per segment of an involute of order \( k \).

Taking these considerations into account, we conclude with the following theorem:

**Theorem 18.** The algorithm above constructs a shortest self-approaching path from \( s \) to \( t \) or reports that it does not exist in \( O(K + n \log K (g(\sqrt{K}) + f(\sqrt{K}))) \) running time, where \( K \) is the size of the output, \( f(k) \) is the time it takes to compute an involute of order \( k \), and \( g(k) \) is the time it takes to evaluate an involute of order \( k \) at a given point.

### 5 Self-approaching polygon

A polygon is self-approaching, if for any two points there exists a self-approaching path connecting them.

**Theorem 19.** Polygon \( P \) is self-approaching if and only if for any disk \( D \) centered at any point \( p \in P \), the intersection \( D \cap P \) has one connected component.
Recall that a path is increasing-chord if it is self-approaching in both directions.

Corollary 20. Any self-approaching polygon is also increasing-chord.

Next, we present an algorithm to test whether a given simple polygon $P$ is self-approaching. Observe that from the proof of Theorem 19 the following property holds: the polygon $P$ is self-approaching if and only if an area bounded between the two normals to $e$ at its two end points in the right half-plane of $e$ is free of $\partial P$, for all edges $e$ on the boundary of $P$ directed in counter-clockwise order. We call this area the half-strip of $e$. We will use this property to test efficiently if the polygon is self-approaching.

Let $P$ be given as a set of points $p_0, p_1, \ldots, p_{n-1}$ in counter-clockwise order around the boundary. We will start at $p_0$, move along the boundary in counter-clockwise order and maintain the union of all the half-strips of the edges visited so far. More precisely, we will maintain the left and the right sides, $\rho_l$ and $\rho_r$, of the hour-glass shape that is the union of the half-strips; $\rho_l$ and $\rho_r$ are convex polygonal chains (refer to Fig. 9). Store the segments of $\rho_l$ and $\rho_r$ as two lists, the last segments in the lists are infinite rays.

At every iteration of the algorithm, perform the following steps. Let $p_i$ be the current point of the polygon $P$. The chain $\rho_r$ contains the right side of the union of all the half-strips up to point $p_{i-1}$. Consider the next boundary segment $p_{i-1}p_i$, and a perpendicular ray $h_i$ at the point $p_i$ (refer to Fig. 9 (a)). To update the chain $\rho_r$, do the following: Traverse $\rho_r$, and for every its segment $c_jc_{j+1}$,

- if $p_{i-1}p_i$ intersects $c_jc_{j+1}$, then report that $P$ is not self-approaching and terminate;
- if $h_i$ intersects $c_jc_{j+1}$, calculate the intersection point $c'$, and replace the first elements of the list $\rho_r$ up to $c_jc_{j+1}$ with two segments, $p_ic'$ and $c'gc_{j+1}$; repeat for the next point $p_{i+1}$.

Traverse the boundary of polygon $P$ twice in counter-clockwise order, and then repeat the same algorithm traversing the boundary of $P$ twice in clockwise order. If none of the segments $p_{i-1}p_i$ intersected a segment of $\rho_r$, report that $P$ is self-approaching.

Theorem 21. Given a simple polygon $P$ with $n$ vertices, the presented algorithm tests in $O(n)$ time if it is self-approaching.
Proof. Consider the counter-clockwise traversal of the boundary of $P$. There are two cases when the boundary segment $\overline{p_{i-1}p_i}$ intersects $\rho_r$. In the first case, $\overline{p_{i-1}p_i}$ intersects $\rho_r$, and $h_i$ does not intersect it (refer to Fig. 9 (b)). Let us call it the intersection of type 1. In the second case, $\overline{p_{i-1}p_i}$ intersects $\rho_r$ after $h_i$ intersects it (refer to Fig. 9 (c)). Let us call it the intersection of type 2. Moreover, the boundary segment $\overline{p_{i-1}p_i}$ may intersect $\rho_l$ (refer to Fig. 9 (d)). Let us call it the intersection of type 3.

When traversing the polygon counter-clockwise, the presented algorithm will recognize the first type of the intersection, but not the second or third type. In case of the second type, during one iteration, the algorithm stops traversing $\rho_r$ after finding the intersection point of $h_i$, and thus will not find the intersection of the segment with $\rho_r$. And in case of the third type, the algorithm does not check for intersection with $\rho_l$ at all.

Nevertheless, we will prove, that by repeating the checks above twice and in two directions, counter-clockwise from $p_0$ to $p_{n-1}$, and clockwise from $p_{n-1}$ to $p_0$, the algorithm will correctly decide if the polygon is self-approaching or not.

Case 0. If the polygon is self-approaching, then none of the segments will intersect $\rho_r$ or $\rho_l$. The algorithm will traverse the polygon twice, then twice in clockwise direction, and report that it is self-approaching.

Case 1. If only the first intersection type occurs, then the algorithm will traverse the boundary of $P$ until the first violation of the half-strip property, correctly report that the polygon is not self-approaching, and terminate.

Case 2. Suppose that the second intersection type occurs. Consider the first segment $\overline{p_{i-1}p_i}$, such that both $h_i$ and $\overline{p_{i-1}p_i}$ intersect $\rho_r$. Let $\overline{p_{i-1}p_i}$ intersect the normal to some preceding segment $\overline{p_{j-1}p_j}$ at the point $p_j$. As the ray $h_i$ intersects $\rho_r$ before $\overline{p_{i-1}p_i}$ does, it also intersects the polygon boundary between the points $p_j$ and $p_{i-1}$. And, therefore, the ray $h_{i-1}$ perpendicular to $\overline{p_{i-1}p_i}$ at the point $p_{i-1}$ also intersects the polygon boundary between the points $p_j$ and $p_{i-1}$. Then, consider the behavior of the algorithm during the backwards traversal. Let $p_{\ell}$ for $j \leq \ell < i - 1$ be the first point on the left side of the ray $h_{i-1}$. Then the segment $\overline{p_{\ell+1}p_{\ell}}$ intersects $h_{i-1}$, and either the segment $\overline{p_{\ell+1}p_{\ell}}$ intersects the left chain $\rho_l$ or there was another segment before $\overline{p_{\ell+1}p_{\ell}}$ that intersected $\rho_l$. Note, that because the intersection of $\overline{p_{i-1}p_i}$ and $\rho_r$ was the first violation of the half-strip property in counter-clockwise order, the intersection of $\overline{p_{\ell+1}p_{\ell}}$ and $\rho_l$ cannot be of the second type, otherwise $p_{i-1}$ would already lie on the right side of a normal to $\overline{p_{\ell+1}p_{\ell}}$ at the point $\overline{p_{\ell+1}p_{\ell}}$. Therefore, this intersection can only be of type one, and the algorithm will recognize it during the backwards traversal.

Case 3. Suppose that the third intersection type occurs. Then, there will be a segment $\overline{p_{j+1}p_j}$ (where $j \geq i$), for which the first or the second intersection type occurs when traversing the polygon in the opposite direction, and thus either case 1 or case 2 applies.

Thus, we only need to explicitly check for the first intersection type. The running time of the algorithm is $O(n)$. At every iteration, the number of segments removed from the list $\rho_r$ is equal to half the number of tests for intersections the algorithm makes, and the number of segments added back is at most 2. Therefore, the total number of segments that can be removed from $\rho_r$ over one traversal of the boundary is not more than $2n$. Similarly, the total number of segments that can be removed from $\rho_l$ over one traversal of the boundary is not more than $2n$. Therefore, the algorithm performs $O(n)$ intersection tests.

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References


