

Computing the L_1 Geodesic Diameter and Center of a Polygonal Domain*

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Abstract

For a polygonal domain with h holes and a total of n vertices, we present algorithms that compute the L_1 geodesic diameter in $O(n^2 + h^4)$ time and the L_1 geodesic center in $O((n^4 + n^2 h^4)\alpha(n))$ time, respectively, where $\alpha(\cdot)$ denotes the inverse Ackermann function. No algorithms were known for these problems before. For the Euclidean counterpart, the best algorithms compute the geodesic diameter in $O(n^{7.73})$ or $O(n^7(h + \log n))$ time, and compute the geodesic center in $O(n^{11} \log n)$ time. Therefore, our algorithms are significantly faster than the algorithms for the Euclidean problems. Our algorithms are based on several interesting observations on L_1 shortest paths in polygonal domains.

Keywords and phrases geodesic diameter, geodesic center, shortest paths, polygonal domains, L_1 metric

1 Introduction

A *polygonal domain* \mathcal{P} is a closed and connected polygonal region in the plane \mathbb{R}^2 , with $h \geq 0$ holes (i.e., simple polygons). Let n be the total number of vertices of \mathcal{P} . Regarding the boundary of \mathcal{P} as obstacles, we consider shortest obstacle-avoiding paths lying in \mathcal{P} between any two points $p, q \in \mathcal{P}$. Their *geodesic distance* $d(p, q)$ is the length of a shortest path between p and q in \mathcal{P} . The *geodesic diameter* (or simply *diameter*) of \mathcal{P} is the maximum geodesic distance over all pairs of points $p, q \in \mathcal{P}$, i.e., $\max_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \max_{q \in \mathcal{P}} d(p, q)$. Closely related to the diameter is the min-max quantity $\min_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \max_{q \in \mathcal{P}} d(p, q)$, in which a point p^* that minimizes $\max_{q \in \mathcal{P}} d(p^*, q)$ is called a *geodesic center* (or simply *center*) of \mathcal{P} . Each of the above quantities is called *Euclidean* or L_1 depending on which of the Euclidean or L_1 metric is adopted to measure the length of paths.

For simple polygons (i.e., $h = 0$), the Euclidean geodesic diameter and center have been studied since the 1980s [3, 8, 23]. For the diameter, Chazelle [8] gave the first $O(n^2)$ -time algorithm, followed by an $O(n \log n)$ -time algorithm by Suri [23]. Finally, Hershberger and Suri [15] gave a linear-time algorithm for computing the diameter. For the center, after an $O(n^4 \log n)$ -time algorithm by Asano and Toussaint [3], Pollack, Sharir, and Rote [21] gave an $O(n \log n)$ time algorithm for computing the geodesic center. Recently, Ahn et al. [1] solved the problem in $O(n)$ time.

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For the general case (i.e., $h > 0$), the problems are more difficult. The Euclidean diameter problem was solved in $O(n^{7.73})$ or $O(n^7(h + \log n))$ time [4]. The Euclidean center problem was first solved in $O(n^{12+\epsilon})$ time for any $\epsilon > 0$ [5] and then an improved $O(n^{11} \log n)$ time algorithm was given in [24].

For the L_1 versions, the geodesic diameter and center of simple polygons can be computed in linear time [6, 22], but we are unaware of any previous algorithms for polygonal domains. In this paper, we present the first algorithms that compute the geodesic diameter and center of a polygonal domain \mathcal{P} (as defined above) in $O(n^2 + h^4)$ and $O((n^4 + n^2 h^4)\alpha(n))$ time, respectively, where $\alpha(\cdot)$ is the inverse Ackermann function. Comparing with the algorithms for the same problems under the Euclidean metric, our algorithms are much more efficient, especially when h is significantly smaller than n .

As discussed in [4], a main difficulty of polygonal domains seemingly arises from the fact that there can be several topologically different shortest paths between two points, which is not the case for simple polygons. Bae, Korman, and Okamoto [4] observed that the Euclidean diameter can be realized by two interior points of a polygonal domain, in which case the two points have at least five distinct shortest paths. This difficulty makes their algorithm suffer a fairly large running time. Similar issues also arise in the L_1 metric, where a diameter may also be realized by two interior points (this can be seen by extending the examples in [4]).

We take a different approach from [4]. We first construct an $O(n^2)$ -sized cell decomposition of \mathcal{P} such that the L_1 geodesic distance function restricted to any pair of two cells can be explicitly described in $O(1)$ complexity. Consequently, the L_1 diameter and center can be obtained by exploring these cell-restricted pieces of the geodesic distance. This leads to simple algorithms that compute the diameter in $O(n^4)$ time and the center in $O(n^6 \alpha(n))$ time. With the help of an “extended corridor structure” of \mathcal{P} [9, 10, 11], we reduce the $O(n^2)$ complexity of our decomposition to another “coarser” decomposition of $O(n + h^2)$ complexity; with another crucial observation (Lemma 7), one may compute the diameter in $O(n^3 + h^4)$ time by using our techniques for the above $O(n^4)$ time algorithm. One of our main contributions is an additional series of observations (Lemmas 9 to 18) that allow us to further reduce the running time to $O(n^2 + h^4)$. These observations along with the decomposition may have other applications as well. The idea for computing the center is similar.

We are motivated to study the L_1 versions of the diameter and center problems in polygonal (even non-rectilinear) domains for several reasons. First, the L_1 metric is natural and well studied in optimization and routing problems, as it models actual costs in rectilinear road networks and certain robotics/VLSI applications. Indeed, the L_1 diameter and center problems in the simpler setting of simply connected domains have been studied [6, 22]. Second, the L_1 metric approximates the Euclidean metric. Further, improved understanding of algorithmic results in one metric can assist in understanding in other metrics; e.g., the continuous Dijkstra methods for L_1 shortest paths of [18, 19] directly led to improved results for Euclidean shortest paths.

1.1 Preliminaries

For any subset $A \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, denote by ∂A the boundary of A . Denote by \overline{pq} the line segment with endpoints p and q . The L_1 length of \overline{pq} is defined to be $|x_p - x_q| + |y_p - y_q|$, where x_p and y_p are the x - and y -coordinates of p , respectively, and x_q and y_q are the x - and y -coordinates of q , respectively. For any polygonal path $\pi \in \mathbb{R}^2$, let $|\pi|$ be the L_1 length of π , which is the sum of the L_1 lengths of all segments of π . In the following, a path always refers to a polygonal path. A path is *xy-monotone* (or *monotone* for short) if every vertical

or horizontal line intersects it in at most one connected component. Following is a basic observation on the L_1 length of paths in \mathbb{R}^2 , which will be used in our discussion.

► **Fact 1.** For any monotone path π between two points $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $|\pi| = |\overline{pq}|$ holds.

We view the boundary $\partial\mathcal{P}$ of our polygonal domain \mathcal{P} as a series of *obstacles* so that no path in \mathcal{P} is allowed to cross $\partial\mathcal{P}$. Throughout the paper, unless otherwise stated, a shortest path always refers to an L_1 shortest path and the distance/length of a path (e.g., $d(p, q)$) always refers to its L_1 distance/length. The diameter/center always refers to the L_1 geodesic diameter/center. For simplicity of discussion, we make a general position assumption that no two vertices of \mathcal{P} have the same x - or y -coordinate.

The following will also be exploited as a basic fact in further discussion.

► **Fact 2** ([13, 14]). In any simple polygon P , there is a unique Euclidean shortest path π between any two points in P . The path π is also an L_1 shortest path in P .

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we introduce our cell decomposition of \mathcal{P} and exploit it to have preliminary algorithms for computing the diameter and center of \mathcal{P} . The algorithms will be improved later in Section 4, based on the extended corridor structure and new observations discussed in Section 3. One may consider the preliminary algorithms in Section 2 relatively straightforward, but we present them for the following reasons. First, they provide an overview on the problem structure. Second, they will help the reader to understand the more sophisticated algorithms given in Section 4. Third, some parts of them will also be needed in the algorithms in Section 4.

2 The Cell Decomposition and Preliminary Algorithms

In this section, we introduce our cell decomposition \mathcal{D} of \mathcal{P} and exploit it to have preliminary algorithms that compute the diameter and center of \mathcal{P} .

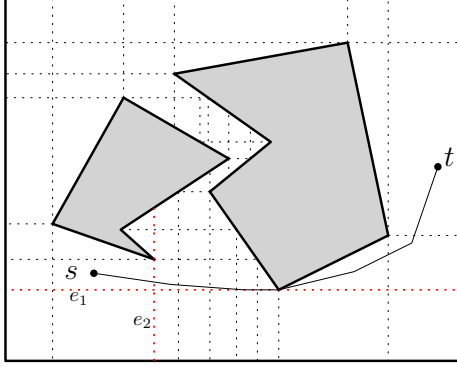
We first build the *horizontal trapezoidal map* by extending a horizontal line from each vertex of \mathcal{P} until each end of the line hits $\partial\mathcal{P}$. Next, we compute the *vertical trapezoidal map* by extending a vertical line from each vertex of \mathcal{P} and each of the ends of the above extended lines. We then overlay the two trapezoidal maps, resulting in a *cell decomposition* \mathcal{D} of \mathcal{P} (e.g., see Fig. 1). The above extended horizontal or vertical line segments are called the *diagonals* of \mathcal{D} . Note that \mathcal{D} has $O(n)$ diagonals and $O(n^2)$ cells. Each cell σ of \mathcal{D} is bounded by two to four diagonals and at most one edge of \mathcal{P} , and thus appears as a trapezoid or a triangle; let V_σ be the set of vertices of \mathcal{D} that are incident to σ (note that $|V_\sigma| \leq 4$). By an abuse of notation, we let \mathcal{D} also denote the set of all the cells of the decomposition.

Each cell of \mathcal{D} is an intersection between a trapezoid of the horizontal trapezoidal map and another one of the vertical trapezoidal map. Two cells of \mathcal{D} are *aligned* if they are contained in the same trapezoid of the horizontal or vertical trapezoidal map, and *unaligned* otherwise. Lemma 1 is crucial for computing both the diameter and the center of \mathcal{P} .

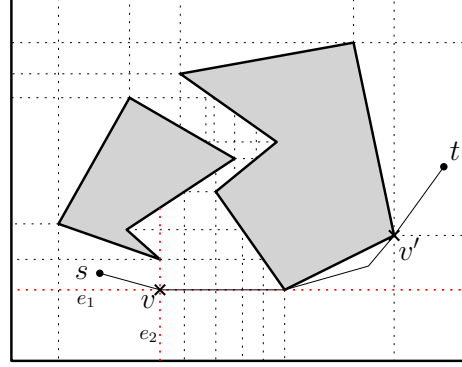
► **Lemma 1.** Let σ, σ' be any two cells of \mathcal{D} . For any point $s \in \sigma$ and any point $t \in \sigma'$, if σ and σ' are aligned, then $d(s, t) = |\overline{st}|$; otherwise, there exists an L_1 shortest path between s and t that passes through two vertices $v \in V_\sigma$ and $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$ (e.g., see Fig. 2).

Proof. If two cells $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D}$ are aligned, then they are contained in a trapezoid τ of the vertical or horizontal trapezoidal map. Since τ is convex, any two points in τ can be joined by a straight segment, so we have $d(s, t) = |\overline{st}|$ for any $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$.

Now, suppose that σ and σ' are unaligned (e.g., see Fig. 1). Let π be any shortest path between s and t . We first observe that π intersects one horizontal diagonal e_1 of \mathcal{D} and one



■ **Figure 1** The cell decomposition \mathcal{D} of \mathcal{P} , and a shortest path from s to t .



■ **Figure 2** Illustrating Lemma 1: a shortest path through vertices $v \in V_\sigma$ and $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$.

vertical diagonal e_2 , both of which bound σ (e.g., see Fig. 1, where e_1 and e_2 are highlighted with red color): otherwise, σ and σ' must be aligned. Since e_1 and e_2 are bounding σ , the intersection $v = e_1 \cap e_2$ is a vertex of σ (e.g., see Fig. 2). Let p_1 be the first intersection of π with e_1 while we go along π from s to t . Similarly, define p_2 to be the first intersection of π with e_2 .

Since e_1 is horizontal and e_2 is vertical, the union of the two line segments $\overline{p_1 v} \cup \overline{v p_2}$ is a shortest path between p_1 and p_2 . We replace the portion of π between p_1 and p_2 by $\overline{p_1 v} \cup \overline{v p_2}$ to have another s - t path π' . Since $\overline{p_1 v} \cup \overline{v p_2}$ is monotone, its length is equal to $|\overline{p_1 p_2}|$ by Fact 1. This implies that π' is a shortest path between s and t and passes through the vertex v .

Symmetrically, the above argument can be applied to the other side, the destination t and the cell σ' , which implies that π' can be modified to a s - t shortest path π'' that passes through v and simultaneously a vertex v' of σ' . The lemma thus follows. ◀

2.1 Computing the Geodesic Diameter

In this section, we present an $O(n^4)$ time algorithm for computing the diameter of \mathcal{P} .

The general idea is to consider every pair of cells of \mathcal{D} separately. For each pair of such cells $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D}$, we compute the maximum geodesic distance between σ and σ' , that is, $\max_{s \in \sigma, t \in \sigma'} d(s, t)$, called the (σ, σ') -constrained diameter. Since \mathcal{D} is a decomposition of \mathcal{P} , the diameter of \mathcal{P} is equal to the maximum value of the constrained diameters over all pairs of cells of \mathcal{D} . We handle two cases depending on whether σ and σ' are aligned.

If σ and σ' are aligned, by Lemma 1, for any $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$, we have $d(s, t) = |\overline{st}|$, i.e., the L_1 distance of \overline{st} . Since the L_1 distance function is convex, the (σ, σ') -constrained diameter is always realized by some pair (v, v') of two vertices with $v \in V_\sigma$ and $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$. We are thus done by checking at most 16 pairs of vertices, in $O(1)$ time.

In the following, we assume that σ and σ' are unaligned. Consider any point $s \in \sigma$ and any point $t \in \sigma'$. For any vertex $v \in V_\sigma$ and any vertex $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$, consider the path from s to t obtained by concatenating \overline{sv} , a shortest path from v to v' , and $\overline{v't}$, and let $d_{vv'}(s, t)$ be its length. Lemma 1 ensures that $d(s, t) = \min_{v \in V_\sigma, v' \in V_{\sigma'}} d_{vv'}(s, t)$. Since $d_{vv'}(s, t) = |\overline{sv}| + |\overline{v't}| + d(v, v')$ and $d(v, v')$ is constant over all $(s, t) \in \sigma \times \sigma'$, the function $d_{vv'}$ is linear on $\sigma \times \sigma'$. Thus, it is easy to compute the (σ, σ') -constrained diameter once we know the value of $d(v, v')$ for every pair (v, v') of vertices.

► **Lemma 2.** *For any two cells $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D}$, the (σ, σ') -constrained diameter can be computed in constant time, provided that $d(v, v')$ for every pair (v, v') with $v \in V_\sigma$ and $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$ has been computed.*

Proof. The case where σ and σ' are aligned is easy as discussed above. We thus assume they are unaligned.

Assume that we know the value of $d(v, v')$ for every pair (v, v') with $v \in V_\sigma$ and $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$. Recall that $d(s, t) = \min_{v \in V_\sigma, v' \in V_{\sigma'}} d_{vv'}(s, t)$ and $d_{vv'}(s, t) = |\overline{sv}| + |\overline{v't}| + d(v, v')$. Further, note that $|V_\sigma| \leq 4, |V_{\sigma'}| \leq 4$.

Since each $d_{vv'}$ is a linear function on its domain $\sigma \times \sigma'$, its graph appears as a hyperplane in a 5-dimensional space. Thus, the geodesic distance function d restricted on $\sigma \times \sigma'$ corresponds to the lower envelope of those hyperplanes. Since there are only a constant number of pairs (v, v') , the function d can also be explicitly constructed in $O(1)$ time. Finally, we find the highest point on the graph of d by traversing all of its faces. ◀

For each vertex v of \mathcal{D} , a straightforward method can compute $d(v, v')$ for all other vertices v' of \mathcal{D} in $O(n^2 \log n)$ time, by first computing the shortest path map $SPM(v)$ [18, 19] in $O(n \log n)$ time and then computing $d(v, v')$ for all $v' \in \mathcal{D}$ in $O(n^2 \log n)$ time. We instead give a faster sweeping algorithm in Lemma 3 by making use of the property that all vertices on every diagonal of \mathcal{D} are sorted.

► **Lemma 3.** *For each vertex v of \mathcal{D} , we can evaluate $d(v, v')$ for all vertices v' of \mathcal{D} in $O(n^2)$ time.*

Proof. Our algorithm attains its efficiency by using the property that all vertices on each diagonal of \mathcal{D} are sorted. Specifically, suppose that \mathcal{D} is represented by a standard data structure, e.g., the doubly connected edge list. Then, by traversing each diagonal (either vertical or horizontal), we can obtain a vertically or horizontally sorted list of vertices on that diagonal.

We first compute the shortest path map $SPM(v)$ in $O(n \log n)$ time [18, 19]. We then apply a standard sweeping technique, say, we sweep $SPM(v)$ by a vertical line from left to right. The events are when the sweep line hits vertices of $SPM(v)$, obstacle vertices of \mathcal{P} , or vertical diagonals of \mathcal{D} . Note that each vertex of \mathcal{D} is either on a vertical diagonal or an obstacle vertex. We use the standard technique to handle the events of vertices of $SPM(v)$ and \mathcal{P} , and each such event costs $O(\log n)$ time. For each event of a vertical diagonal of \mathcal{D} , we simply do a linear search on the sweeping status to find the cells of $SPM(v)$ that contain the cell vertices of \mathcal{D} on the diagonal. Each such event takes $O(n)$ time since each diagonal of \mathcal{D} has $O(n)$ vertices. Note that the total number of events is $O(n)$. Hence, the running time of the sweeping algorithm is $O(n^2)$. ◀

Thus, after $O(n^4)$ -time preprocessing, for any two cells $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D}$, the (σ, σ') -constrained diameter can be computed in $O(1)$ time by Lemma 2. Since \mathcal{D} has $O(n^2)$ cells, it suffices to handle at most $O(n^4)$ pairs of cells, resulting in $O(n^4)$ candidates for the diameter, and the maximum is the diameter. Hence, we obtain the following result.

► **Theorem 4.** *The L_1 geodesic diameter of \mathcal{P} can be computed in $O(n^4)$ time.*

2.2 Computing the Geodesic Center

We now present an algorithm that computes an L_1 center of \mathcal{P} . The observation in Lemma 1 plays an important role in our algorithm.

For any point $q \in \mathcal{P}$, we define $R(q)$ to be the maximum geodesic distance between q and any point in \mathcal{P} , i.e., $R(q) := \max_{p \in \mathcal{P}} d(p, q)$. A center q^* of \mathcal{P} is defined to be a point with $R(q^*) = \min_{q \in \mathcal{P}} R(q)$. Our approach is again based on the decomposition \mathcal{D} : for each cell $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$, we want to find a point $q \in \sigma$ that minimizes the maximum geodesic distance $d(p, q)$ over all $p \in \mathcal{P}$. We call such a point $q \in \sigma$ a σ -constrained center. Thus, if q' is a σ -constrained center, then we have $R(q') = \min_{q \in \sigma} R(q)$. Clearly, the center q^* of \mathcal{P} must be a σ -constrained center for some $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$. Our algorithm thus finds a σ -constrained center for every $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$, which at last results in $O(n^2)$ candidates for a center of \mathcal{P} .

Consider any cell $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$. To compute a σ -constrained center, we investigate the function R restricted to σ and exploit Lemma 1 again. To utilize Lemma 1, for any point $q \in \sigma$, we define $R_{\sigma'}(q) := \max_{p \in \sigma'} d(p, q)$ for any $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}$. For any $q \in \sigma$, $R(q) = \max_{\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}} R_{\sigma'}(q)$, that is, R is the upper envelope of all the $R_{\sigma'}$ on the domain σ . Our algorithm explicitly computes the functions $R_{\sigma'}$ for all $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}$ and computes the upper envelope \mathcal{U} of the graphs of the $R_{\sigma'}$. Then, a σ -constrained center corresponds to a lowest point on \mathcal{U} .

We observe the following for the function $R_{\sigma'}$.

► **Lemma 5.** *The function $R_{\sigma'}$ is piecewise linear on σ and has $O(1)$ complexity.*

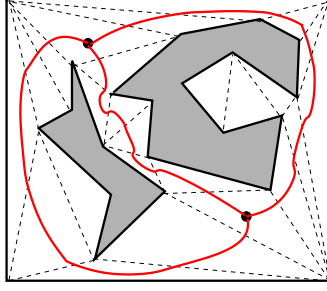
Proof. Recall that $R_{\sigma'}(q) = \max_{p \in \sigma'} d(p, q)$ for $q \in \sigma$. In this proof, we regard d to be restricted on $\sigma \times \sigma' \subset \mathbb{R}^4$ and use a coordinate system of \mathbb{R}^4 by introducing 4 axes, x, y, u , and w with $p = (x, y) \in \sigma$ and $q = (u, w) \in \sigma'$. Thus, we may write $R_{\sigma'}(q) = R_{\sigma'}(x, y) = \max_{(u, w) \in \sigma'} d(x, y, u, w)$.

The graph of function d consists of $O(1)$ linear patches as shown in the proof of Lemma 2. Once we fully identify the geodesic distance function d on $\sigma \times \sigma'$, we consider its graph $S := \{z = d(x, y, u, w)\}$ for all $(x, y, u, w) \in \sigma \times \sigma'$, which is a hypersurface in a 5-dimensional space $(\sigma \times \sigma') \times \mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{R}^5$ with an additional axis z . We then project the graph S onto the (x, y, z) -space. More precisely, the projection of S is the set $\{(x, y, z) \mid (x, y, u, w, z) \in S\}$. Thus, for any $(x, y) \in \sigma$, $R_{\sigma'}(x, y)$ is determined by the highest point in the intersection of the projection with the z -axis parallel line through point $(x, y, 0)$. This implies that the function $R_{\sigma'}$ simply corresponds to the upper envelope (in the z -coordinate) of the projection of S . Since S consists of $O(1)$ linear patches, so does the upper envelope of its projection, which concludes the proof. ◀

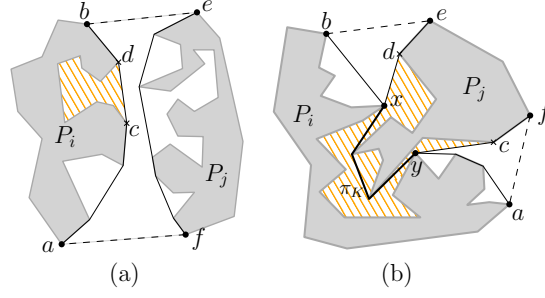
Now, we are ready to describe how to compute a σ -constrained center. We first handle every cell $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}$ to compute the graph of $R_{\sigma'}$ and thus gather its linear patches. Let Γ be the family of those linear patches for all $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}$. We then compute the upper envelope of Γ and find a lowest point on the upper envelope, which corresponds to a σ -constrained center. Since $|\Gamma| = O(n^2)$ by Lemma 5, the upper envelope can be computed in $O(n^4 \alpha(n))$ time by executing the algorithm by Edelsbrunner et al. [12], where $\alpha(\cdot)$ denotes the inverse Ackermann function. The following theorem summarizes our algorithm.

► **Theorem 6.** *An L_1 geodesic center of \mathcal{P} can be computed in $O(n^6 \alpha(n))$ time.*

Proof. As a preprocessing, we compute all of the vertex-to-vertex geodesic distances $d(v, v')$ for all pairs of vertices of \mathcal{D} in $O(n^4)$ time. We show that for a fixed $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$, a σ -constrained center can be computed in $O(n^4 \alpha(n))$ time. As discussed in the proof of Lemma 2, for any $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}$, the geodesic distance function d restricted on $\sigma \times \sigma'$, along with its graph D over $\sigma \times \sigma'$, can be specified in $O(1)$ time. By Lemma 5, from D we can describe the function $R_{\sigma'}$ in $O(1)$ time. The last task is to compute the upper envelope of all $R_{\sigma'}$ in $O(n^4 \alpha(n))$ time, as discussed above, by executing the algorithm by Edelsbrunner et al. [12]. ◀



■ **Figure 3** A triangulation \mathcal{T} of \mathcal{P} and the 3-regular graph obtained from the dual graph of \mathcal{T} whose nodes and edges are depicted by black dots and red solid curves. Each junction triangle corresponds to a node and removing all junction triangles results in three corridors, in this figure, each of which corresponds to an edge of the graph.



■ **Figure 4** Hourglasses H_K in corridors K . The dashed segments \overline{be} and \overline{af} are diagonals of junction triangles in \mathcal{T} . (a) H_K is open. Five bays can be seen. A bay with gate \overline{cd} is shown as the shaded region. (b) H_K is closed. There are three bays and a canal, and the shaded region depicts the canal with two gates \overline{dx} and \overline{cy} .

3 Exploiting the Extended Corridor Structure

In this section, we briefly review the extended corridor structure of \mathcal{P} and present new observations, which will be crucial for our improved algorithms in Section 4. The corridor structure has been used for solving shortest path problems [9, 16, 17]. Later some new concepts such as “bays,” “canals,” and the “ocean” were introduced [10, 11], referred to as the “extended corridor structure.”

3.1 The Extended Corridor Structure

Let \mathcal{T} denote an arbitrary triangulation of \mathcal{P} (e.g., see Figure 3). We can obtain \mathcal{T} in $O(n \log n)$ time or $O(n + h \log^{1+\epsilon} h)$ time for any $\epsilon > 0$ [7]. Let G denote the dual graph of \mathcal{T} , i.e., each node of $G(\mathcal{P})$ corresponds to a triangle in $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{P})$ and each edge connects two nodes of $G(\mathcal{P})$ corresponding to two triangles sharing a diagonal of $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{P})$. Based on G , one can obtain a planar 3-regular graph, possibly with loops and multi-edges, by repeatedly removing all degree-one nodes and then contracting all degree-two nodes. The resulting 3-regular graph has $O(h)$ faces, nodes, and edges [17]. Each node of the graph corresponds to a triangle in \mathcal{T} , called a *junction triangle*. The removal of all junction triangles from \mathcal{P} results in $O(h)$ components, called *corridors*, each of which corresponds to an edge of the graph. See Figure 3. Refer to [17] for more details.

Next we briefly review the concepts of bays, canals, and the ocean. Refer to [10, 11] for more details.

Let P_1, \dots, P_h be the h holes of \mathcal{P} and P_0 be the outer polygon of \mathcal{P} . For simplicity, a hole may also refer to the unbounded region outside P_0 hereafter. The boundary ∂K of a corridor K consists of two diagonals of \mathcal{T} and two paths along the boundary of holes P_i and P_j , respectively (it is possible that P_i and P_j are the same hole, in which case one may consider P_i and P_j as the above two paths respectively). Let $a, b \in P_i$ and $e, f \in P_j$ be the endpoints of the two paths, respectively, such that \overline{be} and \overline{fa} are diagonals of \mathcal{T} , each of which bounds a junction triangle. See Figure 4. Let π_{ab} (resp., π_{ef}) denote the *Euclidean* shortest path from a to b (resp., e to f) inside K . The region H_K bounded by $\pi_{ab}, \pi_{ef}, \overline{be}$, and \overline{fa} is called an *hourglass*, which is either *open* if $\pi_{ab} \cap \pi_{ef} = \emptyset$, or *closed*, otherwise. If H_K is open, then both π_{ab} and π_{ef} are convex chains and are called the *sides* of H_K ; otherwise, H_K consists of two “funnels” and a path $\pi_K = \pi_{ab} \cap \pi_{ef}$ joining the two apices

of the two funnels, called the *corridor path* of K . The two funnel apices (e.g., x and y in Figure 4(b)) connected by π_K are called the *corridor path terminals*. Note that each funnel comprises two convex chains.

We consider the region of K minus the interior of H_K , which consists of a number of simple polygons facing (i.e., sharing an edge with) one or both of P_i and P_j . We call each of these simple polygons a *bay* if it is facing a single hole, or a *canal* if facing both holes. Each bay is bounded by a portion of the boundary of a hole and a segment \overline{cd} between two obstacle vertices c, d that are consecutive along a side of H_K . We call the segment \overline{cd} the *gate* of the bay. (See Figure 4(a).) On the other hand, there exists a unique canal for each corridor K only when H_K is closed and the two holes P_i and P_j both bound the canal. The canal in K in this case completely contains the corridor path π_K . A canal has two *gates* \overline{xd} and \overline{yc} that are two segments facing the two funnels, respectively, where x, y are the corridor path terminals and d, c are vertices of the funnels. (See Figure 4(b).) Note that each bay or canal is a simple polygon.

Let $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{P}$ be the union of all junction triangles, open hourglasses, and funnels. We call \mathcal{M} the *ocean*. Its boundary $\partial\mathcal{M}$ consists of $O(h)$ convex vertices and $O(h)$ reflex chains each of which is a side of an open hourglass or of a funnel. Note that $\mathcal{P} \setminus \mathcal{M}$ consists of all bays and canals of \mathcal{P} .

For convenience of discussion, define each bay/canal in such a way that they do not contain their gates and hence their gates are contained in \mathcal{M} ; therefore, each point of \mathcal{P} is either in a bay/canal or in \mathcal{M} , but not in both. After the triangulation \mathcal{T} is obtained, computing the ocean, all bays and canals can be done in $O(n)$ time [10, 11, 17].

Roughly speaking, the reason we partition \mathcal{P} into the ocean, bays, and canals is to facilitate evaluating the distance $d(s, t)$ for any two points s and t in \mathcal{P} . For example, if both s and t are in \mathcal{M} , then we can use a similar method as in Section 2 to evaluate $d(s, t)$. However, the challenging case happens when one of s and t is in \mathcal{M} and the other is in a bay or canal.

The following lemma is one of our key observations for our improved algorithms in Section 4. It essentially tells that for any point $s \in \mathcal{P}$ and any bay or canal A , the farthest point of s in A is achieved on the boundary ∂A , which is similar in spirit to the simple polygon case.

► **Lemma 7.** *Let $s \in \mathcal{P}$ be any point and A be a bay or canal of \mathcal{P} . Then, for any $t \in A$, there exists $t' \in \partial A$ such that $d(s, t) \leq d(s, t')$. Equivalently, $\max_{t \in A} d(s, t) = \max_{t \in \partial A} d(s, t)$.*

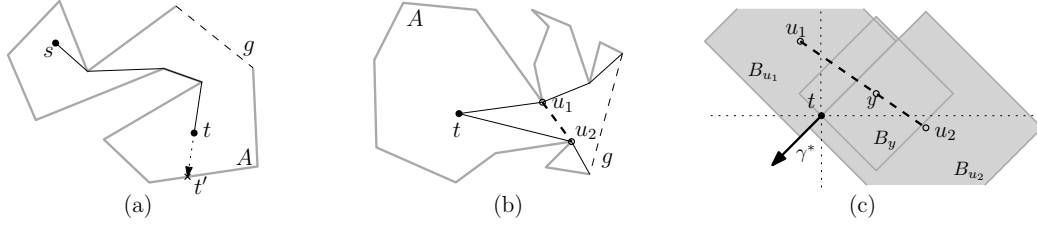
Proof. Recall that the gates of A are not contained in A but in the ocean \mathcal{M} . Let \bar{A} be the closure of A , that is, \bar{A} consists of A and its gates. For any $p, q \in \bar{A}$, let $d_A(p, q)$ be the L_1 geodesic distance in \bar{A} . Since \bar{A} is a simple polygon, Fact 2 implies that there is a unique Euclidean shortest path $\pi_2(p, q)$ in \bar{A} between any $p, q \in \bar{A}$, and $d_A(p, q) = |\pi_2(p, q)|$. In general, we have $d_A(p, q) \geq d(p, q)$.

Depending on whether A is a bay or a canal, our proof will consider two cases. We first prove a basic property as follows.

A Basic Property

Consider any point $s' \in \mathcal{P}$ and any point $t' \in A$. Then, we claim that there exists a shortest $s'-t'$ path π with the following property (*):

(*) π crosses each gate of A at most once and each component of $\pi \cap \bar{A}$ is the unique Euclidean shortest path $\pi_2(p, q)$ for some points $p, q \in \bar{A}$.



■ **Figure 5** Illustration to the proof of Lemma 7 when A is a bay. (a) When $s \in \bar{A}$ and (b)(c) when $s \notin \bar{A}$.

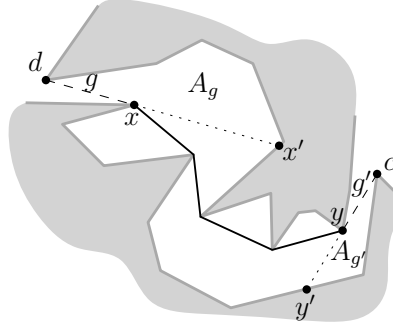
Consider any shortest $s'-t'$ path π' . If π' crosses a gate g of A at least twice, then let $p \in g$ and $q \in g$ be the first and last points on g we encounter when walking along π' from s' to t' . We can replace the portion of π' between p and q with the line segment \overline{pq} by Fact 1 to obtain another shortest path that crosses g at most once. One can repeat this procedure for all gates of A to have a shortest path π'' crossing each gate of A at most once. Then, we take a connected component of $\pi'' \cap \bar{A}$, which is an L_1 shortest path between its two endpoints p, q inside \bar{A} . This implies that $d(p, q) = d_A(p, q) = |\pi_2(p, q)|$, so we can replace the component by $\pi_2(p, q)$. Repeat this for all components of $\pi'' \cap \bar{A}$ to obtain another shortest $s'-t'$ path π with the desired property (*).

The Bay Case

To prove the lemma, we first prove the case where A is a bay. Then, A has a unique gate g . Recall that the gate g is not contained in A . Depending on whether s is in \bar{A} , there are two cases.

- Suppose that $s \in \bar{A}$. Let $t \in A$ be any point in A . By our claim, there exists a shortest s - t path π in \mathcal{P} with property (*). Since both s and t lie in \bar{A} , π does not cross g , and is thus contained in \bar{A} . Moreover, by property (*), we have $\pi = \pi_2(s, t)$. Hence, $d(s, t) = d_A(s, t)$. If t lies on ∂A , then the lemma trivially holds. Suppose that t lies in the interior of A . Then, we can extend the last segment of $\pi_2(s, t)$ until it hits a point t' on the boundary ∂A . See Figure 5(a). Again since \bar{A} is a simple polygon, the extended path is indeed $\pi_2(s, t')$. By the above argument, $d(s, t') = d_A(s, t') = |\pi_2(s, t')|$, which is strictly larger than $|\pi_2(s, t)| = d(s, t)$.
- Suppose that $s \notin \bar{A}$. Then, any shortest path from s to any point $t \in A$ must cross the gate g . This implies that $d(s, t) = \min_{x \in g} \{d(s, x) + d_A(x, t)\}$ for any $t \in A$. We show that there exists $t' \in \partial A$ such that for any point $x \in g$, it holds that $d_A(x, t) \leq d_A(x, t')$, which implies that $d(s, t) = \min_{x \in g} \{d(s, x) + d_A(x, t)\} \leq \min_{x \in g} \{d(s, x) + d_A(x, t')\} = d(s, t')$. For the purpose, we consider the union of $\pi_2(x, t)$ for all $x \in g$. The union forms a funnel $F_g(t)$ plus the Euclidean shortest path $\pi_2(u, t)$ from the apex u of $F_g(t)$ to t . If $u \neq t$, then we extend the last segment of $\pi_2(u, t)$ to a point t' on the boundary ∂A , similarly to the previous case so that $d_A(u, t) \leq d_A(u, t')$ and thus $d_A(x, t) \leq d_A(x, t')$ for any $x \in g$. Otherwise, if $u = t$, then let u_1 and u_2 be the two vertices of $F_g(t)$ adjacent to the apex t . See Figure 5(b).

Observe that the segment $\overline{u_1 u_2}$ separates t and the gate g , and hence path $\pi_2(x, t)$ for any $x \in g$ crosses $\overline{u_1 u_2}$. We now claim that there exists a ray γ^* from t such that as t moves along γ^* , $d_A(t, y)$ for any fixed $y \in \overline{u_1 u_2}$ is nondecreasing. If the claim is true, then we select $t' = \gamma^* \cap \partial A$, so the lemma follows since it holds that $d_A(t, x) = \min_{y \in \overline{u_1 u_2}} \{d_A(t, y) + d_A(y, x)\} \leq \min_{y \in \overline{u_1 u_2}} \{d_A(t', y) + d_A(y, x)\} = d_A(t', x)$



■ **Figure 6** Illustration to the proof of Lemma 7 when A is a canal with two gates $g = \overline{dx}$ and $g' = \overline{cy}$.

for any $x \in g$. Next, we prove the claim.

For each $y \in \overline{u_1 u_2}$, let B_y be the L_1 disk centered at y with radius $d_A(y, t) = |\overline{yt}|$. See Figure 5(c). Since t lies on the boundary of B_y , as we move t along a ray γ in some direction outwards B_y , $|\overline{yt}|$ is not decreasing, that is, for any $p \in \gamma$, $|\overline{yp}| \geq |\overline{yt}|$. This also implies that $d_A(y, p) \geq |\overline{yp}| \geq |\overline{yt}| = d_A(y, t)$. Let h_y be the set of all such rays γ that as t moves along γ , $|\overline{yt}|$ is not decreasing. Our goal is thus to show that $\bigcap_{y \in \overline{u_1 u_2}} h_y \neq \emptyset$, and pick γ^* as any ray in the intersection. For the purpose, we consider the four quadrants—left-upper, right-upper, left-lower, and right-lower—centered at t . Then, since the B_y are all L_1 disks, the set h_y only depends on which quadrant y belongs to; more precisely, for any y in a common quadrant, the set h_y stays constant. For example, for any $y \in \overline{u_1 u_2}$ lying in the right-upper quadrant, then h_y is commonly the set of all rays from t in direction between 135° and 315° , inclusively, since t lies on the bottom-left edge of B_y in this case. Thus, the directions of all rays in h_y span an angle of exactly 180° . Moreover, $\overline{u_1 u_2}$ is a line segment and thus intersects only three quadrants. Therefore, $\bigcap_{y \in \overline{u_1 u_2}} h_y$ is equal to the intersection of at most three different sets of rays, whose directions span an angle of 180° . (Figure 5(c) illustrates an example scene when $\overline{u_1 u_2}$ intersects three quadrants centered at t .) This implies that $\bigcap_{y \in \overline{u_1 u_2}} h_y \neq \emptyset$.

The Canal Case

Above, we have proved the lemma for the bay case where A is a bay. Next, we turn to the canal case: suppose that A is a canal.

Let $g = \overline{dx}$ and $g' = \overline{cy}$ be the two gates of A , where x and y are the two corridor path terminals (e.g., see Figure 6). We extend g from x into the interior of A , in the direction opposite to d . Note that due to the definition of canals, this extension always goes into the interior of A (refer to [10] for detailed discussion). Let x' be the first point on ∂A hit by the extension. The line segment $\overline{xx'}$ partitions A into two simple polygons, and the one containing d is denoted by A_g . We consider $\overline{dx'}$ as an edge of A_g , but for convenience of discussion, we assume that A_g does not contain the segment $\overline{dx'}$. Define $A_{g'}$ analogously for the other gate $g' = \overline{cy}$. If $t \in A_g$, then we can view A_g as a “bay” with gate $\overline{dx'}$, and apply the identical argument as done in the bay case, concluding that for any $t \in A_g$ there exists $t' \in \partial A_g$ such that $d(s, t) \leq d(s, t')$. If $t' \in \partial A$, then we are done. Otherwise, if $t' \in \overline{xx'}$, then $s \in A_g$ according to our analysis on the bay case. In this case, we move t' along $\overline{xx'}$ to x or x' , since $\max\{d(s, x), d(s, x')\} \geq d(s, t') \geq d(s, t)$, we are done. The case of $t \in A_{g'}$ is analogous.

Let $\hat{A} := A \setminus (A_g \cup A_{g'})$. From now on, we suppose $t \in \hat{A}$. Observe that for any $p \in g$, $\pi_2(p, t)$ passes through the corridor path terminal x since $t \notin A_g$ [10]; symmetrically, for any $p' \in g'$, $\pi_2(p', t)$ passes through y . Consider any L_1 shortest s - t path π in \mathcal{P} with property (*). We classify π into one of the following three types: (a) π lies inside A , that is, $\pi = \pi_2(s, t)$, (b) when walking along π from s to t , the last gate crossed by π is g , or (c) is g' . Note that π falls into one of the three cases. In case (a), indeed we have $s \in A$ and $d(s, t) = d_A(s, t)$. In case (b), π consists of a shortest path from s to x and $\pi_2(x, t)$, and thus $d(s, t) = d(s, x) + d_A(x, t)$. Symmetrically, in case (c), we have $d(s, t) = d(s, y) + d_A(y, t)$.

Depending on whether $s \in \bar{A}$ or not, we handle two possibilities. In the following, we assume property (*) when we discuss any shortest s - t path.

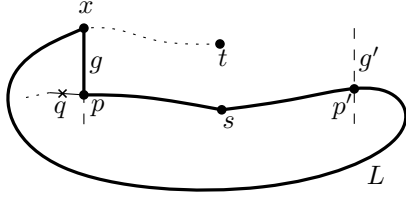
- Suppose that $s \notin \bar{A}$. Then, any shortest s - t path in \mathcal{P} must cross a gate of A . This means that there is no shortest s - t path of type (a), and we have $d(s, t) = \min\{d(s, x) + d_A(x, t), d(s, y) + d_A(y, t)\}$. Consider a decomposition of \hat{A} into three regions R_x , R_y , and B such that $R_x = \{p \in \hat{A} \mid d(s, x) + d_A(x, p) < d(s, y) + d_A(y, p)\}$, $R_y = \{p \in \hat{A} \mid d(s, x) + d_A(x, p) > d(s, y) + d_A(y, p)\}$, and $B = \{p \in \hat{A} \mid d(s, x) + d_A(x, p) = d(s, y) + d_A(y, p)\}$. This decomposition is clearly the geodesic Voronoi diagram in simple polygon \hat{A} of two sites $\{x, y\}$ with additive weights. See Aronov [2] and Papadopoulou and Lee [20]. Also, we have that $d(s, t) = d(s, x) + d_A(x, t)$ for any $t \in R_x$; $d(s, t) = d(s, y) + d_A(y, t)$ for any $t \in R_y$. The region B is called the bisector between x and y . By the property of Voronoi diagrams [2, 20], $B = \partial R_x \cap \partial R_y$ and B is a path connecting two points on $\partial \hat{A}$. Let $b_0 \in B$ be the intersection $\pi_2(x, y) \cap B$. Then, $d_A(x, b_0) = d_A(y, b_0) \leq d_A(x, b) = d_A(y, b)$ for any $b \in B$, and moreover if we move b along B in one direction from b_0 , $d_A(x, b)$ is nondecreasing. Thus, $\max_{b \in B} d_A(x, b)$ is attained when b is an endpoint of B .

When $t \in \partial A$, the lemma is trivial. If $t \in B$, then we let t' be the endpoint of B in direction away from b_0 . Then, by the property of the bisector B , we have $d_A(x, t) \leq d_A(x, t')$ and $d_A(y, t) \leq d_A(y, t')$, and hence $d(s, t) \leq d(s, t')$. If t' lies on the boundary ∂A , we conclude the lemma; otherwise, t' may lie on $\partial \hat{A} \setminus \partial A$, say on $\overline{xx'}$. In this case, we apply the analysis of the bay case where $s \notin A_g$ to find a point t'' on ∂A such that $d(s, t') \leq d(s, t'')$.

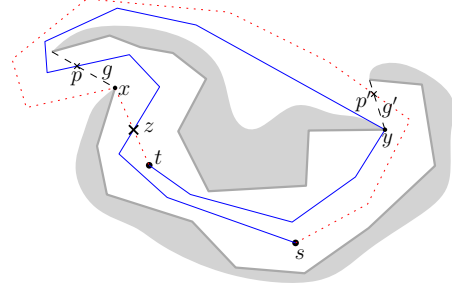
If t lies in the interior of R_x , then we extend the last segment of $\pi_2(x, t)$ until it hits a point t' on ∂R_x . Then, we have that $d(s, t') \geq d(s, t)$. Note that t' lies on $\partial \hat{A}$ or on B ; in any case, we apply the above argument so that we can find a point t'' on ∂A with $d(s, t'') \geq d(s, t') \geq d(s, t)$. The case where t lies in the interior of R_y is handled analogously.

- Finally, suppose that $s \in \bar{A}$. We again consider the L_1 geodesic Voronoi diagram in \hat{A} of three sites $\{s, x, y\}$ with additive weights $0, d(s, x), d(s, y)$, respectively. As done above, we observe that the maximum value $\max_{t \in \hat{A}} d(s, t)$ is attained when $t \in \partial A$ or t is a Voronoi vertex. The former case is analyzed above. Here, we prove that the latter case cannot happen. Note that there are three shortest paths of different types between s and the Voronoi vertex while there are exactly two shortest paths of types (b) and (c) to any point on the bisector between x and y . In the following, we show that the bisector between x and y cannot appear in the Voronoi diagram, which implies that the Voronoi diagram has no vertex.

Suppose to the contrary that the bisector between x and y appears as a nonempty Voronoi edge of the Voronoi diagram, and that t is a point on it. That is, $d(s, t) = d(s, x) + d_A(x, t) = d(s, y) + d_A(y, t) > d_A(s, t)$. Let π and π' be two shortest s - t paths of type (b) and (c), respectively. Thus, π passes through x and π' passes through y to reach $t \in \hat{A}$. By property (*), π crosses g' first and then g when walking along π from s



■ **Figure 7** Illustration to the proof of Lemma 7 when A is a canal.



■ **Figure 8** Illustrating two shortest s - t paths π (red dotted) and π' (blue solid), intersecting at z , in a canal with two gates g and g' .

to t , and π' crosses g first and then g' . Let $p \in g$ and $p' \in g'$ be the last point of $\pi' \cap g$ and $\pi \cap g'$, respectively, when we walk along π and π' from s to t .

We claim that π and π' intersect each other in a point other than s and t . Indeed, consider the loop L formed by the subpath of π between s and x , the segment \overline{xp} , and the subpath of π' between s and p . See Figure 7. Also, let U be a disk centered at p with arbitrarily small radius and $q \in \pi' \cap \partial U$ be the point on π' not lying in A . If the loop L does not separate q and t , then the subpath of π from x to t must intersect π' in a point other than t (see Fig. 8), and thus the claim follows; otherwise, the subpath of π' from q to t must cross L at some point other than s and t , and thus the claim also follows.

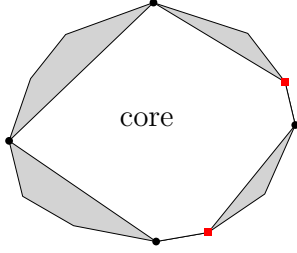
Let $z \in \pi \cap \pi' \setminus \{s, t\}$ (see Fig. 8), and π_{zt} and π'_{zt} be the subpath of π and π' , respectively, from z to t . By the property of shortest paths, we have $|\pi_{zt}| = |\pi'_{zt}| = d(z, t)$. Hence, replacing π_{zt} by π'_{zt} in π results in another shortest s - t path π'' . If π'' lies inside \bar{A} , then we have $d(s, t) = |\pi''| \geq d_A(s, t)$. Otherwise, π'' crosses g' twice at p' and y , and thus replacing the subpath of π'' from p' to y by $\overline{p'y}$ results in another shortest path inside \bar{A} . In either way, there is another L_1 shortest s - t path of type (a), and hence $d(s, t) = d_A(s, t)$, a contradiction to the assumption that t lies on the bisector between x and y .

This finishes the proof of the lemma. ◀

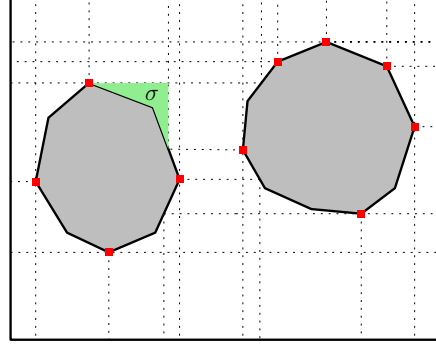
3.2 Shortest Paths in the Ocean \mathcal{M}

We now discuss shortest paths in the ocean \mathcal{M} . Recall that corridor paths are contained in canals, but their terminals are on $\partial\mathcal{M}$. By using the corridor paths and \mathcal{M} , finding an L_1 or Euclidean shortest path between two points s and t in \mathcal{M} can be reduced to the convex case since $\partial\mathcal{M}$ consists of $O(h)$ convex chains. For example, suppose both s and t are in \mathcal{M} . Then, there must be a shortest s - t path π that lies in the union of \mathcal{M} and all corridor paths [9, 11, 17].

Consider any two points s and t in \mathcal{M} . A shortest s - t path $\pi(s, t)$ in \mathcal{P} is a shortest path in \mathcal{M} that possibly contains some corridor paths. Intuitively, one may view corridor paths as “shortcuts” among the components of the space \mathcal{M} . As in [17], since $\partial\mathcal{M}$ consists of $O(h)$ convex vertices and $O(h)$ reflex chains, the complementary region $\mathcal{P}' \setminus \mathcal{M}$ (where \mathcal{P}' refers to the union of \mathcal{P} and all its holes) can be partitioned into a set \mathcal{B} of $O(h)$ convex objects with a total of $O(n)$ vertices (e.g., by extending an angle-bisecting segment inward from each convex vertex [17]). If we view the objects in \mathcal{B} as obstacles, then π is a shortest path avoiding all obstacles of \mathcal{B} but possibly containing some corridor paths. Note that our



■ **Figure 9** Illustrating the core of a convex obstacle: the (red) squared vertices are corridor path terminals.



■ **Figure 10** Illustrating the core-based cell decomposition $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$: the (red) squared vertices are core vertices and the green cell σ is a boundary cell.

algorithms can work on \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{M} directly without using \mathcal{B} ; but for ease of exposition, we will discuss our algorithm with the help of \mathcal{B} .

Each convex obstacle Q of \mathcal{B} has at most four *extreme vertices*: the topmost, bottommost, leftmost, and rightmost vertices, and there may be some corridor path terminals on the boundary of Q . We connect the extreme vertices and the corridor path terminals on ∂Q consecutively by line segments to obtain another polygon, denoted by $\text{core}(Q)$ and called the *core* of Q (see Figure 9). Let $\mathcal{P}_{\text{core}}$ denote the complement of the union of all cores $\text{core}(Q)$ for all $Q \in \mathcal{B}$ and corridor paths in \mathcal{P} . Note that the number of vertices of $\mathcal{P}_{\text{core}}$ is $O(h)$ and $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{P}_{\text{core}}$. For $s, t \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{core}}$, let $d_{\text{core}}(s, t)$ be the geodesic distance between s and t in $\mathcal{P}_{\text{core}}$.

The core structure leads to a more efficient way to find an L_1 shortest path between two points in \mathcal{P} . Chen and Wang [9] proved that an L_1 shortest path between $s, t \in \mathcal{M}$ in $\mathcal{P}_{\text{core}}$ can be locally modified to an L_1 shortest path in \mathcal{P} without increasing its L_1 length.

► **Lemma 8** ([9]). *For any two points s and t in \mathcal{M} , $d(s, t) = d_{\text{core}}(s, t)$ holds.*

Hence, to compute $d(s, t)$ between two points s and t in \mathcal{M} , it is sufficient to consider only the cores and the corridor paths, that is, $\mathcal{P}_{\text{core}}$. We thus reduce the problem size from $O(n)$ to $O(h)$. Let $\text{SPM}_{\text{core}}(s)$ be a shortest path map for any source point $s \in \mathcal{M}$. Then, $\text{SPM}_{\text{core}}(s)$ has $O(h)$ complexity and can be computed in $O(h \log h)$ time [9].

3.3 Decomposition of the Ocean \mathcal{M}

We introduce a core-based cell decomposition $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ of the ocean \mathcal{M} (see Figure 10) in order to fully exploit the advantage of the core structure in designing algorithms computing the L_1 geodesic diameter and center. For any $Q \in \mathcal{B}$, the vertices of $\text{core}(Q)$ are called *core vertices*.

The construction of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ is analogous to that of the previous cell decomposition \mathcal{D} for \mathcal{P} . We first extend a horizontal line only from each *core vertex* until it hits $\partial \mathcal{M}$ to have a horizontal diagonal, and then extend a vertical line from each core vertex and each endpoint of the above horizontal diagonal. The resulting cell decomposition induced by the above diagonals is $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$. Hence, $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ is constructed in \mathcal{M} with respect to core vertices. Note that $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ consists of $O(h^2)$ cells and can be built in $O(n \log n + h^2)$ time by a typical plane sweep algorithm. We call a cell σ of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ a *boundary cell* if $\partial \sigma \cap \partial \mathcal{M} \neq \emptyset$. For any boundary cell σ , the portion $\partial \sigma \cap \partial \mathcal{M}$ appears as a convex chain of $Q \in \mathcal{B}$ by our construction of its core and $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$; since $\partial \sigma \cap \partial \mathcal{M}$ may contain multiple vertices of \mathcal{M} , the complexity of σ may not be constant. Any non-boundary cell of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ is a rectangle bounded by four diagonals. Each

vertex of \mathcal{D}_M is either an endpoint of its diagonal or an intersection of two diagonals; thus, the number of vertices of \mathcal{D}_M is $O(h^2)$.

Below we prove an analogue of Lemma 1 for the decomposition \mathcal{D}_M of \mathcal{M} . Let V_σ be the set of vertices of \mathcal{D}_M incident to σ . Note that $|V_\sigma| \leq 4$. We define the alignedness relation between two cells of \mathcal{D}_M analogously to that for \mathcal{D} . We then observe an analogy to Lemma 1.

► **Lemma 9.** *Let σ, σ' be any two cells of \mathcal{D}_M . If they are aligned, then $d(s, t) = |\overline{st}|$ for any $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$; otherwise, there exists a shortest s - t path in \mathcal{P} containing two vertices $v \in V_\sigma$ and $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$ with $d(s, t) = |\overline{sv}| + d(v, v') + |\overline{v't}|$.*

Proof. We first discuss the case where σ and σ' are aligned. In this case, they are bounded by two consecutive parallel diagonals of \mathcal{D}_M , and let $S \subset \mathcal{M}$ be the region in between the two diagonals. Since S consists of two monotone concave chains and the two diagonals by our construction of \mathcal{D}_M , it is not difficult to see that any $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$ can be joined by a monotone path π inside S . This implies that $|\pi| = |\overline{st}| = d(s, t)$ by Fact 1.

Next, we consider the unaligned case. Suppose that σ and σ' are unaligned. By Lemma 8, there exists a shortest s - t path π in \mathcal{P} such that π lies inside the union \mathcal{M} and all the corridor paths of \mathcal{P} . Our proof for this case is analogous to that of Lemma 1. Since σ and σ' are unaligned, there are two possibilities when we walk along π from s to t : either we meet a horizontal diagonal e_1 and a vertical diagonal e_2 of \mathcal{D}_M that bound σ , or enter a corridor path via its terminal x . In the former case, we can apply the same argument as done in the proof of Lemma 1 to show that π can be modified to pass through a vertex $v \in V_\sigma$ with $v = e_1 \cap e_2$ without increasing the length of the resulting path. In the latter case, observe by our construction of \mathcal{D}_M that x is also a vertex of \mathcal{D}_M and there is a diagonal extended from x . If $x \in V_\sigma$, we are done since $d(s, x) = |\overline{sx}|$ as discussed above (any cell σ is aligned with itself). Otherwise, there is a unique cell $\sigma'' \neq \sigma \in \mathcal{D}_M$ with $x \in V_{\sigma''}$ that is aligned with σ , and there is a common diagonal e bounding σ and σ'' . In this case, since π passes through x , it indeed intersects two diagonals, which means that this is the former case. ◀

4 Improved Algorithms

In this section, we further explore the geometric structures and give more observations about our decomposition. These results, together with our results in Section 3, help us to give improved algorithms that compute the diameter and center, using a similar algorithmic framework as in Section 2.

4.1 The Cell-to-Cell Geodesic Distance Functions

Recall that our preliminary algorithms in Section 2 rely on the nice behavior of the cell-to-cell geodesic distance function: specifically, d restricted to $\sigma \times \sigma'$ for any two cells $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D}$ is the lower envelope of $O(1)$ linear functions. We now have two different cell decompositions, \mathcal{D} of \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{D}_M of \mathcal{M} . Here, we observe analogues of Lemmas 1 and 9 for any two cells in $\mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{D}_M$, by extending the alignedness relation between cells in \mathcal{D} and \mathcal{D}_M , as follows.

Consider the geodesic distance function d restricted to $\sigma \times \sigma'$ for any two cells $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{D}_M$. We call a cell $\sigma \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{D}_M$ *oceanic* if $\sigma \subset \mathcal{M}$, or *coastal*, otherwise. If both $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{D}_M$ are coastal, then $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D}$ and the case is well understood as discussed in Section 2. Otherwise, there are two cases: the *ocean-to-ocean* case where both σ and σ' are oceanic, and the *coast-to-ocean* case where only one of them is oceanic. We discuss the two cases below.

Ocean-to-ocean For the ocean-to-ocean case, we extend the alignedness relation for all oceanic cells in $\mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$. To this end, when both σ and σ' are in \mathcal{D} or $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$, the alignedness has already been defined. For any two oceanic cells $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$ and $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$, we define their alignedness relation in the following way. If σ is contained in a cell $\sigma'' \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ that is aligned with σ' , then we say that σ and σ' are *aligned*. However, σ may not be contained in a cell of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ because the endpoints of horizontal diagonals of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ that are on bay/canal gates are not vertices of \mathcal{D} and those endpoints create vertical diagonals in $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ that are not in \mathcal{D} . To resolve this issue, we augment \mathcal{D} by adding the vertical diagonals of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ to \mathcal{D} . Specifically, for each vertical diagonal l of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$, if no diagonal in \mathcal{D} contains l , then we add l to \mathcal{D} and extend l vertically until it hits the boundary of \mathcal{P} . In this way, we add $O(h)$ vertical diagonals to \mathcal{D} , and the size of \mathcal{D} is still $O(n^2)$. Further, all results we obtained before are still applicable to the new \mathcal{D} . With a little abuse of notation, we still use \mathcal{D} to denote the new version of \mathcal{D} . Now, for any two oceanic cells $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$ and $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$, there must be a unique cell $\sigma'' \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ that contains σ , and σ and σ' are defined to be *aligned* if and only if σ'' and σ' are aligned. Lemmas 1 and 9 are naturally extended as follows, along with this extended alignedness relation.

► **Lemma 10.** *Let $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ be two oceanic cells. For any $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$, it holds that $d(s, t) = |\overline{st}|$ if σ and σ' are aligned; otherwise, there exists a shortest s - t path that passes through a vertex $v \in V_{\sigma}$ and a vertex $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$.*

Proof. If both of σ and σ' belong to \mathcal{D} or $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$, Lemmas 1 and 9 are applied. Suppose that $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$ and $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$. If they are aligned, then σ is contained in $\sigma'' \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ that is aligned with σ' by definition. Hence, we have $d(s, t) = |\overline{st}|$ by Lemma 9. ◀

Coast-to-ocean We then turn to the coast-to-ocean case. We now focus on a bay or canal A . Since A has gates, we need to somehow incorporate the influence of its gates into the decomposition \mathcal{D} . To this end, we add $O(1)$ additional diagonals into $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ as follows: extend a horizontal line from each endpoint of each gate of A until it hits $\partial\mathcal{M}$, and then extend a vertical line from each endpoint of each gate of A and each endpoint of the horizontal diagonals that are added above. Let $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}^A$ denote the resulting decomposition of \mathcal{M} . Note that there are some cells of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ each of which is partitioned into $O(1)$ cells of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}^A$ but the combinatorial complexity of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}^A$ is still $O(h^2)$. For any gate g of A , let $C_g \subset \mathcal{P}$ be the cross-shaped region of points in \mathcal{P} that can be joined with a point on g by a vertical or horizontal line segment inside \mathcal{P} . Since the endpoints of g are also obstacle vertices, the boundary of C_g is formed by four diagonals of \mathcal{D} . Hence, any cell in \mathcal{D} or $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}^A$ is either completely contained in C_g or interior-disjoint from C_g . A cell of \mathcal{D} or $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}^A$ in the former case is said to be *g-aligned*.

In the following, we let $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$ be any coastal cell that intersects A and $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}^A$ be any oceanic cell. Depending on whether σ and σ' are *g-aligned* for a gate g of A , there are three cases: (1) both cells are *g-aligned*; (2) σ' is not *g-aligned*; (3) σ' is *g-aligned* but σ is not. Lemma 11 handles the first case. Lemma 12 deals with a special case for the latter two cases. Lemma 13 is for the second case. Lemma 15 is for the third case and Lemma 14 is for proving Lemma 15. The proof of Lemma 16 summarizes the entire algorithm for all three cases.

► **Lemma 11.** *Suppose that σ and σ' are both *g-aligned* for a gate g of A . Then, for any $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$, we have $d(s, t) = |\overline{st}|$.*

Proof. It suffices to observe that $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$ in C_g can be joined by an L-shaped rectilinear path, whose length is equal to the L_1 distance between them by Fact 1. ◀

Consider any path π in \mathcal{P} from $s \in \sigma$ to $t \in \sigma'$, and assume π is directed from s to t . For a gate g of A , we call π *g-through* if g is the last gate of A crossed by π . The path π is a *shortest g-through path* if its L_1 length is the smallest among all *g-through* paths from s to t . Suppose π is a shortest path from s to t in \mathcal{P} . Since σ may intersect \mathcal{M} , if $s \in \sigma$ is not in A , then π may *avoid* A (i.e., π does not intersect A). If A is a bay, then either π avoids A or π is a shortest *g-through* path for the only gate g of A ; otherwise (i.e., A is a canal), either π avoids A or π is a shortest *g-through* or *g'-through* path for the two gates g and g' of A . We have the following lemma, which is self-evident.

► **Lemma 12.** *Suppose that for any gate g of A , at least one of σ and σ' is not g -aligned. For any $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$, if there exists a shortest s - t path that avoids A , then a shortest s - t path passes through a vertex $v \in V_\sigma$ and another vertex $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$.*

We then focus on shortest *g-through* paths according to the *g*-alignedness of σ and σ' .

► **Lemma 13.** *Suppose σ' is not g -aligned for a gate g of A and there are no shortest s - t paths that avoid A . Then, for any $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$, there exists a shortest g -through s - t path containing a vertex $v \in V_\sigma$ and a vertex $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$.*

Proof. If A is a bay, since there are no shortest s - t paths that avoid A , $s \in \sigma$ must be contained in A , and thus there must exist *g-through* paths from $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$. If A is a canal, although σ may be crossed by the other gate of A , there also exist *g-through* paths from $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$. More specifically, if $s \in A$, then there are *g-through* paths from s to any $t \in \sigma'$; otherwise there are also *g-through* paths from s to any $t \in \sigma'$ that cross both gates of A .

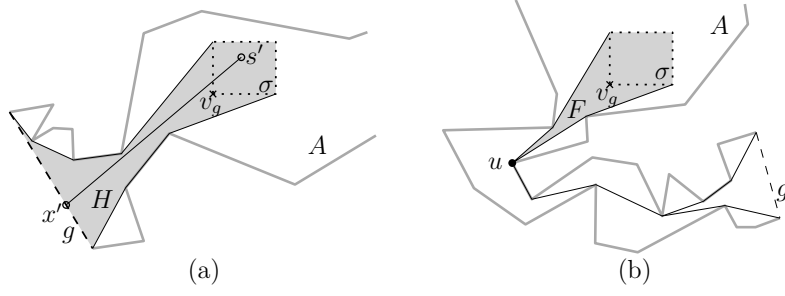
Let π be any shortest *g-through* path between $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$. Since π is *g-through* and σ' is not *g*-aligned, π crosses a horizontal and a vertical diagonals of \mathcal{D} that define C_g , and escape C_g to reach t in σ' . This implies that π intersects a horizontal and a vertical diagonals defining σ and thus can be modified to pass through a vertex $v \in V_\sigma$ of σ as done in the proof of Lemma 1. At the opposite end t , since $\sigma' \cap C_g = \emptyset$, we can apply the above argument symmetrically to modify π to pass through a vertex $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$ of σ' . Thus, the lemma follows. ◀

The remaining case is when $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}^A$ is *g*-aligned but $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$ is not. Recall σ is coastal and intersects A , and σ' is oceanic (implying σ' does not intersect A).

► **Lemma 14.** *Let g be a gate of A , and suppose that σ is not g -aligned. Then, there exists a unique vertex $v_g \in V_\sigma \cap A$ such that for any $s \in \sigma$ and $x \in g$, the concatenation of segment $\overline{sv_g}$ and any L_1 shortest path from v_g to x inside $A \cup \sigma$ results in an L_1 shortest path from s to x in $A \cup \sigma$.*

Proof. Let $P := A \cup \sigma$. Since σ is not *g*-aligned, σ does not intersect the gate g . Therefore, if A is a bay, σ must be contained in A and thus $P = A$; if A is a canal, σ may intersect the other gate of A while the union P forms a simple polygon. Thus, P is a simple polygon, and we apply Fact 2 to P . Let $\pi_2(s, t)$ be the unique Euclidean shortest path between $s, t \in P$ in P . Consider the union H of $\pi_2(s, x)$ for all $s \in \sigma$ and all points $x \in g$, and suppose $\pi_2(s, x)$ is directed from s to x . Then, H forms an hourglass. We distinguish two possibilities: either H is open or closed.

Assume that H is open. See Figure 11(a). Then, there exist $s' \in \sigma$ and $x' \in g$ such that $\overline{s'x'} \subset P$, and thus $\pi_2(s', x') = \overline{s'x'}$. Without loss of generality, we assume that s' lies to the right of and above x' so that $\pi_2(s', x')$ is left-downwards. We then observe that the first



■ **Figure 11** Illustration to the proof of Lemma 14. (a) When H is open or (b) closed.

segment \overline{su} of $\pi(s, x)$ for any $s \in \sigma$ and any $x \in g$ is also left-downwards since σ is a cell of \mathcal{D} and is not g -aligned. This implies that the shortest path $\pi_2(s, x)$ contained in H crosses the same pair of a vertical and a horizontal diagonals that define σ ; more precisely, it crosses the left vertical and the lower horizontal diagonals of \mathcal{D} . Letting v_g be the vertex defined by the two diagonals, we apply the same argument as in the proof of Lemma 1 to modify $\pi_2(s, x)$ to pass through v_g .

Now, assume that H is closed. See Figure 11(b). Then, H has two funnels and let F be the one that contains σ . Let u be the apex of F , that is every Euclidean shortest path in H passes through u . Note that u is an obstacle vertex, and thus $u \in V_{\sigma''}$ for a cell $\sigma'' \in \mathcal{D}$ that is not aligned with σ . Without loss of generality, we assume that σ lies to the right of and above σ' . We observe that the Euclidean shortest path $\pi_2(s, u)$ for any $s \in \sigma$ is monotone since u is the apex of F . Since u lies to the left of and below any $s \in \sigma$ and $\pi_2(s, u)$ is monotone, we can modify the path to pass through the bottom-left vertex $v_g \in V_\sigma$, as in the previous case. ◀

From now on, let v_g be the vertex as described in Lemma 14 (v_g can be found efficiently, as shown in the proof of Lemma 16). Consider the union of the Euclidean shortest paths inside A from v_g to all points $x \in g$. Since A is a simple polygon, the union forms a funnel $F_g(v_g)$ with base g , plus the Euclidean shortest path from v_g to the apex of $F_g(v_g)$. Recall Fact 2 that any Euclidean shortest path inside a simple polygon is also an L_1 shortest path. Let $W_g(v_g)$ be the set of horizontally and vertically extreme points in each convex chain of $F_g(v_g)$, that is, $W_g(v_g)$ gathers the leftmost, rightmost, uppermost, and lowermost points in each chain of $F_g(v_g)$. Note that $|W_g(v_g)| \leq 8$ and $W_g(v_g)$ includes the endpoints of g and the apex of $F_g(v_g)$. We then observe the following lemma.

► **Lemma 15.** *Suppose that σ' is g -aligned but σ is not. Then, for any $s \in \sigma$ and $t \in \sigma'$, there exists a shortest g -through s - t path that passes through v_g and some $w \in W_g(v_g)$. Moreover, the length of such a path is $|\overline{sv_g}| + d(v_g, w) + |\overline{wt}|$.*

Proof. Since A is a simple polygon, any Euclidean shortest path in A is also an L_1 shortest path by Fact 2. Thus, the L_1 length of a shortest path from v_g to any point x in the funnel $F_g(v_g)$ is equal to the L_1 length of the unique Euclidean shortest path in A , which is contained in $F_g(v_g)$.

By Lemma 14 and the assumption that σ' is g -aligned, among the paths from s to t that cross the gate g , there exists an L_1 shortest g -through s - t path π consisting of three portions: $\overline{sv_g}$, the unique Euclidean shortest path from v_g to a vertex u on a convex chain of $F_g(v_g)$, and \overline{ut} . Let $w \in W_g(v_g)$ be the last one among $W_g(v_g)$ that we encounter during the walk from s to t along π . Consider the segment \overline{wt} , which may cross $\partial F_g(v_g)$. If $\overline{wt} \cap \partial F_g(v_g) = \emptyset$,

then we are done by replacing the subpath of π from u to t by \overline{wt} . Otherwise, \overline{wt} crosses $\partial F_g(v_g)$ at two points $p, q \in \partial F_g(v_g)$. Since $W_g(v_g)$ includes all extreme points of each chain of $F_g(v_g)$, there is no $w' \in W_g(v_g)$ on the subchain of $F_g(v_g)$ between p and q . Hence, we can replace the subpath of π from w to t by a monotone path from w to t , which consists of \overline{wp} , the convex path from p to q along $\partial F_g(v_g)$, and \overline{qt} , and the L_1 length of the above monotone path is equal to $|\overline{wt}|$ by Fact 1. Consequently, the resulting path is also an L_1 shortest path with the desired property. \blacktriangleleft

For any cell $\sigma \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{D}_M$, let n_σ be the combinatorial complexity of σ . If σ is a boundary cell of \mathcal{D}_M , then n_σ may not be bounded by a constant; otherwise, σ is a trapezoid or a triangle, and thus $n_\sigma \leq 4$. The geodesic distance function d defined on $\sigma \times \sigma'$ for any two cells $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{D}_M$ can be explicitly computed in $O(n_\sigma n_{\sigma'})$ time after some preprocessing, as shown in Lemma 16.

► **Lemma 16.** *Let σ be any cell of \mathcal{D} or \mathcal{D}_M . After $O(n)$ -time preprocessing, the function d on $\sigma \times \sigma'$ for any cell $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D} \cup \mathcal{D}_M$ can be explicitly computed in $O(n_\sigma n_{\sigma'})$ time, provided that $d(v, v')$ has been computed for any $v \in V_\sigma$ and any $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$. Moreover, d on $\sigma \times \sigma'$ is the lower envelope of $O(1)$ linear functions.*

Proof. If both σ and σ' are oceanic, then Lemma 10 implies that for any $(s, t) \in \sigma \times \sigma'$, $d(s, t) = |\overline{st}|$ if they are aligned, or $d(s, t) = \min_{v \in V_\sigma, v' \in V_{\sigma'}} d_{vv'}(s, t)$, where $d_{vv'}(s, t) = |\overline{sv}| + d(v, v') + |\overline{v't}|$. On the other hand, if σ and σ' are coastal, then both are cells of \mathcal{D} and Lemma 1 implies the same conclusion. Since $|V_\sigma| \leq 4$ and $|V_{\sigma'}| \leq 4$ in either case, the geodesic distance d on $\sigma \times \sigma'$ is the lower envelope of at most 16 linear functions. Hence, provided that the values of $d(v, v')$ for all pairs (v, v') are known, the envelope can be computed in time proportional to the complexity of the domain $\sigma \times \sigma'$, which is $O(n_\sigma n_{\sigma'})$.

From now on, suppose that σ is coastal and σ' is oceanic. Then, σ is a cell of \mathcal{D} and intersects some bay or canal A . If σ' is also a cell of \mathcal{D} , then Lemma 1 implies the lemma, as discussed in Section 2; thus, we assume σ' is a cell of \mathcal{D}_M .

As above, we add diagonals extended from each endpoint of each gate of A to obtain \mathcal{D}_M^A , and specify all g -aligned cells for each gate g of A in $O(n)$ time. In the following, let σ' be an oceanic cell of \mathcal{D} or of \mathcal{D}_M^A . Note that a cell of \mathcal{D}_M can be partitioned into $O(1)$ cells of \mathcal{D}_M^A . We have two cases depending on whether A is a bay or a canal.

First, suppose that A is a bay; let g be the unique gate of A . In this case, any L_1 shortest path is g -through, provided that it intersects A , since g is unique. There are two subcases depending on whether σ is g -aligned or not.

- If σ is g -aligned, then by Lemmas 11, 12, and 13, we have $d(s, t) = |\overline{st}|$ if σ' is g -aligned, or $d(s, t) = \min_{v \in V_\sigma, v' \in V_{\sigma'}} d_{vv'}(s, t)$, otherwise, where $d_{vv'}(s, t) = |\overline{sv}| + d(v, v') + |\overline{v't}|$. Thus, the lemma follows by an identical argument as above.
- Suppose that σ is not g -aligned. Then, $\sigma \subset A$ since A has a unique gate g . In this case, we need to find the vertex $v_g \in V_\sigma$. For the purpose, we compute at most four Euclidean shortest path maps $SPM_A(v)$ inside A for all $v \in V_\sigma$ in $O(n)$ time [13]. By Fact 2, $SPM_A(v)$ is also an L_1 shortest path map in A . We then specify the L_1 geodesic distance from v to all points on g , which results in a piecewise linear function f_v on g . For each $v \in V_\sigma$, we test whether it holds that $f_v(x) + |\overline{vv'}| \leq f_{v'}(x)$ for all $x \in g$ and all $v' \in V_\sigma$. By Lemma 14, there exists a vertex in V_σ for which the above test is passed, and such a vertex is v_g . Since each shortest path map $SPM_A(v)$ is of $O(n)$ complexity, all the above effort to find v_g is bounded by $O(n)$. Next, we compute the funnel $F_g(v_g)$ and the extreme vertices $W_g(v_g)$ as done above by exploring $SPM_A(v_g)$ in $O(n)$ time.

If σ' is not g -aligned, we apply Lemma 13 to obtain $d(s, t) = \min_{v \in V_\sigma, v' \in V_{\sigma'}} d_{vv'}(s, t)$. Thus, d is the lower envelope of at most 16 linear functions over $\sigma \times \sigma'$. Otherwise, if σ' is g -aligned, then we have $d(s, t) = \min_{w \in W_g(v_g)} d_{v_g w}(s, t)$ by Lemma 15. Since $|W_g(v_g)| \leq 8$, d is the lower envelope of a constant number of linear functions.

Thus, in any case, we conclude the bay case.

Now, suppose that A is a canal. Then, A has two gates g and g' , and σ falls into one of the three case: (i) σ is both g -aligned and g' -aligned, (ii) σ is neither g -aligned nor g' -aligned, or (iii) σ is g - or g' -aligned but not both. As a preprocessing, if σ is not g -aligned, then we compute v_g , $F_g(v_g)$, and $W_g(v_g)$ as done in the bay case; analogously, if not g' -aligned, compute $v_{g'}$, $F_{g'}(v_{g'})$, and $W_{g'}(v_{g'})$. Note that any shortest path in \mathcal{P} is either g -through or g' -through, provided that it intersects A . Thus, $d(s, t)$ chooses the minimum among a shortest g -through path, a shortest g' -through path, and a shortest path avoiding A if possible. We consider each of the three cases of σ .

1. Suppose that σ is both g -aligned and g' -aligned. In this case, if σ' is either g -aligned or g' -aligned, then we have $d(s, t) = |\overline{st}|$ by Lemma 11. Otherwise, if σ' is neither g -aligned nor g' -aligned, then we apply Lemmas 12 and 13 to have $d(s, t) = \min_{v \in V_\sigma, v' \in V_{\sigma'}} d_{vv'}(s, t)$. Hence, the lemma follows.
2. Suppose that σ is neither g -aligned nor g' -aligned. If σ' is both g -aligned and g' -aligned, then by Lemma 15 the length of a shortest g -through path is equal to $\min_{w \in W_g(v_g)} d_{v_g w}(s, t)$ while the length of a shortest g' -through path is equal to $\min_{w \in W_{g'}(v_{g'})} d_{v_{g'} w}(s, t)$. The geodesic distance $d(s, t)$ is the minimum of the above two quantities, and thus the lower envelope of $O(1)$ linear function on $\sigma \times \sigma'$.

If σ' is g -aligned but not g' -aligned, then by Lemmas 13 and 15, we have

$$d(s, t) = \min\left\{\min_{w \in W_g(v_g)} d_{v_g w}(s, t), \min_{v \in V_\sigma, v' \in V_{\sigma'}} d_{vv'}(s, t)\right\}.$$

The case where σ' is g' -aligned but not g -aligned is analogous.

If σ' is neither g -aligned nor g' -aligned, then $d(s, t) = \min_{v \in V_\sigma, v' \in V_{\sigma'}} d_{vv'}(s, t)$ by Lemma 13.

3. Suppose that σ is g' -aligned but not g -aligned. The other case where it is g -aligned but not g' -aligned can be handled symmetrically. If σ' is g' -aligned, then we have $d(s, t) = |\overline{st}|$ by Lemma 11. If σ' is neither g -aligned nor g' -aligned, then, by Lemmas 12 and 13, $d(s, t) = \min_{v \in V_\sigma, v' \in V_{\sigma'}} d_{vv'}(s, t)$.

The remaining case is when σ' is g -aligned but not g' -aligned. In this case, the length of a shortest g -through path is equal to $\min_{w \in W_g(v_g)} d_{v_g w}(s, t)$ by Lemma 15 for gate g while the length of a shortest g' -through path is equal to $\min_{v \in V_\sigma, v' \in V_{\sigma'}} d_{vv'}(s, t)$ by Lemmas 12 and 13. Thus, the geodesic distance $d(s, t)$ is the smaller of the two quantities.

Consequently, we have verified every case of (σ, σ') .

As the last step of the proof, observe that it is sufficient to handle separately all the cells $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}^A$ whose union forms the original cell of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$, since any cell of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ can be decomposed into $O(1)$ cells of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}^A$. \blacktriangleleft

4.2 Computing the Geodesic Diameter and Center

Lemma 7 assures that we can ignore coastal cells that are completely contained in the interior of a bay or canal, in order to find a farthest point from any $s \in \mathcal{P}$. This suggests a combined set \mathcal{D}_f of cells from the two different decompositions \mathcal{D} and $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$: Let \mathcal{D}_f be the set of all cells σ such that either σ belongs to $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ or $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$ is a coastal cell with $\partial\sigma \cap \partial\mathcal{P} \neq \emptyset$. Note that \mathcal{D}_f consists of $O(h^2)$ oceanic cells from $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$ and $O(n)$ coastal cells from \mathcal{D} . Since the

boundary ∂A of any bay or canal A is covered by the cells of \mathcal{D}_f , Lemma 7 implies the following lemma.

► **Lemma 17.** *For any point $s \in \mathcal{P}$, $\max_{t \in \mathcal{P}} d(s, t) = \max_{\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_f} \max_{t \in \sigma'} d(s, t)$.*

We apply the same approach as in Section 2 but we use \mathcal{D}_f instead of \mathcal{D} .

To compute the L_1 geodesic diameter, we compute the (σ, σ') -constrained diameter for each pair of cells $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_f$. Suppose we know the value of $d(v, v')$ for any $v \in V_\sigma$ and any $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$ over all $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_f$. Our algorithm handles each pair (σ, σ') of cells in \mathcal{D}_f according to their types by applying Lemma 16. The following lemma computes $d(v, v')$ for all cell vertices v and v' of \mathcal{D}_f .

► **Lemma 18.** *In $O(n^2 + h^4)$ time, one can compute the geodesic distances $d(v, v')$ between every $v \in V_\sigma$ and $v' \in V_{\sigma'}$ for all pairs of two cells $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_f$.*

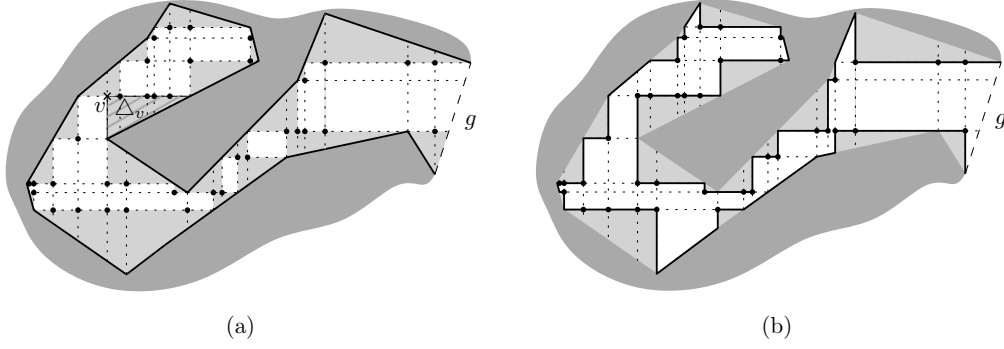
Proof. Let $V_{\mathcal{M}}$ be the set of vertices V_σ for all oceanic cells $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{M}}$, and V_c be the set of vertices V_σ for all coastal cells $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}_f$. Note that $|V_{\mathcal{M}}| = O(h^2)$ and $|V_c| = O(n)$. We handle the pairs (v, v') of vertices separately in three cases: (i) when $v, v' \in V_{\mathcal{M}}$, (ii) when $v \in V_c$ and $v' \in V_{\mathcal{M}}$, and (iii) when $v, v' \in V_c$.

Let $v \in V_{\mathcal{M}}$ be any vertex. We compute the shortest path map $SPM_{core}(v)$ in the core domain \mathcal{P}_{core} as discussed in Section 3. Recall that $SPM_{core}(v)$ is of $O(h)$ complexity and can be computed in $O(n + h \log h)$ time (after \mathcal{P} is triangulated) [9, 11]. For any point $p \in \mathcal{M}$, the geodesic distance $d_{core}(v, p)$ can be determined in constant time after locating the region of $SPM_{core}(v)$ that contains p . By Lemma 8, we have $d(v, p) = d_{core}(v, p)$. Computing $d(v, v')$ for all $v' \in V_{\mathcal{M}}$ can be done in $O(h^2)$ time by running the plane sweep algorithm of Lemma 3 on $SPM_{core}(v)$. Thus, for each $v \in V_{\mathcal{M}}$ we spend $O(n + h^2)$ time. Since $|V_{\mathcal{M}}| = O(h^2)$, we can compute $d(v, v')$ for all pairs of vertices $v, v' \in V_{\mathcal{M}}$ in time $O(nh^2 + h^4)$.

Case (ii) can also be handled in a similar fashion. Let $v \in V_c$. We also show that computing $d(v, v')$ for all $v' \in V_{\mathcal{M}}$ can be done in $O(n + h^2)$ time. If v lies in the ocean \mathcal{M} , then we can apply the same argument as in case (i). Thus, we assume $v \notin \mathcal{M}$. For the purpose, we consider v as a point hole (i.e., a hole or an obstacle consisting of only one point) into the polygonal domain \mathcal{P} to obtain a new domain \mathcal{P}_v , and compute the corresponding corridor structures of \mathcal{P}_v , which can be done in $O(n + h \log^{1+\epsilon} h)$ time (or $O(n)$ time after a triangulation of \mathcal{P} is given), as discussed in Section 3.1. Let \mathcal{M}_v denote the ocean corresponding to the new polygonal domain \mathcal{P}_v . Since v lies in a bay or canal of \mathcal{P} , \mathcal{M} is a subset of \mathcal{M}_v by the definition of bays, canals and the ocean. Thus, we have $V_{\mathcal{M}} \subset \mathcal{M}_v$. We then compute the core structure of \mathcal{P}_v and the shortest path map $SPM'_{core}(v)$ in \mathcal{M}_v in $O(n + h \log h)$ time [9, 11]. Analogously, the complexity of $SPM'_{core}(v)$ is bounded by $O(h)$. Finally, perform the plane sweep algorithm on $SPM'_{core}(v)$ as in case (i) to get the values of $d(v, v')$ for all $v' \in V_{\mathcal{M}}$ in $O(h^2)$ time.

What remains is case (iii) where $v, v' \in V_c$. Fix $v \in V_c$. The vertices in V_c either lie on $\partial \mathcal{P}$ or in its interior. In this case, we assume that we have a triangulation of \mathcal{P} as discussed in Section 3. Recall that we can compute the shortest path map $SPM(v)$ in $O(n + h \log h)$ time [9, 11]. Since $SPM(v)$ stores $d(v, v')$ for all obstacle vertices v' of \mathcal{P} , computing $d(v, v')$ for all $v' \in V_c \cap \partial \mathcal{P}$ can be done in the same time bound by adding $V_c \cap \partial \mathcal{P}$ into \mathcal{P} as obstacle vertices. Thus, the case where $v, v' \in V_c$ and one of them lies in $\partial \mathcal{P}$ can be handled in $O(n^2 + nh \log h)$ time.

In the following, we focus on how to compute $d(v, v')$ for all $v, v' \in V_c \setminus \partial \mathcal{P}$. Let e_1, \dots, e_n be the edges of \mathcal{P} in an arbitrary order. We modify the original polygonal domain \mathcal{P} to obtain the *rectified polygonal domain* \mathcal{P}_{rect} as follows. For each $i = 1, \dots, n$, we define V_i to



■ **Figure 12** Illustration to how to construct \mathcal{P}_{rect} . (a) A bay A with gate g and the decomposition \mathcal{D} inside A . The dark gray region depicts the hole of \mathcal{P} bounding A , coastal cells of \mathcal{D} intersecting ∂A are shaded by light gray color, and black dots are vertices in $V_c \setminus \partial \mathcal{P}$. One of those in V_c is labeled v and its triangle Δ_v is highlighted. (b) The rectified polygonal domain \mathcal{P}_{rect} obtained by expanding the hole into Δ_v for all $v \in V_c$. The boundary of \mathcal{P}_{rect} is depicted by solid segments. Here, the edges of A are ordered in the counter-clockwise order.

be the set of all vertices $v \in (V_c \setminus \partial \mathcal{P}) \setminus (V_1 \cup \dots \cup V_{i-1})$ such that $v \in V_\sigma$ for some coastal cell $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}_f$ with $\partial \sigma \cap e_i \neq \emptyset$. For each $v \in V_i$, we shoot two rays from v , vertical and horizontal, towards e_i until each hits e_i . Let Δ_v be the triangle formed by v and the two points on e_i hit by the rays. Since v is a vertex of a cell of \mathcal{D} facing e_i , by the construction of \mathcal{D} , the two rays must hit e_i and thus the triangle Δ_v is well defined. We then expand each hole of \mathcal{P} into the triangles Δ_v for all $v \in V_c \setminus \partial \mathcal{P}$. Let \mathcal{P}_{rect} be the resulting polygonal domain; that is, every triangle Δ_v is regarded as an obstacle in \mathcal{P}_{rect} . We also add all those in $V_c \setminus \partial \mathcal{P}$ into \mathcal{P}_{rect} as obstacle vertices. See Figure 12. Observe that \mathcal{P}_{rect} is a subset of \mathcal{P} as subsets of \mathbb{R}^2 and all those in $V_c \setminus \partial \mathcal{P}$ lie on the boundary of \mathcal{P}_{rect} as its obstacle vertices. For any two points $s, t \in \mathcal{P}_{rect}$, let $d_{rect}(s, t)$ be the L_1 geodesic distance between s and t in \mathcal{P}_{rect} .

We then claim the following:

For any $s, t \in \mathcal{P}_{rect}$, it holds that $d(s, t) = d_{rect}(s, t)$.

Suppose that the claim is true. The construction of \mathcal{P}_{rect} can be done in $O(n^2)$ time. Then, for any $v \in V_c \setminus \partial \mathcal{P}$, we compute the shortest path map $SPM_{rect}(v)$ in the rectified domain \mathcal{P}_{rect} and obtain $d(v, v')$ for all other $v' \in V_c \setminus \partial \mathcal{P}$. Since \mathcal{P}_{rect} has h holes and $O(n)$ vertices by our construction of \mathcal{P}_{rect} , this task can be done in $O(n + h \log h)$ time [9, 11]. At last, case (iii) can be processed in total $O(n^2 + nh \log h)$ time.

We now prove the claim, as follows.

Proof of the claim. For any $v \in V_c \setminus \partial \mathcal{P}$, the triangle Δ_v is well defined. We call a triangle Δ_v *maximal* if there is no other $\Delta_{v'}$ with $\Delta_v \subset \Delta_{v'}$. Note that any two maximal triangles are interior-disjoint but may share a portion of their sides. Indeed, $\mathcal{P} \setminus \mathcal{P}_{rect}$ is the union of all maximal triangles Δ_v . Pick any connected component C of $\mathcal{P} \setminus \mathcal{P}_{rect}$. The set C is either a maximal triangle Δ_v itself or the union of two maximal triangles that share a portion of their sides by our construction of \mathcal{P}_{rect} and of \mathcal{D} . In either case, observe that the portion $\partial C \setminus \partial \mathcal{P}$ is a monotone path.

Consider any $s, t \in \mathcal{P}_{rect}$ and any shortest s - t path π in \mathcal{P} , that is, $d(s, t) = |\pi|$. If π lies inside \mathcal{P}_{rect} , then we are done since the L_1 length of any s - t path inside \mathcal{P}_{rect} is at least $d(s, t)$. Otherwise, π may cross a number of connected components of $\mathcal{P} \setminus \mathcal{P}_{rect}$. Pick any such connected component C that is crossed by π . Let p and q be the first and the last points on ∂C we encounter when walking along π from s to t . Since $\partial C \setminus \partial \mathcal{P}$ is monotone as observed

above, the path π_{pq} along the boundary of C is also monotone. By Fact 1, $|\pi_{pq}| = |\overline{pq}|$ and thus we can replace the subpath of π between p and q by π_{pq} without increasing the L_1 length. The resulting path thus has length equal to $|\pi|$ and avoids the interior of C . We repeat the above procedure for all such connected components C crossed by π . At last, the final path π' has length equal to $|\pi|$ and avoids the interior of $\mathcal{P} \setminus \mathcal{P}_{rect}$. That is, π' is a s - t path in \mathcal{P}_{rect} with $|\pi'| = |\pi| = d(s, t)$. Since $d_{rect}(s, t) \geq d(s, t)$ in general, π' is an L_1 shortest s - t path in \mathcal{P}_{rect} , and hence $d_{rect}(s, t) = d(s, t)$.

This proves the above claim.

Consequently, the total time complexity is bounded by

$$O(nh^2 + h^4) + O(n^2 + nh \log h) = O(n^2 + nh^2 + h^4) = O(n^2 + h^4).$$

The lemma thus follows. \blacktriangleleft

Our algorithms for computing the diameter and center are summarized in the proof of the following theorem.

► **Theorem 19.** *The L_1 geodesic diameter and center of \mathcal{P} can be computed in $O(n^2 + h^4)$ and $O((n^4 + n^2h^4)\alpha(n))$ time, respectively.*

Proof. We first discuss the diameter algorithm, whose correctness follows directly from Lemma 17.

After the execution of the procedure of Lemma 18 as a preprocessing, our algorithm considers three cases for two cells $\sigma, \sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_f$: (i) both are oceanic, (ii) both are coastal, or (iii) σ is coastal and σ' is oceanic. In either case, we apply Lemma 16.

For case (i), we have $O(h^2)$ oceanic cells and the total complexity is $\sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{D}_M} n_\sigma = O(n + h^2)$. Thus, the total time for case (i) is bounded by

$$\sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{D}_M} \sum_{\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_M} O(n_\sigma n_{\sigma'}) = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{D}_M} O(n_\sigma (n + h^2)) = O((n + h^2)^2) = O(n^2 + h^4).$$

For case (ii), we have $O(n)$ coastal cells in \mathcal{D}_M and their total complexity is $O(n)$ since they are all trapezoidal. Thus, the total time for case (ii) is bounded by $O(n^2)$.

For case (iii), we fix a coastal cell $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}_f$ and iterate over all oceanic cells $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_M$, after an $O(n)$ -time preprocessing, as done in the proof of Lemma 16. For each σ , we take $O(n + h^2)$ time since $\sum_{\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_M} n_{\sigma'} = O(n + h^2)$. Thus, the total time for case (iii) is bounded by $O(n^2 + nh^2) = O((n + h^2)^2) = O(n^2 + h^4)$.

Next, we discuss our algorithm for computing a geodesic center of \mathcal{P} . We consider $O(n^2)$ cells $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$ and compute all the σ -constrained centers. As a preprocessing, we spend $O(n^4)$ time to compute the geodesic distances $d(v, v')$ for all pairs of vertices of \mathcal{D} by Lemma 3. Fix a cell $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$. For all $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_f$, we compute the geodesic distance function d restricted to $\sigma \times \sigma'$ by applying Lemma 16. As in Section 2, compute the graph of $R_{\sigma'}(q) = \max_{p \in \sigma'} d(p, q)$ by projecting the graph of d over $\sigma \times \sigma'$, and take the upper envelope of the graphs of $R_{\sigma'}$ for all $\sigma' \in \mathcal{D}_f$. By Lemma 16, we have an analogue of Lemma 5 and thus a σ -constrained center can be computed in $O(m^2\alpha(m))$ time, where m denotes the total complexity of all $R_{\sigma'}$. Lemma 16 implies that $m = O(n + h^2)$.

For the time complexity, note that $\sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{D}_M} n_\sigma = O(n + h^2)$ and $\sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{D}_f \setminus \mathcal{D}_M} n_\sigma = O(n)$. Since any cell in \mathcal{D} is either a triangle or a trapezoid, its complexity is $O(1)$. Thus, for each $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$, by Lemma 16, computing a σ -constrained center takes $O((n + h^2)^2\alpha(n))$ time, after an $O(n^4)$ -time preprocessing (Lemma 3). Iterating over all $\sigma \in \mathcal{D}$ takes $O(n^2(n + h^2)^2\alpha(n)) = O((n^4 + n^2h^4)\alpha(n))$ time. \blacktriangleleft

5 Conclusions

We gave efficient algorithms for computing the L_1 geodesic diameter and center of a polygonal domain. In particular, we exploited the extended corridor structure to make the running times depend on the number of holes in the domain (which may be much smaller than the number of vertices). It would be interesting to find further improvements to the algorithms in hopes of reducing the worst-case running times; it would also be interesting to prove non-trivial lower bounds on the time complexities of the problems.

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