# Computing Shortest Paths among Curved Obstacles in the Plane* 

Danny Z. Chen ${ }^{\dagger} \quad$ Haitao Wang ${ }^{\ddagger}$


#### Abstract

A fundamental problem in computational geometry is to compute an obstacle-avoiding Euclidean shortest path between two points in the plane. The case of this problem on polygonal obstacles is well studied. In this paper, we consider the problem version on curved obstacles, which are commonly modeled as splinegons. A splinegon can be viewed as replacing each edge of a polygon by a convex curved edge (polygons are special splinegons), and the combinatorial complexity of each curved edge is assumed to be $O(1)$. Given in the plane two points $s$ and $t$ and a set of $h$ pairwise disjoint splinegons with a total of $n$ vertices, we compute a shortest $s$-to- $t$ path avoiding the splinegons, in $O(n \log n+k)$ time or $O\left(n+h \log ^{1+\epsilon} h+k\right)$ time for any arbitrarily small constant $\epsilon>0$, where $k$ is a parameter sensitive to the geometric structures of the input and is upper-bounded by $O\left(h^{2}\right)$. In particular, when all splinegons are convex, $k$ is proportional to the number of common tangents in the free space (called "free common tangents") among the splinegons. We develop techniques for solving the problem on the general (non-convex) splinegon domain, which also improve several previous results, as follows.


1. We improve the previous work on the polygon case (i.e., when all splinegons are polygons). The polygon case was previously solved in $O(n \log n)$ time, or in $O\left(n+h^{2} \log n\right)$ time. Thus, our algorithm improves the $O\left(n+h^{2} \log n\right)$ time result, and is faster than the $O(n \log n)$ time solution for sufficiently small $h$, e.g., $h=o(\sqrt{n \log n})$.
2. Our techniques produce an optimal output-sensitive algorithm for a basic visibility problem of computing all free common tangents among $h$ pairwise disjoint convex splinegons of totally $n$ vertices. Our algorithm runs in $O(n+h \log h+k)$ time and $O(n)$ space, where $k$ is the number of all free common tangents. Note that $k=O\left(h^{2}\right)$. Even for the special case where all splinegons are convex polygons, the previously best algorithm for this visibility problem takes $O\left(n+h^{2} \log n\right)$ time.
3. We improve the previous work for computing the shortest path between two points among convex pseudodisks of $O(1)$ complexity each.

In addition, a by-product of our techniques is an optimal $O(n+h \log h)$ time and $O(n)$ space algorithm for computing the Voronoi diagram of a set of $h$ pairwise disjoint convex splinegons with a total of $n$ vertices.

## 1 Introduction

Finding Euclidean shortest paths among obstacles in the plane is a fundamental problem in computational geometry. The case on polygonal obstacles has been well studied (e.g., [20, 23, 28, 29, [36, 40, 41]). For obstacles bounded by curves, the problem is more difficult and only limited work is found in the literature, and we present an efficient algorithm for this curved version in this paper.

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### 1.1 The Geometric Setting and Our Results

As in [15, 16, 35], we use splinegons to model planar curved objects. A (simple) splinegon $S$ is a simple region formed by replacing each edge $e_{i}^{\prime}$ of a simple polygon $P$ by a curved edge $e_{i}$ joining the endpoints of $e_{i}^{\prime}$ such that the area bounded by the curve $e_{i}$ and the line segment $e_{i}^{\prime}$ is convex (see Fig. (1). The vertices of $S$ are the vertices of $P$. As in [15, 16, 35], we assume that the combinatorial complexity of each splinegon edge is $O(1)$, and primitive operations on a splinegon edge can each be performed in $O(1)$ time, such as computing the intersections of a splinegon edge with a line, computing the tangents (if any) between two splinegon edges, finding the tangents between a point and a splinegon edge, computing the distance between two points along a splinegon edge, etc.

We study the problem of computing shortest paths in a splinegon domain, denoted by SPSD. Given two points $s$ and $t$ and a set of $h$ pairwise disjoint splinegons, $\mathcal{S}=\left\{S_{1}, \ldots, S_{h}\right\}$, with a total of $n$ vertices, we view the splinegons as obstacles and the plane minus the interior of obstacles is called the free space. The SPSD problem seeks a shortest path from $s$ to $t$ in the free space. If the splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$ are all convex, then we refer to it as the convex $S P S D$. We are not aware of any previous work that solves this general SPSD problem exactly. For the convex SPSD, by generalizing the algorithm in [40] for the convex polygonal domain, one may obtain an $O\left(n+h^{2} \log n\right)$ time solution.

We develop techniques for the general SPSD problem, and our algorithm, denoted by Algo$S P S D$, takes $O\left(\min \left\{n \log n, n+h \log ^{1+\epsilon} h\right\}+k\right)$ time, where $k$ is a parameter sensitive to the geometric structures of the input and $k=O\left(h^{2}\right)$ (the exact definition of $k$ will be given in Section (2). Throughout this paper, we let $\epsilon>0$ be any arbitrarily small constant. For the convex SPSD, Algo-SPSD runs in $O(n+h \log h+k)$ time, with $k=O\left(h^{2}\right)$ being the number of free common tangents among the splinegons. A common tangent of two convex splinegons is a line segment that is tangent to both splinegons at its endpoints; the common tangent is free if it lies entirely in the free space.

One major contribution of this paper is an optimal output-sensitive algorithm for the following relevant visibility graph problem: When all splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$ are convex, compute all free common tangents of the splinegons (see Fig. (2). Our algorithm runs in $O(n+h \log h+k)$ time and $O(n)$ working space. This visibility problem is a key subproblem to our algorithm Algo-SPSD. Note that similar to the argument in [1, 20], our algorithm is optimal. Since computing visibility graphs is a fundamental topic in computational geometry, our result for this problem may be interesting in its own right.

Another interesting subproblem that is also solved by our approach is to compute the Voronoi diagram of $h$ pairwise disjoint convex splinegons of $n$ vertices. By generalizing Fortune's sweeping algorithm [19], one may obtain an $O(n+h \log h \log n)$ time solution. Instead, we extend the algorithm in [34] for the convex polygon case, and show that the Voronoi diagram for our problem can be constructed in $O(n+h \log h)$ time and $O(n)$ space, which is an optimal solution. Further, as in [34], we can also construct in $O(h \log n)$ time a "compact diagram", which has several advantages over the Voronoi diagram and has applications in, e.g., the post-office problem and the retraction motion planning problem [34.

### 1.2 Previous Work

The polygon case of SPSD (i.e., $\mathcal{S}$ contains polygons only) is well studied. By constructing the visibility graph [20], a shortest $s$ - $t$ path can be found in $O(n \log n+K)$ time, where $K=O\left(n^{2}\right)$ is the size of the visibility graph. By building a shortest path map, Storer and Reif solved this


Figure 1: A splinegon (solid curves) defined on a polygon (red or dashed segments).


Figure 2: The relevant visibility graph of three convex objects.
case in $O(n h)$ time [41. Mitchell [36] gave the first subquadratic, $O\left(n^{3 / 2+\epsilon}\right)$ time algorithm for it based on the continuous Dijkstra approach. Also using the continuous Dijkstra approach and a conforming planar subdivision, Hershberger and Suri [23] presented an $O(n \log n)$ time solution. An $O\left(n+h^{2} \log n\right)$ time algorithm was given in [29] (a preliminary version is in [28]). Thus, our Algo-SPSD algorithm improves the results in [29, 41] and is faster than the $O(n \log n)$ time solution [23] for sufficiently small values of $h$, say $h=o(\sqrt{n \log n})$.*

For SPSD on curved obstacles, only limited results for some special convex cases are known. For the case with $n$ discs, $O\left(n^{2} \log n\right)$ time algorithms were given [3, 14, and a heuristic approach [31] was derived with experimental results. For disks of the same radius, the algorithms in [22, 41] can find a shortest $s$ - $t$ path in $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ time. A set of objects in the plane is called pseudodisks if the boundaries of any two objects can cross each other at most twice. If $\mathcal{S}$ contains $n$ convex pseudodisks of $O(1)$ complexity each, an algorithm in [7] can find a shortest $s$ - $t$ path in $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ time. By using our Algo-SPSD algorithm, the result in 7 can be improved as follows. Let $\mathbb{U} \mathcal{S}$ denote the union of the convex pseudodisks in $\mathcal{S}$ and $K$ be the number of vertices on the boundary of $\mathbb{U} \mathcal{S}$. It has been shown in [30] that $K=O(n)$ and $\mathbb{U} \mathcal{S}$ can be computed in $O\left(n \log ^{2} n\right)$ time. Since all pseudodisks in $\mathcal{S}$ are convex, $\mathbb{U} \mathcal{S}$ can be viewed as consisting of pairwise disjoint splinegons; let $H$ be the number of splinegons in $\mathbb{U} \mathcal{S}$ (obviously, $H \leq n$ ). By applying Algo-SPSD to $\mathbb{U} \mathcal{S}$, a shortest $s$-t path can be found in $O\left(n \log ^{2} n+k\right)$ time with $k=O\left(H^{2}\right)$. This improves the $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ time result in [7] when $H=o(n)$. As a consequence, a robot motion planning problem [7, 22] can also be solved faster.

For a single splinegon $S$, a shortest s-t path in $S$ can be found in $O(n)$ time, and further, shortest paths from $s$ to all vertices of $S$ can be found in $O(n)$ time 355.

There are computational difficulties in applying the continuous Dijkstra approach [23, 36] to our SPSD problem (even when all splinegons are discs) due to the curved obstacle boundaries. For example, Mitchell's approach [36] uses a data structure for processing wavelet dragging queries by modeling them as high-dimensional radical-free semialgebraic range queries. In SPSD, however, such queries would involve not only radical numbers but also inverse trigonometric operations (e.g., arcsine), and hence similar techniques do not seem to apply. Using the continuous Dijkstra framework, Hershberger et al. [24] recently proposed an $O(n \log n)$ time algorithm for the problem SPSD, based on certain assumption on the computation of localizing the intersection of two "bisectors". As indicated in [24], the bisector computation itself is a complex problem and the complexity of computing these bisectors is still unknown. Without the bisector computation assumption, the approach in [24] can compute a $(1+\epsilon)$-factor approximate shortest path in $O\left(n \log n+n \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$ time.

Constructing the visibility graph for polygonal objects has been well studied [1, 20, 21, 28, 37,
*An unrefereed report [27] announced an algorithm for the polygon case based on the continuous Dijkstra approach with an $O(n+h \log h \log n)$ time. Our algorithm is superior to it when $k=o(n+h \log h \log n)$.


Figure 3: Illustrating a bounded degree decomposition of $\mathcal{F}$ (with dashed segments) and the corridors (with red solid arcs). There are two junction regions indicated by large (red) points inside them, connected by three solid (red) arcs. Removal of these two junction regions results in three corridors.


Figure 4: Illustrating an open hourglass (left) and a closed hourglass (right) with a corridor path linking the apices $x$ and $y$ of the two funnels. The dashed segments are diagonals. The paths $\pi(a, b)$ and $\pi(c, d)$ are shown with thick solid curves.

40, 42]. Ghosh and Mount finally gave an $O(n \log n+K)$ time algorithm [20], where $K=O\left(n^{2}\right)$ is the size of the visibility graph. For the relevant visibility graph problem [29, 39, 40] (or building the relevant visibility graph) on splinegons, two special cases have been studied. When $\mathcal{S}$ contains $n$ disjoint convex objects of $O(1)$ complexity each, the problem is solvable in $O(n \log n+K)$ time [39], where $K=O\left(n^{2}\right)$ is the number of free common tangents. If $\mathcal{S}$ contains $h$ convex polygons, as in [29, 40, then the problem is solvable in $O\left(n+h^{2} \log n\right)$ time; an open question was posed in [29] to solve this case in $O(n+k \log n)$ time, where $k=O\left(h^{2}\right)$ is the number of free common tangents. Note that our $O(n+h \log h+k)$ time result is better than the solution desired by this open question.

## 2 An Overview of Our SPSD Algorithm

Our algorithm Algo-SPSD follows the high-level scheme used in the polygonal domain case [29], but with the key steps replaced by our new, generalized, and more efficient solutions for the more difficult splinegon domain counterparts. We present the paper in a way that each section is highly self-contained, as discussed below. Let $\mathcal{R}$ be a rectangle containing all splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$, and $\mathcal{F}$ denote the free space inside $\mathcal{R}$. We view both $s$ and $t$ as two special splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$.

The first step is to decompose $\mathcal{F}$ into regions each of which has at most four sides and at most three neighbors (see Fig. (3). This decomposition, called bounded degree decomposition, serves the same purpose as a usual triangulation in the polygonal domain case. Melissaratos and Souvaine [35] computed a bounded degree decomposition inside a simple splinegon in linear time. By extending the triangulation algorithm for the polygonal domain case [2] and applying the algorithm in 35], we present an $O\left(n+h \log ^{1+\epsilon} h\right)$ time algorithm for computing a bounded degree decomposition of $\mathcal{F}$, denoted by $B D D(\mathcal{F})$ (which can also be computed in $O(n \log n)$ time by the standard sweeping techniques). The details of this step are given in Section 3.

The second step, with details in Section (4) is to compute a corridor structure in $B D D(\mathcal{F})$, which consists of $O(h)$ corridors and $O(h)$ junction regions (see Fig. 33). Each corridor contains an hourglass, either open or closed (see Fig. (4). An open hourglass contains two convex chains. A closed hourglass contains two "funnels" with a corridor path connecting the two apices of the two funnels. Each side of a funnel is also a convex chain. As in [29], the above $O(h)$ convex chains from the corridors can be used to partition the space in $\mathcal{R}$ into a set $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ of $O(h)$ convex splinegons with a total of $O(n)$ vertices such that a shortest $s-t$ path for our original SPSD problem is also a shortest $s$-t path avoiding the convex splinegons of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ and possibly utilizing some corridor paths.

Thus, in addition to the presence of the $O(h)$ corridor paths, our SPSD problem is reduced to an instance of the convex SPSD. All the above computation can be performed in $O(n+h \log h)$ time. The key is to solve the convex SPSD problem on $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$.

To solve the convex SPSD on $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, we define a relevant visibility graph $G$ (see Fig. 2), as follows. Let $k$ be the number of all free common tangents of the $O(h)$ convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$; thus $k=$ $O\left(h^{2}\right)$. The node set of $G$ consists of the endpoints of the free common tangents. Hence $G$ has $O(k)$ nodes. Each free common tangent defines an edge in $G$. For every splinegon $S \in \mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, its boundary portion between any two consecutive nodes of $G$ along the boundary of $S$ also defines an edge. Thus $G$ has $O(k)$ edges. Clearly, a shortest $s-t$ path in the free space of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ corresponds to a shortest path from $s$ to $t$ in $G$ (both $s$ and $t$ are nodes in $G$ ). Therefore, to solve the convex SPSD, we need to solve two subproblems: Constructing $G$ and computing a shortest $s$-to- $t$ path in $G$.

The third step solves the first subproblem: Constructing $G$. Our algorithm takes $O(n+k+$ $h \log h)$ time. This step, which is interesting in its own right, is presented in Section 5.

The fourth step solves the second subproblem: Finding a shortest path from $s$ to $t$ in $G$. Since $G$ has $O(k)$ nodes and $O(k)$ edges, simply running Dijkstra's algorithm on $G$ would take $O(k \log k)$ time. To avoid the $\log k$ factor, we extend the approach in [7] for computing a shortest path among pseudodisks, where a subproblem is to compute the Voronoi diagram of the convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$. We show that this Voronoi diagram can be computed in $O(n+h \log h)$ time, which may be of independent interest. The details of this step are given in Section 7

The last step, discussed in Section 8 , is to incorporate the $O(h)$ corridor paths into the algorithm for the convex SPSD on $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ to obtain a shortest path for our original SPSD problem.

## 3 The Bounded Degree Decomposition of the Free Space

Recall that $\mathcal{S}=\left\{S_{1}, \ldots, S_{h}\right\}$ is a set of $h$ pairwise disjoint splinegons with a total of $n$ vertices, and $\mathcal{F}$ is the free space of $\mathcal{S}$. In this section, we compute a bounded degree decomposition $B D D(\mathcal{F})$ of the free space $\mathcal{F}$. In the following, we first define $B D D(\mathcal{F})$ and then present our algorithm for it.

### 3.1 Defining a Bounded Degree Decomposition

As preprocessing, we perform a monotone cut on the edges of the splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$, as follows. For each splinegon edge $e$, if one or both of its topmost and bottommost points lie in the interior of $e$, then we add these points (at most two) as new splinegon vertices, which divide the original edge $e$ into several new edges (at most three). Since each splinegon edge is of $O(1)$ complexity, this monotone cut can be done in $O(n)$ time. After the cut, $\mathcal{S}$ contains at most $3 n$ vertices. For convenience, with a little abuse of notation, we still use $n$ to denote the number of vertices of $\mathcal{S}$ after the monotone cut. From now on, we assume that the monotone cut has been done on all splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$. For any object $A$ in the plane, let $\partial A$ denote its boundary.

Recall that $\mathcal{R}$ is a large rectangle containing all splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$. Let $\partial \mathcal{F}$ denote the boundary of $\mathcal{F}$, i.e., the union of the boundaries of the splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{R}$. A diagonal is an open line segment in the interior of $\mathcal{F}$ with its two endpoints on $\partial \mathcal{F}$. A bounded degree decomposition of the free space $\mathcal{F}$, denoted by $B D D(\mathcal{F})$, is a decomposition of $\mathcal{F}$ into $O(n)$ bounded degree regions (or simply regions) each with at most four sides and with at most three neighboring regions by adding $O(n)$ non-intersecting diagonals (see Fig. (3). Two regions are neighboring if they share a diagonal on their boundaries. Each region has at most four sides and each side is either a diagonal or (part of) a splinegon edge. Thus the complexity of each region is $O(1)$ (that is why we call it a "bounded
degree region"). $B D D(\mathcal{F})$ serves the same purpose as a triangulation in the polygonal domain case.
For a single simple splinegon $S$, a linear time algorithm was given in [35] for computing a bounded degree decomposition of $S$.

### 3.2 Computing a Bounded Degree Decomposition

As the triangulation algorithm in [2], our algorithm for computing $B D D(\mathcal{F})$ consists of two main steps. First, we find $h$ non-crossing diagonals to connect all splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{R}$ together to form a single simple splinegon $S^{*}$ (so the interior of $S^{*}$ is $\mathcal{F}$ minus the above diagonals). Second, we apply the algorithm in [35] to compute a bounded degree decomposition of $S^{*}$, which is $B D D(\mathcal{F})$. The details are given below.

For the first main step, our approach generalizes the triangulation algorithm in [2] for the polygonal domain case. We first define a visibility tree for $\mathcal{S}$, as follows. For each splinegon $S_{i} \in \mathcal{S}$, pick a point on its boundary (not necessarily a vertex) and draw a ray to the right until it hits either another splinegon in $\mathcal{S}$ or $\mathcal{R}$. As shown in [2], if we choose the origins of the rays carefully and view each splinegon as a node, we can then ensure that the resulting planar graph is connected and acyclic; actually, the resulting planar graph is a visibility tree for $\mathcal{S}$, denoted by $T_{v i s}(\mathcal{S})$. Clearly, $T_{\text {vis }}(\mathcal{S})$ connects all splinegons of $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{R}$ into a single simple splinegon. Our task is to compute $T_{v i s}(\mathcal{S})$, which can be easily done in $O(n \log n)$ time by the standard sweeping techniques. In the following Lemma 1, we present an $O\left(n+h \log ^{1+\epsilon} h\right)$ time algorithm.

Note that in the special case where all splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$ are convex, a visibility tree $T_{v i s}(\mathcal{S})$ can be computed in $O(n+h \log h)$ time by the sweeping techniques.

Lemma $1 A$ visibility tree $T_{\text {vis }}(\mathcal{S})$ of $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{R}$ can be computed in $O\left(n+h \log ^{1+\epsilon} h\right)$ time.
Proof: Our approach generalizes the algorithm in [2], which computes a visibility tree in $O(n+$ $\left.h \log ^{1+\epsilon} h\right)$ time for a set of $h$ pairwise disjoint polygons of totally $n$ vertices.

To generalize the algorithm in [2], we need to make sure that each of its components can be generalized. First, the algorithm in [2] makes use of the linear time algorithm in [25] for sorting the intersections (by their $x$-coordinates) of a horizontal line and an oriented Jordan curve. For any splinegon $S_{i} \in \mathcal{S}$, consider the problem of sorting the intersections of $\partial S_{i}$ with a horizontal line $l$. Due to the monotone cut, each edge of $S_{i}$ has at most one intersection with $l$ which can be computed in $O(1)$ time. Further, the line $l$ breaks up the boundary of $S_{i}$ into disjoint arcs either entirely below or above $l$ such that the arcs above (resp., below) the line still form a parenthesis system, as shown in [2, 25]. Hence, the algorithmic scheme in [25] and the time analysis are still applicable to our problem. In summary, the intersections of $\partial S_{i}$ and the line $l$ can be computed in linear time (in terms of the number of vertices of $S_{i}$ ); let $m$ be the number of such intersections. Then these intersection points on $l$ can be sorted in $O(m)$ time.

With the above sorting algorithm in hand, the following more general sorting problem can be solved by using the approach in [2]: Given a subset of $h^{\prime}\left(h^{\prime} \leq h\right)$ splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$ with a total of $n^{\prime}\left(n^{\prime} \leq n\right)$ vertices and a horizontal line $l$, the goal is to sort the intersections of $l$ with these $h^{\prime}$ splinegons. All intersections can be computed in $O\left(n^{\prime}\right)$ time. Let $m$ be the number of such intersections. Then by following the algorithmic scheme in [2] and using our sorting procedure for a single splinegon case, these $m$ intersections can be sorted in $O\left(m+h^{\prime} \log h^{\prime}\right)$ time.

In addition, the algorithm in [2] needs a point location data structure [18, 32] on a simple polygon, constructed in linear time, for answering each point location query in logarithmic time. In our problem, correspondingly, we need such a point location data structure on a simple splinegon.



Figure 5: Illustrating the horizontal visibility map of a splinegon.

Figure 6: Illustrating the decomposition of a trapezoid: (a) The black points on the base $c d$ are vertices; (b) a decomposition of the trapezoid.

As shown in [18, 35], the data structure in [18] can be made to work on a simple splinegon with the same performance as for the simple polygon case.

It is also easy to verify that other parts of the algorithm in [2] are all applicable to our problem. Therefore, the visibility tree $T_{v i s}(\mathcal{S})$ for $\mathcal{S}$ can be computed in $O\left(n+h \log ^{1+\epsilon} h\right)$ time.

For the second main step, we simply apply the linear time decomposition algorithm in 35 ] to $S^{*}$. Below, for completeness and easy understanding of our approach, we briefly discuss the algorithm in [35] for a single splinegon.

Let $S$ be a splinegon of $n$ vertices. The algorithm in 35 first decomposes $S$ into a set of horizontal trapezoids by computing the horizontal visibility map and then further decomposes each trapezoid into (bounded degree) regions as the final decomposition of $S$. Below are some details of it. Again, the topmost and bottommost points of each splinegon edge are treated as vertices of $S$. Clearly, there are $O(n)$ vertices on $\partial S$. As for the simple polygon case, the horizontal visibility map is to draw a horizontal line segment through each vertex of $S$, extending the segment so long as it does not properly cross $\partial S$ (see Fig. (5). The visibility map of $S$ adds $O(n)$ new vertices on $\partial S$ and divides $S$ into $O(n)$ trapezoids (each with curved sides and line segment bases). As shown in [35], Chazelle's algorithm [4] can be used to compute the visibility map on the splinegon $S$ in $O(n)$ time. Since in the degenerate case there may be multiple vertices in the interior of a trapezoid base, a trapezoid may have many neighbors. The next step is to further decompose each trapezoid into (bounded degree) regions such that each region has at most three neighbors. There are many ways to decompose a trapezoid into (bounded degree) regions. In [35], one algorithmic approach for this task was given and some of the cases were discussed. For example, consider a trapezoid $a b c d$ with $a b$ and $c d$ as bases and $a d$ and $b c$ as (curved) sides, as in Fig. 6(a). Suppose there are multiple vertices in the interior of the base $c d$. A further decomposition of the trapezoid is shown in Fig. 6(b). Refer to [35] for more details. Note that although a region may be a four-side trapezoid, it has at most three neighbors and is of $O(1)$ complexity.

By Lemma 1 and the linear time decomposition algorithm for a simple splinegon [35], the following result follows.

Theorem 1 A bounded degree decomposition of the free space $\mathcal{F}$ among the splinegons of $\mathcal{S}$ can be computed in $O(n \log n)$ time or $O\left(n+h \log ^{1+\epsilon} h\right)$ time. If all splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$ are convex, then the decomposition can be computed in $O(n+h \log h)$ time.

## 4 The Corridor Structure

In this section, based on $B D D(\mathcal{F})$, i.e, the bounded degree decomposition of the free space $\mathcal{F}$, we compute a corridor structure to reduce our original problem on SPSD to an instance of the convex SPSD. The corridor structure and its extended version for polygonal domains have been used for
solving shortest path and visibility problems [6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 26, 28, 29]. For our splinegonal domain, we generalize the approach in [29] for the polygonal domain case.

Recall that both $s$ and $t$ are considered as two special splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$. In addition to the splinegon vertices, the endpoints of the diagonals of $\operatorname{BDD}(\mathcal{F})$ are also treated as the vertices of $B D D(\mathcal{F})$. Note that $B D D(\mathcal{F})$ has $O(n)$ vertices. Let $G(\mathcal{F})$ denote the planar dual graph of $B D D(\mathcal{F})$, i.e., each node of $G(\mathcal{F})$ corresponds to a region in $B D D(\mathcal{F})$ and each edge connects two nodes of $G(\mathcal{F})$ corresponding to two regions sharing a diagonal. Because the splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$ are pairwise disjoint, the dual graph $G(\mathcal{F})$ is clearly connected, and an s-t path among the splinegons of $\mathcal{S}$ always exists. Since $B D D(\mathcal{F})$ is a planar structure and each region in $B D D(\mathcal{F})$ has at most three neighbors, $G(\mathcal{F})$ is a planar graph whose vertex degrees are at most three. Since $\mathcal{F}$ is connected, as in the polygonal domain case [29], at least one node dual to a region incident to each of $s$ and $t$ is of degree three.

Based on $G(\mathcal{F})$, we compute a planar 3-regular graph, denoted by $G^{3}$ (the degree of each node in it is three), possibly with loops and multi-edges, as follows. First, we remove every degree-one node from $G(\mathcal{F})$ along with its incident edge; repeat this process until no degree-one node exists. Second, remove every degree-two node from $G(\mathcal{F})$ and replace its two incident edges by a single edge; repeat this process until no degree-two node exists. The resulting graph is $G^{3}$ (e.g., see Fig. (3). By a similar argument as in [29] for the polygonal domain case, we can show that the resulting $G^{3}$ has $O(h)$ faces, nodes, and arcs. Each node of $G^{3}$ corresponds to a region of $B D D(\mathcal{F})$, which is called a junction region (e.g., see Fig. (3). Removal of all junction regions from $G^{3}$ results in $O(h)$ corridors, each of which corresponds to one edge of $G^{3}$.

The boundary of a corridor $C$ consists of four parts (see Fig. (4): (1) A boundary portion of a splinegon $S_{1} \in \mathcal{S}$, from a point $a$ to a point $b ;(2)$ a diagonal of a junction region from $b$ to a point $c$ of a splinegon $S_{2} \in \mathcal{S}$ (it is possible that $S_{1}=S_{2}$ ); (3) a boundary portion of the splinegon $S_{2}$ from $c$ to a point $d$; (4) a diagonal of a junction region from $d$ to $a$. The two diagonals $\overline{b c}$ and $\overline{a d}$ are called the doors of $C$. Note that the corridor $C$ itself is a simple splinegon. Let $|C|$ denote the number of vertices of $B D D(\mathcal{F})$ on $\partial C$. Note that a shortest path between two points inside a simple splinegon can be found in linear time [35]. Therefore, in $O(|C|)$ time, we can compute the shortest path $\pi(a, b)$ (resp., $\pi(c, d)$ ) from $a$ to $b$ (resp., $c$ to $d$ ) inside $C$. The region $H_{C}$ bounded by $\pi(a, b), \pi(c, d)$, and the two diagonals $\overline{b c}$ and $\overline{d a}$ is called an hourglass, which is open if $\pi(a, b) \cap \pi(c, d)=\emptyset$ and closed otherwise (see Fig. (4). If $H_{C}$ is open, then both $\pi(a, b)$ and $\pi(c, d)$ are convex and they are called the sides of $H_{C}$; otherwise, $H_{C}$ consists of two "funnels" and a path $\pi_{C}=\pi(a, b) \cap \pi(c, d)$ joining the two apices of the two funnels, called the corridor path of $C$. Each funnel side is also convex. We process all corridors as above. The running time for processing all corridors is linear in terms of the total number of vertices of all corridors, which is at most the number of vertices of $B D D(\mathcal{F})$, i.e., $O(n)$. Therefore, the running time for processing all corridors is $O(n)$.

Let $Q$ be the union of all junction regions and hourglasses. Then $Q$ consists of $O(h)$ junction regions, open hourglasses, funnels, and corridor paths. Let $\pi(s, t)$ be a shortest $s$ - $t$ path for the original problem SPSD. As shown in [29], $\pi(s, t)$ must be contained in $Q$. Consider a corridor $C$. If $\pi(s, t)$ contains an interior point of $C$ and neither $s$ nor $t$ lies on $\partial C$, then the path $\pi(s, t)$ must cross both doors of $C$, i.e., it enters $C$ from one door and leaves $C$ from the other. Further, if the hourglass $H_{C}$ for $C$ is closed, then the corridor path of $C$ must be contained in $\pi(s, t)$. When $H_{C}$ is open, since both sides of $H_{C}$ are convex with respect to the interior of $H_{C}$, if $\pi(s, t)$ intersects both sides of $H_{C}$, then it must contain a common tangent of the two sides such that $\pi(s, t)$ goes from one side of $H_{C}$ to the other side via that common tangent.

With all the properties above, let $Q^{\prime}$ be $Q$ minus the corridor paths. In other words, $Q^{\prime}$ consists
of $O(h)$ junction regions, open hourglasses, and funnels. Since the sides of open hourglasses and funnels are convex, the boundary of $Q^{\prime}$ consists of $O(h)$ reflex vertices and $O(h)$ convex chains, implying that the complementary region $\mathcal{R} \backslash Q^{\prime}$ consists of a set of splinegons of totally $O(h)$ reflex vertices and $O(h)$ convex chains. Recall that $\mathcal{R}$ is a large rectangle containing all splinegons in $\mathcal{S}$. As in the polygonal domain case [29], we can partition $\mathcal{R} \backslash Q^{\prime}$ into a set $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ of $O(h)$ convex splinegons with a total of $O(n)$ vertices (e.g., by extending an angle-bisecting segment inward from each reflex vertex) such that a shortest path $\pi(s, t)$ for the original SPSD is also a shortest $s$ - $t$ path that avoids the splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ but possibly contains some corridor paths. Therefore, other than the $O(h)$ corridor paths, we have reduced our original SPSD problem to an instance of the convex SPSD. In fact, the key is to compute the free common tangents among the convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$.

## 5 Computing the Relevant Visibility Graph of Convex Splinegons

In this section, we construct the relevant visibility graph $G$ for the $O(h)$ convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ with a total of $O(n)$ vertices. For convenience, we slightly change the notation and consider the following problem: Construct the relevant visibility graph $G$ for $h$ pairwise disjoint convex splinegons in a set $\mathcal{P}=\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{h}\right\}$ with a total of $n$ vertices. Let $\mathcal{B}$ denote the set of all free common tangents of $\mathcal{P}$ and let $k=|\mathcal{B}|$. Our algorithm for computing $\mathcal{B}$ runs in $O(n+k+h \log h)$ time and $O(n)$ working space. The graph $G$ can also be constructed in $O(n+k+h \log h)$ time.

Our algorithm can be viewed as a generalization of Pocchiola and Vegter's algorithm 39] (and its preliminary version [38]). We call it the $P V$ algorithm. Given a set $\mathcal{O}$ of $n$ pairwise disjoint convex obstacles of $O(1)$ complexity each, the PV algorithm computes all free common tangents of $\mathcal{O}$ in $O(n \log n+K)$ time and $O(n)$ space, where $K=O\left(n^{2}\right)$ is the number of all free common tangents of the $n$ obstacles in $\mathcal{O}$. It was also claimed in [39] (without giving any details) that the PV algorithm may be made to compute $\mathcal{B}$ for our problem on $\mathcal{P}$ in $O(n \log h+k)$ time. It should be noted that although our improvement looks "small" (at most a logarithmic factor), it is theoretically quite meaningful because our algorithm is optimal.

In general, the PV algorithm relies mainly on the convexity of the obstacles. The needed properties also hold for our setting. The high-level scheme of our algorithm follows that of the PV algorithm, but with certain modifications. However, the most challenging task is to achieve an optimal time bound for the algorithm. A similar analysis to the PV algorithm in [39] does not work for our problem (or may only obtain an $O(n \log h+k)$ time solution as claimed in [39]). As shown later, our analysis needs numerous non-trivial new observations and novel ideas. Comparing with the PV algorithm, our algorithm and analysis explore more crucial properties and geometric structures of the problem, which may be useful for solving other related problems as well. Further, our modifications to the scheme of the PV algorithm seem necessary (without them, it is not clear to us whether the scheme in [39] can be generalized to attain our optimal time bound).

### 5.1 Preliminaries

We focus on showing how to compute $\mathcal{B}$ since the graph $G$ can be constructed simultaneously while $\mathcal{B}$ is being computed. In the following, we simply call each splinegon in $\mathcal{P}$ an obstacle and each (curved) splinegon edge an elementary curve. Thus, the complexity of each elementary curve is $O(1)$. We follow some terminology in [38, 39]. We call a common tangent of two obstacles a bitangent. For ease of exposition, as in the PV algorithm [38, 39], we assume all obstacles in $\mathcal{P}$ are smooth (i.e., only one tangent line touches each boundary point) and are in general position (i.e.,


Figure 7: A flip operation on a free bitangent $b$ : (a) Figure 8: The common tangent line of two pseudoThe dashed bitangent is $b$ before the flip; (b) the dashed triangles. bitangent is $\varphi(b)$ after the flip.
no three obstacles share a common tangent line). The algorithm can be easily generalized to the general case. To handle the case with polygons, for example, we can take the Minkowski sum of the polygons with an infinitesimally small circle.

As in [38, 39], we define a pseudo-triangulation of the convex obstacles in $\mathcal{P}$ as a subdivision of the free space induced by a maximal number of pairwise noncrossing free bitangents (see Fig. 7). The number of free bitangents in any pseudo-triangulation of $\mathcal{P}$ is $3 h-3$ [38, 39].

Let $\mathcal{T}$ be a pseudo-triangulation and $B(\mathcal{T})$ denote the set of all free bitangents that appear in $\mathcal{T}$. Any bounded free face $T$ in $\mathcal{T}$ is a pseudo-triangle, and the boundary of $T$, denoted by $\partial T$, consists of three convex chains with convexity towards the interior of $T$. The three endpoints of the convex chains are called the cusps of $T$. Denote by $B(\partial T)$ the set of all free bitangents on $\partial T$ (i.e., each bitangent in $B(\partial T)$ lies on $\partial T$ ). For a point $p$ on $\partial T$ lying on an obstacle $P_{i}$, the tangent line of $P_{i}$ at $p$ is called the tangent line of $T$ at $p$; for a point $p$ lying on a free bitangent of $B(\partial T)$, the line containing the bitangent is the tangent line of $T$ at $p$. Note that if a line is tangent to $T$ at a point $p \in \partial T$, then the line is also tangent to the convex chain of $\partial T$ that contains $p$. As shown in [38, 39], any two pseudo-triangles in $\mathcal{T}$ have a unique common tangent line, i.e., a line tangent to both pseudo-triangles (see Fig. [8). Suppose two adjacent pseudo-triangles $T$ and $T^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{T}$ share a bitangent $b \in B(\mathcal{T})$; a flip operation on $b$ replaces $b$ by the common tangent of $T$ and $T^{\prime}$, which is a free bitangent and denoted by $\varphi(b)$ (see Fig. 7). A flip operation produces another pseudo-triangulation. If $b$ lies on the convex hull of $\mathcal{P}$, then we let $\varphi(b)$ be $b$ itself.

Our algorithm for computing $\mathcal{B}$, called the topological flip algorithm, performs flip operations based on a topological order, which can be viewed as a generalization of a topological sweep [17]. We define a partial order on the free bitangents and a topological structure that is maintained by our algorithm. To define the topological structure, below we assign directions to bitangents and tangent lines of pseudo-triangulations, and discuss some properties.

Given a unit vector $u$, the $u$-slope of a directed line (or segment) $l$ is defined as the angle (in $[0,2 \pi)$ ) of rotating $u$ counterclockwise to the same direction as $l$. For an undirected line (or segment) $l$, its $u$-slope is the angle (in $[0, \pi)$ ) of rotating $u$ counterclockwise to the first vector parallel to $l$; the direction of that vector is said to be consistent with the $u$-slope of $l$.

Consider a pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}$. Given a vector $u$, for each bitangent $b \in B(\mathcal{T})$, we assign to $b$ the direction consistent with the $u$-slope of $b$. For every pseudo-triangle $T$ of $\mathcal{T}$, let $b_{T}$ be the bitangent in $B(\partial T)$ with the minimum $u$-slope. Further, for each point $p \in \partial T$, we assign to the tangent line $l(p)$ of $T$ at $p$ the direction consistent with the $b_{T}$-slope of $l(p)$, and call $l(p)$ the directed tangent line of $T$ at $p$. The $b_{T}$-slope of the directed $l(p)$ is also called the pseudo-triangle slope (or pt-slope for short) of $l(p)$ at the point $p \in \partial T 母$. For any bitangent $b \in \mathcal{B}$, suppose we

[^1]assign a direction to $b$ and $p$ is an endpoint of $b$ (say, $p$ is on $\partial T$ of a pseudo-triangle $T$ ); then the direction assigned to $b$ is said to be compatible with $p$ if the directed tangent line of $T$ at $p$ has the same direction as $b$. Note that the pt-slope of any point on $b_{T}$ is zero. As moving on $\partial T$ clockwise from $b_{T}$, the pt-slope of the moving point increases continuously from 0 to $\pi$, until we are back to $b_{T}$.

Our algorithm maintains a topological structure called good pseudo-triangulation, defined as follows. A pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}$ is said to be good (called weakly greedy in [38]) if there is a way to assign every free bitangent $b \in \mathcal{B}$ a direction such that a partial order $\prec$ can be defined on the directed bitangents of $B(\mathcal{T})$ with the following properties: (1) For each pseudo-triangle $T$ in $\mathcal{T}$, the partial order $\prec$ is a total order, which corresponds to the pt-slope order on $B(\partial T)$ with respect to $b_{T}$; (2) the direction of each bitangent $b \in \mathcal{B}$ is compatible with both its endpoints; (3) for any bitangent $b \in \mathcal{B} \backslash B(\mathcal{T})$, all bitangents in $B(\mathcal{T})$ intersecting $b$ cross the directed $b$ from left to right.

### 5.2 Initialization and Outline of the Topological Flip Algorithm

Let $u_{0}$ be a vector with the direction of the positive $x$-axis. We first compute an initial pseudotriangulation $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ of $\mathcal{P}$ induced by a set $\left\{b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{3 h-3}\right\}$ of free (undirected) bitangents such that (1) $b_{1}$ is the bitangent in $\mathcal{B}$ with the smallest $u_{0}$-slope, and (2) for any $1 \leq i<3 h-3, b_{i+1}$ is the bitangent with the smallest $u_{0}$-slope in $\mathcal{B}$ that does not cross any of $b_{1}, b_{2}, \ldots, b_{i}$ (e.g., Fig. Z(a) is $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ ). As shown in [38, 39], $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ for the obstacle set $\mathcal{O}$ is a good pseudo-triangulation, and can be built in $O(n \log n)$ time. Likewise, for our problem, $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ of $\mathcal{P}$ is also a good pseudo-triangulation; further, we can compute $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ even faster, as shown in Lemma 2,

Lemma 2 The initial good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ of $\mathcal{P}$ can be constructed in $O(n+h \log h)$ time.
Proof: To construct $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ of $\mathcal{P}$, we modify and generalize the corresponding $O(n \log n)$ time algorithm in [39] for the set $\mathcal{O}$. The algorithm is based on a rotational sweeping procedure, during which a visibility map, denoted by $M\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ associated with the current rotational direction $u^{\prime} \in[0, \pi]$, is (implicitly) maintained. Consider a direction $u^{\prime}$. Each obstacle $P_{i}$ of $\mathcal{P}$ contains two extreme points each having a tangent line with slope $u^{\prime}$ such that $P_{i}$ is between these two tangent lines. We denote by $V\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ the set of such extreme points in all obstacles of $\mathcal{P}$.

We first define $M(0)$ for $u^{\prime}=0$ as follows (see Fig. 9). For each extreme point in $V\left(u^{\prime}\right)$, we shoot one ray in the direction of $u^{\prime}$ and shoot another ray in the opposite direction until hitting some obstacles. The subdivision of the plane defined by all these rays and the obstacles of $\mathcal{P}$ is $M(0)$, which can be viewed as similar to a trapezoidal decomposition of the free space. In general, for any $u^{\prime}>0, M\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ is defined by the rays shooting from the points of $V\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ in the direction of $u^{\prime}$ and in the opposite direction until hitting some obstacles or bitangents of $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ obtained up to that moment of the rotational sweep, together with the obstacles of $\mathcal{P}$.

The algorithm first constructs $M(0)$. For this, we compute the extreme point set $V(0)$, which takes $O(n)$ time. Since the obstacles of $\mathcal{P}$ are pairwise disjoint, with a standard sweeping algorithm (from top to bottom), $M(0)$ can be easily constructed in $O(n+h \log h)$ time.

Starting at $M(0)$, we rotate $u^{\prime}$ from 0 to $\pi$. During the rotation, the topology of $M\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ is maintained implicitly. Specifically, the topology of $M\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ does not change until $u^{\prime}$ becomes equal to the slope of a free bitangent $b$ of $\mathcal{T}_{0}$. When a new free bitangent $b$ is detected, a "quadrangular" region (which contains two points of $V\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ ) in $M\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ will disappear, and some rays shooting from $V\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ will first hit $b$ instead of some obstacles or other free bitangents of $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ already found (we then
defined is with respect to $T$ only and $p$ also has another pt-slope defined with respect to $T^{\prime}$.


Figure 9: The visibility map $M(0)$.


Figure 10: The visibility map $M(\pi / 2)$.


Figure 11: The visibility map $M(\pi)$.
view these rays as hitting $b$ without going further). At the same time, a "triangular" region (which contains only one point of $V\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ ) will emerge (refer to [39] for the details). If two triangular regions contain a same point of $V\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ at their boundaries, then they are incident along a ray shooting from this point, and we merge these two regions by removing this ray. The resulting new visibility map is $M\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ with the newly detected free bitangent $b$ of $\mathcal{T}_{0}$. We keep rotating $u^{\prime}$ in this manner. Fig. 10 illustrates $M\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ for $u^{\prime}=\pi / 2$ and Fig. 11 illustrates $M\left(u^{\prime}\right)$ for $u^{\prime}=\pi$. Note that every new free bitangent is detected from two obstacles along the boundary of a quadrangular region. In this way, after the rotation of $u^{\prime}$ is over, $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ is obtained.

The key to this procedure is to determine the rotation events, i.e., which free bitangent will be encountered next in the rotation. For this, the same strategy of the original ( $O(n \log n)$ time $)$ algorithm for $\mathcal{O}$ in [39] is applied. The only difference is that a bitangent of two $O(1)$ complexity obstacles in [39] is found in $O(1)$ time, while in our problem we compute each free bitangent of $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ in $O(\log n)$ time. Since $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ has $O(h)$ free bitangents, computing all of them during the rotational sweep takes $O(h \log n)$ time. Note that $h \log n=O(n+h \log h)$.

In summary, constructing $\mathcal{T}_{0}$ takes $O(n+h \log h)$ time. The lemma thus follows.
After computing $\mathcal{T}_{0}$, we assign to every bitangent $b \in B\left(\mathcal{T}_{0}\right)$ the direction consistent with its $u_{0}$-slope (in $[0, \pi)$ ). For each bitangent $b \in \mathcal{B} \backslash B\left(\mathcal{T}_{0}\right)$, as shown in [38, 39], we can always assign a direction to $b$ that is compatible with both $b$ 's endpoints; for the purpose of discussion, we assume that this direction has been assigned to $b$ (the algorithm does not explicitly perform this assignment). Let $\mathcal{T}=\mathcal{T}_{0}$. A (directed) bitangent $b \in B(\mathcal{T})$ is minimal if it has the smallest $u_{0}$-slope among all free bitangents on the boundaries of both the left and right adjacent pseudo-triangles of $b$ in $\mathcal{T}$. A minimal bitangent always exists in a good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}$ [38, 39]. To compute the bitangents in $\mathcal{B} \backslash B\left(\mathcal{T}_{0}\right)$, the topological flip algorithm keeps flipping a minimal bitangent in $B(\mathcal{T})$ and generating another good pseudo-triangulation of $\mathcal{P}$. The next lemma (proved in [38] and applicable to our problem) shows that any minimal bitangent in $B(\mathcal{T})$ can be flipped.

Lemma 3 [38] For any good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}$ of $\mathcal{P}$ (initially, $\mathcal{T}=\mathcal{T}_{0}$ ), let b be a minimal free bitangent in $B(\mathcal{T})$ with a $u_{0}$-slope less than $\pi$. Then the pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{P}$ obtained by flipping $b$ is also good, and the assigned direction of any free bitangent $t \in \mathcal{B} \backslash\{b\}$ does not change after the flip of $b$, whereas the direction of $b$ is reversed.

As shown in [38, 39, we only need to flip a minimal bitangent in $B(\mathcal{T})$ with a $u_{0}$-slope less than $\pi$, and this ensures that the algorithm will terminate and all free bitangents in $\mathcal{B}$ will be generated. Note that once a bitangent is flipped, since its direction is reversed, its $u_{0}$-slope becomes no smaller than $\pi$, and thus it will never be flipped again.

The effectiveness of our algorithm hinges on its ability to perform the $k$ flips in $O(n+k)$ time, and the key is to determine a minimal bitangent $b^{*}$ of $\mathcal{T}$ efficiently. To this end, for each pseudotriangle $T$ of $\mathcal{F}$, we will choose and store a critical portion of its boundary, as Awake[T], which is used to find $b^{*}$. After obtaining $b^{*}$ and a new good pseudo-triangulation, we need to update

Awake for some (two) new pseudo-triangles induced by the flip. To update Awake efficiently, we also choose and store a boundary portion of each pseudo-triangle $T$, as $A$ sleep $[T]$. In other words, Awake is used to find $b^{*}$ and Asleep is used to update Awake (Asleep itself also needs to be updated). A key difference between the PV algorithm and ours is that $A$ sleep $[T]$ refers to different portions of $T$ 's boundary.

Both Awake and Asleep are implemented as "splittable queues" 39] that support three operations: enqueue, dequeue, and split. Our algorithm uses two phases for handling each flip: Phase I computes $b^{*}$; Phase II updates Awake and Asleep. To bound the running time, it suffices to prove the following key claim: The total number of enqueue operations for all $k$ flips is $O(n+k)$. Actually, for each flip, only $O(1)$ sequences of enqueue operations are needed and each sequence involves either a free common tangent or a boundary portion of a single obstacle.

A main difference between the PV algorithm and ours is on proving the key claim. In the PV algorithm, it is fairly easy: Since every obstacle is of $O(1)$ complexity, each enqueue sequence needs only $O(1)$ enqueue operations. Our problem is more challenging as the complexity of the boundary of an obstacle (i.e., a splinegon) can be $\Omega(n)$ and thus an enqueue sequence may take as many as $\Omega(n)$ enqueue operations. To prove the key claim, we must conduct a global analysis that requires many new observations and analysis techniques, which is the most challenging part. Section 6 is devoted entirely to this task.

### 5.3 Conducting the Flips

Given $\mathcal{T}_{0}$, we determine the set of minimal bitangents in $B\left(\mathcal{T}_{0}\right)$, denoted by $C$. Then, we take an arbitrary bitangent $b$ from $C$, flip $b$, and update $C$. We repeat this process until $C=\emptyset$ (by then $\mathcal{B}$ is obtained and all bitangents in the resulting pseudo-triangulation have $u_{0}$-slope at least $\pi$ ). The key is to perform all $k(=|\mathcal{B}|)$ flips in $O(n+k)$ time.

Let $\mathcal{T}$ be a good pseudo-triangulation. For any bitangent $t$ in $B(\mathcal{T})$, denote by $\operatorname{Ltri}(t)$ (resp., $\operatorname{Rtri}(t))$ the pseudo-triangle of $\mathcal{T}$ (if any) that is bounded by the directed $t$ and is on the left (resp., right) of $t$. Suppose we are about to flip a minimal bitangent $b$ in $\mathcal{T}$. Let $R=\operatorname{Rtri}(b)$ and $L=\operatorname{Ltri}(b)$. To compute $\varphi(b)$, an easy way is to walk clockwise along $\partial R$ and $\partial L$ synchronously, starting from $b$, until finding $\varphi(b)$. But, this is too expensive. A more efficient approach is to first "jump" to a certain location on $\partial R$ and $\partial L$ and then do the synchronous walking. To implement this idea, we need some "crucial points" on $\partial T$ for each pseudo-triangle $T \in \mathcal{T}$, as defined below.

For any directed free bitangent $b$, we denote its two endpoints by $\operatorname{Tail}(b)$ and $\operatorname{Head}(b)$, respectively, such that $b$ 's direction is from $\operatorname{Tail}(b)$ to $\operatorname{Head}(b)$, and call them tail and head of $b$.

Consider a pseudo-triangle $T \in \mathcal{T}$. We define the basepoint of $T$, denoted by $p_{T}$, to be the tail of $b_{T}$ (i.e., the smallest $u_{0}$-slope bitangent in $B(\partial T)$ ) if $T=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T}\right)$, and the head of $b_{T}$ if $T=\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{T}\right)$ (e.g., see Fig. (12). Starting at $p_{T}$, if we move along $\partial T$ clockwise, the successive cusps of $T$ encountered are denoted by $x_{T}, y_{T}$, and $z_{T}$ (if $p_{T}$ is a cusp, we let it be $z_{T}$ ). The forward (resp., backward) $T$-view of any point $p$ on $\partial T$ is the intersection point of $\partial T$ with the directed tangent line $l(p)$ of $T$ at $p$, i.e., lying ahead of $p$ (resp., behind $p$ ). Let $q_{T}$ denote the special point on $\partial T$ whose forward (resp., backward) $T$-view is $p_{T}$ if $T=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T}\right)$ (resp., $T=\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{T}\right)$ ) (e.g., see Fig. (12). For any two points $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ on $\partial T$, let $\widehat{p_{1} p_{2}}$ denote the portion of $\partial T$ from $p_{1}$ clockwise to $p_{2}$.

For a pseudo-triangle $T$, a point $p \in \partial T$ is said to be awake if and only if $p \in \widehat{x_{T} q_{T}}$ (see Fig. (12). We let Awake $[T]$ represent the awake portion $\widehat{x_{T} q_{T}}$ of $\partial T$. Also, we let Asleep $[T]$ represent the portion $\widehat{w_{T} p_{T}}$ of $\partial T$, where the point $w_{T}=q_{T}$ if $q_{T} \in \widehat{y_{T} z_{T}}$ and $w_{T}=y_{T}$ if $q_{T} \notin \widehat{y_{T} z_{T}}$. Note that our definition of $A s l e e p[T]$ is different from that in [38, 39], in which Asleep $[T]$ represents $\widehat{w_{T} z_{T}}$.


Figure 12: Left: $R=\operatorname{Rtri}(b)$ and $b=b_{R}$; the awake points are those on $\widehat{x_{R} q_{R}}$; to flip $b$, the walk on $\partial R$ starts from $q_{R}^{\prime}$ for Case 1 and from $x_{R}$ for Cases 2 and 3. Right: $L=L t r i(b)$ and $b=b_{L}$; the awake points are those on $\widehat{x_{L} q_{L}}$; to flip $b$, the walk on $\partial L$ starts from $q_{L}^{\prime}$ for Case 1 and from $x_{L}$ for Cases 2 and 3 .

Comparing with the algorithm in [38, 39, our modification on defining Asleep[ $T$ ] seems necessary for obtaining the optimal algorithm, and without the modification, it is not clear to us whether the algorithmic scheme in [38, 39] can be generalized to attain our optimal time bound.

To perform a flip on $b$, we use Awake $[T]$ to find $\varphi(b)$ and use $A$ sleep $[T]$ to help update $A w a k e[T]$. After every flip, Awake $[T]$ and Asleep $[T]$ are updated accordingly. Both Awake $[T]$ and Asleep $[T]$ are stored as splittable queues, which support three types of operations on a list: (1) enqueue an atom, either at the head or the tail of the list; (2) dequeue the head or the tail of the list; (3) split the list at an atom $x$, which is preceded by a search for $x$ in the list. An atom can be a bitangent or an elementary curve. Further, an elementary curve may be divided into multiple pieces by the endpoints of some free bitangents in a good pseudo-triangulation, in which case an atom may be only a portion of an elementary curve. In any case, the complexity of each atom is $O(1)$. A data structure for splittable queues was given in [38, 39, whose performance is shown below.

Lemma 4 [38, 39] A sequence of $O(n+k)$ enqueue, dequeue, and split operations on a collection of $n$ initially empty splittable queues can be performed in $O(n+k)$ time.

For a pseudo-triangle $T$, a portion of $\partial T$ is called an obstacle arc if that portion lies entirely on the boundary of a certain obstacle.

Initially, we compute $A$ wake $[T]$ and $A$ sleep $[T]$ for each pseudo-triangle $T$ in $\mathcal{T}_{0}$, using $O(n)$ enqueue operations. Consider a flip on a minimal bitangent $b$ in the current good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}$. Let $R=\operatorname{Rtri}(b)$ and $L=\operatorname{Ltri}(b)$. Let $b^{*}=\varphi(b), p^{*}=\operatorname{Tail}\left(b^{*}\right)$, and $q^{*}=\operatorname{Head}\left(b^{*}\right)$. Let $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ be the resulting pseudo-triangulation after the flip. Let $R^{\prime}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b^{*}\right)$ and $L^{\prime}=\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b^{*}\right)$. To maintain the minimal bitangents in $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$, we need to find the bitangent with the smallest $u_{0}$-slope in $B(\partial T)$ (i.e., $b_{T}$ ), for each $T \in\left\{R^{\prime}, L^{\prime}\right\}$. Below, we only discuss the case for $R^{\prime}$ (the case for $L^{\prime}$ is similar).

Let $b_{R}^{\prime}$ be the next bitangent of $b$ in $B(\partial R)$ clockwise along $\partial R$. Notice that $b_{R}^{\prime}$ is the bitangent in $B(\partial R) \backslash\{b\}$ with the minimum $u_{0}$-slope. Let $\Gamma_{R}$ be the portion of $\partial R$ from $H e a d(b)$ clockwise to the first encountered point of $b_{R}^{\prime}$. Clearly, $\Gamma_{R}$ is an obstacle arc, and $b_{R^{\prime}}$ is one of the two bitangents $b_{R}^{\prime}$ and $b^{*}$ (the one with a smaller $u_{0}$-slope). As in [38, 39, there are three main cases (see Fig. (13).

Case 1: $b$ and $b_{R}^{\prime}$ are not separated by the cusp $x_{R}$ of $R$ (i.e., $\Gamma_{R}$ does not contain $x_{R}$ ). Then $R^{\prime}\left(=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b^{*}\right)\right)$ is also $\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ and $p^{*}$ does not lie on $\Gamma_{R}$. Thus, $b_{R^{\prime}}$ is $b_{R}^{\prime}$.

Case 2: $b$ and $b_{R}^{\prime}$ are separated by $x_{R}$ and $p^{*}$ does not lie on $\Gamma_{R}$. Then $b_{R^{\prime}}$ is $b_{R}^{\prime}$. In this case, $x_{R}$ is either $\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ (see Fig. [13) or $\operatorname{Head}(b)$. As in [38, 39] and shown later, $R^{\prime}$ is also $\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$.

Case 3: $b$ and $b_{R}^{\prime}$ are separated by $x_{R}$ and $p^{*}$ lies on $\Gamma_{R}$. Then, $b_{R^{\prime}}$ is $b^{*}$ (e.g., see Fig. 13).
In the following, we divide the processing of a flip on $b$ into two phases as in [38, 39]: Phase I finds $b^{*}$; Phase II updates Awake and Asleep accordingly (i.e., computing Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$, Awake $\left[L^{\prime}\right]$, Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$, and Asleep $\left[L^{\prime}\right]$ ). We only discuss the case for $R^{\prime}$ (the case for $L^{\prime}$ is similar).


Figure 13: The three possible cases when flipping $b ; b^{*}=\varphi(b)$ and $b_{R}^{\prime}$ is the next bitangent of $b$ along $\partial R$ clockwise.

### 5.4 Phase I of a Flip Operation

Let $q_{R}^{\prime}$ be the point on $\partial R$ whose forward $R$-view is $\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ (see Fig. [12); similarly, let $q_{L}^{\prime}$ be the point on $\partial L$ whose backward $L$-view is $\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{L}^{\prime}\right)$ (similar to $b_{R}^{\prime}, b_{L}^{\prime}$ is the next bitangent of $b$ in $B(\partial L)$ clockwise along $\partial L)$. To compute $b^{*}=\varphi(b)$, Cases 2 and 3 are handled in the same way while Case 1 is different. For now, we assume that we already know whether it is Case 1 , and further, when Case 1 occurs, we know $b_{R}^{\prime}$. We will show later how to detect the cases and find $b_{R}^{\prime}$ for Case 1. An easy but useful observation is that $p^{*}=\operatorname{Tail}\left(b^{*}\right)$ must be on $\widehat{x_{R} q_{R}}(=$ Awake $[R])$, and in Case $1, p^{*}$ is even on $\widehat{q_{R}^{\prime} q_{R}}$. Similarly, $q^{*}=\operatorname{Head}\left(b^{*}\right)$ lies on $\widehat{x_{L} q_{L}}(=A w a k e[L])$, and even on $\widehat{q_{L}^{\prime} q_{L}}$ in Case 1. To compute $b^{*}$, we walk clockwise along $\partial R$ and $\partial L$ synchronously, as follows. In Cases 2 and 3, the walk on $\partial R$ starts at $x_{R}$; in Case 1, we first split Awake $[R]$ at $q_{R}^{\prime}$ and then start walking from $q_{R}^{\prime}$. The split operation on Awake $[R]$ at $q_{R}^{\prime}$ in Case 1 is preceded by a search for $q_{R}^{\prime}$ in Awake[R], which is guided by the position of $\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ with respect to the directed tangent lines of $R$ at the endpoints of the atoms in $A w a k e[R]$. Similar things are done on $\partial L$.

We perform the following three main steps for computing the endpoints $p^{*}$ and $q^{*}$ of $b^{*}$.
Step (1): For Case 1, we split Awake $[R]\left(=\widehat{x_{R} q_{R}}\right)$ at $q_{R}^{\prime}$ into AwakeMin $[R]$ and AwakeMax $[R]$ such that the atoms in the former queue have the smaller pt-slopes; for Cases 2 and 3, we simply let AwakeMin $[R]=\emptyset$ and AwakeMax $[R]=\operatorname{Awake}[R]$. Thus, in any case, $p^{*}$ always lies on an atom in AwakeMax $[R]$. We compute AwakeMax $[L]$ and AwakeMin $[L]$ similarly.

Step (2): Compute $b^{*}$. To do so, the synchronous walks on $\partial R$ and $\partial L$ can be implemented by dequeuing atoms from AwakeMax $[R]$ and AwakeMax[L], until $p^{*}$ and $q^{*}$ are found.

Step (3): Note that the atom at one end of AwakeMax[R] now contains $p^{*}$. We cut that atom at $p^{*}$ by setting $p^{*}$ as an endpoint such that AwakeMax $[R]$ now represents the portion $\widehat{p^{*} q_{R}}$. We do similar things for AwakeMax $[L]$ and $q^{*}$ (AwakeMax $[L]$ thus represents the portion $\widehat{q^{*} q_{L}}$ ).

These steps can be done at the cost of at most two split operations (at Awake $[R]$ and Awake $[L]$ ), followed by multiple successive dequeue operations, but no enqueue operation is needed at all.

To determine whether Case 1 occurs and find $b_{R}^{\prime}$ in Case 1, we use the following preparing procedure. We walk from $\operatorname{Head}(b)$ along $\partial R$ clockwise until first encountering either $b_{R}^{\prime}$ or $x_{R}$. If we encounter $b_{R}^{\prime}$ first, then it is Case 1 and we have $b_{R}^{\prime}$ as well. Otherwise, it is Case 2 or Case 3. In addition, once $b^{*}$ is computed, whether it is Case 2 or Case 3 can be immediately determined.

This finishes the description of Phase I.

### 5.5 Phase II of a Flip Operation

In Phase II, our task is to compute Awake $[T]$ and Asleep $[T]$ for each $T \in\left\{R^{\prime}, L^{\prime}\right\}$. Specifically, after Phase II, Awake $[T]$ should represent $\widehat{x_{T} q_{T}}$ of $\partial T$ and Asleep $[T]$ should represent $\widehat{w_{T} p_{T}}$ of $\partial T$, where $w_{T}=q_{T}$ if $q_{T} \in \widehat{y_{T} z_{T}}$ and $w_{T}=y_{T}$ otherwise. Note that since our definition of Asleep is
different from that for the PV algorithm [38, 39, our algorithmic procedures in Phase II also differ from those in the PV algorithm.

Recall that after Phase I, AwakeMax[R] (resp., AwakeMax[L]) represents $\widehat{p^{*} q_{R}}$ (resp., $\widehat{q^{*} q_{L}}$ ) in all three cases. In Case 1, AwakeMin $[R]$ (resp., AwakeMin $[L]$ ) represents $\widehat{x_{R} q_{R}^{\prime}}$ (resp., $\widehat{x_{L} q_{L}^{\prime}}$ ), and in Cases 2 and 3, AwakeMin $[R]=$ AwakeMin $[L]=\emptyset$. Recall that $p^{*} \in \widehat{x_{R} q_{R}}$ and $q^{*} \in \widehat{x_{L} q_{L}}$.

We only show how to compute Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ and Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. The case for $L^{\prime}$ can be handled similarly. We discuss for Cases 1,2 , and 3 individually. No split operation is needed in Phase II. Note that after computing $b^{*}=\varphi(b)$ in Phase I, as in the PV algorithm, the six new cusps, i.e., $x_{T}, y_{T}$, and $z_{T}$ for $T \in\left\{R^{\prime}, L^{\prime}\right\}$, can be determined in $O(1)$ time. Hence, we assume all of them are already known.

Recall that a splittable queue, e.g., Awake $[T]$ for a pseudo-triangle $T$, represents a list of consecutive atoms on $\partial T$. We define the head and tail of the queue such that if moving from the head to the tail along the list, it is clockwise on $\partial T$. Note that the splittable queue allows to enqueue an atom at either the head or the tail of the queue. Recall that $p_{T}$ is the basepoint of $T$. For two points $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ on $\partial T$, if $p_{1} \in \widehat{p_{T p_{2}}}$, we say $p_{1}$ is before $p_{2}$; otherwise, $p_{1}$ is after $p_{2}$ (when $p_{1}=p_{2}, p_{1}$ is both before and after $p_{2}$ ). In the following discussion, when a point $p$ is on both $\partial R^{\prime}$ and $\partial L$ (resp., $\partial R$ ), we sometimes do not differentiate whether $p$ is on $\partial R^{\prime}$ or $\partial L$ (resp., $\partial R$ ).

```
Algorithm 1: Construction of Awake and Asleep of \(R^{\prime}\) for Case 1
    Output: Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}\) and Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}\)
    1 Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] \leftarrow\) AwakeMin \([R] ; / *\) done for Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] \quad\) */
    2 Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] \leftarrow\) AwakeMax \([L]\);
    3 Enqueue \(\widehat{z_{L} p_{R^{\prime}}}\) to the tail of Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] ; / *\) charge the enqueue to \(Q\) */
4 Enqueue \(b^{*}\) to the head of Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] ; / *\) charge the enqueue to \(\mathcal{B}\) */
5 if \(y_{R^{\prime}}=p^{*}\) then
6 Do nothing ;
    else/* \(y_{R^{\prime}}=y_{R} \quad\) */
8 Starting at \(p^{*}\), enqueue atoms along \(\partial R^{\prime}\) counterclockwise to the head of Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]\) until
        either \(q_{R}^{\prime}\) or \(y_{R}\) is encountered ; /* charge the enqueue to \(D\) */
    9 end
```


### 5.5.1 Case 1

In Case 1, recall that $b_{R^{\prime}}=b_{R}^{\prime}, R^{\prime}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right), p_{R^{\prime}}=\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$, and $q_{R^{\prime}}=q_{R}^{\prime}$. Note that $x_{R^{\prime}}=x_{R}$, $y_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{R}$ or $p^{*}$, and $z_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{L}$ or $q^{*}$. The pseudocode is in Algorithm (Note that every "enqueue" in the pseudocode is commented by "charge the enqueue to ...". The comments are used for analysis in Section 6.3 and can be ignored at the moment.) The details are discussed below.

The goal of computing Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ is to let it represent $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. Since in Case 1, AwakeMin $[R]=$ $\widehat{x_{R} q_{R}^{\prime}}$, and $x_{R^{\prime}}=x_{R}$ and $q_{R^{\prime}}=q_{R}^{\prime}$, by setting Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]=$ AwakeMin $[R]$, we are done.

The goal of computing Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ is to let it represent $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}$. Note that in Case 1, AwakeMax[L] $=\widehat{q^{*} z_{L}}$ (since $\left.q_{L}=z_{L}\right)$ and $p^{*} \in \widehat{q_{R}^{\prime} q_{R}}$. Thus $p^{*}$ is after $q_{R}^{\prime}\left(=q_{R^{\prime}}\right)$. Regardless of whether $y_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{R}$ or $p^{*}, p^{*}$ is after $y_{R^{\prime}}$. Thus, $p^{*}$ is after $w_{R^{\prime}}$, which is either $q_{R^{\prime}}$ or $y_{R^{\prime}}$. Since $z_{L}$ is $\operatorname{Head}(b)$, $z_{L} \in \widehat{z_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}$ holds. Hence, $b^{*}$ is asleep on $\partial R^{\prime}$, and $\widehat{q^{*} z_{L}}$, which is stored in AwakeMax[L], is part of $\operatorname{Asleep}\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. Thus, we first set Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]=$ AwakeMax $[L]$. Since $p_{R^{\prime}}=\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$, we enqueue
$\widehat{z_{L} p_{R^{\prime}}}$ to the tail of Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. Now Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ represents $\widehat{q^{*} p_{R^{\prime}}}$. Since $b^{*}$ is asleep, we enqueue $b^{*}$ to the head of Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. Now Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ represents $\widehat{p^{*} p_{R^{\prime}}}$. Note that $y_{R^{\prime}}$ is $p^{*}$ or $y_{R}$.

- If $y_{R^{\prime}}=p^{*}$, then since $p^{*}$ is after $q_{R}^{\prime}=q_{R^{\prime}}, w_{R^{\prime}}=y_{R^{\prime}}=p^{*}$. Thus we are done with computing Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$.
- If $y_{R^{\prime}}=y_{R}$, then starting at $p^{*}$, we enqueue atoms along $\partial R^{\prime}$ counterclockwise to the head of Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ until we first encounter $q_{R}^{\prime}$ or $y_{R}$. Note that the first point of $q_{R}^{\prime}\left(=q_{R^{\prime}}\right)$ or $y_{R}$ ( $=y_{R^{\prime}}$ ) thus encountered is $w_{R^{\prime}}$.

This completes the construction of Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$.

```
Algorithm 2: Construction of Awake and Asleep of \(R^{\prime}\) for Case 2.1
    Output: Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}\) and Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}\)
    Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] \leftarrow \emptyset ; / *\) done for Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] \quad\) */
    2 Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] \leftarrow\) AwakeMax \([L]\);
    3 Enqueue \(\widehat{z_{L} x_{R}}\) of \(\partial R\) to the tail of Awake[ \(\left.R^{\prime}\right] ; / *\) charge the enqueue to \(Q \quad * /\)
    4 Enqueue \(b^{*}\) to the head of \(A w a k e\left[R^{\prime}\right] ; / *\) charge the enqueue to \(\mathcal{B} \quad * /\)
    if \(x_{R^{\prime}}=p^{*}\) then
        Do nothing ;
    else/* \(x_{R^{\prime}}=y_{R} \quad\) */
        Enqueue \(\widehat{y_{R} p^{*}}\) to the head of Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] ; / *\) charge enqueue to \(D \quad * /\)
    end
```


### 5.5.2 Case 2

In Case 2, recall that $b_{R^{\prime}}=b_{R}^{\prime}$ and $R^{\prime}=\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$. Note that $x_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{R}$ or $p^{*}, y_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{L}$ or $q^{*}$, and $z_{R^{\prime}}$ is $z_{L}$ or $x_{R}$. Depending on whether $x_{R}$ is $\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ or $\operatorname{Head}(b)$, there are two subcases. Case 2.1: $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ (see Fig. (13) and Case 2.2: $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}(b)$ (see Fig. 14). In Case 2.1, $z_{R^{\prime}}=x_{R}$ and in Case 2.2, $z_{R^{\prime}}=z_{L}$.

Case 2.1: $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ (see Fig. 13). In this subcase, $\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)=p_{R^{\prime}}=q_{R^{\prime}}=x_{R}=z_{R^{\prime}}$. The pseudocode is in Algorithm 2, The details are discussed below.

The goal of computing Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ is to let it represent $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. Recall that AwakeMax[L] represents $\widehat{q^{*} z_{L}}$ on $\partial L$. Regardless of whether $x_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{R}$ or $p^{*}$, both $b$ and the portion $\widehat{q^{*} z_{L}}$ are awake on $\partial R^{\prime}$, i.e., part of $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. Thus, we first set Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]=$ AwakeMax $[L]$ and then enqueue $\widehat{z_{L} x_{R}}$ of $\partial R$ to the tail of Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. We also enqueue $b^{*}$ to the head of Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. Now Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ represents $\widehat{p^{*} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. Recall that $x_{R^{\prime}}$ is either $y_{R}$ or $p^{*}$. If $x_{R^{\prime}}$ is $p^{*}$, then we are done with computing Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. Otherwise $\left(x_{R^{\prime}}=y_{R}\right)$, we enqueue $\widehat{y_{R} p^{*}}$ to the head of Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$.

This completes the construction of Awake[ $\left.R^{\prime}\right]$ for Case 2.1.
Now we compute Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ which represents $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}$. Due to $q_{R^{\prime}}=p_{R^{\prime}}=z_{R^{\prime}}, w_{R^{\prime}}$ is $q_{R^{\prime}}$. Hence $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}$ is only a point, which is not essential to our algorithm. We simply set Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\emptyset$.

This completes the construction of Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ for Case 2.1.
Case 2.2: $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}(b)$ (see Fig. (14). Recall that $z_{R^{\prime}}=z_{L}$. The pseudocode is in Algorithm 3. The details are discussed below.

We first compute $A w a k e\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ which represents $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. Clearly, $x_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $q_{R^{\prime}}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$. Since we know $b^{*}$ and the basepoint $p_{R^{\prime}}$ of $R^{\prime}$, by checking the position of $p_{R^{\prime}}$ with respect to the line

```
Algorithm 3: Construction of Awake and Asleep of \(R^{\prime}\) for Case 2.2
    Output: Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}\) and Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}\)
    Determine whether \(q_{R^{\prime}} \in \widehat{p_{R^{\prime}} p^{*}}\) or \(p^{*} \in \widehat{p_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}\) on \(\partial R^{\prime}\) by checking the position of \(p_{R^{\prime}}\) with
    respect to the line containing \(b^{*}\);
    if \(q_{R^{\prime}} \in \widehat{p_{R^{\prime}} p^{*}}\) then
        Starting at \(x_{R^{\prime}}\), enqueue the atoms to the tail of Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]\) along \(\partial R^{\prime}\) clockwise until \(q_{R^{\prime}}\)
        is found \(; / *\) charge enqueue to \(D\) */
    else/* \(p^{*} \in \widehat{p_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}} \quad\) */
        Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] \leftarrow\) AwakeMax \([L]\);
        Dequeue atoms from the tail of Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]\) until \(q_{R^{\prime}}\) is found ;
        Enqueue \(b^{*}\) to the head of Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] ; / *\) charge the enqueue to \(\mathcal{B} \quad * /\)
        if \(x_{R^{\prime}}=p^{*}\) then
            Do nothing ;
        else/* \(x_{R^{\prime}}=y_{R}\) */
            Enqueue \(\widehat{y_{R} p^{*}}\) to the head of Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] ; / *\) charge the enqueue to \(D\) */
        end
    end
    /* done with Awake[ \(R^{\prime}\), the following is for Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]\) */
    Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] \leftarrow\) Asleep \([L]\);
    Enqueue \(\widehat{x_{R} p_{R^{\prime}}}\) to the tail of Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] ; / *\) charge the enqueue to \(Q \quad\) */
    if \(w_{L}=y_{L}\) then
        Do nothing ;
    else/* \(w_{L}=q_{L} \quad\) */
        Starting at \(q_{L}\), enqueue atoms along \(\partial R^{\prime}\) counterclockwise to the head of Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]\) until
        either \(q_{R^{\prime}}\) or \(y_{R^{\prime}}\) is found ; /* charge the enqueue to \(S\) */
    end
```

containing $b^{*}$, we can determine whether $q_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $p^{*}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$ in $O(1)$ time. Depending on whether $q_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $p^{*}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$, there are two subcases.

- $q_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $p^{*}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$, i.e., $q_{R^{\prime}} \in \widehat{p_{R^{\prime}} p^{*}}$. Recall that $x_{R^{\prime}}$ is either $y_{R}$ or $p^{*}$ in Case 2 , and $x_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $q_{R^{\prime}}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$. Since $q_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $p^{*}, x_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $p^{*}$, and thus $x_{R^{\prime}}=y_{R}$.
We first set $A w a k e\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\emptyset$, and then starting at $x_{R^{\prime}}$, we enqueue the atoms to the tail of Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ along $\partial R^{\prime}$ clockwise until we find $q_{R^{\prime}}$. Now Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}$.
- $q_{R^{\prime}}$ is after $p^{*}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$, i.e., $p^{*} \in \widehat{p_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. Then clearly, $q^{*} \in \widehat{p_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. As can be easily seen, $q_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $q_{L}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$ (see Fig. (14). Hence $q_{R^{\prime}}$ lies on $\widehat{q^{*} q_{L}}$ of $\partial L$, which is stored in AwakeMax[L].
We set Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]=A w a k e M a x[L]$, and then dequeue atoms from the tail of Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ until we find $q_{R^{\prime}}$. Now Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ represents $\widehat{q^{*} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. We then enqueue $b^{*}$ to the head of Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. Now Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ represents $\widehat{p^{*} q_{R^{\prime}}}$.

Recall that $x_{R^{\prime}}$ is either $y_{R}$ or $p^{*}$. If $x_{R^{\prime}}=p^{*}$, then we are done with constructing Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. Otherwise $\left(x_{R^{\prime}}=y_{R}\right)$, we enqueue $\widehat{y_{R} p^{*}}$ to the head of Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$.

This completes the construction of $A w a k e\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ for Case 2.2.


Figure 14: Illustrating Case 2.2 in Phase II: $x_{R}=$ Head (b).


Figure 15: Illustrating Case 3 in Phase II.

Next, we compute Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ (for Case 2.2), which represents $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}$. Recall that $w_{R^{\prime}}$ is $q_{R^{\prime}}$ or $y_{R^{\prime}}$, and $y_{R^{\prime}}$ is either $q^{*}$ or $y_{L}$. Below, we will show (implicitly) in a constructive manner that $\widehat{w_{L} p_{L}}$, which is stored in Asleep $[L]$, is part of $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}$. The point $w_{L}$ is either $q_{L}$ or $y_{L}$. We need to discuss the relations among the positions of $q^{*}, y_{L}, q_{R^{\prime}}$, and $q_{L}$. Recall $q_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $q_{L}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$ (see Fig. (14) and $q^{*}$ is before $q_{L}$ on $\partial L$.

We first set Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]=$ Asleep $[L]$, which represents $\widehat{w_{L} p_{L}}$ on $\partial L$. Recall that $p_{L}=\operatorname{Head}(b)=$ $x_{R}$ and $p_{R^{\prime}}=\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$. We then enqueue $\widehat{x_{R} p_{R^{\prime}}}$ to the tail of Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. Now Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ represents $\widehat{w_{L} p_{R^{\prime}}}$. Depending on whether $w_{L}$ is $y_{L}$ or $q_{L}$, there are two subcases.

- If $w_{L}=y_{L}$, then $y_{L}$ is after $q_{L}$ on $\partial L$. Since $q^{*}$ is before $q_{L}$ on $\partial L, q^{*}$ is before $y_{L}$ on $\partial L$, implying $y_{R^{\prime}}=y_{L}$. Because $y_{L}$ is after $q_{L}, q_{L}$ is before $y_{R^{\prime}}\left(=y_{L}\right)$. Since $q_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $q_{L}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$ and $q_{L}$ is before $y_{R^{\prime}}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}, q_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $y_{R^{\prime}}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$. Thus, $w_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{R^{\prime}}$, which is $y_{L}$ $\left(=w_{L}\right)$. Therefore, we are done with the construction of $\operatorname{Asleep}\left[R^{\prime}\right]$.
- If $w_{L}=q_{L}$, then $y_{L}$ is before $q_{L}$ on $\partial L$ and thus Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ currently represents $\widehat{q_{L} p_{R^{\prime}}}$. Next, starting at $q_{L}$, we enqueue atoms along $\partial R^{\prime}$ counterclockwise to the head of Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ until we first find $q_{R^{\prime}}$ or encounter $y_{R^{\prime}}$ (regardless of whether $y_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{L}$ or $q^{*}$ ). Note that the first point of $q_{R^{\prime}}$ and $y_{R^{\prime}}$ thus encountered is $w_{R^{\prime}}$. Now Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ represents $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}$ and we are done with the construction of Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$.

This finishes the construction of $A$ sleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ for Case 2.2.
We thus complete the construction of both Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ and $A$ sleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ for Case 2.

```
Algorithm 4: Construction of Awake and Asleep of \(R^{\prime}\) for Case 3
    Output: Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}\) and Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}\)
    1 Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] \leftarrow \emptyset ; / *\) done for Asleep \(\left[R^{\prime}\right]\) */
    2 Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] \leftarrow\) Asleep \([L]\);
    3 Enqueue \(\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}\) to the tail of Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] ; / *\) charge the enqueue to \(Q \quad\) */
    4 Enqueue \(b^{*}\) to the head of Awake \(\left[R^{\prime}\right] ; / *\) charge the enqueue to \(\mathcal{B}\) */
    5 if \(w_{L}=y_{L}\) then
        Do nothing ;
    else/* \(w_{L}=q_{L} \quad\) */
        Enqueue \(\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}\) to the head of \(\operatorname{Awake}\left[R^{\prime}\right] ; / *\) charge enqueue to \(S \quad\) */
    end
```


### 5.5.3 Case 3

In Case 3 (see Fig. (15), $b_{R^{\prime}}=b^{*}, q_{R^{\prime}}=p_{R^{\prime}}=p^{*}$, and $p_{L}=\operatorname{Head}(b)=x_{R}$. Note that $x_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{L}$ or $q^{*}, y_{R^{\prime}}=z_{L}$, and $z_{R^{\prime}}=p^{*}$. The pseudocode is in Algorithm 4. The details are discussed below.

We first compute Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$, which represents $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. Below, we will show (implicitly) in a constructive manner that $\widehat{w_{L} p_{L}}$, which is stored in Asleep $[L]$, is part of $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. We set Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]=$ Asleep $[L]$ and then enqueue $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}\left(=\widehat{p_{L} q_{R^{\prime}}}\right)$ to the tail of Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. Now Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ represents $\widehat{w_{L} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. Recall that $w_{L}$ is either $y_{L}$ or $q_{L}$, and $q_{L}$ is after $q^{*}$ on $\partial L$.

- If $w_{L}=y_{L}$, then $q_{L}$ is before $y_{L}$ on $\partial L$. Thus $y_{L}$ is after $q^{*}$ on $\partial L$ and $x_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{L}\left(=w_{L}\right)$. We are then done with computing Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$.
- If $w_{L}=q_{L}$, then $q_{L}$ is after $y_{L}$ on $\partial L$, i.e., $y_{L} \in \widehat{x_{L} q_{L}}$. If $x_{R^{\prime}}=q^{*}$, then $q^{*}$ is on $\widehat{y_{L} z_{L}}$; otherwise, $x_{R^{\prime}}=y_{L}$. In either case, $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ lies on $\widehat{y_{L} q_{L}}$. We then enqueue $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ to the head of Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$. Now Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ represents $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}$ and we are done with computing Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$.

This completes the construction of Awake $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ for Case 3.
We next compute Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]\left(=\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}\right)$. Recall that $p_{R^{\prime}}=q_{R^{\prime}}=p^{*}=z_{R^{\prime}}$. Thus $w_{R^{\prime}}=q_{R^{\prime}}$, and $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} p_{R^{\prime}}}$ is only a point, which is not essential to our algorithm. We simply set Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]=\emptyset$.

This completes the construction of Asleep $\left[R^{\prime}\right]$ for Case 3.

### 5.6 The Time Complexity of the Topological Flip Algorithm

In this section, we give the outline of the time analysis for our algorithm, with details given in an independent Section 6. A key lemma that we need to prove is the following.

Lemma 5 The total number of enqueue operations in Phase II of the entire algorithm is $O(n+k)$.
Recall that the initialization procedure performs $O(n)$ enqueue operations and no enqueue occurs in Phase I at all. By Lemma [5, the total number of enqueues in the entire algorithm is $O(n+k)$. Thus, the total number of dequeues in the entire algorithm is also $O(n+k)$ since it cannot be bigger than the total number of enqueues. Further, at most two splits are needed for each flip in Phase I, and no split is used in Phase II, implying that the total number of splits in the algorithm is $O(k)$. Thus, there are totally $O(n+k)$ operations on the splittable queues in the entire algorithm. By Lemma 4 the total time for performing all $k$ flip operations is $O(n+k)$.

In addition, as shown by Lemma 9 (given in Section 6.1), the total time of the preparing procedure (used only in Phase I) over the entire algorithm is $O(n+k)$.

We conclude that all $k$ flips can be performed in $O(n+k)$ time. Therefore, the overall running time for computing all free bitangents in $\mathcal{B}$ is $O(n+h \log h+k)$. At any moment of the algorithm, the space needed is for storing the current good pseudo-triangulation and all splittable queues, which is $O(n)$. If we incorporate the needed graph information into the above algorithm, then the relevant visibility graph $G$ can be built in the same amount of time.

It remains to prove the key lemma (Lemma [5), which is quite challenging.
As in the PV algorithm [38, 39], only a constant number of enqueue sequences are involved in Phase II for each flip and each enqueue sequence is on either a free bitangent or a boundary portion of one single obstacle (see Phase II for more details of this). For the PV algorithm, since every obstacle is of $O(1)$ complexity, each enqueue sequence can be implemented as $O(1)$ enqueue operations. Consequently, Lemma 5 easily follows in [38, 39]. For our problem, however, since the
complexity of an obstacle can be $\Omega(n)$, each enqueue sequence may take as many as $\Omega(n)$ enqueue operations. Thus, the simple proof for the PV algorithm does not appear to work for our problem. To prove the key lemma, we instead conduct the analysis in a global fashion, as follows.

As one of our key proof ideas, we introduce a new concept "reverse", which was not used in the previous analysis [38, 39]. Consider a flip on a free bitangent $b$ in Phase I (everything here, such as $b^{*}, b_{R}^{\prime}, R, L, \Gamma_{R}$, etc., is defined in the same way as in Sections 5.3 and 5.4). Let $p$ be a point on $\partial T$ of a pseudo-triangle $T$ in the current good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}$ before the flip such that $p$ lies on an obstacle $P$. Let $l_{1}(p)$ be the directed tangent line of $T$ at $p$. Suppose after the flip of $b, p$ lies on $\partial T^{\prime}$ of a new pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}(\neq T)$; let $l_{2}(p)$ be the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $p$. By the definition of tangent lines of a pseudo-triangle, both $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$ are tangent to the obstacle $P$ at $p$. Since by our assumption, the boundary of each obstacle is smooth, $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$ lie on the same undirected line. But, it is possible that $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$ have opposite directions (e.g., if $p$ is on $\Gamma_{R} \backslash\left\{\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)\right\}$ in Case 1; see Fig. 13 and recall that $\Gamma_{R}$ refers to the portion of $\partial R$ from Head (b) clockwise to the first encountered point of $b_{R}^{\prime}$.). When this occurs, we say that the point $p$ is reversed due to the flip of $b$. Note that $p$ can be reversed only if the pseudo-triangle $T$ is either $R$ or $L$.

For example, in Case 1 (resp., Case 2), all points on $\Gamma_{R}$ except the endpoint $\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ (resp., $\left.\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ are reversed (see Fig. 13). In Case 3, all points on $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}} \backslash\left\{p^{*}\right\}$ (here, $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}(b)$ ) are reversed (note $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}$ is part of $\Gamma_{R}$ ). Of course, the algorithm does not do the "reversal" explicitly.

For any atom, if it is (part of) an elementary curve, then we say that it is reversed if all its interior points are reversed; if it is a bitangent $t$, then it is reversed if the direction of $t$ is reversed.

Our overall proof strategy is to associate the enqueue operations in Phase II of the entire algorithm with different "classes" of operations and prove a bound for each such class. For this, we denote by $n_{E}$ the number of enqueue operations in Phase II of the entire algorithm, by $n_{Q}$ the number of all reversed atoms in the entire algorithm, by $n_{D}$ the number of dequeue operations in Phase I of the entire algorithm, and by $n_{S}$ the number of certain special enqueue operations in Phase II of the entire algorithm (which are defined in Section 6.3). Recall that $k=|\mathcal{B}|$.

Then, to prove Lemma 5 is to show $n_{E}=O(n+k)$. To this end, we prove that $n_{E} \leq$ $n_{Q}+n_{D}+n_{S}+k$ and $n_{Q}=O(n+k), n_{D}=O(n+k)$, and $n_{S}=O(n+k)$.

The detailed proof is given in Section 6, which is organized as follows. In Section 6.1, we prove $n_{Q}=O(n+k)$. To this end, we prove that any point on any obstacle boundary can be reversed at most once in the entire algorithm. We show (in Observation (2) that the total number of all atoms involved in the algorithm is $O(n+k)$. We also show (in Lemma 9) in Section 6.1 that the total running time of the preparing procedure in Phase I of the entire algorithm is $O(n+k)$. In Section 6.2, we prove $n_{D}=O(n+k)$. To this end, we prove that every atom can be dequeued at most $O(1)$ times in Phase I of the entire algorithm. In Section 6.3, we prove $n_{E} \leq n_{Q}+n_{D}+n_{S}+k$ and $n_{S}=O(n+k)$. We show that for any enqueue operation in Phase II, say, on an atom $A, A$ must belong to one of the following cases: a reversed atom, an atom dequeued in Phase I, the current enqueue on $A$ being a special enqueue operation, or a free bitangent in $\mathcal{B}$.

The proof in Section 6, which uses many new observations and analysis ideas, is long and technically difficult and complicated. Nevertheless, it does provide lots of insights into the problem and explores many essential properties, which may help deal with other related problems as well.

## 6 The Proof of Lemma 5

This section is devoted to proving the key lemma (Lemma 5).

Recall that to prove Lemma 5 is to show $n_{E}=O(n+k)$. To this end, our strategy is to prove that $n_{E} \leq n_{Q}+n_{D}+n_{S}+k$ and $n_{Q}=O(n+k), n_{D}=O(n+k)$, and $n_{S}=O(n+k)$.

Note that the above goals that we want to prove do not appear to be obtained easily from the results in [38, 39] although many properties in the PV algorithm [38, 39] on the obstacle set $\mathcal{O}$ hold in our problem on the splinegon set $\mathcal{P}$. As a simple example, in the PV algorithm, since each obstacle in $\mathcal{O}$ is of constant complexity, each enqueue sequence only needs $O(1)$ enqueue operations, and thus $n_{E}=O(n+k)$ simply follows as there are $O(k)$ enqueue sequences in the entire algorithm. By contrast, in our problem since a splinegon may be of $\Omega(n)$ complexity, an enqueue sequence may need $\Omega(n)$ enqueue operations, and thus if we use similar analysis to the PV algorithm, we would only obtain $n_{E}=O(n k)$ as there are $O(k)$ enqueue sequences. As another example, in the PV algorithm on $\mathcal{O}$, each enqueue sequence involves a portion of the boundary of an obstacle, which can be treated as a single atom since each obstacle in $\mathcal{O}$ is of constant complexity. Thus, it does not matter if a boundary portion of an obstacle is involved in multiple enqueue sequences since there are totally $O(k)$ enqueue sequences. In our problem, however, it does matter if a boundary portion of an obstacle is involved in multiple enqueue sequences because that boundary portion may contain many atoms (e.g., elementary curves), potentially causing the number of enqueue operations (i.e., $n_{E}$ ) not bounded by $O(n+k)$. Hence, to show $n_{E}=O(n+k)$ we have to give more careful argument that requires exploring more observations on the problem.

The rest of this section is organized as follows. In Section 6.1, we prove $n_{Q}=O(n+k)$. In Section 6.2, we prove $n_{D}=O(n+k)$. In Section 6.3, we show $n_{E} \leq n_{Q}+n_{D}+n_{S}+k$ and $n_{S}=O(n+k)$. In addition, we show in Section 6.1 that the total running time of the preparing procedure in Phase I over the entire algorithm is $O\left(n_{Q}\right)$, which is $O(n+k)$.

### 6.1 Bounding the Number of Reversed Atoms (i.e., $\left.n_{Q}=O(n+k)\right)$

Consider a flip operation on a free bitangent $b$ in Phase I. Everything here is defined in the same way as in Sections 5.3 and 5.4, e.g., $b^{*}, b_{R}^{\prime}, R, L, R^{\prime}, L^{\prime}, \Gamma_{R}$, etc.

Recall that $\Gamma_{R}$ is the portion of $\partial R$ from $\operatorname{Head}(b)$ clockwise to the first encountered point of $b_{R}^{\prime}$. In Case 1 (resp., Case 2), all points on $\Gamma_{R}$ except the endpoint $\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ (resp., $\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ ) are reversed (see Fig. (13). In Case 3, all points on $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}} \backslash\left\{p^{*}\right\}$ (here, $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}(b)$ ) are reversed (note that $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}$ is part of $\Gamma_{R}$ ). Observe that $\Gamma_{R}$ is an obstacle arc. The following observation is self-evident.

Observation 1 After the flip of b, let $\alpha$ be the reversed portion on $\partial T$, with $T \in\{R, L\}$. Let $T^{\prime}$ be $R^{\prime}$ (resp., $L^{\prime}$ ) if a lies on $\partial R^{\prime}$ (resp., $\partial L^{\prime}$ ). Then the following properties hold.

1. $\alpha$ is an obstacle arc. One (resp., the other) endpoint of $\alpha$ is an endpoint of $b$ (resp., $b_{T^{\prime}}$ ).
2. Let $\alpha_{b}$ (resp., $\alpha_{b_{T^{\prime}}}$ ) be the endpoint of $b$ (resp., $b_{T^{\prime}}$ ) on $\alpha$. From $\alpha_{b}$ to $\alpha_{b_{T^{\prime}}}$ along $\alpha$, it is counterclockwise with respect to the obstacle on which $\alpha$ lies. We call $\alpha_{b}$ the obstacle-ccw-start endpoint of $\alpha$.
3. Every point on $\alpha$ except the endpoint $\alpha_{b_{T^{\prime}}}$ is reversed due to the flip of b. For any point $p \in \alpha \backslash\left\{\alpha_{b_{T^{\prime}}}\right\}, \alpha$ is called the hosting arc of $p$.

Note that only points on $\partial R$ or $\partial L$ can be reversed due to the flip of $b$. An important property of the reversed portions after every flip is given in the lemma below.

Lemma 6 After a flip operation on b, suppose $\alpha$ is the reversed portion on $\partial T$ of a pseudo-triangle $T, T \in\{R, L\}$. Then no interior point of $\alpha$ can be an endpoint of any bitangent in $\mathcal{B}$.

Proof: First, by Lemma 3, the direction of any free bitangent $t \in \mathcal{B}$ can be reversed only by a flip operation on $t$. Thus, after the flip of $b$, the direction of $b$ is reversed, whereas the direction of any other free bitangent in $\mathcal{B}$ does not change. By Observation [ $\alpha$ is an obstacle arc, say, on an obstacle $P$.

Assume to the contrary that there is an interior point $q$ of $\alpha$ that is an endpoint of a free bitangent $t \in \mathcal{B}$. Note that $t \neq b$ since an endpoint of $b$ is an endpoint of $\alpha$ by Observation (1) By the definition of good pseudo-triangulation, the direction of $t$ is compatible with its endpoint $q$ before the flip of $b$. Recall that the direction of $t$ is compatible with its endpoint $q$ if the directed tangent line of $T$ at $q$, denoted by $l_{1}(q)$, has the same direction as $t$.

Suppose $\alpha$ lies on a pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}$ right after the flip of $b$. Let $l_{2}(q)$ be $l_{1}(q)$ but with the reversed direction. Then both $l_{1}(q)$ and $l_{2}(q)$ are tangent to the obstacle $P$ at $q$. Since $q$ is reversed due to the flip of $b, l_{2}(q)$ is the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $q$ right after the flip of $b$. As a free bitangent, $t$ 's direction does not change after the flip of $b(\neq t)$, the direction of $l_{2}(q)$ is opposite to that of $t$, making $t$ not compatible with its endpoint $q$ after the flip of $b$. But this contradicts with the definition of good pseudo-triangulation. Thus $q$ cannot be an endpoint of any free bitangent in $\mathcal{B}$, and the lemma follows.

The next lemma is critical.
Lemma 7 During the topological flip algorithm, any point on the boundary of any obstacle in $\mathcal{P}$ can be reversed at most once.

Proof: By Lemma 3, the direction of any free bitangent $t \in \mathcal{B}$ can be reversed only by a flip operation on $t$. Since the algorithm does not flip any bitangent more than once, the direction of each free bitangent is reversed only once throughout the algorithm.

Consider a flip of a free bitangent $b$ of a good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}$. Suppose a point $a$ on $\partial T$ of a pseudo-triangle $T$ is reversed for the first time due to the flip of $b$. Below we prove that $a$ cannot be reversed again. We only discuss the case when $a$ lies on $\partial R$ (the case on $\partial L$ is similar).

Let $p=\operatorname{Head}(b)$; let $q=\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ in Case 1, $q=\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ in Case 2, and $q=\operatorname{Tail}\left(b^{*}\right)$ in Case 3, respectively (see Fig. (13). Due to the flip of $b$, in each case, the reversed portion is $\widehat{p q} \backslash\{q\}$. Also, the direction of $b$ is reversed. By Observation 1 $\widehat{p q}$ is an obstacle arc, say, on obstacle $P$. Assume to the contrary that later a point $a \in \widehat{p q} \backslash\{q\}$ is reversed for the second time. Note that $a$ cannot be $p$ since otherwise $b$ would not be compatible with $p$ unless $b$ is reversed twice.

At the second reversal of $a$, let $\widehat{p^{\prime} q^{\prime}}$ be the hosting arc of $a$ with $p^{\prime}$ being the obstacle-ccw-start endpoint (see Fig. 16). By Observation 1, $\widehat{p^{\prime} q^{\prime}}$ is an obstacle arc, say, on obstacle $P^{\prime}$. Since the point $a$ is on both $\widehat{p q} \in P$ and $\widehat{p^{\prime} q^{\prime}} \in P^{\prime}, a$ lies on both $P$ and $P^{\prime}$. Therefore, $P=P^{\prime}$ since our obstacles in $\mathcal{P}$ are pairwise disjoint. Also by Observation 1, both $p^{\prime}$ and $q^{\prime}$ are endpoints of some free bitangents in $\mathcal{B}$.

Since $p^{\prime}$ is the obstacle-ccw-start endpoint of $\widehat{p^{\prime} q^{\prime}}$, by Observation 1 , when moving from $p^{\prime}$ to $q^{\prime}$ on $\widehat{p^{\prime} q^{\prime}}$, it is counterclockwise with respect to $P$. Similarly, when moving from $p$ to $q$ on $\widehat{p q}$, it is counterclockwise with respect to $P$. Since $a$ is on both $\widehat{p q}$ and $\widehat{p^{\prime} q^{\prime}}$, there are three possible cases: (i) $p$ is an interior point of $\widehat{p^{\prime} q^{\prime}}$, (ii) $p^{\prime}$ is an interior point of $\widehat{p q}$, and (iii) $p=p^{\prime}$. We argue below that any case can not occur. Consequently, the point $a$ cannot be reversed again.

As the point $p$ is an endpoint of $b$, by Lemma6, $p$ cannot be an interior point of $\widehat{p^{\prime} q^{\prime}}$. Similarly, $p^{\prime}$ cannot be an interior point of $\widehat{p q}$. For case (iii), since the point $p^{\prime}$ is the obstacle-ccw-start


Figure 16: Illustrating the proof of Lemma 7
endpoint of $\widehat{p^{\prime} q^{\prime}}, p^{\prime}$ is reversed. If case (iii) occurs, $p^{\prime}(=p)$ is the endpoint of $b$, and thus the direction of $b$ has to be reversed again since otherwise $b$ would not be compatible with the reversed $p^{\prime}$. But this contradicts with the fact that $b$ cannot be flipped twice in the algorithm.

The lemma thus follows.
The following lemma bounds the number of all different atoms involved in the algorithm.
Observation 2 The total number of different atoms involved in the algorithm is $O(n+k)$.
Proof: In our problem, an atom is of one of the following three types: (1) A free bitangent, (2) an elementary curve, and (3) a portion of an elementary curve. It is easy to see that the number of type (1) atoms is $O(k)$ and the number of type (2) atoms is $O(n)$. To prove this observation, it suffices to show that the number of type (3) atoms is $O(n+k)$.

After initialization, in the initial good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}_{0}$, there are $O(n)$ type (3) atoms. Subsequently in the algorithm, each new type (3) atom is produced only due to a flip operation. Note that after every flip operation, at most $O(1)$ new type (3) atoms can be produced. Since there are $k$ flips, plus those in $\mathcal{T}_{0}$, the number of type (3) atoms is bounded by $O(n+k)$.

We then have the following result.
Lemma 8 The number of reversed atoms in the entire algorithm (i.e., $n_{Q}$ ) is $O(n+k)$.
Proof: By Lemma 7, each atom can be reversed at most once. Consequently, Observation 2 leads to the lemma.

Lemma 9 The overall running time of the preparing procedure in Phase I of the entire algorithm is $O(n+k)$.

Proof: Recall that the preparing procedure is to determine whether Case 1 occurs and find $b_{R}^{\prime}$ if Case 1 holds. Since the three cusps of $R$ are maintained by the algorithm, $x_{R}$ is known. We walk from $\operatorname{Head}(b)$ along $\partial R$ clockwise until first encountering either $b_{R}^{\prime}$ or $x_{R}$. If we encounter $b_{R}^{\prime}$ first, then it is Case 1 and we have $b_{R}^{\prime}$ as well. Otherwise, it is either Case 2 or Case 3.

It is easy to see that the running time of the above walking is proportional to the number of atoms of the reversed portion due to the flip of $b$. Therefore, the total time of the preparing procedure for the entire algorithm is at most proportional to the total number of reversed atoms in the entire algorithm, i.e., $O\left(n_{Q}\right)$, which is $O(n+k)$ by Lemma 8. The lemma thus follows.

### 6.2 Bounding the Number of Dequeue Operations in Phase I (i.e., $n_{D}=O(n+k)$ )

Our goal in this section is to prove Lemma 10 below.
Lemma 10 In Phase I of the entire algorithm, the total number of dequeue operations (i.e., $n_{D}$ ) is $O(n+k)$.

To prove Lemma 10, we will first prove the following lemma (Lemma 11), which states that any atom can be dequeued in Phase I of the entire algorithm at most twice before its (only) reversal and can be dequeued in Phase I at most twice after its reversal (if any). Note that Lemma 11 does not include the dequeue operations in Phase II.

Lemma 11 For any atom A in the algorithm, regardless of whether it has been reversed previously, A can be dequeued in Phase I at most twice before its next reversal (if any) in the algorithm.

By Lemma 7 , every point on $\partial \mathcal{P}$ can be reversed at most once. This implies that, by Lemma 111, every atom can be dequeued in Phase I at most four times in the entire algorithm. Since the total number of atoms in the algorithm is $O(n+k)$, Lemma 10 follows.

The rest of this section gives the proof for Lemma 11. The proof, which is quite long and technically complicated, is based on many new geometric observations and analysis techniques.

The following lemma (proved in [38, 39]) will be repeatedly referred to by our analysis later.
Lemma 12 [38, 39] For any pseudo-triangle $T$ of a good pseudo-triangulation, (1) if $y_{T}$ lies on $\widehat{x_{T} q_{T}}$ of $\partial T$, then $\widehat{y_{T} q_{T}}$ is an obstacle arc, and (2) if $z_{T} \neq p_{T}$, then $\widehat{z_{T} p_{T}}$ is an obstacle arc.

For example, in the left figure of Fig. [12, since $y_{R}$ lies on $\widehat{x_{R} q_{R}}$ and $z_{R} \neq p_{R}$, according to Lemma 12, both $\widehat{y_{R} q_{R}}$ and $\widehat{z_{R} p_{R}}$ are obstacle arcs; similarly, in the right figure of Fig. 12, both $\widehat{y_{L} q_{L}}$ and $\widehat{z_{L} p_{L}}$ are obstacle arcs.

For any bitangent $t \in B(\mathcal{T})$ of a good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}$ in the algorithm, we view $t$ as defining two atoms, one for $\operatorname{Rtri}(t)$ and the other for $\operatorname{Ltri}(t)$, and we say that these two atoms are defined by $t$. Similarly, we let every point on $t$ have two copies that belong to $R \operatorname{tri}(t)$ and $L \operatorname{tri}(t)$, respectively. Thus, for any point $p \in \partial T$ for a pseudo-triangle $T$ in $\mathcal{T}$, if $p$ is on a bitangent $t \in B(\partial T)$, then $p$ refers to the copy of the point on $t$ that belongs to $T$. In this way, every point on $\partial T$ belongs to exactly one pseudo-triangle in $\mathcal{T}$, i.e., the pseudo-triangle $T$. Since there are $k$ bitangents in $\mathcal{B}$, by Observation 2, the total number of atoms is still $O(n+k)$. When an atom $A$ is (part of) an elementary curve, we also say $A$ is an obstacle arc.

Before presenting the main proof, we give some observations, which will be useful later.

### 6.2.1 Some Observations

Observation 3 Consider a pseudo-triangle $T$ in a good pseudo-triangulation at a (time) moment $\xi_{1}$ of the algorithm. For any point $p \in \partial T$, let $l_{1}(p)$ be the directed tangent line of $T$ at $p$. Suppose later at a moment $\xi_{2}$ of the algorithm, the point $p$ lies on $\partial T^{\prime}$ for a pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}$, and let $l_{2}(p)$ be the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $p$. Then, $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$ lie on the same undirected line. Further, if $p$ is not reversed during the time period from $\xi_{1}$ to $\xi_{2}$, then $l_{1}(p)$ has the same direction as $l_{2}(p)$; otherwise, $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$ have opposite directions

Proof: The observation can be easily proved by the definition of a directed tangent line of a pseudo-triangle. If $A$ is defined by a free bitangent, then $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$ both lie on the same undirected line that contains $A$. If $A$ is an obstacle arc, then $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$ also both lie on the same undirected line that is tangent to the obstacle where $p$ lies. Thus, in any case, $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$ lie on the same undirected line.

If the atom $A$ has not been reversed during the time period from $\xi_{1}$ to $\xi_{2}$, then clearly $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$ are of the same direction. Otherwise, by Lemma 7 $p$ is reversed only once during the time from $\xi_{1}$ to $\xi_{2}$, and therefore, $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$ have opposite directions.

Observation 4 Consider a pseudo-triangle $T$ in a good pseudo-triangulation at a (time) moment $\xi_{1}$ of the algorithm. For any two points $p$ and $q$ on $\partial T$, let $l(p)$ and $l(q)$ be their corresponding directed tangent lines of $T$. Then the following properties hold.

1. If the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$ is less than $\pi$, then the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$ is no bigger than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $T$.
2. If at a later moment $\xi_{2}$ of the algorithm, the point $p$ lies on $\partial T^{\prime}$ of a pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}$ ( $T^{\prime}=T$ is possible) such that the same directed $l(p)$ is the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $p$ then the pt-slope of $l(p)$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$ is no smaller than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$.

Proof: For the first part, observe that the pt-slopes of all points on $\partial T(l(p)$ and $l(q)$ included $)$ are no more than $\pi$. Suppose the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$ is less than $\pi$. If we rotate $b_{T}$ around its tail counterclockwise, we will encounter first the direction of $l(q)$ and then the direction of $l(p)$ (otherwise, the pt-slope of $l(q)$ would be larger than $\pi$ ). This means that the pt-slope of $l(p)$ is the sum of the pt-slope of $l(q)$ and the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$. The first part thus follows.

The second part can be proved by a simple induction. Recall that if the point $p$ lies on a bitangent in $B(\partial T)$, then $p$ refers to the copy of the original point that belongs to $T$. If $T^{\prime}=T$, then it is easy to see that the property holds. Now consider the first flip operation after which the point $p$ lies on $\partial T^{\prime}$ of a pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime} \neq T$ such that $l(p)$ is still the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $p$. Since $T^{\prime} \neq T$, the above flip must be on the free bitangent $b_{T}$.

Let $\xi_{1}^{\prime}$ (resp., $\xi_{2}^{\prime}$ ) be the moment right before (resp., after) the flip of $b_{T}$. At the moment $\xi_{1}^{\prime}$, one endpoint of $b_{T^{\prime}}$ must be on $\partial T$ although $b_{T^{\prime}}$ may be $\varphi\left(b_{T}\right)$. Recall that due to the flip of $b_{T}$, every free bitangent in $\mathcal{B} \backslash\left\{b_{T}\right\}$ does not change direction. So $b_{T^{\prime}}$ does not change direction due to the flip of $b_{T}$. Consequently, the $b_{T}$-slope of $b_{T^{\prime}}$ on $\partial T$ at the moment $\xi_{1}^{\prime}$ is the pt-slope of the endpoint of $b_{T^{\prime}}$ that is on $\partial T$, which must be less than $\pi$. Note that the $b_{T}$-slope of $l(p)$ is the pt-slope of $l(p)$ on $\partial T$ at the moment $\xi_{1}^{\prime}$, which must be less than $\pi$. Similarly, the $b_{T^{\prime}}$-slope of $l(p)$ is the pt-slope of $l(p)$ on $\partial T^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}^{\prime}$, which must be less than $\pi$. Therefore, if we rotate $b_{T}$ around its tail counterclockwise, we will encounter first the direction of $b_{T^{\prime}}$ and then the direction of $l(p)$ (otherwise, the $b_{T}$-slope of $b_{T^{\prime}}$ would be larger than $\pi$ at the moment $\xi_{1}^{\prime}$ ). This implies that the $b_{T}$-slope of $l(p)$ at the moment $\xi_{1}^{\prime}$ is no smaller than the $b_{T^{\prime}}$-slope of $l(p)$ at the moment $\xi_{2}^{\prime}$, i.e., the pt-slope of $l(p)$ at the moment $\xi_{1}^{\prime}$ is no smaller than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ at the moment $\xi_{2}^{\prime}$.

Consider the first flip after which the point $p$ lies on $\partial T^{\prime \prime}$ of a pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime \prime} \neq T^{\prime}$ such that $l(p)$ is still the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime \prime}$ at $p$. Let $\xi_{3}^{\prime}$ be the moment right after this flip. By a similar argument, the pt-slope of $l(p)$ at the moment $\xi_{2}^{\prime}$ is no smaller than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ at the moment $\xi_{3}^{\prime}$. Inductively, the second part holds.

Note that Observation $4(2)$ above actually tells us that for any point $p \in \partial T$ of a pseudotriangle $T$ in the algorithm, regardless of whether $p$ has been reversed previously, the pt-slope of $p$ is monotonically decreasing during the rest of the algorithm until it is possibly reversed.

### 6.2.2 The Main Proof of Lemma 11

In the following proof of Lemma 11, all dequeue operations refer to those in Phase I.
Consider the dequeued atoms on $\partial R$ due to the flip of $b$ for the pseudo-triangle $R=R \operatorname{tri}(b)$. In Case 1 , the dequeued atoms are on $\widehat{q_{R}^{\prime} p^{*}}$; in Cases 2 and 3 , the dequeued atoms are on $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}$. In all three cases, the dequeued atoms of $\partial R$ are also on $\partial R^{\prime}$. Recall $R^{\prime}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b^{*}\right)$ and $L^{\prime}=\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b^{*}\right)$. The situation on the pseudo-triangle $L=\operatorname{Ltri}(b)$ is similar.

Let $A$ be an arbitrary atom of the good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}$ right before the flip of $b$. Note that $A$ may have been reversed before (and thus cannot be reversed again), but this is not important to our proof. Observe that due to the flip of $b, A$ can be dequeued only if (a) $A$ is awake before the flip of $b$, and (b) $A$ lies on either $\partial R$ or $\partial L$. Note that $b=b_{R}=b_{L}$ since $b$ is minimal. In other words, suppose $A$ lies on $\partial T$ of a pseudo-triangle $T$; if $A$ is dequeued due to the flip of $b$, then (a) $T$ is either $R$ or $L$, (b) $A$ must be awake on $\partial T$ (before the flip of $b$ ), and (c) $b=b_{T}$.

One key observation used in our proof is: For any pseudo-triangle $T$ with $T=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T}\right)$ (resp., $T=\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{T}\right)$ ), if a point $p$ is awake on $\partial T$, then the forward (resp., backward) $T$-view of $p$ has a smaller pt-slope than $p$ in $T$ (see Fig. [12).

To prove Lemma 11, we first prove the following statement, which we call Sub-lemma 11(a).
Sub-lemma 11(a). Suppose $A$ is an atom on $\partial T$ of a pseudo-triangle $T$ with $T=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T}\right)$ in a good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}$ and $A$ is dequeued due to a flip operation on $b_{T}$. Also, suppose at any later moment before the reversal of $A, A$ lies on $\partial T^{\prime}$ of a pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}$ with $T^{\prime}=R \operatorname{tri}\left(b_{T^{\prime}}\right)$ in another good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$. Then $A$ cannot be dequeued due to the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$.

To prove Sub-lemma 11(a), our main idea is to show that $A$ cannot be awake when $b_{T^{\prime}}$ is flipped (and thus cannot be dequeued again). The proof, however, consists of a lengthy and complicated case analysis with considerable details. We analyze the three main cases (Cases 1, 2, and 3).
The proof of Case 1. In Case 1, all dequeued atoms lie on $\widehat{q_{R}^{\prime} p^{*}}$. Let $A$ be an arbitrary atom on $\widehat{q_{R}^{\prime} p^{*}}$. Let $\xi_{1}$ be the moment right after the flip of $b$. Hence the atom $A$ is on $\partial R^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$. Suppose at a later moment $\xi_{2}$ of the algorithm, the atom $A$ lies on $\partial T^{\prime}$ of a pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}$ of a good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ with $T^{\prime}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T^{\prime}}\right)$ and $A$ has not been reversed since the moment $\xi_{1}$. As discussed above, the atom $A$ on $\partial T^{\prime}$ can be dequeued only due to the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$. Thus, during the time between the moment $\xi_{2}$ and the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}, A$ cannot be dequeued on $\partial T^{\prime}$. Note that once it is formed, the pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}$ remains unchanged in the algorithm (and thus, $A$ is not reversed) until $b_{T^{\prime}}$ is flipped. Without loss of generality, we let $\xi_{2}$ be the moment right before the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$. We prove below that $A$ cannot be awake at the moment $\xi_{2}$ and thus cannot be dequeued due to the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$. In the following discussion, for simplicity, when we mention $R^{\prime}$ (resp., $T^{\prime}$ ), we always refer to the moment $\xi_{1}$ (resp., $\xi_{2}$ ) unless otherwise stated.

Let $p$ be an arbitrary interior point on $A$, i.e., $p$ is not an endpoint of $A$.
Let $l_{2}(p)$ be the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $p$ (at the moment $\xi_{2}$ ), and $l_{1}(p)$ be the directed tangent line of $R^{\prime}$ at $p$ (at the moment $\xi_{1}$ ). Since $p$ is not reversed during the time period from $\xi_{1}$ to $\xi_{2}$, by Observation 3, $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$ are the same. Below, we simply use $l(p)$ to refer to both $l_{1}(p)$ and $l_{2}(p)$. Since $p$ is not reversed due to the flip of $b, l(p)$ is also the directed tangent line of $R$ at $p$ before the flip of $b$.


Figure 17: Illustrating the case that the point $q$ is $a$ (here $a \in \widehat{y_{L} z_{L}}$ ).


Figure 18: Illustrating the case that $q$ lies on $l(p)$ before $a$ (here $a \in \widehat{y_{L} z_{L}}$ ).

Below, we prove that at the moment $\xi_{2}$, the point $p$ is not awake on $\partial T^{\prime}$ (i.e., $p$ does not lie on Awake $\left[T^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{x_{T^{\prime}} q_{T^{\prime}}}$ ) and thus the atom $A$ cannot be awake. Let $q \in \partial T^{\prime}$ be $p^{\prime}$ 's forward $T^{\prime}$-view point along $l(p)$ (at the moment $\xi_{2}$ ). Let $l(q)$ be the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $q$.

Assume to the contrary that the point $p$ is awake on $\partial T^{\prime}$ (at the moment $\xi_{2}$ ). Then it immediately implies that $p$ lies on Awake $\left[T^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{x_{T^{\prime}} q_{T^{\prime}}}$ and the pt-slope of $l(p)$ is larger than that of $l(q)$ in $T^{\prime}$ (see Fig. 12). Thus, $l(q)$ must cross $l(p)$ from left to right.

Note that right before the flip of $b$, we have $p_{L}=q_{L}=z_{L}=\operatorname{Head}(b)$, i.e., $p_{L}=z_{L}$ is the basepoint of $L=L \operatorname{tri}(b)$ and $q_{L}$ is the point on $\partial L$ whose backward $L$-view (on $\partial L$ ) is $p_{L}$ and $q_{L}=z_{L}$ in this case (see Fig. (13)). Let $c=\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$.

Recall that the point $p$ is an interior point of an atom $A$ on $\widehat{q_{R}^{\prime} p^{*}}$. Recall that $q_{R}^{\prime}$ is the point on $\partial R$ whose forward $R$-view is $\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$. If $q_{R}^{\prime}$ is on a bitangent $t \in B(\partial R)$, since $p$ is the interior point of $t$, every point on $t$ can be viewed as $q_{R}^{\prime}$; in this case, we let $q_{R}^{\prime}$ be the endpoint of $t$ such that $t$ lies entirely on $\widehat{x_{R} q_{R}^{\prime}}$. This step can be done when we conduct the split operation on Awake $[R]$ at $q_{R}^{\prime}$ (i.e., change the criterion when searching $q_{R}^{\prime}$ in Awake $[R]$ ). Note that the above requirement for $q_{R}^{\prime}$ does not change the running time of Lemma 4 In this way, $l(p)$ must intersect either $\widehat{y_{L} z_{L}}$ on $\partial L$ or $\widehat{z_{L} c}$ on $\partial R$ (see Fig. 17 or Fig. (18).

Let $a$ be the intersection point between $l(p)$ and $\widehat{y_{L} z_{L}}$ or $\widehat{z_{L} c}$ (see Fig. (17) or Fig. (18). Since $\widehat{z_{L} c}$ is the reversed portion on $\partial R$ due to the flip of $b$, by Observation $1, \widehat{z_{L} c}$ is an obstacle arc. Since $q_{L}=z_{L}$, by Lemma 12, the part $\widehat{y_{L} q_{L}}\left(=\widehat{y_{L} z_{L}}\right)$ is an obstacle arc. Hence, the point $a$ must be on an obstacle, say $P$. Consider the position of $q$, which is $p$ 's forward $T^{\prime}$-view point on $\partial T^{\prime}$ along $l(p)$ (at the moment $\xi_{2}$ ). Since $a$ lies on an obstacle $P, q$ can be either at $a$ or on $l(p)$ between $p$ and $a$ (but before $a$ ). In the following, we show that either case cannot occur, and consequently our assumption that the point $p$ is awake on $\partial T^{\prime}$ is not correct.

If $q$ is at the point $a$ (see Fig. [17), then $l(q)$ is the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $a(=q)$. Since $a$ lies on the obstacle $P, l(q)$ is tangent to $P$ at $a$. Note that the point $a$ lies on $\partial R^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$ (right after the flip of $b$ ). Let $l_{1}(q)$ be the directed tangent line of $R^{\prime}$ at $a$ (at the moment $\xi_{1}$ ). Since $a$ lies on $P, l_{1}(q)$ is also tangent to $P$ at $a$, and therefore, $l_{1}(q)$ and $l(q)$ both lie on the same undirected line. There are two subcases to consider: $a$ lies on $\widehat{z_{L} c}$ or on $\widehat{y_{L} z_{L}} \backslash\left\{z_{L}\right\}$. Below, we show that neither case can occur.
(i) If $a(=q)$ lies on $\widehat{z_{L} c}\left(a\right.$ can be $\left.z_{L}\right)$, since $q_{R}^{\prime}$ is an endpoint of an atom on $\widehat{q_{R}^{\prime} p^{*}}$ and $p$ is an interior point of the atom $A$, we have $p \neq q_{R}^{\prime}$ and $a \neq c$. Since $\widehat{z_{L} c}$ is reversed due to the flip of $b$, by Lemma $7, \widehat{z_{L} c}$ will not be reversed again after the moment $\xi_{1}$. Thus, $l(q)$ has the same direction as $l_{1}(q)$. Recall that $l(q)$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right. Thus, $l_{1}(q)$ crosses
$l(p)$ from left to right. However, at the moment $\xi_{1}$, both $p$ and $q(=a)$ are on $\partial R^{\prime}$ and it is easy to see that the pt-slope of $l(p)$ is less than the pt-slope of $l_{1}(q)$ in $R^{\prime}$. Thus, $l(p)$ must cross $l_{1}(q)$ from left to right, or equivalently, $l_{1}(q)$ must cross $l(p)$ from right to left. Hence, we obtain that $l_{1}(q)$ crosses $l(p)$ both from left to right and from right to left, which is a contradiction. Thus, $a$ cannot lie on $\widehat{z_{L} c}$.
(ii) For the subcase when $a(=q)$ lies on $\widehat{y_{L} z_{L}} \backslash\left\{z_{L}\right\}$ (see Fig. (17), if $a$ has not been reversed since $\xi_{1}$, then at the moment $\xi_{2}$, the direction of $l(q)$ is the same as $l_{1}(q)$ 's. By a similar argument as for the former subcase (i), we can show that a contradiction also occurs.
In the following, we assume that $a$ is reversed (only once) during the time from $\xi_{1}$ to $\xi_{2}$. Thus, $l_{1}(q)$ and $l(q)$ have opposite directions. Since $l(q)$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right, $l_{1}(q)$ crosses $l(p)$ from right to left. Since $l(q)$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right, the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$ must be less than $\pi$. Since both $l(p)$ and $l(q)$ are directed tangent lines of $T^{\prime}$, by Observation 4(1), the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $T^{\prime}$ is no smaller than the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$ (at the moment $\xi_{2}$ ).
Below, we consider $l(q)$ as a physically directed line that is not associate with any time moment. We claim the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$ is larger than the $b_{R^{\prime}}$-slope of $l(p)$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$. Indeed, the $b_{R^{\prime}}$ slope of $l_{1}(q)$ is the pt-slope of the point $q(=a)$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$, which is larger than zero and less than $\pi$. Since $l_{1}(q)$ and $l(q)$ have opposite directions, the $l(q)$-slope of $b_{R^{\prime}}$ is less than $\pi$ and larger than zero. Note that $l(p)$ is the directed tangent line of $R^{\prime}$. So the $b_{R^{\prime}}$-slope of $l(p)$ is the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ (at the moment $\xi_{1}$ ), which is less than $\pi$. To summarize, we have: (1) the $l(q)$-slope of $b_{R^{\prime}}$ is less than $\pi$ and larger than zero, (2) the $b_{R^{\prime}}$ slope of $l(p)$ is less than $\pi$, and (3) the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$ is less than $\pi$. Therefore, the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$ is the sum of the $l(q)$-slope of $b_{R^{\prime}}$ and the $b_{R^{\prime}}$-slope of $l(p)$. Since the $l(q)$-slope of $b_{R^{\prime}}$ is larger than zero, the claim is true. Since the $b_{R^{\prime}}$ slope of $l(p)$ is the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$, we obtain that the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$ is larger than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$.
To summarize what have been deduced above, we have: (i) the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$ is larger than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$, and (ii) at the moment $\xi_{2}$, the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $T^{\prime}$ is no smaller than the $l(q)$-slope of $l(p)$. These imply that the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$ is smaller than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $T^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$. However, $l(p)$ is the directed tangent line of both the pseudo-triangles $R^{\prime}$ and $T^{\prime}$; by Observation $4(2)$, the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$ must be no smaller than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $T^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$, which incurs a contradiction.
Hence, we conclude that $a$ cannot lie on $\widehat{y_{L} z_{L}} \backslash\left\{z_{L}\right\}$.
The above analysis shows that $q$ cannot be at the point $a$.
We then discuss the case when $q$ lies on $l(p)$ between $p$ and $a$ (but before $a$ ). In other words, $l(p)$ intersects $l(q)$ (at $q$ ) before $a$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$, as shown in Fig. 18, Since the interior of the line segment $\overline{p a}$ connecting $a$ and $p$ (lying on $l(p)$ ) does not intersect any obstacle, it follows that $q$ lies on a directed free bitangent $t_{2}$ in $B\left(\partial T^{\prime}\right)$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$. Clearly, $t_{2}$ has the same direction as $l(q)$ and thus $t_{2}$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right. We let $\overline{t_{2}}$ be a physical copy of $t_{2}$ (i.e., they are at the same location with the same direction) but $\overline{t_{2}}$ is not associated with any time moment. Then $\overline{t_{2}}$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right as well. Note that the interior of $R^{\prime}$ is free of obstacles and the segment $\overline{p a}$ is contained in $R^{\prime}$. Because $\overline{p a}$ intersects $\overline{t_{2}}$ before $a$, we claim that there must be a (directed) bitangent $t_{1}^{\prime} \in B\left(\partial R^{\prime}\right)$ on $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} p}$ or $\widehat{p z_{R^{\prime}}}$ such that $\overline{t_{2}}$ crosses $t_{1}^{\prime}$ from left to right. This claim is proved in the next paragraph.

Recall that $\partial R^{\prime}$ consists of three convex chains, i.e., $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} y_{R^{\prime}}}, \widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}, \widehat{z_{R^{\prime}} x_{R^{\prime}}}$. Note that $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} p} \cup$ $\widehat{p z_{R^{\prime}}}=\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} y_{R^{\prime}}} \cup \widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$. Since the interior of $R^{\prime}$ is free of obstacles and $\overline{p a}$ (which is contained in $\left.R^{\prime}\right)$ intersects the directed free bitangent $\overline{t_{2}}\left(\right.$ at $q$ ) before $a, \overline{t_{2}}$ must cross $\partial R^{\prime}$ somewhere, at $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} p}$ or $\widehat{p z_{R^{\prime}}}$ (and possibly at other locations of $\partial R^{\prime}$ ). We discuss below the subcase when $\overline{t_{2}}$ crosses $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} p}$ (the other subcase can be analyzed similarly). Let $w$ be the first point of $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} p}$ encountered as walking on $\overline{t_{2}}$ from $q$ in the direction of $\overline{t_{2}}$. Then since $\overline{t_{2}}$ is a free bitangent, the point $w$ must lie on another free bitangent $t_{w}$ on $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} p}$. Below, we show that $\overline{t_{2}}$ crosses $t_{w}$ from left to right. Note that in Case 1, the portion $\widehat{w p}$ of $\partial R^{\prime}$ does not contain the basepoint $p_{R^{\prime}}\left(=\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ of $R^{\prime}$. Further, $\widehat{w p}$ is to the right of both $\overline{t_{2}}$ and $l(p)$. Let $w^{\prime}$ be the endpoint of the bitangent $t_{w}$ that lies on $\widehat{w p}$. As a portion of $\widehat{w p}, \widehat{w^{\prime} p}$ does not contain the basepoint $p_{R^{\prime}}$ of $R^{\prime}$ and $\widehat{w^{\prime} p}$ is to the right of both $\overline{t_{2}}$ and $l(p)$. Suppose we move a point $w^{\prime \prime}$ from $p$ along $\widehat{w^{\prime} p}$ to $w^{\prime} ;$ let $\rho\left(w^{\prime \prime}\right)$ be the ray originating at $w^{\prime \prime}$ and shooting in the direction of the directed tangent line of $R^{\prime}$ at $w^{\prime \prime}$ (i.e., $\rho\left(w^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is the directed half-line of the directed tangent line of $R^{\prime}$ at $w^{\prime \prime}$ ). Then since $\widehat{w^{\prime} p}$ does not contain the basepoint $p_{R^{\prime}}$ of $R^{\prime}$, the direction of $\rho\left(w^{\prime \prime}\right)$ changes continuously as we walk along $\widehat{w^{\prime} p}$. In particular, when $w^{\prime \prime}$ is at $p, \rho\left(w^{\prime \prime}\right)$ lies on $l(p)$ and has the same direction as $l(p)$; when $w^{\prime \prime}$ arrives at $w^{\prime}, \rho\left(w^{\prime \prime}\right)$ contains $t_{w}$ and has the same direction as $t_{w}$. Note that $l(p)$ crosses $\overline{t_{2}}$ from right to left. Since the direction of $\rho\left(w^{\prime \prime}\right)$ changes continuously for $w^{\prime \prime} \in \widehat{w^{\prime} p}$ and $\widehat{w^{\prime} p}$ is to the right of both $\overline{t_{2}}$ and $l(p)$, during the movement of $w^{\prime \prime}$ from $p$ to $w^{\prime}$ on $\widehat{w^{\prime} p}$, the ray $\rho\left(w^{\prime \prime}\right)$ always crosses $\overline{t_{2}}$ from right to left. In particular, when $w^{\prime \prime}$ arrives at $w^{\prime}, \rho\left(w^{\prime}\right)$ crosses $\overline{t_{2}}$ from right to left. Since $\rho\left(w^{\prime}\right)$ has the same direction as $t_{w}$ and $\overline{t_{2}}$ crosses $t_{w}$ (at $w$ ), the directed bitangent $t_{w}$ crosses $\overline{t_{2}}$ from right to left, or equivalently, $\overline{t_{2}}$ crosses $t_{w}$ from left to right. Letting $t_{1}^{\prime}=t_{w}$, the claim holds.

Let $t_{2}^{\prime}$ be the version of the bitangent $t_{1}^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$ (i.e., $t_{1}^{\prime}$ and $t_{2}^{\prime}$ are defined by the same undirected free bitangent but may have different directions). So $t_{2}^{\prime}$ has opposite direction to $t_{1}^{\prime}$ if and only if $t_{1}^{\prime}$ is flipped during the time period from $\xi_{1}$ to $\xi_{2}$. Since $\overline{t_{2}}$ crosses $t_{1}^{\prime}, t_{2}$ crosses $t_{2}^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$. Recall that at the moment $\xi_{2}, t_{2}$ is in $B\left(\partial T^{\prime}\right)$. Thus, since $t_{2}$ crosses $t_{2}^{\prime}, t_{2}^{\prime}$ cannot be in $B\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)$ for the good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$. Because $t_{1}^{\prime} \in B\left(\partial R^{\prime}\right)$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$, there must be one and only one flip operation on $t_{1}^{\prime}$ during the time from $\xi_{1}$ to $\xi_{2}$, which reverses the direction of $t_{1}^{\prime}$. Hence, $t_{1}^{\prime}$ and $t_{2}^{\prime}$ have opposite directions. Since $\overline{t_{2}}$ crosses $t_{1}^{\prime}$ from left to right (at the moment $\xi_{1}$ ) and $\overline{t_{2}}$ has the same direction as $t_{2}, t_{2}$ crosses $t_{2}^{\prime}$ from right to left at the moment $\xi_{2}$. However, at the moment $\xi_{2}$, we have $t_{2} \in B\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)$ and $t_{2}^{\prime} \notin B\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)$ for the current good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$; by the third property of the definition of good pseudo-triangulation, $t_{2}$ should cross $t_{2}^{\prime}$ from left to right. This incurs a contradiction.

Consequently, the case when $q$ lies on $l(p)$ between $p$ and $a$ (but before $a$ ) cannot occur.
Therefore, our assumption that the point $p$ is awake on $\partial T^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$ is not correct. In other words, the point $p$ cannot be awake at the moment $\xi_{2}$. Consequently, the atom $A$ cannot be awake at the moment $\xi_{2}$ (i.e., right before the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$ ).

As a summary for Case 1 , we conclude that when $T^{\prime}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T^{\prime}}\right)$, the atom $A$ cannot be dequeued due to the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$. This finishes the proof of Case 1 for Sub-lemma 11(a).

In Case 2, all dequeued atoms lie on $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}$. Depending on whether $x_{R}$ is $\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ or $\operatorname{Head}(b)$, there are two subcases. Case 2.1: $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ (see Fig. 13) and Case 2.2: $\operatorname{Head}(b)=x_{R}$ (see Fig. (19). For convenience, Case 2.2 will be analyzed after Case 3.
The proof of Case 2.1. In Case 2.1, let $A$ be an arbitrary atom on $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}$ (dequeued due to the flip of $b$ ), and $\xi_{1}$ be the moment right after the flip of $b$. Suppose at a later moment $\xi_{2}$ of the algorithm, the atom $A$ lies on $\partial T^{\prime}$ of a pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}$ of a good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ with $T^{\prime}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T^{\prime}}\right)$ and $A$ has not been reversed since the moment $\xi_{1}$. Without loss of generality, let $\xi_{2}$ be the moment right before the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$. By a similar analysis as for Case 1, we can prove that


Figure 19: Illustrating Case 2.2 in Phase I: $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}(b)$.
$A$ cannot be awake at the moment $\xi_{2}$ and thus cannot be dequeued due to the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$. Below we sketch the similarity and (minor) difference between the analysis for Case 2.1 and Case 1.

Let $p$ be an arbitrary interior point on $A$, and $l(p)$ be the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $p$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$. Note that in Case 2.1, $\operatorname{Head}(b)=z_{L}=q_{L}=p_{L}$ still holds (see Fig. 13). Further, although Case 2.1 does not involve with $q_{R}^{\prime}$, the same critical structure for this case as for Case 1 is that $l(p)$ must intersect either $\widehat{y_{L} z_{L}}$ on $\partial L$ or $\widehat{z_{L} x_{R}}$ on $\partial R$, both lying on the same obstacle, say $P$. To see this, first, since $\widehat{z_{L} x_{R}}$ is the reversed portion on $\partial R$ due to the flip of $b$, by Observation 11 $\widehat{z_{L} x_{R}}$ is an obstacle arc. Second, due to $q_{L}=z_{L}$, by Lemma 12, the portion $\widehat{y_{L} q_{L}}\left(=\widehat{y_{L} z_{L}}\right)$ is an obstacle arc. Let $a$ be the intersection of $l(p)$ with $\widehat{y_{L} z_{L}}$ or $\widehat{z_{L} x_{R}}$ on $\partial P$. As in Case 1 , the fact still holds that $p$ 's forward $T^{\prime}$-view point $q$ on $\partial T^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$ is either at the point $a$ or on $l(p)$ between $p$ and $a$ (but before $a$ ). Hence, the rest of the analysis simply follows as in Case 1.

We conclude that in Case 2.1, when $T^{\prime}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T^{\prime}}\right)$, the atom $A$ cannot be awake at the moment $\xi_{2}$ and consequently cannot be dequeued due to the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$. This finishes the proof of Case 2.1. The proof of Case 3. For Case 3, all dequeued atoms lie on $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}$ of $\partial R$, which are immediately reversed after the flip of $b$ (see Fig. (13). That is, for each atom $A$ on $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}$, after it is dequeued, it is reversed immediately as well. Hence in this case, for each dequeued atom $A$, it is obviously true that $A$ is not dequeued again before its forthcoming reversal (due to the flip of $b$ ).
The proof of Case 2.2. For Case 2.2 (see Fig. (19), all dequeued atoms lie on $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}$. Let $c=$ $\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$. Note that the portion $\widehat{x_{R c} c}$ is reversed due to the flip of $b$. Similarly to the analysis for Case 3, it is clearly true that any dequeued atom on $\widehat{x_{R} c}$ is not dequeued again before its reversal.

For the portion $\widehat{c p^{*}}$ of $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}$, let $A$ be an arbitrary atom on $\widehat{c p^{*}}$, and $\xi_{1}$ be the moment right after the flip of $b$. Suppose at a later moment $\xi_{2}$ of the algorithm, the atom $A$ lies on $\partial T^{\prime}$ of a pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}$ of a good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ with $T^{\prime}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T^{\prime}}\right)$ and $A$ has not been reversed since the moment $\xi_{1}$. Further, let $\xi_{2}$ be the moment right before the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$. Next, we prove that $A$ cannot be awake at the moment $\xi_{2}$ and thus cannot be dequeued due to the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$. Parts of the proof use similar analysis techniques as for Case 1 , which we will only sketch.

Let $p$ be an arbitrary interior point on $A$, and $l(p)$ be the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $p$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$. For simplicity, we always associate $R^{\prime}$ (resp, $T^{\prime}$ ) with the moment $\xi_{1}$ (resp., $\xi_{2}$ ). As in Case $1, l(p)$ is also the directed tangent line of $R^{\prime}$ at $p$.

Let $q \in \partial T^{\prime}$ be $p$ 's forward $T^{\prime}$-view point on $l(p)$, and $l(q)$ be the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $q$ (at the moment $\xi_{2}$ ). Recall that a point $w$ on $\partial T^{\prime}$ is awake if and only if $w \in \widehat{x_{T^{\prime}} q_{T^{\prime}}}\left(=\right.$ Awake $\left.\left[T^{\prime}\right]\right)$.

Assume to the contrary that the atom $A$ on $\partial T^{\prime}$ is awake at the moment $\xi_{2}$. Then it immediately implies that the point $p \in A$ lies on Awake $\left[T^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{x_{T^{\prime}} q_{T^{\prime}}}$ and the pt-slope of $l(p)$ is larger than that of $l(q)$ in $T^{\prime}$ (see Fig. 12). Thus, $l(q)$ must cross $l(p)$ from left to right.

We first briefly explain why the argument in Case 1 does not work in this case. Note that $l(p)$
must intersect $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$ (see Fig. [19); let $a$ be the intersection point of $l(p)$ and $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$. In Case 1, the corresponding point $a$ must lie on an obstacle and thus $p$ 's forward $T^{\prime}$-view point $q$ on $\partial T^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$ is either at the point $a$ or on $l(p)$ between $p$ and $a$ (but before $a$ ). However, in Case 2.2, the point $a$ may not lie on an obstacle. Consequently, the point $q$ may lie on $l(p)$ beyond the point $a$, i.e., "behind" the chain $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$. This makes the argument in Case 1 not applicable to Case 2.2. A new analysis approach is given below.

Clearly, the point $q$ can be on either an obstacle or a bitangent in $B\left(\partial T^{\prime}\right)$. In the following, we show that neither of these two cases can occur (the analysis techniques are somewhat similar), and consequently our assumption that the atom $A$ is awake on $\partial T^{\prime}$ is not correct.

We first consider the case when $q$ lies on a bitangent in $B\left(\partial T^{\prime}\right)$, denote by $t_{q}$ (at the moment $\left.\xi_{2}\right)$. Since $t_{q}$ has the same direction as $l(q), t_{q}$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right. Let $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ be the version of the bitangent $t_{q}$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$ (i.e., $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ and $t_{q}$ are defined by the same undirected free bitangent but may have different directions). So $t_{q}$ has opposite direction to $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ if and only if $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ is flipped during the time period from $\xi_{1}$ and $\xi_{2}$. Recall that by our general position assumption, no three obstacles have a common tangent line. Note that $l(p)$ must intersect $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$
 between the free bitangent $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ and the chain $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$, there are further four subcases to consider: (i) $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ is part of $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$; (ii) $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ crosses $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ (i.e., $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ crosses a bitangent in $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ since $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ is a free bitangent); (iii) $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ does not intersect $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ and $q$ lies on $l(p)$ between $p$ and $a$; (iv) $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ does not intersect $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ and $q$ lies on $l(p)$ beyond $a$. Note that in subcase (ii) above, $q$ can be either between $p$ and $a$ or beyond $a$ on $l(p)$. We prove below that none of these four subcases can occur.
(i) $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ is part of $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$. So $q$ lies on $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ of $\partial R^{\prime}$ in this subcase. Clearly, the point $p$ lies on $\widehat{c y_{R^{\prime}}}$ of $\partial R^{\prime}$ (recall $\left.c=\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)\right)$. Recall that $b_{R^{\prime}}=b_{R}^{\prime}$ (in Case 2). Thus, the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ is less than that of $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$, and thus $l(p)$ must cross $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ from left to right. Since $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right) \in B\left(\partial R^{\prime}\right)$ and $t_{q} \in B\left(\partial T^{\prime}\right) \subseteq B\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)$ for the good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$, the bitangent $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ is not flipped during the time period from $\xi_{1}$ to $\xi_{2}$ since otherwise $t_{q}$ would not be in $B\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)$. This implies that $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ and $t_{q}$ have the same direction. Thus $l(p)$ must cross $t_{q}$ from left to right, or equivalently, $t_{q}$ must cross $l(p)$ from right to left, contradicting with that $t_{q}$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right. Hence, this subcase cannot occur.
(ii) $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ crosses $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ (i.e., $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ crosses a bitangent on $\left.\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}\right)$. As in Case 1 , since the interior of $R^{\prime}$ is free of obstacles, it is easy to see that $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ must also cross $\widehat{z_{R^{\prime}} x_{R^{\prime}}}$ or $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} y_{R^{\prime}}}$ of $\partial R^{\prime}$. Note that due to the flip of $b$, the portion $\widehat{x_{R C}}$ on $\partial R$ is reversed. By Observation $\widehat{1} \widehat{x_{R} c}$ is an obstacle arc. Note that $z_{L}=z_{R^{\prime}}$ in Case 2.2 (see Fig. 19). Since $p_{L}=\operatorname{Head}(b)=x_{R}$, by Lemma $12, \widehat{z_{L} p_{L}}=\widehat{z_{R^{\prime}} x_{R}}$ is an obstacle arc. Thus, $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ cannot cross the subchain $\widehat{z_{R^{\prime}} c}$ of $\widehat{z_{R^{\prime}} x_{R^{\prime}}}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$. We let $\overline{t_{q}}$ be a physical copy of $t_{q}$ (i.e., they are at the same location with the same direction) but $\overline{t_{q}}$ is not associated with any time moment. Then $\overline{t_{q}}$ crosses $\widehat{c x_{R^{\prime}}}$ or $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} y R^{\prime}}$ of $\partial R^{\prime}$. By a similar analysis as Case 1 , we can show that there must be a directed free bitangent $t_{1}^{\prime} \in B\left(\partial R^{\prime}\right)$ on $\widehat{c p}$ or $\widehat{p y_{R^{\prime}}}$ such that $\overline{t_{q}}$ crosses $t_{1}^{\prime}$ from left to right. Again, as the analysis for Case 1 , this will incur a contradiction with the third property of good pseudo-triangulation (at the moment $\xi_{2}$ ). Therefore, this subcase cannot occur.
(iii) $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ does not intersect $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ and $q$ lies on $l(p)$ between $p$ and $a$. In this subcase, since the interior of $R^{\prime}$ is free of obstacles, $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ must cross $\widehat{z_{R^{\prime}} x_{R^{\prime}}}$ or $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} y_{R^{\prime}}}$ of $\partial R^{\prime}$. The rest of the analysis follows that of subcase (ii) above. We conclude that this subcase cannot occur.
(iv) $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ does not intersect $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ and $q$ lies on $l(p)$ beyond $a$. Note that $q \neq a$ since $t_{q}^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)$ does not intersect $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$. Clearly, $a$ lies on a free bitangent in $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$; let $t_{a}^{\prime}$ denote this bitangent (at the moment $\xi_{1}$ ). Note that $l(p)$ crosses $t_{a}^{\prime}$ from left to right since the pt-slope of $l(p)$ is less than that of $t_{a}^{\prime}$ in $R^{\prime}$. Let $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ be the version of $t_{a}^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$ (i.e., $t_{a}^{\prime}$ and $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ are defined by the same undirected free bitangent but may have different directions). Since $q \neq a, l(p)$ intersects $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ (at $\left.a\right)$ in the interior of the pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}$, and thus $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ cannot be in $B\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)$ for the good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$. Since $t_{a}^{\prime} \in B\left(\partial R^{\prime}\right)$, there is one and only one flip on $t_{a}^{\prime}$ during the time from $\xi_{1}$ to $\xi_{2}$. Thus, $t_{a}^{\prime}$ and $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ have opposite directions. This implies that $l(p)$ crosses $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ from right to left, or equivalently, $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right. Consider the two endpoints of $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ with respect to $\partial T^{\prime}$. There are three possibilities: (a) Both endpoints of $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ are on $\partial T^{\prime}$; (b) only one endpoint of $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ is on $\partial T^{\prime}$; (c) neither endpoint of $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ is on $\partial T^{\prime}$. We show below that none of the above possibilities can occur, and thus this subcase cannot occur.
(a) Both endpoints of $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ are on $\partial T^{\prime}$. Note that for any free bitangent $t^{*}$ with $t^{*} \notin$ $B\left(\partial T^{\prime}\right)$, the two endpoints of $t^{*}$ cannot be both on $\partial T^{\prime}$. Since $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right) \notin B\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)$, we have $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right) \notin B\left(\partial T^{\prime}\right)$ and thus this possibility cannot occur.
(b) Only one endpoint of $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ is on $\partial T^{\prime}$. The analysis here utilizes some analysis techniques for Case 1 (specifically for the subcase of $a=q \in \widehat{y_{L} z_{L}} \backslash\left\{z_{L}\right\}$ ). As in Case 1 , we will show that the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$ is smaller than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $T^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$. Since $l(p)$ is the directed tangent line of both the pseudo-triangles $R^{\prime}$ and $T^{\prime}$ at $p$, by Observation 4, the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ (at the moment $\xi_{1}$ ) must be no smaller than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $T^{\prime}$ (at the moment $\xi_{2}$ ), which incurs a contradiction. Let $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$ be the directed line that contains $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ with the same direction as $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$. We consider $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$ as a physically directed line that is not associated with any time moment. Recall that $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ and $t_{a}^{\prime}$ have opposite directions, $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$ and $t_{a}^{\prime}$ have opposite directions. We claim that the $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right.$-slope of $l(p)$ is larger than the $b_{R^{\prime}}$-slope of $l(p)$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$. Indeed, at the moment $\xi_{1}$, the $b_{R^{\prime}}$-slope of $t_{a}^{\prime}$ is the pt-slope of the point $a$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$, which is larger than zero and less than $\pi$. Since $t_{a}^{\prime}$ and $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$ have opposite directions, the $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$-slope of $b_{R^{\prime}}$ is less than $\pi$ and larger than zero. Note that $l(p)$ is the directed tangent line of $R^{\prime}$. So the $b_{R^{\prime}}$-slope of $l(p)$ is the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ (at the moment $\xi_{1}$ ), which is less than $\pi$. Recall that $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right, implying the $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$-slope of $l(p)$ is less than $\pi$. Therefore, the $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$-slope of $l(p)$ is the sum of the $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$-slope of $b_{R^{\prime}}$ and the $b_{R^{\prime}}$-slope of $l(p)$. Since the $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$-slope of $b_{R^{\prime}}$ is larger than zero, the claim is true. Since the $b_{R^{\prime}}$-slope of $l(p)$ is the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$, we obtain that the $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$-slope of $l(p)$ is larger than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$.
Let $a^{\prime}$ be the endpoint of $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ on $\partial T^{\prime}$. Since the direction of $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$ is the same as $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right), l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$ is the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $a^{\prime}$. Recall that $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right, implying the $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right.$-slope of $l(p)$ is less than $\pi$. By Observation 4, the $l\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right)$-slope of $l(p)$ is no bigger than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $T^{\prime}$ (at the moment $\xi_{2}$ ). We thus obtain that the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$ is smaller than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $T^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$. Consequently, this possibility cannot occur.
(c) Neither endpoint of $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ is on $\partial T^{\prime}$. In this situation, since $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ intersects $l(p)$ (at $\left.a\right)$ in the interior of $T^{\prime}, t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ must cross $\partial T^{\prime}$ somewhere. Note that $l(p)$ intersects $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ (at a) before $q$ and $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right. Recall in our proof by contradiction


Figure 20: Illustrating the situation when no endpoint of $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ is on $\partial T^{\prime}: t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right.
we assume the atom $A$ is awake on $\partial T^{\prime}$ and the point $p \in A$ lies on $A w a k e\left[T^{\prime}\right]=\widehat{x_{T^{\prime}} q_{T^{\prime}}}$ (see Fig. (20). Note that $q_{T^{\prime}}$ always lies on $\widehat{x_{T^{\prime}} z_{T^{\prime}}}$ and so does the point $p$. Since the interior of $T^{\prime}$ is free of obstacles and $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right, similar to the analysis for Case 1 , there must be a directed free bitangent $t_{1}^{\prime} \in B\left(\partial T^{\prime}\right)$ lying on $\widehat{x_{T^{\prime}} p}$ or $\widehat{p z_{T^{\prime}}}$ such that $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ crosses $t_{1}^{\prime}$ from left to right $\left(t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)\right.$ may also cross $\widehat{z_{T^{\prime}} x_{T^{\prime}}}$, but we are not interested in that). Thus $t_{1}^{\prime}$ crosses $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ from right to left. However, since $t_{1}^{\prime} \in B\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)$ and $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right) \notin B\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)$ for the good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$, by the third property of good pseudo-triangulation, $t_{1}^{\prime}$ should cross $t_{a}\left(\xi_{2}\right)$ from left to right. But this is a contradiction. Hence, this possibility cannot occur.

We conclude that the case when $q$ lies on a bitangent in $B\left(\partial T^{\prime}\right)$ cannot occur.
Below we discuss the case when $q$ lies on an obstacle. For simplicity, here we view $q$ as a physical point not associated with any time moment. Consider the position of $q$ with respect to the chain $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$. There are two subcases to consider: (i) $q$ lies on $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$; (ii) $q$ does not lie on $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ (i.e, $l(p)$ crosses a free bitangent in $\left.\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}\right)$. We show below that neither subcase can occur.
(i) $q$ lies on $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$. Let $l^{\prime}(q)$ be the directed tangent line of $R^{\prime}$ at $q$ (at the moment $\xi_{1}$ ). Recall that $l(q)$ is the directed tangent line of $T^{\prime}$ at $q$ (at the moment $\xi_{2}$ ) and $l(q)$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right. Since $q$ lies on an obstacle, $l(q)$ and $l^{\prime}(q)$ both lie on the same undirected line but may have opposite directions. The following analysis is very similar to that for Case 1 (specifically for the subcase of $a=q \in \widehat{y_{L} z_{L}} \backslash\left\{z_{L}\right\}$ ).
If the point $q$ has not been reversed since the moment $\xi_{1}$, then $l(q)$ has the same direction as $l^{\prime}(q)$. As analyzed before, the pt-slope of $l(p)$ is smaller than that of $l^{\prime}(q)$ in $R^{\prime}$, and thus $l(p)$ crosses $l^{\prime}(q)$ from left to right, or equivalently, $l^{\prime}(q)$ crosses $l(p)$ from right to left, which contradicts with that $l(q)\left(=l^{\prime}(q)\right)$ crosses $l(p)$ from left to right.
If the point $q$ is reversed (at most once by Lemma 7 ) during the time from $\xi_{1}$ to $\xi_{2}$, then $l^{\prime}(q)$ and $l(q)$ have opposite directions. By the same analysis as for subcase (iv (b)) of the former case (i.e., the case when $q$ lies on a bitangent in $B\left(\partial T^{\prime}\right)$ ), we can show that the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $R^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{1}$ is smaller than the pt-slope of $l(p)$ in $T^{\prime}$ at the moment $\xi_{2}$, which contradicts with Observation (4) We omit the details. Thus, this subcase cannot occur.
(ii) $q$ does not lie on $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ (i.e, $l(p)$ crosses a free bitangent on $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ ). Clearly, $l(p)$ must cross a free bitangent on $\widehat{y_{R^{\prime}} z_{R^{\prime}}}$ before arriving at $q$. Then, the analysis follows in exactly the same way as that for subcase (iv) of the former case, and we can conclude that this subcase cannot occur either.

In summary, we prove that the atom $A$ cannot be awake at the moment $\xi_{2}$ of the algorithm.

For Case 2.2, we conclude that when $T^{\prime}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T^{\prime}}\right)$, the atom $A$ on $\partial T^{\prime}$ cannot be dequeued due to the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$.

Based on the above detailed case analysis, Sub-lemma 11(a) is proved.
By an analogous analysis, we can also prove the following statement, called Sub-lemma 11(b).
Sub-lemma 11(b). Suppose $A$ is an atom on $\partial T$ of a pseudo-triangle $T$ with $T=\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{T}\right)$ in a good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}$ and $A$ is dequeued due to a flip operation on $b_{T}$. Also, suppose at any later moment before the reversal of $A, A$ lies on $\partial T^{\prime}$ of a pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}$ with $T^{\prime}=\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{T^{\prime}}\right)$ in another good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$. Then $A$ cannot be dequeued due to the flip of $b_{T^{\prime}}$.

By combining Sub-lemmas 11(a) and 11(b), we conclude that for any dequeued atom, it can be dequeued at most twice before its next reversal (if any). An explanation of this is as follows.

Suppose at the moment $\xi_{1}$, an atom $A$ on $\partial T_{1}$ of a pseudo-triangle $T_{1}$ in a good pseudotriangulation $\mathcal{T}_{1}$ is dequeued for the first time due to the flip of $b_{T_{1}}$. We assume $T_{1}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T_{1}}\right)$ (the case for $T_{1}=\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{T_{1}}\right)$ can be analyzed similarly). If $A$ will not be dequeued again in the algorithm, then we are done. Otherwise, suppose at a later moment $\xi_{2}(A$ has not been reversed), $A$ is on $\partial T_{2}$ of a pseudo-triangle $T_{2}$ in a good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}_{2}$ and $A$ is dequeued for the second time due to the flip of $b_{T_{2}}$. By Sub-lemma 11(a), the case $T_{2}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T_{2}}\right)$ cannot occur. Thus, only $T_{2}=\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{T_{2}}\right)$ is possible. For any moment $\xi_{3}$ after $\xi_{2}$, suppose $A$ is on $\partial T_{3}$ of a pseudo-triangle $T_{3}$ in a good pseudo-triangulation $\mathcal{T}_{3}$ and $A$ has not been reversed. Now, if $T_{3}=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b_{T_{3}}\right)$, then by Sub-lemma 11(a), $A$ cannot be dequeued due to the flip of $b_{T_{3}}$. But if $T_{3}=\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{T_{3}}\right)$, then by Sub-lemma 11(b), A cannot be dequeued either.

Thus, $A$ can be dequeued at most twice in Phase I of the entire algorithm before its next reversal (if any). Lemma 11 then follows.

Note: It appears possible to show that there is at most one dequeue per atom before its reversal. But, proving this seems to make the already long and complicated proof of Lemma 11 even longer and more complicated, and this stronger statement, although nicer, is not essential to our result.

In addition, we briefly discuss why $R^{\prime}\left(=\operatorname{Rtri}\left(b^{*}\right)\right)$ is also $\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ in Case 2 with the help of Lemma 12. In Case 2.1 (i.e., $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ ), this is obviously true. We discuss Case 2.2 (i.e., $\left.x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}(b)\right)$ below. It suffices to show that $b_{R}^{\prime}$ lies on $\widehat{x_{R} y_{R}}$ of $\partial R$. Assume to the contrary that $b_{R}^{\prime}$ does not lie on $\widehat{x_{R} y_{R}}$ of $\partial R$. Then, $\widehat{x_{R} y_{R}}$ must be an obstacle arc on an obstacle, say $P$. Thus, it is easy to see that $b_{R}^{\prime}$ must be tangent to $P$ and the tangent point on $P$ is $y_{R}$, and $b_{R}^{\prime}$ lies on $\widehat{y_{R} z_{R}}$. Further, since in Case 2, $p^{*}$ does not lie on the obstacle arc between $b$ and $b_{R}^{\prime}$, we have $p^{*} \notin \widehat{x_{R} y_{R}}$, and thus $b_{R}^{\prime} \in \widehat{y_{R} p^{*}}$. Note that $\widehat{y_{R} p^{*}}$ is part of $\widehat{x_{R} q_{R}}$. Therefore, $b_{R}^{\prime} \in \widehat{y_{R} q_{R}}$. However, since $y_{R} \in \widehat{x_{R} q_{R}}$, by Lemma [12, the portion $\widehat{y_{R} q_{R}}$ of $\partial R$ is an obstacle arc, contradicting with $b_{R}^{\prime} \in \widehat{y_{R} q_{R}}$ since $b_{R}^{\prime}$ is a free bitangent. Hence, $b_{R}^{\prime}$ must lie on $\widehat{x_{R} y_{R}}$ and $R^{\prime}$ is $\operatorname{Ltri}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$.

### 6.3 Bounding the Number of Enqueue Operations in Phase II

In this section, we prove $n_{E} \leq n_{Q}+n_{D}+n_{S}+k$ and $n_{S}=O(n+k)$. Consequently, due to $n_{Q}=O(n+k), n_{D}=O(n+k)$, and $k=|\mathcal{B}|$, we obtain $n_{E}=O(n+k)$ and Lemma 5 thus follows.

Let $Q$ be the set of all reversed atoms in the entire algorithm, $D$ be the set of all dequeue operations in Phase I, and $S$ be the set of special enqueue operations in Phase II that will be defined later. Thus, $n_{Q}=|Q|, n_{D}=|D|$, and $n_{S}=|S|$.

To prove $n_{E} \leq n_{Q}+n_{D}+n_{S}+k$, we will show that every enqueue operation in Phase II corresponds to an element in $D, Q, S$, or $\mathcal{B}$, and we charge the enqueue operation to that element; each such element will be charged only $O(1)$ times in the entire algorithm. Further, we will prove that $n_{S}=|S|=O(n+k)$. We discuss the three main cases individually.

For Case 1, refer to the pseudocode Algorithm 1 in Section 5.5. There are three enqueue sequences, i.e., Lines 3, 4, and 8, and their corresponding charges are already shown in the pseudocode. We briefly explain why we can charge them in those ways. For Line 3, it is easy to see that $\widehat{z_{L} p_{R^{\prime}}}$ (recall $p_{R^{\prime}}=\operatorname{Tail}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$ ) is reversed due to the flip of $b$. So we can charge the enqueue on $\widehat{z_{L} p_{R^{\prime}}}$ to $Q$. For Line 4 , since $b^{*} \in \mathcal{B}$, we can charge the enqueue on $b^{*}$ to $\mathcal{B}$. For Line 图, recall that when computing $b^{*}$ in Phase I, all atoms in $\widehat{q_{R}^{\prime} p^{*}}$ have been dequeued (from AwakeMax $[R]$ ). Note that the atoms in the enqueued portion of Line 8 are all in $\widehat{q_{R}^{\prime} p^{*}}$, implying that they have been dequeued in Phase I. So we can charge them to $D$.

For Case 2, again, we discuss the two subcases Case 2.1 (i.e., $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$, see Fig. (13) and Case 2.2 (i.e., $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}(b)$, see Fig. (14).

For Case 2.1, refer to the pseudocode Algorithm 2. There are three enqueue sequences, i.e., Lines 3. 4, and 8, and their corresponding charges are already shown in the pseudocode. For Line 3. note that $\widehat{z_{L} x_{R}}$ is reversed due to the flip of $b$, so we charge the enqueue operations on $\widehat{z_{L} x_{R}}$ to $Q$. For Line 4, we charge the enqueue on $b^{*}$ to $\mathcal{B}$. For Line 8, note that the atoms in $\widehat{y_{R} p^{*}}$ are dequeued when computing $b^{*}$ in Phase I, so we charge the enqueue to $D$.

For Case 2.2, refer to the pseudocode Algorithm 3. There are five enqueue sequences, i.e., Lines 3, 7, 11, 15, and 19, For Line 3, which is for the case when $q_{R^{\prime}} \in \widehat{p_{R^{\prime}} p^{*}}$, note that the enqueued portion is $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{R^{\prime}}}$. Since $q_{R^{\prime}} \in \widehat{p_{R^{\prime}} p^{*}}, q_{R^{\prime}}$ is before $p^{*}$, and thus all the enqueued atoms in Line 3 are dequeued for computing $b^{*}$ in Phase I. Therefore, we can charge them to $D$. Line 7 is trivial. For Line 11, again, the atoms in the enqueued portion $\widehat{y_{R} p^{*}}$ have been dequeued for computing $b^{*}$, we charge those enqueue operations to $D$. For Line 15, note that $p_{R^{\prime}}=\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)$. Since $x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}(b)$, the enqueued portion $\widehat{x_{R} p_{R^{\prime}}}$ is reversed due to the flip of $b$, so we can charge the enqueue to $Q$. The enqueue in Line 19 needs special treatment. Below we discuss that the enqueued atoms there have some special properties and we call those enqueue the special enqueue operations and charge them to $S$. Later, we will prove $|S|=O(n+k)$.

We assume that the reader has read the detailed algorithm discussion for Algorithm 3 in Section 5.5. Note that Line 19 is for the case $w_{L}=q_{L}$ (recall that $w_{L}$ is defined to be $q_{L}$ if $q_{L} \in \widehat{y_{L} z_{L}}$ and $y_{L}$ otherwise). First, note that the enqueue sequence in Line 19 is on $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ of $\partial R^{\prime}$, which is part of $\widehat{q_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ regardless of whether $w_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{R^{\prime}}$ or $q_{R^{\prime}}$. We claim that $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ is part of $\widehat{y_{L} q_{L}}$ on $\partial L$. To prove this claim, it suffices to show that $w_{R^{\prime}}$ is after $y_{L}$ on $\partial L$. Clearly, $w_{R^{\prime}}$ is always after $y_{R^{\prime}}$. Recall that $y_{R^{\prime}}$ is $q^{*}$ or $y_{L}$. If $y_{R^{\prime}}$ is $q^{*}$, then $q^{*}$ is after $y_{L}$ on $\partial L$; else, $y_{R^{\prime}}$ is $y_{L}$. In either case, $y_{R^{\prime}}$ is always after $y_{L}$ on $\partial L$. Consequently, $w_{R^{\prime}}$ is after $y_{L}$ on $\partial L$. The claim thus follows. Hence, the special enqueue sequence is on $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$, which is part of both $\widehat{q_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ and $\widehat{y_{L} q_{L}}$.

Due to $w_{L}=q_{L}, y_{L}$ is before $q_{L}$ on $\partial L$, and in other words $y_{L}$ lies on $\widehat{x_{L} q_{L}}$. By Lemma 12, $\widehat{y_{L} q_{L}}$ is an obstacle arc and thus $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ also lies on that obstacle. For any point $p$ on an atom $A$ of $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$, let $l(p)$ be the directed tangent line of the pseudo-triangle $R^{\prime}$ at $p$. Suppose we move from $p$ along $l(p)$ towards its inverse direction (resp., the direction of $l(p)$ ), and let $a$ (resp., $a^{\prime}$ ) be the first point encountered on any obstacle in $\mathcal{P}$; we call the point $a$ (resp., $a^{\prime}$ ) the backward $\mathcal{P}$-view (resp., forward $\mathcal{P}$-view) of $p$. Let $\mathcal{P}_{\text {back }}(A)$ (resp., $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ ) denote the set of backward (resp., forward) $\mathcal{P}$-view points of the points of $A$. Since $\widehat{x_{R} p_{R^{\prime}}}\left(\right.$ recall $\left.p_{R^{\prime}}=\operatorname{Head}\left(b_{R}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ on $\partial R$ is reversed due to the flip of $b$, by Observation $1, \widehat{x_{R} p_{R^{\prime}}}$ is an obstacle arc. An easy but critical observation is that for any point on $\widehat{q_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$, its backward $\mathcal{P}$-view is on $\widehat{x_{R} p_{R^{\prime}}}$ (see Fig. (14). Since the enqueued portion $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ is part of $\widehat{q_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$, for any point on $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}} \backslash\left\{q_{R^{\prime}}\right\}$, its backward $\mathcal{P}$-view is on $\widehat{x_{R} p_{R^{\prime}}}$, which is reversed due to the flip of $b$. To summarize what have been deduced above, we have (i) the portion of $\partial R^{\prime}$ involved in the special enqueue sequence is $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$, which is an obstacle arc, and (ii) the backward $\mathcal{P}$-view points of all points on $\widehat{w_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}} \backslash\left\{q_{R^{\prime}}\right\}$ lie on $\widehat{x_{R} p_{R^{\prime}}}$, which is an obstacle arc reversed due to
the flip of $b$. We then have the following observation.
Observation 5 Consider a fip operation on a minimal bitangent $b$. If an atom $A$ on $\partial R^{\prime}$ with $R^{\prime}=\operatorname{Rtri}(\varphi(b))$ is involved in a special enqueue operation (for processing the flip of $b$ ), then $A$ is an obstacle arc and $\mathcal{P}_{\text {back }}(A)$ is an obstacle arc reversed due to the flip of $b$.

In addition, if an atom $A$ is an obstacle arc, say, on the obstacle $P$, then for any point $p \in A$, the tangent line of $P$ at $p$ is also the tangent line of the pseudo-triangle (at $p$ ) on which $A$ lies, and vice versa. Thus, as long as the atom $A$ is not reversed in the algorithm, both $\mathcal{P}_{\text {back }}(A)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ will not change. After $A$ is reversed (if this ever happens), $\mathcal{P}_{\text {back }}(A)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ still refer to the same two obstacle arcs but switch names with each other.

The bound of $|S|$ will be discussed later in Lemma 13. Some special enqueue operations also appear in Case 3.

For Case 3 (see Fig. 15), refer to the pseudocode Algorithm 4. There are three enqueue sequences, i.e., Lines 3, 4, and 8, For Line 3, since $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}$ is reversed due to the flip of $b$, we charge the enqueue to $Q$. Line 4 is trivial. For Line 8, we explain below that the enqueue can also be viewed as special enqueue and charged to $S$.

Note that Line 8 is on the case $w_{L}=q_{L}$. Thus, $y_{L} \in \widehat{x_{L} q_{L}}$. By Lemma 12, $\widehat{y_{L} q_{L}}$ is an obstacle arc. Recall that in Case $3 x_{R^{\prime}}$ is either $y_{L}$ or $q^{*}$. If $x_{R^{\prime}}=q^{*}, q^{*}$ is on $\widehat{y_{L} z_{L}}$; otherwise, $x_{R^{\prime}}=y_{L}$. In either case, the enqueued portion in Line 8, i.e., $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$, lies on $\widehat{y_{L} q_{L}}$, which is an obstacle arc. Note that the backward $\mathcal{P}$-view of any point on $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ is on $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}\left(x_{R}=\operatorname{Head}(b)\right.$, see Fig. 15), which is reversed due to the flip of $b$ and is an obstacle arc by Observation (1)

In summary, we have: (i) the enqueued portion $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ in Line 8 is an obstacle arc, and (ii) the backward $\mathcal{P}$-view points of all points on $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ lie on $\widehat{x_{R} p^{*}}$, which is an obstacle arc reversed due to the flip of $b$. Thus, Observation 5 also applies to the enqueue on $\widehat{x_{R^{\prime}} q_{L}}$ in Line 8. Therefore, we also treat the enqueue as special enqueue and charge them to $S$.

We have finished the discussion on charging the enqueue operations in Phase II for all cases. It remains to show $|S|=O(n+k)$. For this, we first give a similar observation on the (possible) special enqueue operations on $\partial L^{\prime}$ with $L^{\prime}=\operatorname{Ltri}(\varphi(b))$ for the flip operation on $b$.

Observation 6 Consider a flip operation on a minimal bitangent $b$. If an atom $A$ on $\partial L^{\prime}$ with $L^{\prime}=\operatorname{Ltri}(\varphi(b))$ is involved in a special enqueue operation (for processing the flip of $b$ ), then $A$ is an obstacle arc and $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ is an obstacle arc reversed due to the flip of $b$.

Based on Lemma 7 and Observations 5 and 6, we prove the following lemma.
Lemma 13 The number $|S|$ of all special enqueue operations in Phase II of the entire algorithm is $O(n+k)$.

Proof: Consider an arbitrary atom $A$ in a good pseudo-triangulation at a moment $\xi_{0}$ during the algorithm ( $A$ may have been reversed). First, it is important to note that $A$ can be involved in a special enqueue operation only if $A$ is an obstacle arc and the special enqueue operation is for processing a flip operation on a minimal bitangent $b$ such that $A$ is on $\partial T$ with $T \in\{\operatorname{Rtri}(\varphi(b)), \operatorname{Ltri}(\varphi(b))\}$. In the following, we show that the atom $A$ can be involved in at most two special enqueue operations before its next reversal (if any). If $A$ is not an obstacle arc, the above statement simply holds. We assume $A$ is an obstacle arc. We assume that the discussion below is on the time period after the moment $\xi_{0}$ and before the next reversal of $A$ (if any), unless otherwise stated.

If the atom $A$ is not involved in any special enqueue operation in the algorithm later on, then we are done. Otherwise, suppose at a later moment $\xi_{1}>\xi_{0}, A$ is involved in a special enqueue operation for processing the flip of a minimal bitangent $t_{1}$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $A$ is on $\partial \operatorname{Rtri}\left(\varphi\left(t_{1}\right)\right)$. Then, by Observation 5, the obstacle arc $\mathcal{P}_{\text {back }}(A)$ is reversed due to the flip of $t_{1}$. By Lemma 7, $\mathcal{P}_{b a c k}(A)$ cannot be reversed again later in the algorithm.

If $A$ is not involved in any special enqueue operation in the algorithm after the moment $\xi_{1}$, then we are done. Otherwise, suppose at a later moment $\xi_{2}>\xi_{1}$, $A$ is involved in a special enqueue operation for processing the flip of a minimal bitangent $t_{2}$. Because $A$ has not been reversed since the moment $\xi_{0}$, as discussed earlier, both $\mathcal{P}_{\text {back }}(A)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ do not change. Then, $A$ cannot be on $\partial \operatorname{Rtri}\left(\varphi\left(t_{2}\right)\right)$ since otherwise, by Observation 5, the obstacle arc $\mathcal{P}_{b a c k}(A)$ would be reversed again due to the flip of $t_{2}$. Hence, $A$ can only be on $\partial \operatorname{Ltri}\left(\varphi\left(t_{2}\right)\right)$. By Observation 6, the obstacle $\operatorname{arc} \mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ is reversed due to the flip of $t_{2}$. By Lemma $7, \mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ cannot be reversed again later.

Consider any flip operation on a minimal bitangent $t_{3}$ in the algorithm at any later moment $\xi_{3}>\xi_{2}$. Because $A$ has not been reversed since the moment $\xi_{0}$, both $\mathcal{P}_{\text {back }}(A)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ do not change. No matter whether $A$ is on $\partial \operatorname{Rtri}\left(\varphi\left(t_{3}\right)\right)$ or $\partial \operatorname{Ltri}\left(\varphi\left(t_{3}\right)\right)$, $A$ cannot be involved in any special enqueue operation for processing the flip of $t_{3}$, since otherwise, by Observations 5 and 6 , the obstacle arc $\mathcal{P}_{\text {back }}(A)$ or $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ would be reversed again due to the flip of $t_{3}$.

Therefore, we obtain that $A$ can be involved in at most two special enqueue operations before its next reversal (if any). By Lemma 7, $A$ can be reversed at most once. We now claim that $A$ can be involved in at most two special enqueue operations in the entire algorithm. Indeed, if $A$ is involved in two special enqueue operations before its reversal (if any), then both $\mathcal{P}_{\text {back }}(A)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ are reversed before the reversal of $A$. Note that after $A$ is reversed, $\mathcal{P}_{b a c k}(A)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ refer to the same two obstacle arcs but switch names with each other. Since neither of $\mathcal{P}_{\text {back }}(A)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ can be reversed again, the reversed atom $A$ cannot be involved in any special enqueue operation in the rest of the algorithm. If $A$ is involved in one special enqueue operation before its reversal, then exactly one of $\mathcal{P}_{b a c k}(A)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ is reversed before the reversal of $A$. After $A$ is reversed, only one of $\mathcal{P}_{\text {back }}(A)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\text {for }}(A)$ (with their names switched with each other) can possibly be reversed, and thus in this situation the reversed $A$ can be involved in at most one special enqueue operation in the rest of the algorithm. Finally, if $A$ has not been involved in any special enqueue operation before its reversal, then the claim simply holds. Therefore, the claim is true and the atom $A$ can be involved in at most two special enqueue operations in the entire algorithm.

Since the number of all atoms in the algorithm is $O(n+k)$, the number of all special enqueue operations in Phase II of the entire algorithm is $O(n+k)$, i.e., $|S|=O(n+k)$.

## 7 Computing a Shortest Path in the Relevant Visibility Graph

In this section, we compute a shortest path from $s$ to $t$ in $G$, which is the relevant visibility graph of the $O(h)$ pairwise disjoint convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ with a total of $O(n)$ vertices. Recall that $k$ is the number of the free common tangents of all splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$. For convenience, we assume that the number of convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ is $h$ and the total number of splinegon vertices is $n$. Let $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}=\left\{S_{1}, S_{2}, \ldots, S_{h}\right\}$ 。

To find a shortest path from $s$ to $t$ in the graph $G$, since $G$ has $O(k)$ nodes and $O(k)$ edges, simply running Dijkstra's algorithm on $G$ would take $O(k \log k)$ time. To avoid the $\log k$ factor, we transform $G$ to a coalesced graph $G^{c}$ such that: (1) $G^{c}$ has only $O(h)$ nodes and $O(k)$ edges; (2) a shortest $s$ - $t$ path in $G$ corresponds to a shortest $s-t$ path in $G^{c}$, which can be found in $O(h \log h+k)$ time. This approach is quite similar to that in [7] for computing a shortest $s$ - $t$ path among $n$ convex
pseudodisks of $O(1)$ complexity each. In general, the approach in [7] relies only on the convexity of the objects involved and thus is applicable to our problem setting. Note that the idea of using a coalesced graph was first proposed by Hershberger and Guibas [22], but the definition of the coalesced graph and its construction in [7] are both different from those in [22]. We extend the method in [7] to solving our problem in the splinegon setting.

As the approach in [7], a key to our algorithm is to compute a set of $O(h)$ "distinguished points" on the boundaries of the splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, which are then used to construct $G^{c}$. By a proof similar to that in [7], a set of $O(h)$ distinguished points can be obtained easily once the Voronoi diagram of the convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ is available. Denote by $\operatorname{VD}\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ the Voronoi diagram of the $h$ convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$. The next lemma follows from the results in [7].

Lemma 14 [7] After the Voronoi diagram $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ is built, the coalesced graph $G^{c}$ with $O(h)$ nodes and $O(k)$ edges can be constructed in $O(n+k+h \log h)$ time.

It remains to describe how to compute $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$. In Section 7.1, we will show that $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ can be computed in $O(n+h \log h)$ time and $O(n)$ space, which is optimal. Thus, we have the following result.

Theorem $2 A$ shortest s-t path for the convex SPSD can be found in $O(n+h \log h+k)$ time, where $k=O\left(h^{2}\right)$ is the number of free common tangents among the convex splinegons of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$.

Recently, Chen et al. 5] have shown the following result: Suppose we can prove that a distinguished point set $P$ with $|P|=O(h)$ exists; then another distinguished point set $P^{\prime}$ with $\left|P^{\prime}\right|=O(h)$ can be found by a simple greedy algorithm in $O(n+k)$ time. Since it is proved that such a set $P$ exists [7], we can use the algorithm in [5] to compute another set $P^{\prime}$ without computing the Voronoi diagram $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$. In this way, the coalesced graph $G^{c}$ can still be constructed in $O(n+k+h \log h)$ time by using the distinguished points in $P^{\prime}$. However, since computing $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ itself is an interesting problem, we choose to present our optimal solution for it in Section 7.1.

### 7.1 The Voronoi Diagram of Convex Splinegons

In this section, we compute the Voronoi diagram $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ for a set $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ of $h$ pairwise disjoint convex splinegons of totally $n$ vertices. To our best knowledge, no efficient algorithm was given previously for it. By extending Fortune's sweeping algorithm [19], one may obtain an $O(n+h \log h \log n)$ time solution for it. For the convex polygon case (i.e., all splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ are convex polygons), $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ can be computed in $O(n+h \log h)$ time [34]. We show that by generalizing the algorithm in 34], $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ for the convex splinegon case can also be computed in $O(n+h \log h)$ time (as in [34], we assume that the edges of each input splinegon are represented as a cyclically ordered list). Note that since the combinatorial complexity of each splinegon edge is $O(1)$, we assume the bisector of any two splinegon edges can be computed in constant time.

In fact, as in [34, we achieve a stronger result: The compact diagram (to be defined below) of the convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ can be computed in $O(h \log n)$ time, from which $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ can be derived in additional $O(n)$ time. Note that $h \log n=O(n+h \log h)$. As in [34] and to be discussed later, the compact diagram has several advantages over the "normal" Voronoi diagram.

We first formally define the compact diagram of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, denoted by $C D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$. We follow the terminology in [34. Consider a convex splinegon $S \in \mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, which is contained in a Voronoi cell of $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$, say $C_{S}$. For each Voronoi vertex $v$ on the boundary of $C_{S}$, we draw a line segment from $v$ to its closest point, say $p_{v}$, on $S$. The segment $\overline{v p_{v}}$ is called the spoke from $v$ to $S$ and the point


Figure 21: Illustrating the compact diagram of a set of convex splinegons: The black polygons are the cores of the splinegons. The Voronoi diagram of the splinegons is shown with dashed curves.
$p_{v}$ is called the spoke attachment point. If the cell $C_{S}$ is unbounded, then there is a point on $\partial S$ whose normal does not intersect the cell boundary; we view this normal as a spoke from an infinite Voronoi vertex to $S$. The core of $S$ is the convex hull of all spoke attachment points on $S$. The compact diagram $C D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ is the union of all spokes and cores of the splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ (see Fig. 21). Theorem 3 gives the algorithm for computing $C D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$.

Besides its efficient construction, the compact diagram has several advantages over the Voronoi diagram. Note that while the Voronoi diagram $\operatorname{VD}\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ may have $O(n)$ high degree (but still constant) algebraic curves (whose shapes depend on the boundaries of the convex splinegons of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ ), the compact diagram $C D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ consists of only $O(h)$ line segments. This feature makes the compact diagram easier and more efficient to display and represent. In addition, for applications in which knowing only two candidates for the closest splinegons is sufficient, the original splinegons can be discarded and only the $O(h)$ segments of $C D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ need to be stored, using $O(h)$ instead of $O(n)$ space. In [34], two applications of the compact diagram were discussed, i.e., the post-office problem and the retraction motion planning problem, in which the sites were modeled as convex polygons. With our results, if the sites are modeled as convex splinegons, then the corresponding post-office problem and the retraction motion planning problem can be handled similarly with the same performance as in [34. Our results may also find other applications.

Theorem 3 The compact diagram $C D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ of the convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ can be computed in $O(h \log n)$ time, from which the Voronoi diagram $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ can be derived in additional $O(n)$ time.

Proof: We first focus on computing $C D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$. For this, we generalize the corresponding algorithm in [34]. Given a set $\mathcal{P}$ of $h$ pairwise disjoint convex polygons of totally $n$ vertices (each polygon is represented in a standard fashion), McAllister, Kirkpatrick, and Snoeyink gave an algorithm 34] for computing the compact diagram of the convex polygons of $\mathcal{P}$ in $O(h \log n)$ time. We refer to their algorithm as the MKS algorithm. We first sketch the MKS algorithm and then discuss our generalization of it on the convex splinegon set $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$.

Like Fortune's approach [19], the MKS algorithm is a sweeping algorithm, sweeping the convex polygons of $\mathcal{P}$ from (say) left to right. As in Fortune's algorithm, the Voronoi cell boundary maintained by the sweepline is called the sweep front or beach line, which consists of Voronoi edges between the sweepline and some polygons. A maximal connected portion of the sweep front between the sweepline and a single polygon is called a front arc. There are two types of events in the sweeping process. A site event occurs when the sweepline reaches the leftmost point of a polygon. A circle event occurs when the sweepline reaches the rightmost point of a circle that is tangent to three polygons of some consecutive front arcs on the sweep front. Clearly, there are $O(h)$
site events and $O(h)$ circle events. The MKS algorithm focuses on computing the vertices of the Voronoi diagram as well as identifying the polygons that generate those Voronoi vertices. Two data structures are maintained by the sweeping algorithm: A balanced binary search tree that stores the sweep front and a priority queue that schedules the events in the order that the sweepline will encounter them.

Generalizing Fortune's algorithm in a straightforward manner would take $O(h \log h \log n)$ time since every site event is processed in $O(\log h \log n)$ time. Specifically, at each site event, the sweepline is at the leftmost point, say $p$, of a polygon, and it needs to determine the front arc on the sweep front that is closest to $p$. A straightforward processing of this task takes $O(\log h \log n)$ time. Based on a critical observation [34], the MKS algorithm handles each site event in $O(\log n)$ time. This observation states that the sweepline can be partitioned into disjoint intervals such that finding the nearest front arc to the point $p$ is equivalent to locating in which interval the point $p$ lies, which can be carried out in $O(\log n)$ time. Two subroutines heavily used in the MKS algorithm are $\operatorname{spoke}(p, A)$ and $\operatorname{vertex}(A, B, C)$. Given a convex polygon $A$ and a point $p$ outside $A, \operatorname{spoke}(p, A)$ returns the closest point on $A$ to $p$, which can be implemented in $O(\log n)$ time by binary search. The subroutine vertex $(A, B, C)$ takes three convex polygons $A, B$, and $C$ as input and computes a finite or an infinite Voronoi vertex $v$ such that the Voronoi cells for the polygons $A, B$, and $C$ occur in a counterclockwise order around $v$. An advanced technique developed in [33], called tentative prune-and-search, is used to implement vertex $(A, B, C)$ in $O(\log n)$ time.

A generalization of the MKS algorithm to computing $C D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ for our convex splinegon set $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ turns out to be quite natural. First, for each convex splinegon $S$ of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, we consider its leftmost and rightmost points as two new vertices of $S$, which may partition at most two splinegon edges of $S$ into two new edges each. This step can be done in $O(h \log n)$ time by binary search on each splinegon in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$. After this step, for each splinegon edge of the splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, any vertical line can intersect it at most once. Next, we sweep the splinegons of $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ from left to right. We define the site events and circle events similarly as in the MKS algorithm. Clearly, there are still $O(h)$ site events and $O(h)$ circle events. We also maintain the two data structures for storing the sweep front and for scheduling the events. Essentially, the MKS algorithm relies on the convexity of the objects involved. Since the splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ are convex, the scheme of the MKS algorithm is still applicable. For example, the critical observation used by the MKS algorithm for handling site events is based on the convexity of the polygons. In our problem, at each site event, the sweepline is at the leftmost point, say $p$, of a convex splinegon. To determine the nearest front arc on the sweep front that is closest to $p$, by following the same approach as for the MKS algorithm, we can also partition the sweepline into disjoint intervals such that finding the nearest front arc to the point $p$ is equivalent to locating in which interval the point $p$ lies.

For the implementation details and the running time of our compact diagram algorithm, in general, since each splinegon edge is of $O(1)$ complexity, the operations on splinegons edges needed in the algorithm can be performed in the same order of time asymptotically as those on polygon edges in the MKS algorithm. Obviously, the subroutine $\operatorname{spoke}(p, A)$ can be implemented in $O(\log n)$ time by a binary search. For the subroutine $\operatorname{vertex}(A, B, C)$, the tentative prune-andsearch technique [33] is also applicable to our problem. Specifically, this technique defines three continuous, monotone-decreasing functions that rely only on the convexity of the objects involved. In our problem, since all splinegons are convex, we can define three such functions in exactly the same way as those for convex polygons in the MKS algorithm. One basic operation needed in our algorithm is: For any point $p$ on the boundary of a convex splinegon $S_{i} \in \mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, compute the normal of $S_{i}$ at $p$. Since each splinegon edge is of $O(1)$ complexity, this operation takes $O(1)$ time, as
in the convex polygon case. Other operations can also be performed in the same order of time as their counterparts in the convex polygon case. We omit the details. Therefore, the subroutine vertex $(A, B, C)$ can be implemented in $O(\log n)$ time.

We conclude that the compact diagram $C D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ can be computed in $O(h \log n)$ time.
Since each splinegon edge is of $O(1)$ complexity, as in [34], the Voronoi diagram $V D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ can be derived from $C D\left(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)$ in an additional $O(n)$ time. The theorem thus follows.

## 8 Wrapping Things Up

We now show how to find a shortest $s$ - $t$ path for our original SPSD problem on the splinegon set $\mathcal{S}$. In Section 4, we build a corridor structure to obtain $O(h)$ corridor paths and a set $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ of $O(h)$ pairwise disjoint convex splinegons with a total of $O(n)$ vertices such that a shortest $s$ - $t$ path for SPSD is also a shortest $s$ - $t$ path avoiding the convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ and possibly utilizing some corridor paths. In Section 7, based on $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$, we construct a coalesced graph $G^{c}$ such that: (1) $G^{c}$ has only $O(h)$ nodes and $O(k)$ edges; (2) a shortest s-t path avoiding the convex splinegons in $\mathcal{S}^{\prime}$ corresponds to a shortest $s$ - $t$ path in $G^{c}$.

To compute a shortest $s$ - $t$ path for our original SPSD problem, our final step is to incorporate the $O(h)$ corridor paths into the graph $G^{c}$ to obtain a new graph $G_{a}^{c}$ such that a shortest s-t path for SPSD corresponds to a shortest $s-t$ path in $G_{a}^{c}$, as follows.

Recall that a corridor path connects the two apices of two funnels. When building $G^{c}$, in addition to other distinguished points, we also treat all the $O(h)$ funnel apices as distinguished points. In this way, every funnel apex defines two vertices in $G^{c}$ since every distinguished point defines two vertices in $G^{c}$ (refer to [7] on this). Consider a corridor path connecting two funnel apices $u$ and $v$. Suppose the two vertices in $G^{c}$ defined by $u$ (resp., $v$ ) are $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$ (resp., $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ ). After obtaining $G^{c}$, we add to $G^{c}$ eight directed edges $e\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right), e\left(u_{1}, v_{2}\right), e\left(u_{2}, v_{1}\right), e\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right), e\left(v_{1}, u_{1}\right), e\left(v_{1}, u_{2}\right), e\left(v_{2}, u_{1}\right)$, and $e\left(v_{2}, u_{2}\right)$, whose weights are the length of the corresponding corridor path. We do this for each corridor path, and then obtain the graph $G_{a}^{c}$. Since there are $O(h)$ corridor paths, the graph $G_{a}^{c}$, which still has $O(h)$ nodes and $O(k)$ edges, can be constructed in $O(n+h \log h+k)$ time. A shortest $s-t$ path for SPSD can then be computed by running Dijkstra's algorithm on $G_{a}^{c}$, in $O(h \log h+k)$ time.

In summary, we have the following result.
Theorem 4 Given a set $\mathcal{S}$ of $h$ pairwise disjoint splinegons with a total of $n$ vertices in the plane, a shortest s-t path in the free space can be computed in $O(n \log n+k)$ time or $O\left(n+h \log ^{1+\epsilon} h+k\right)$ time for any arbitrarily small constant $\epsilon>0$, where $k$ is the size of the relevant visibility graph and $k=O\left(h^{2}\right)$.

## 9 Conclusions

In this paper, we present an efficient algorithm for computing shortest paths among curved obstacles in the plane. For curved obstacles, previous solutions were known only for convex curved obstacles while our approach works for non-convex curved obstacles. Even if applied to polygonal obstacles, our algorithm is faster than the previous best $O(n \log n)$ time solution [23] when the number of obstacles is small (e.g., $h=o(\sqrt{n \log n})$ ). As a subproblem that is interesting in its own right, we give an output sensitive optimal $O(n+h \log h+k)$ time algorithm for computing the relevant
visibility graph of convex curved obstacles; even if applied to convex polygonal obstacles, our algorithm is better than the previous best $O\left(n+h^{2} \log n\right)$ time solution [29, 40].

It would be interesting to see whether the techniques developed in this paper can be used to solve other related problems on curved objects.

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    ${ }^{\dagger}$ Department of Computer Science and Engineering, University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, IN 46556, USA. E-mail: dchen@cse.nd.edu. D.Z. Chen's research was supported in part by NSF under Grant CCF-1217906.
    ${ }^{\ddagger}$ Corresponding author. Department of Computer Science, Utah State University, Logan, UT 84322, USA. E-mail: haitao.wang@usu.edu. H. Wang's research was supported in part by NSF under Grant CCF-1317143.

[^1]:    ${ }^{\dagger}$ If $p$ is on a bitangent, then $p$ is also contained in another pseudo-triangle $T^{\prime}$, in which case the pt-slope thus

